Summary Leadership: Theory and Practice Chapter 1-4, 6, 8,9,11,12,14

Leadership, sustainability & governance (Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam)

Chapter 1: Introduction

Even after decades of dissonance, leadership scholars cannot come up with a common definition for leadership. There are different approaches of leadership:

- *Focus of group processes* → the leader is at the centre of group change and activity and embodies the will of the group.
- *Personality perspective* → leadership is a combination of special traits or characteristics that some individuals possess.
- *An act or a behaviour* → the things leaders do to bring about change in a group.
- *Power relationship* → leaders have power that they wield to effect change in others.
- *Transformational process* → leaders move followers to accomplish more than is usually expected from them.
- *Skills perspective* → stresses the capabilities that make effective leadership possible.

Despite the multitude of ways in which leadership has been conceptualized, the following components can be identified as central to the phenomenon:

- Leadership is a process
- Leadership involves influence
- Leadership occurs in groups
- Leadership involves common goals → attention to common goals gives leadership an ethical overtone because it stresses the need for leaders to work with followers to achieve selected goals. Stressing mutuality lessens the possibility that leaders might act towards followers in ways that are forced or unethical.

Based on these components, the following definition is used in the book:

Leadership → a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

The *trait perspective* suggests that certain individuals have special innate or inborn characteristics or qualities that make them leaders, and that it is these qualities that differentiate them from nonleaders. To describe leadership as a trait is quite different from describing it as a process. The *process viewpoint* suggests that leadership is a phenomenon that resides in the context of the interactions between leaders and followers and makes leadership available to everyone. As a process, leadership can be observed in leader behaviour, and can be learned.

Some people are leaders because of their formal position in an organization, whereas others are leaders because of the way other group members respond to them. These two common forms of leadership are called *assigned leadership* and *emergent leadership*. Yet the person assigned to a leadership position does not always become the real leader in a particular setting.

A unique perspective on leadership emergence is provided by *social identity theory* → emergence is the degree to which a person fits with the identity of the group as a whole.

The concept of power is related to leadership because it is part of the influence process. Power is the capacity or potential to influence. French and Raven identified five common and important bases of power:

1. **Referent** → based on followers' identification and liking for the leader.
2. **Expert** → based on followers' perceptions of the leader's competence.
3. **Legitimate** → associated with having status or formal job authority.
4. **Reward** → derived from having the capacity to provide rewards to others.
5. **Coercive** → derived from having the capacity to penalize or punish others.

Each of these bases of power increases a leader's capacity to influence the attitudes, values, or behaviours of others.

In organizations, there are two major kinds of power:

1. **Personal power** → the influence capacity a leader derives from being seen by followers as likeable and knowledgeable. Personal power includes referent and expert power.
2. **Position power** → the power a person derives from a particular office or rank in a formal organizational system. It is the influence capacity a leader derives from having higher status than the followers have. Position power includes legitimate, reward, and coercive power.

Leadership and management have both similarities and dissimilarities. The overriding function of management is for example to provide order and consistency to organizations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Management is about seeking order and stability, leadership is about seeking adaptive and constructive change.

To be effective, organizations need to nourish both competent management and skilled leadership.

Chapter 2: Trait approach

Although the research on traits spanned the entire 20th century, a good overview of this approach is found in two surveys completed by Stogdill. Whereas the first survey (1948) implied that leadership is determined principally by situational factors and not personality factors, the second survey (1974) argued moderately that both personality and situational factors were determinants of leadership.

Mann (1959) conducted a similar study, but placed less emphasis on how situational factors influenced leadership. He suggested that personality traits could be used to distinguish leaders from nonleaders.

Lord et al. (1986) reassessed Mann's findings using a more sophisticated procedure called meta-analysis.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) contended that leadership traits make some people different from others, and this difference should be recognized as an important part of the leadership process.

Social intelligence → those abilities to understand one's own and others' feelings, behaviours, and thoughts and to act appropriately. Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader (2004) included social abilities such as social awareness, social acumen, self-monitoring and the ability to select and enact the best response given the contingencies of the situation and social environment, in the categories of leadership traits they outlined as important leadership attributes.

This summary of the traits and characteristic that were identified by researchers from the trait approaches represents a general convergence of research regarding which traits are leadership traits.

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)	Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader (2004)
Intelligence Alertness Insight Responsibility Initiative Persistence Self-confidence Sociability	*Intelligence Masculinity Adjustment Dominance Extraversion Conservatism*	*Achievement Persistence Insight Initiative Self-confidence Responsibility Cooperativeness Tolerance Influence Sociability*	*Intelligence Masculinity Dominance*	*Drive Motivation Integrity Confidence Cognitive ability Task knowledge*	*Cognitive ability Extraversion Conscientiousness Emotional stability Openness Agreeableness Motivation Social intelligence Self-monitoring Emotional intelligence Problem solving*

The traits that are central to this list include:

- **Intelligence** → having strong verbal ability, perceptual ability, and reasoning appears to make one a better leader.
- **Self-confidence** → the ability to be certain about one's competencies and skills. It includes a sense of self-esteem and self-assurance and the belief that one can make a difference.
- **Determination** → the desire to get the job done and includes characteristic such as initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive.
- **Integrity** → the quality of honesty and trustworthiness.
- **Sociability** → one's inclination to seek out pleasant social relationships. Leaders who show sociability are friendly, outgoing, courteous, tactful, and diplomatic.

Over the past 25 years, a consensus has emerged among researchers regarding the basic factors that make up what we call personality. These factors, commonly called the Big Five, are the following, which have the tendency to:

1. **Neuroticism** → be depressed, anxious, insecure, vulnerable and hostile.
2. **Extraversion** → be sociable and assertive and to have positive energy.
3. **Openness** → be informed, creative, insightful, and curious.
4. **Agreeableness** → be accepting, conforming, trusting, and nurturing.
5. **Conscientiousness** → be thorough, organized, controlled, dependable and decisive.

Another way of assessing the impact of traits on leadership is through the concept of emotional intelligence, which emerged in the 1990s as an important area of study in psychology. It has to do with our emotions (affective domain) and thinking (cognitive domain), and the interplay between the two. Whereas *intelligence* is concerned with our ability to learn information and apply it to life tasks, *emotional intelligence* can be defined as the ability to perceive and express emotions, to use emotions to facilitate thinking, to understand an reason with emotions, and to effectively manage emotions within oneself and in relationships with others.

The trait approach focuses exclusively on the leader, not on the followers or the situation. This makes it more straightforward than other approaches. The trait approach emphasizes that having a leader with a certain set of traits is crucial to having effective leadership.

The trait approach has several identifiable strengths:

- *It is intuitively appealing*. It fits clearly with our notion that leaders are the individuals who are out front and leading the way in our society.
- *It has a century of research to back it up.* It gives this approach a measure of credibility that other approaches lack.
- *It highlights the leader component in the leadership process*. The trait approach has provided us with a deeper and more intricate understanding of how the leader and its personality are related to the leadership process.
- *It has given us some benchmarks for what we need to look for if we want to be leaders.*

The trait approach also has several weaknesses:

- *It fails to delimit a definitive list of leadership traits.* The list of traits that has emerged appears endless.
- *It doesn't take situations into account*. As Stogdill pointed out more than 50 years ago, it is difficult to isolate a set of traits that are characteristic of leaders without also factoring situational effects into the equation. People who possess certain traits that make them leaders in one situation may not be leaders in another situation.
- *It has resulted in highly subjective determinations of the most important traits*.
- *It doesn't look at traits in relationship to leadership outcomes*.

- *It is not a useful approach for training and development for leadership*. Traits are largely fixed psychological structures, and this limits the value of teaching and leadership training.

Organizations use a wide variety of questionnaires to measure individuals' personality characteristics. In many organizations, it is common practice to use standard personality measures such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory or the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

The Leadership Trait Questionnaire (LTQ) measures an individual's traits and points the individual to the areas in which that individual may have special strengths or weaknesses.

Chapter 3: Skills approach

Like the trait approach, the skills approach takes a leader-centered perspective on leadership. However, in the skills approach the thinking is shifted from a focus on personality characteristics, which usually are viewed as innate and largely fixed, to an emphasis on skills and abilities that can be learned and developed. Although personality certainly plays an integral role in leadership, the skills approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership.

Katz's article (1955) appeared at a time when researchers were trying to identify a definitive set of leadership traits. Katz's approach was an attempt to transcend the trait problem by addressing leadership as a set of developable skills. He suggested that effective administration depends on three basic personal skills:

1. **Technical skill** → knowledge about and proficiency in a specific type of work or activity. It includes competencies in a specialized area, analytical ability, and the ability to use appropriate tools and techniques.
2. **Human skill** → knowledge about and ability to work with people. It is quite different from technical skill, which has to do with working with things. They are the abilities that help a leader to work effectively with subordinates, peers, and superiors to accomplish the organization's goals.
3. **Conceptual skill** → the ability to work with ideas and concepts. Whereas technical skills deal with things and human skills deal with people, conceptual skills involve the ability to work with ideas. Conceptual skills are central to creating a vision and strategic plan for an organization.

It is important for leaders to have all three skills, depending on where they are in the management structure, however, some skills are more important than others are.

Top management

Technical	Human	Conceptual

Middle management

Technical	Human	Conceptual

Supervisory management

Technical	Human	Conceptual

Katz's work in the mid-1950s set the stage for conceptualizing leadership in terms of skills, but it was not until the mid-1990s the approach received recognition in leadership research.

Based on extensive findings from a project, Mumford and colleagues formulated a skill-based model of leadership. It is characterized as a capability model because it examines the relationship between a leader's knowledge and skills and the leader's performance. Leadership capabilities can be developed over time through education and experience.

It suggests that many people have the potential for leadership. The skill-based model of Mumford's group has five components:

1. **Competencies**
   - *Problem-solving skills* → a leader's creative ability to solve new and unusual, ill-defined organizational problems. The skills include being able to define significant problems, gather problem information, formulate new understandings about the problem, and generate prototype plans for problem solutions.
   - *Social judgment skills* → the capacity to understand people and social systems. They enable leaders to work with others to solve problems and to marshal support to implement change within an organization.
     - *Perspective taking* means understanding the attitudes that others have toward a particular problem or solution.
     - *Social perceptiveness* is insights and awareness into how others in the organization function.
     - *Behavioural flexibility* is the capacity to change and adapt one's behaviour in light of an understanding of others' perspectives in the organization.
     - *Social performance* includes a wide range of leadership competencies. Based on an understanding of employees' perspectives, leaders need to be able to communicate their own vision to others.
   - *Knowledge* → inextricably related to the application and implementation of problem-solving skills in organizations. It is the accumulation of information and the mental structures used to organize that information.

2. **Individual attributes**
   - *General cognitive ability* → a person's intelligence. It includes perceptual processing, information processing, general reasoning skills, creative and divergent thinking capacity, and memory skills.

- *Crystallized cognitive ability* → intellectual ability that is learned or acquired over time. It includes being able to comprehend complex information and learn new skills and information, as well as being able to communicate to others in oral and written forms.
- *Motivation*
    - Leaders must be willing to tackle complex organizational problems.
    - Leaders must be willing to express dominance, to exert their influence.
    - Leaders must be committed to the social good of the organization, the overall human good and value of the organization.
- *Personality* → has an impact on the development of our leadership skills.
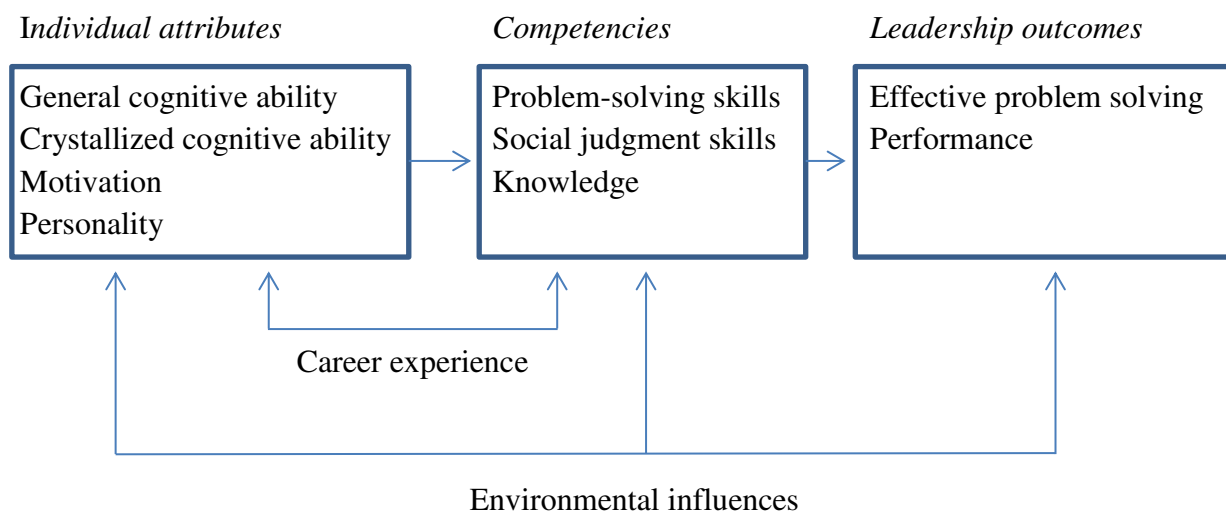
3. **Leadership outcomes**
   - *Effective problem solving* → involves creating solutions that are logical, effective, and unique, and that go beyond given information.
   - *Performance* → the degree to which a leader has successfully performed the assigned duties.

4. **Career experience**

Career experiences have an impact on the characteristics and competencies of leaders. The skills model suggests that the experiences acquired in the course of leaders' careers influence their knowledge and skills to solve complex problems.

5. **Environmental influences**
   - *Internal environmental influences* → include such factors as technology, facilities, expertise of subordinates, and communication.
   - *External environmental influences* → include economic, political, and social issues as well as natural disasters.

Individual attributes *Competencies* *Leadership outcomes*

| General cognitive ability
Crystallized cognitive ability
Motivation
Personality | Problem-solving skills
Social judgment skills
Knowledge | Effective problem solving
Performance |

Career experience

Environmental influences

Strengths of the skills approach:

- *It is a leader-centered model that stresses the importance of developing particular leadership skills.* It is the first approach to conceptualize and create a structure of the process of leadership around skills. Whereas the early research on skills highlighted the importance of skills and the value of skills across different management levels, the later work placed learned skills at the center of effective leadership performance at all management levels.
- *It is intuitively appealing.* When leadership is framed as a set of skills, it becomes a process that people can study and practice to become better at performing their jobs.
- *It provides a wide view of leadership that incorporates a wide variety of components.*
- *It provides an expansive structure that is consistent with the curricula of most leadership education programs.*

Weaknesses of the skills approach:

- *The breadth of the skills approach seems to extend beyond the boundaries of leadership.* By including so many components, the skills model of Mumford and others becomes more general and less precise in explaining leadership performance.
- *It is weak in predictive value.* The model can be faulted because it does not explain how skills lead to effective leadership performance.
- *It claims not to be a trait model when, in fact, a major component in the model includes individual attributes, which are trait-like.*
- *It may not be suitably or appropriately applied to other contexts of leadership, because it was constructed using data only from military personnel.*

Chapter 4: Style approach

The style approach emphasizes the behaviour of the leader. This distinguishes it from the trait approach, which emphasizes the personality characteristics of the leader, and the skills approach, which emphasizes the leader's capabilities.

Researchers studying the style approach determined that leadership is composed of two general kinds of behaviours:

1. *Task behaviour* → facilitates goal accomplishment, they help group members to achieve their objectives.
2. *Relationship behaviour* → help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves.

The central purpose of the style approach is to explain how leaders combine these two kinds of behaviours to influence subordinates in their efforts to reach a goal. Many studies have been conducted to investigate the style approach.

The Ohio State Studies

A group of researchers at Ohio State believed that the results of studying leadership as a personality trait seemed fruitless and decided to analyse how individuals acted when they were leading a group or an organization. This analysis was conducted by having subordinates complete questionnaires about their leaders. On the questionnaires, subordinates had to identify the number of times their leaders engaged in certain types of behaviours.

Researchers found that subordinates' responses on the questionnaire clustered around two general types of leader behaviours:

- *Initiating structure* → are essentially task behaviours, including such acts as organizing work, giving structure to the work context, defining role responsibilities, and scheduling work activities.
- *Consideration* → are essentially relationship behaviours and include building camaraderie, respect, trust, and liking between leaders and followers.

The two types of behaviours identified by the LBDQ-XII represent the core of the style approach and are central to what leaders do: they provide structure for subordinates, and they nurture them.

The University of Michigan Studies

Whereas researchers at Ohio states were developing the LBDQ, researchers at the University of Michigan were also exploring leadership behaviour, giving special attention to the impact of leaders' behaviours on the performance of small groups.

The program identified two types of leadership:

- *Employee orientation* → the behaviour of leaders who approach subordinates with a strong human relations emphasis. Employee orientation is very similar to the cluster of behaviours identified as consideration in the Ohio State studies.
- *Production orientation* → stresses the technical and production aspects of a job. This parallels the initiating structure cluster found in the Ohio State studies.

Unlike the Ohio State researchers, the Michigan researchers, in their initial studies, conceptualized employee and production orientation as opposite ends of a single continuum. This suggested that leaders who were oriented toward production were less oriented toward employees, and the other way around. As more studies were completed, however, the researchers reconceptualised the two constructs as two independent leadership orientations.

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

Perhaps the best known model of managerial behaviour is the Managerial Grid, which first appeared in the early 1960s and has been refined and revised several times. It was designed to explain how leaders help organizations to reach their purposes through two factors:

- *Concern for production* → how a leader is concerned with achieving organizational tasks. It involves a wide range of activities, including attention to policy decisions, new product development, process issues, workload, and sales volume. Not limited to an organization's manufactured product or service, concern for production can refer to whatever the organization is seeking to accomplish.
- *Concern for people* → how a leader attends to the people in the organization who are trying to achieve its goals. This concern includes building organizational commitment and trust, promoting the personal worth of employees, providing good working conditions, maintaining a fair salary structure, and promoting good social relations.

The Managerial Grid joins concern for production and concern for people in a model that has two intersecting axes. The horizontal axis represents the leader's concern for results, and the vertical axis represents the leader's concern for people. Each of the axes is drawn as a 9-point scale on which a score of 1 represents a minimum concern and 9 a maximum concern. By plotting scores from each of the axes, five major leadership styles can be illustrated:

1. Authority-compliance (9,1)
2. Country-club management (1,9)
3. Impoverished management (1,1)
4. Middle-of-the-road management (5,5)
5. Team management (9,9)

In addition to the five major styles described, Blake and his colleagues have identified two other styles that incorporate multiple aspects of the grid.

Paternalism/maternalism → a leader who uses both 1,9 and 9,1 styles but does not integrate the two. In essence, the style treats people as if they were dissociated from the task.

Opportunism → a leader who uses any combination of the basic five styles for the purpose of personal advancement. An opportunistic leader will adapt and shift his or her leadership style to gain personal advantage, putting self-interest ahead of other priorities.

Blake and Mouton (1985) indicated that people usually have a dominant grid style and a backup style. The backup style is what the leader reverts to when under pressure, when the usual way of accomplishing things does not work.
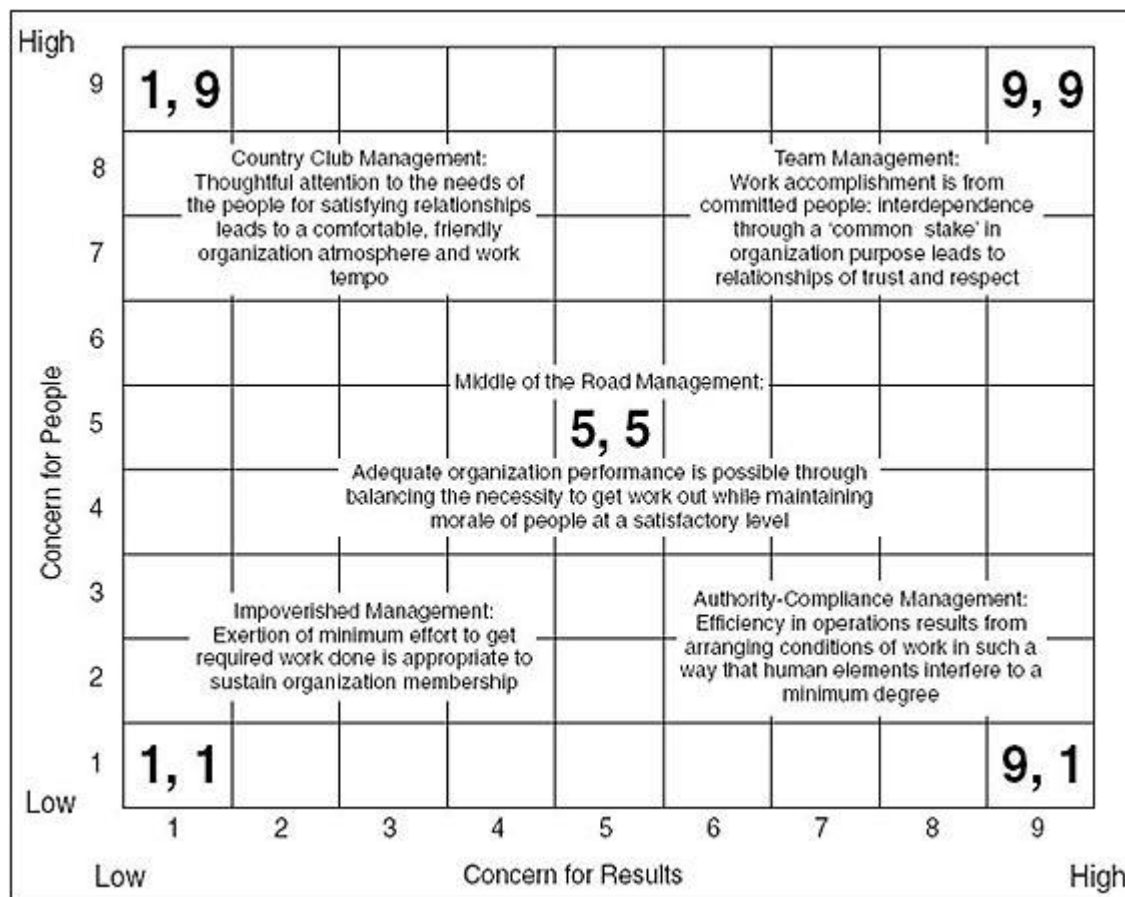
The style approach provides a framework for assessing leadership in a broad way, as behaviour with a task and relationship dimension. The style approach works not by telling leaders how to behave, but by describing the major components of their behaviour. It gives leaders a way to look at their own behaviour by subdividing it into two dimensions.

Strengths of the style approach:

- *It marked a major shift in the general focus of leadership research.* Before the inception of the style approach, researchers treated leadership exclusively as a personality trait. The style approach broadened the scope of leadership research to include the behaviours of leaders and what they do in various situations.
- *A wide range of studies on leadership style validates and gives credibility to the basic tenets of the approach.* It is substantiated by a multitude of research studies that offer a viable approach to understanding the leadership process.
- *It consists primarily of two major types of behaviours: task and relationship.*
- *It is heuristic.* It provides us with a broad conceptual map that is worthwhile to use in our attempts to understand the complexities of leadership.

Weaknesses of the style approach:

- *The research on styles has not adequately shown how leaders' styles are associated with performance outcomes.*

- *It has failed to find a universal style of leadership that could be effective in almost every situation.* Similar to the trait approach, which was unable to identify the definitive personal characteristics of leaders, the style approach has been unable to identify the universal behaviours that are associated with effective leadership.
- *It implies that the most effective leadership style is the high-high style.* Although some researchers suggested that high-high managers are most effective, that may not be the case in all situations. In fact, the full range of research findings provides only limited support for a universal high-high style.

Chapter 6: Contingency theory

Although several approaches to leadership could be called contingency theories, the most widely recognized is Fiedler's.

Contingency theory → a leader-match theory, which means it tries to match leaders to appropriate situations. It is called contingency because it suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. To understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand the situations in which they lead. Effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting.

After analysing the styles of many leaders in different situations, Fiedler and his colleagues were able to make empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were best and which styles were worst for a given organizational context.

In short, contingency theory is concerned with styles and situations.

- *Task-motivated* → concerned primarily with reaching a goal.
- *Relationship-motivated* → concerned with developing close interpersonal relationships.

To measure leader styles, Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale. Leaders who score high on this scale are described as relationship motivated, and those who score low on the scale are identified as task motivated.

Contingency theory suggests that situations can be characterized in terms of three factors:

1. *Leader-member relations* → consist of the group atmosphere and the degree of confidence, loyalty, and attraction that followers feel for their leader.
2. *Task structure* → the degree to which the requirements of a task are clear and spelled out. A task is considered structured when:
   - The requirements of the task are clearly stated and known by the people required to perform them
   - The path to accomplishing the task has few alternatives
   - Completion of the task can be clearly demonstrated
   - Only a limited number of correct solutions to the task exist

3. *Position power* → the amount of authority a leader has to reward or to punish followers. It includes the legitimate power individuals acquire as a result of the position they hold in an organization.

Together, these three situational factors determine the favourableness of various situations in organizations. Based on research findings, contingency theory posits that certain styles are effective in certain situations. However, it is not entirely clear which style fits which situation. Fiedler's (1995) interpretation of the theory adds a degree of clarity to this issue.

He provides the following line of reasoning for why leaders who are working in the wrong situation are ineffective:

–   A leader whose LPC style does not match a particular situation experiences stress and anxiety
–   Under stress, the leader reverts to less mature ways of coping that were learned in early development
–   The leader's less mature coping style results in poor decision making which results in negative work outcomes

Although various interpretations of contingency theory can be made, researchers are still unclear regarding the inner workings of the theory.

THE CONTINGENCY MODEL
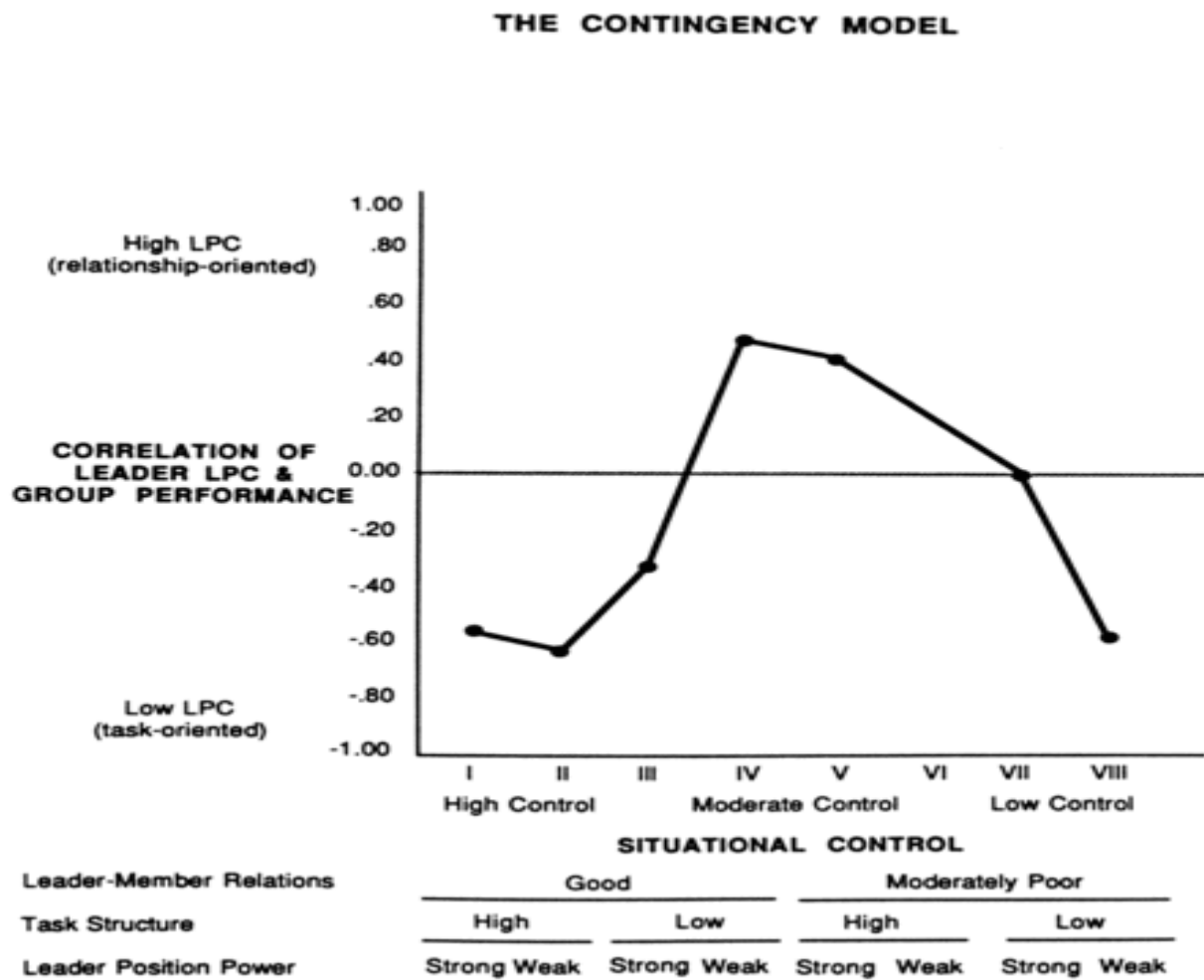
By measuring a leader's LPC score and the three situational variables, one can predict whether the leader is going to be effective in a particular setting. The relationship between a leader's style and various types of situations is illustrated in the figure above. If a leader's style matches the appropriate category in the model, the leader will be effective.

Contingency theory has several major strengths:

- *It is supported by a great deal of empirical research.* Many researchers have tested it and found it to be a valid and reliable approach to explaining how effective leadership can be achieved.
- *It has broadened our understanding of leadership by forcing us to consider the impact of situations on leaders*. Before contingency theory was developed, leadership theories focused on whether there was a single, best type of leadership.
- *It is predictive and therefore provides useful information about the type of leadership that is most likely to be effective in certain contexts*.
- *It does not require that people be effective in all situations*.
- *It provides data on leaders' styles that could be useful to organizations in developing leadership profiles*.

Although many studies support the validity of contingency theory, it has also received much criticism in the research literature:

- *It fails to explain fully why people with certain leadership styles are more effective in some situations than in others*.
- *The LCP scale does not seem valid on the surface, it does not correlate well with other standard leadership measures, and it is not easy to complete correctly*. The LCP scale measures a respondent's style by assessing the degree to which the respondent sees another person getting in the way of his or her own goal accomplishment.
- *It is cumbersome to use in real-world settings, because it entails assessing the leader's style and three complex situational variables, each of which requires a different instrument*.
- *It fails to explain adequately what organizations should do when there is a mismatch between the leader and the situation in the workplace*. This approach advocates that leaders engage in situational engineering, which means changing situations to fit the leader. In fact, situations are not always easily changed to match the leader's style.

The LPC scale is used in contingency theory to measure a person's leadership style. It measures your style by having you describe a co-worker with whom you had difficulty completing a job. After you have selected this person, the LPC instrument asks you to describe your co-worker on 18 sets of adjectives.

- *LOW LPCs are task motivated*
- *Middle LPCs are socioindependent*
- *High LPCs are motivated by relationships*

Chapter 8: Leader-member exchange theory

Most of the theories discussed thus far in the book, have emphasized leadership from the point of view of the leader or the follower and the context. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory takes still another approach and conceptualizes leadership as a process that is centered on the *interactions* between leaders and followers.

In the first studies of exchange theory, researchers focused on the nature of the *vertical linkages* leaders formed with each of their followers. In assessing the characteristics of these vertical dyads, researchers found two general types of linkages:

- **In-group** → based on expanded and negotiated role responsibilities. Subordinates in this group receive more information, influence, confidence, and concern from their leaders. In addition, they are more dependable, and more highly involved.
- **Out-group** → based on the formal employment contract. Subordinates in this group are less compatible with the leader and usually come to work, do the job and go home.

Follower   Dyadic Relationship   Leader
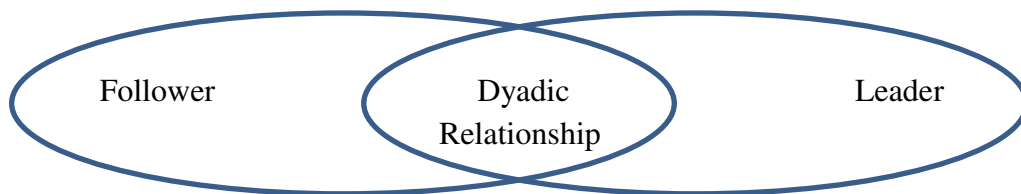
Within an organizational work unit, subordinates become a part of the in-group or the out-group based on how well they work with the leader and how well the leader works with them. In addition, membership in one group or the other is based on how subordinates involve themselves in expanding their role responsibilities with the leader.

After the first set of studies, there was a shift in the focus of LMX theory. Whereas the initial studies of this theory addressed primarily the nature of the differences between in-groups and out-groups, a subsequent line of research addressed how LMX theory was related to organizational effectiveness.

Researchers found that high-quality leader-member exchanges produced less employee turnover, more positive performance evaluations, higher frequency of promotions, greater organizational commitment, more desirable work assignments, better job attitudes, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation, and faster career progress.

Leadership making → a leader should develop high-quality exchanges with all of the leader's subordinates rather than just a few. It develops over time in three phases:

1. **The stranger phase** → interactions are generally rule bound
2. **The acquaintance phase** → a testing period to assess whether the subordinates is interested in taking on more roles and responsibilities and to assess whether the leader is willing to provide new challenges for subordinates.
3. **The mature partnership phase** → relationships are based on a high degree of mutual trust, respect, and obligation toward each other. Leaders and followers move beyond their own self-interests to accomplish the greater good of the organization.

The benefits for employees who develop high-quality leader-member relationships include preferential treatment, increased job-related communication, ample access to supervisors, and increased performance-related feedback.

The disadvantages for those with low-quality leader-member relationships include limited trust and support from supervisors and few benefits outside the employment contract.

LMX theory makes several positive contributions to our understanding of leadership:

- *It is a strong descriptive theory*. It makes sense to describe work units in terms of those who contribute more and those who contribute less to the organization.
- *It is unique because it's the only leadership approach that makes the concept of the dyadic relationship the center-piece of the leadership process.*
- *It is noteworthy because it directs our attention to the importance of communication in leadership.* Effective leadership occurs when the communication of leaders and subordinates is characterized by mutual trust, respect, and commitment.
- *It provides an important alert for leaders*. It warns them to avoid letting their conscious or unconscious biases influence who is invited into the in-group.
- *A large body of research substantiates how the practice of LMX theory is related to positive organizational outcomes*.

LMX theory also has some limitations:

- *Leader-member exchange in its initial formulation runs counter to the basic human value of fairness.* Because LMX theory divides the work unit into two groups and one group receives special attention, it gives the appearance of discrimination against the out-group.
- *The basic ideas of the theory are not fully developed.* Research has suggested that leaders should work to create high-quality exchanges with all subordinates, but the guidelines for how this is done are not clearly spelled out.
- *Researchers have not adequately explained the contextual factors that may have an impact on LMX relationships.* Since leader-member exchange is often studied in isolation, researchers have not examined the potential impact of other variables on LMX dyads.
- *The leader-member exchange in LMX theory is hard to measure.*

Chapter 9: Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is part of the new leadership paradigm, which gives more attention to charismatic and affective elements of leadership. It is a process that changes people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. It includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. It involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them. It is a process that often incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership.

In his work, Burns (1978) attempted to link the roles of leadership and followership. He wrote of leaders as people who tap the motives of followers in order to better reach the goals of leaders and followers. He distinguished between two types:

- **Transactional** → the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers.
- **Transformational** → the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help them reach their fullest potential.

Because the conceptualization of transformational leadership set forth by Burns includes raising the level of morality in others, it is difficult to use this term when describing leaders who were transforming but in a negative way. To deal with this problem Bass coined the term *pseudotransformational leadership*. This term refers to leaders who are self-consumed, exploitive, and power oriented, with warped moral values. It is considered personalized leadership, which focuses on the leader's own interests rather than on the interests of others. Authentic transformational leadership is socialized leadership, which is concerned with the collective good. Socialized transformational leaders transcend their own interests for the sake of others.

At about the same time Burn's book was published, House (1976) published a theory of charismatic leadership. **Charisma** → a special personality characteristic that gives a person superhuman or exceptional powers and is reserved for a few, is of divine origin, and results in the person being treated as a leader. In addition to displaying certain personality characteristics, charismatic leaders also demonstrate specific types of behaviours:

1. They are role models for the beliefs and values they want their followers to adopt.
2. They appear competent to followers.
3. They articulate ideological goals that have moral overtones.
4. They communicate high expectations for followers, and exhibit confidence in followers' abilities to meet these expectations. The impact of this behaviour is to increase followers' sense of competence and self-efficacy, which in turn improves their performance.
5. They arouse task-relevant motives in followers that may include affiliation, power, or esteem.

According to House's charismatic theory, several effects are the direct result of charismatic leadership. They include follower trust in the leader's ideology, similarity between the followers' beliefs and the leader's beliefs, unquestioning acceptance of the leader, expression of affection toward the leader, follower obedience, identification with the leader, emotional involvement in the leader's goals, heightened goals for followers, and increased follower confidence in goal achievement.

The theory has been extended and revised. One major revision is that charismatic leadership works because it ties followers and their self-concepts to the organizational identify.

In the mid-1980s, Bass (1985) provided a more expanded and refined version of transformational leadership by giving more attention to followers' rather than leaders' needs, by suggesting that it could apply to situations in which the outcomes were not positive, and by describing transactional and transformational leadership as a single continuum rather than mutually independent continua. He argued that transformational leadership motives followers to do more than expected by:

- Raising followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals
- Getting followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization
- Moving followers to address higher-level needs

The model incorporates seven different factors Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ):

1. **Charisma or idealized influence** → the emotional component of leadership that describes leaders who act as strong role models for followers. These leaders usually have very high standards of moral and ethical conduct and can be counted on to do the right thing. They are deeply respected by followers, who usually place a great deal of trust in them. It is measured on two components:
   – *Attributional component*: the attributions of leaders made by followers based on perceptions they have of their leaders.
   – *Behavioural component*: followers' observations of leader behaviour.

2. **Inspirational motivation** → describes leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the organization.

3. **Intellectual stimulation** → leadership that stimulates followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization. It encourages followers to think things out on their own and engage in careful problem solving.

4. **Individualized consideration** → represents leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers. They act as coaches and advisers while trying to assist followers in becoming fully actualized.

5. **Contingent reward** → an exchange process between leaders and followers in which effort by followers is exchanged for specified rewards. With this kind of leadership, the leader tries to obtain agreement from followers on what must be done and what the payoffs will be for the people doing it.

6. **Management-by-Exception** → leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement. It takes two forms:
   – *Active*: leader watches followers closely for mistakes or rule violations and then takes corrective actions.
   – *Passive*: leader intervenes only after standards have not been met or problems have arisen.

7. **Laissez-Faire** → leadership that falls at the far right side of the transactional-transformational leadership continuum. It represents the absence of leadership. This leader abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs. There is no exchange with followers or attempt to help them grow.

In addition to Bass's work, two other lines of research have contributed in unique ways to our understanding of the nature of transformational leadership:

- **Bennis and Nanus**

Bennis and Nanus (1985) asked 90 leaders basic questions, and from the answers provided they identified four common strategies used by leaders in transforming organizations:

- Transforming leaders had a *clear vision* of the future state of their organizations. The compelling nature of the vision touched the experiences of followers and pulled them into supporting the organization.
- Transforming leaders were *social architects* for their organizations. This means they created a shape for the shared meanings people maintained.
- Transforming leaders created *trust* in their organizations by making their own positions clearly known and then standing by them. Trust has to do with being predictable or reliable, even in situations that are uncertain.
- Transforming leaders used *creative development of self* through positive self-regard. Based on awareness of their own competence, effective leaders were able to immerse themselves in their tasks and the overarching goals of their organizations. Bennis and Nanus also found that positive self-regard in leaders had a reciprocal impact on followers, creating in them feelings of confidence and high expectations. In addition, leaders in the study were committed to learning and relearning, so in their organizations there was consistent emphasis on education.

- **Kouzes and Posner**

Kouzes and Posner (1987, 2002) developed their model by interviewing leaders about leadership. They interviewed more than 1300 middle- and senior-level managers in private and public sector organizations and asked them to describe their personal best experience as leaders. Based on a content analysis of these descriptions, they constructed a model. It consists of five fundamental practices that enable leaders to get extraordinary things accomplished:

- *Model the way* → they are clear about their own values and philosophy. Exemplary leaders set a personal example for others by their own behaviours. They also follow through on their promises and commitments and affirm the common values they share with others.
- *Inspire a shared vision* → they create compelling visions that can guide people's behaviour. They are able to visualize positive outcomes in the future and communicate them to others. Leaders also listen to the dreams of others and show them how their dreams can be realized.
- *Challenge the process* → they are willing to change the status quo and step into the unknown. It includes being willing to innovate, grow, and improve. Exemplary leaders want to experiment and are willing to take risks to make things better.

- *Enable others to act* → they are effective at working with people. They build trust with others and promote collaboration. They create environments where people can feel good about their work and how it contributes to the greater community.
- *Encourage the heart* → they reward others for their accomplishments. The outcome of this kind of support is greater collective identity and community spirit.

The transformational approach describes how leaders can initiate, develop, and carry out significant changes in organizations. Throughout the process described on page 200, transformational leaders are effective at working with people. They build trust and foster collaboration with others. Transformational leaders encourage others and celebrate their accomplishments. In the end, transformational leadership results in people feeling better about themselves and their contributions to the greater common good.

The transformational approach has several strengths:

- *It has been widely researched from many different perspectives*.
- *It has intuitive appeal*. It describes the leader is out front advocating change for others.
- *It treats leadership as a process that occurs between followers and leaders*. Because this process incorporates both persons' needs, leadership is not the sole responsibility of a leader but rather emerges from the interplay between leaders and followers.
- *It provides a broader view of leadership that augments other leadership models*. It provides an expanded picture of leadership that includes not only the exchange of rewards, but also leaders' attention to the needs and growth of followers.
- *It places a strong emphasis on followers' needs, values, and morals*. It involves attempts by leaders to move people to higher standards of moral responsibility.
- *It is an effective form of leadership*. Transformational leadership is positively related to subordinate satisfaction, motivation, and performance.

It also has several weaknesses:

- *It lacks conceptual clarity*. Because it covers such a wide range of activities and characteristics, it is difficult to define exactly its parameters. Specifically, research by Tracey and Hinkin (1998) has shown substantial overlap between each of the Four I's (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), suggesting that the dimensions are not clearly delimited.
- *It cannot be clearly measured*.
- *It treats leadership as a personality trait or personal predisposition rather than a behaviour that people can learn*. If it is a trait, training people in this approach becomes more problematic because it is difficult to teach people how to change traits.
- *It has not been proved that transformational leaders are actually able to transform individuals and organizations*. There is evidence that indicates that transformational leadership is associated with positive outcomes, such as organizational effectiveness. However, studies have not yet clearly established a causal link.
- *It is elitist and antidemocratic*.

- *It suffers from a heroic leadership bias*. It stresses that it is the leader who moves followers to do exceptional things. By focusing primarily on the leader, researchers have failed to give attention to shared leadership or reciprocal influence.
- *It has the potential to be abused*.

Chapter 11: Authentic leadership

Authentic leadership represents one of the newest areas of leadership research. It focuses on whether leadership is genuine and real. It is about the *authenticity* of leaders and their leadership.

People feel apprehensive and insecure about what is going on around them, and, as a result, they long for bona fide leadership they can trust and for leaders who are honest and good. People's demands for trustworthy leadership make the study of authentic leadership timely and worthwhile.

Among leadership scholars, there is no single accepted definition of authentic leadership. Instead, there are multiple definitions, each written from a different viewpoint and with a different emphasis:

- *Intrapersonal* → focuses closely on the leader and what goes on within the leader. It incorporates the leader's self-knowledge, self-regulation, and self-concept.
- *Interpersonal* → outlines authentic leadership as relational, created by leaders and followers together. Authenticity emerges from the interactions.
- *Developmental* → views authentic leadership as something that can be nurtured in a leader, rather than as a fixed trait. Authentic leadership develops in people over a lifetime and can be triggered by major life events, such as a severe illness or a new career.

Taking a developmental approach, Walumbwa et al. (2008) conceptualized authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behaviour that develops from and is grounded in the leader's positive psychological qualities and strong ethics. They suggest that authentic leadership is composed of four distinct but related components:

1. Self-awareness
2. Internalized moral perspective
3. Balanced processing
4. Relational transparency

Over a lifetime, authentic leaders learn and develop each of these four types of behaviour.

Formulations about authentic leadership can be differentiated into two areas:

- **Practical approach** → evolved from real-life examples and training and development literature.

Robert Terry's authentic leadership approach is practice oriented. It focuses on the actions of the leader, leadership team, or organization in a particular situation. The moral premise underlying this approach is that leaders should strive to do what is right. In any given situation where leadership is needed, Terry advocates that two core questions must be addressed. First, what is really, really going on? Second, what are we going to do about it?


Authentic Action Wheel
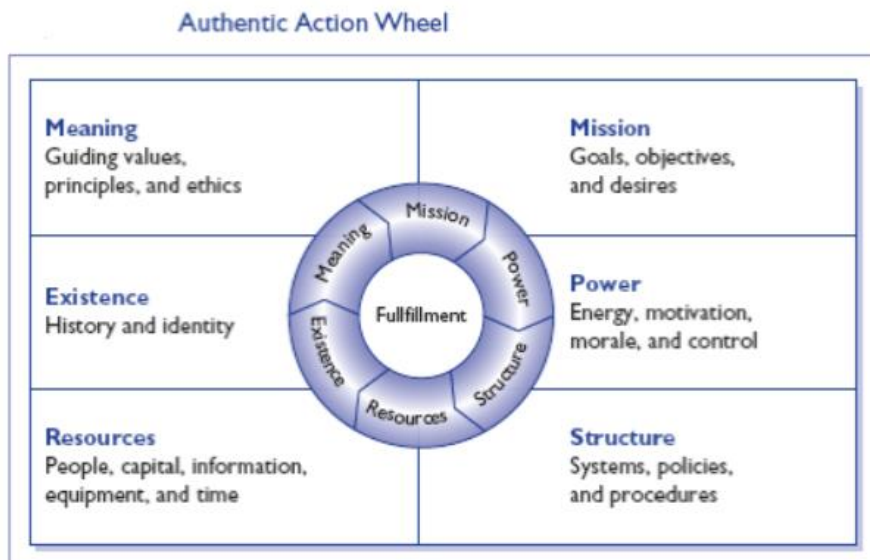
To answer the questions posed by Terry, two steps are required:

1. Locate the problem on the diagnostic wheel
2. Strategically select an appropriate response to the problem

Although there is an infinite number of possible issues within a group or an organization, the authentic action wheel provides a structure that allows leaders to categorize various employee concerns into six areas. It is used to explore the various possible responses to a problem and to select the one that comes closest to solving the issue. In summary, the authentic action wheel is a visual diagnostic tool to help leaders frame problems.

Bill George's authentic leadership approach focuses on the characteristics of authentic leaders. George describes, in a practical way, the essential qualities of authentic leadership and how individuals can develop these if they want to become authentic leaders. Specifically, they demonstrate five basic characteristics:

1. They understand their *purpose*. They know what they are about and where they are going. In addition to knowing their purpose, they are inspired and intrinsically motivated about their goals. They are *passionate* individuals who have a deep-seated interest in what they do and truly care about their work.
2. They understand their own *values* and *behave* toward others based on these values. They have a clear idea of who they are, where they are going, and what to do.
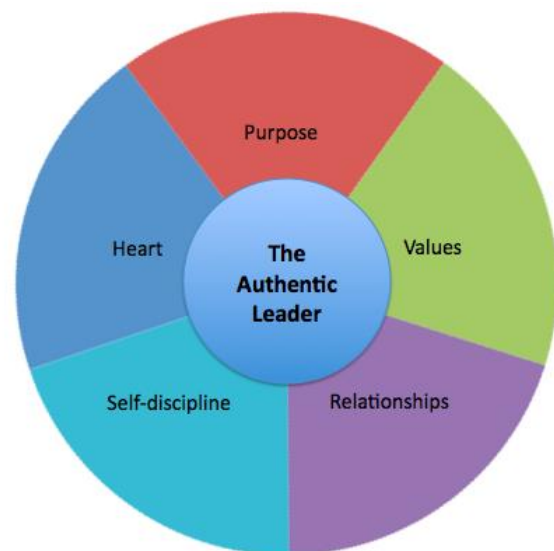
3. They establish trusting *relationships* with others. They have the capacity to open themselves up and establish a *connection* with others.
4. They demonstrate *self-discipline* and *consistently* act on their values. It gives leaders focus and determination. When they establish objectives and standards of excellence, it helps them to reach these goals and to keep everyone accountable.
5. They are passionate about their mission, so they are sensitive to the plight of others, opening one's self to others, and being willing to help them.
- **Theoretical approach →** is based on findings from social science research.

Although people's interest in authenticity is probably timeless, research on authentic leadership is very recent, with the first article appearing in 2003. Interest in authentic leadership increased during a time in which there was a great deal of societal upheaval and instability in the United States. A major challenge confronting researchers in developing a theory was to define the construct and identify its characteristics.

Walumba et al. (2008) defined authentic leadership as 'a pattern of leader behaviour that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development.' Although complex, this definition captures the current thinking of scholars regarding the phenomenon of authentic leadership and how it works.

Walumba and associates conducted a comprehensive review of the literature and interviewed groups of content experts in the field to determine what components constituted authentic leadership and to develop a valid measure of this construct:

1. *Self-awareness →* the personal insights of the leader. It is not an end in itself but a process in which individuals understand themselves, including their strengths and weaknesses, and the impact they have on others.
2. *Internalized moral perspective →* a self-regulatory process whereby individuals use their internal moral standards and values to guide their behaviour rather than allow outside pressures to control them.
3. *Balanced processing →* an individual's ability to analyse information objectively and explore other people's opinions before making a decision. It also means avoiding favouritism about certain issues and remaining unbiased.
4. *Relational transparency →* being open and honest in presenting one's true self to others. It occurs when individuals share their core feelings, motives, and inclinations with others in an appropriate manner. It includes the individuals showing both positive and negative aspects of themselves to others.

There are four key *positive psychological attributes* that have an impact on authentic leadership:

1. *Confidence →* having self-efficacy – the believe that one has the ability to successfully accomplish a specified task.

2. *Hope* → a positive motivational state based on willpower and goal planning.
3. *Optimism* → the cognitive process of viewing situations from a positive light and having favourable expectations about the future.
4. *Resilience* → the capacity to recover from and adjust to adverse situations.

Moral reasoning is another factor that can influence authentic leadership. It is the capacity to make ethical decisions about issues of right or wrong and good or bad. Developing the capacity for moral reasoning is a lifelong process.

A final factor related to authentic leadership is *critical life events*, which are major events that shape people's lives. By understanding their own life experience, leaders become more authentic. Critical life events also stimulate growth in individuals and help them become stronger leaders.

Although it is in its early stages of development, the authentic leadership approach has several strengths:

- *It fulfils an expressed need for trustworthy leadership in society*. During the past 20 years, failures in public and private leadership have created distrust in people.
- *It provides broad guidelines for individuals who want to become authentic leaders*. Both the practical and theoretical approaches clearly point to what leaders should do to become authentic leaders.
- *It has an explicit moral dimension*. Underlying both the practical and theoretical approaches is the idea that authenticity requires leaders to do what is right and good for their followers and society.
- *It emphasizes that authentic values and behaviours can be developed over time*.
- *It can be measured using the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)*. It is a validated, theory-based instrument compromising 16 items that measure four factors of authentic leadership.

There are a number of questions that still need to be addressed about the theory:

- *The concepts and ideas presented in the practical approaches are not fully substantiated.* Whereas both of these approaches are interesting and offer insights on authentic leadership, neither approach is built on a broad empirical base, and neither approach has been tested for its validity.
- *The moral component of authentic leadership is not fully explained.* Whereas authentic leadership implies that leaders are motivated by higher-order end values such as justice and community, the way that these values function to influence is not clear.
- *Researchers have questioned whether positive psychological capacities should be included as components of authentic leadership.* Although there is an interest in the social sciences to study positive human potential and the best of human condition, the rationale for including positive psychological capacities as an inherent part of authentic leadership has not been clearly explained by researchers. In addition, some have argued that the inclusion of positive leadership capacities broadens the construct of authentic leadership too much and makes it difficult to measure.

- *It is not clear how authentic leadership results in positive organizational outcomes.* Although authentic leadership is intuitively appealing on the surface, questions remain about whether this approach is effective, in what contexts it is effective, and whether it results in productive outcomes.

Chapter 12: Team leadership

Leadership in organizational work teams has become one of the most popular and rapidly growing areas of leadership theory and research. **Team →** a specific type of group composed of members who are interdependent, who share common goals, and who must coordinate their activities to accomplish these goals.

The organizational team-based structure is an important way to remain competitive by organizational teams has suggested that the use of teams has led to greater productivity, a more effective use of resources, better decisions and problem solving, better-quality products and services, and greater innovation and creativity. However, for teams to be successful, the organizational culture needs to support employee involvement.

It is important to focus on and understand the necessary functions of leadership in teams. Zaccaro, Heinen, and Shuffler (2009) urge the development of conceptual frames or models that differ from traditional leadership theory by focusing on *leader-team interactions (team centric)* instead of *leader-subordinate (leader-centric) interactions*.

Leadership functions can be performed by the formal team leader *and/or* shared by team members. Day, Gronn, and Salas (2004) referred to this shared or distributed leadership as *team leadership capacity*, encompassing the leadership repertoire of the entire team. Distributed leadership involves the sharing of influence by team members who step forward when situations warrant providing the leadership necessary and then stepping back to allow others to lead.

Hill's model for team leadership proposed in this chapter places leadership in the driver's set of team effectiveness. The model provides a mental road map to help the leader diagnose team problems and take appropriate action to correct these problems. Effective team leaders need a wide repertoire of communication skills to monitor and take appropriate action.

Effective team performance begins with the leader's mental model of the situation, which reflects not only the components of the problem confronting the team, but also the environmental and organizational contingencies that define the larger context of team action. The leader develops a model of what the team problem is, and what solutions are possible in this context, given the environmental and organizational constraints and resources. To respond appropriately to the problem envisioned in the mental model, a good leader needs to be behaviourally flexible and have a wide repertoire of actions or skills to meet the team's diverse needs. When the leader's behaviour matches the complexity of the situation, he or she is behaving with *requisite variety*, or the set of behaviours necessary to meet the group's needs.

Hill's model of team leadership
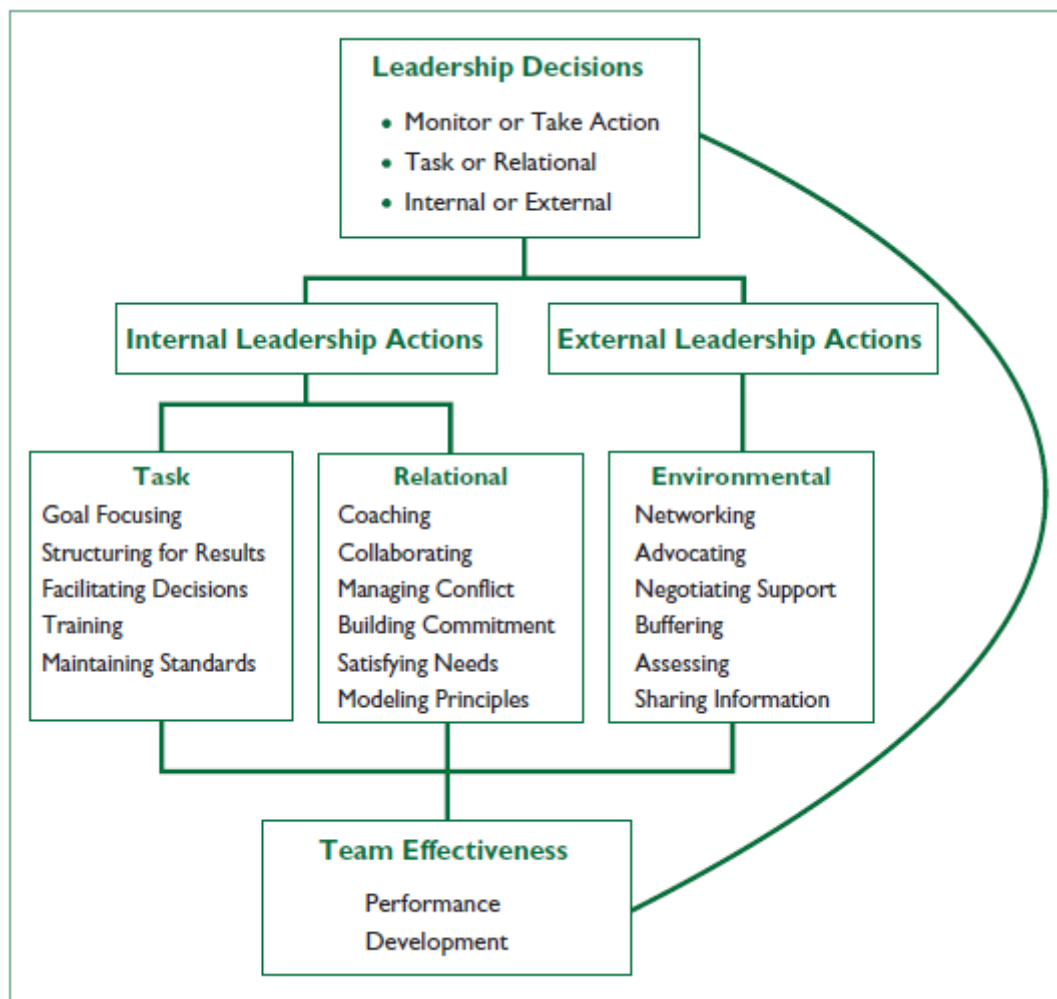
Leadership decisions → lists the major decisions a leader needs to make when determining whether and how to intervene to improve team functioning.

- *Should I monitor the team or take action?*

McGrath outlined the critical leadership functions of group effectiveness, taking into account the analysis of the situation both internally and externally and whether this analysis indicates that the leader should take an immediate action.

To develop an accurate mental model of team functioning, leaders need to monitor both the internal and external environments to gather information, reduce equivocality, provide structure, and overcome barriers. Fleishman et al. (1991) described two phases in this initial process: information search and structuring. A leader must first seek out information to understand the current state of the team's functioning, and then this information must be analysed, organized, and interpreted so the leader can decide how to act.

All members of the team can engage in monitoring and collectively provide distributed or shared leadership to help the team adapt to changing conditions.

Leaders differ in their tendencies to take action quickly or to delay taking action by analysing the situation at length. Leaders who prefer to take action might prevent problems from getting out of control. However, they might not make the right intervention because they

	MONITOR	EXECUTIVE ACTION
INTERNAL	Diagnosing Group Deficiencies 1	Taking Remedial Action 2
EXTERNAL	Forecasting Environmental Changes 3	Preventing Delirious Changes 4

do not have all the information, and such fast action might undermine the development of shared leadership. Leaders who prefer to carefully analyse the situation might encourage other team members to emerge as leaders, but the problem might become unmanageable. The exact timing of a leadership intervention is as important as the specific type of intervention.

- *Should I intervene to meet task or relational needs?*

Since the early study of small groups, the focus has been on two critical leadership functions: task and maintenance. Task leadership functions include getting the job done, making decisions, solving problems, adapting to changes, making plans, and achieving goals. Maintenance functions include developing a positive climate, solving interpersonal problems, satisfying members' needs, and developing cohesion.

- *Should I intervene internally or externally?*

In addition to balancing the internal task and relational needs of the team, the leader has to help the team adapt to its external environment.

Leadership actions → lists a number of specific leadership actions that can be performed internally (task, relational) and externally (environmental).

- *Internal task leadership actions*

The set of skills or actions that the leader might perform to improve task performance are:

– Goal focusing (clarifying, gaining agreement)
– Structuring for results (planning, visioning, organizing, clarifying roles, delegating)
– Facilitating decision making (informing, controlling, coordinating, mediating, synthesizing, focusing on issues)
– Training team members in task skills (educating, developing)
– Maintaining standards of excellence (assessing team and individual performance, confronting inadequate performance.

- *Internal relational leadership actions*

The set of actions that the leader needs to implement to improve team relationships are:

- Coaching team members in interpersonal skills
- Collaborating (including, involving)
- Managing conflict and power issues (avoiding confrontation, questioning ideas)
- Building commitment and esprit de corps (being optimistic, innovating, envisioning, socializing, rewarding, recognizing)
- Satisfying individual member needs (trusting, supporting, advocating)
- Modelling ethical and principled practices (fair, consistent, normative)

- *External environmental leadership actions*

The set of actions that the leader might implement to improve the environmental interface with the team:

- Networking and forming alliances in environment (gathering information, increasing influence)
- Advocating and representing team to environment
- Negotiating upward to secure necessary resources, support, and recognition for team
- Buffering team members from environmental distractions
- Assessing environmental indicators of team's effectiveness (surveys, evaluations, performance indicators)
- Sharing relevant environmental information with team

Team effectiveness → lists two critical functions that are focused on the desired outcome of teamwork.

- *Performance (task accomplishment)*

Team performance is the quality of decision making, the ability to implement decisions, the outcomes of teamwork in terms of problems solved and work completed, and finally the quality of institutional leadership provided by the team.

- *Development (maintenance of team)*

Team development is the cohesiveness of the team and the ability of group members to satisfy their own needs while working effectively with other team members.

Hackman and Walton (1986) suggested criteria necessary for effectiveness of task-performing teams in organizations. Larson and LaFasto (1989) found that, regardless of the type of team, eight characteristics were consistently associated with team excellence.

1. *Clear, elevating goal* → team goals must be very clear so that one can tell whether the performance objective has been realized. In addition, the goal must be involving or motivating so that the members believe it to be worthwhile and important.
2. *Results-driven structure* → teams must find the best structure for accomplishing their goals. In addition, all teams need clear roles for the members, a good communication system, methods of assessing performance, and focus on fact-based judgments.
3. *Competent team members* → groups should be composed of the right number and mix of members to accomplish all the tasks of the group. In addition, members need sufficient information, education, and training to become or remain competent team members. As a whole, the individual team members need to possess both the technical and personal competence.
4. *Unified commitment* → teams should develop a sense of unity or identification.
5. *Collaborative climate* → one in which members can stay problem focused, listen to and understand one another, feel free to take risks, and be willing to compensate for one another. To build an atmosphere that fosters collaboration, we need to develop trusting relationships based on honesty, openness, consistency, and respect.
6. *Standards of excellence* → team members' performance should be regulated so that actions can be coordinated and tasks completed. It is especially important that standards are set. These must be clear and concrete. A leader can facilitate the process of members performing to the standards by requiring results, making expectations clear, reviewing results, providing feedback and rewarding results.
7. *External support and recognition* → a supportive organizational context includes material resources, rewards for excellent performance, an educational system to develop necessary team skills, and an information system to provide data needed to accomplish the task.
8. *Principled leadership* → leadership has been described as the central driver of team effectiveness, influencing the team through four sets of processes:

    – <u>Cognitively</u>, leader helps the team understand the problems confronting them.
    – <u>Motivationally</u>, leader helps the team become cohesive and capable by setting high performance standards and helping the group to achieve them.
    – <u>Affectively</u>, leader helps the team handle stressful circumstances by providing clear goals, assignments, and strategies.
    – <u>Coordinatively</u>, leader helps integrate the team's activities by matching members' skills to roles, providing clear performance strategies, monitoring feedback, and adapting to environmental changes.

The table demonstrates the similarity of these characteristics to the theoretical components suggested by Hackman and Walton, providing grounded research support for the group effectiveness approach.

Conditions of group effectiveness	Characteristics of team excellence
Clear, engaging direction	Clear, elevating goal
Enabling structure	Results-driven structure
	Competent team members
	Unified commitment
	Collaborative climate
Enabling context	Standards of excellence
Adequate material resources	External support and recognition
Expert coaching	Principled leadership

Assessing how well the team compares to these established indicators of team success is a valuable source of information guiding the leader to take appropriate actions to improve team success.

The team leadership model has several strengths:

- *It is designed to focus on the real-life organizational work group and the leadership needed therein.*
- *It provides a cognitive guide that helps leaders design and maintain effective teams, especially when performance is below standards.* Such an approach is consistent with the emerging theoretical notions of the leader as a medium whose job it is to process the complex information inherent in teamwork. The team leadership model integrates in a manageable and practical form many complex factors that can help a leader be a good medium or processor of information.
- *It takes into account the changing role of leaders and followers in organizations.* The model does not focus on the position power of a leader but instead focuses on the critical functions of leadership as diagnosis and action taking.
- *It can help in selection of team leaders.* Good leaders not only can diagnose the team's problems, but can also pull out the appropriate action.

Hill's model also has several weaknesses:

- *It is a conceptual framework to assist team-based leadership in its decision making.* As such, it lists only some of the many skills that leadership might need to employ in making such decisions.
- *Even though the model does not include all possible leadership skills, it is still quite complex.* The model only points the leader in the right direction and suggests skills needed to solve these complex problems.

Questionnaires filled out by team members and the team leader can aid in diagnosing specific areas of team problems and suggest actions steps to be taken by the team.

Chapter 14: Women and leadership

As more women are occupying positions of leadership, questions as to whether they lead in a different manner from men and whether women or men are more effective as leaders have garnered greater attention.

In sum, empirical research supports small differences in leadership style and effectiveness between men and women. Women experience slight effectiveness disadvantages in masculine leader roles, whereas roles that are more feminine offer them some advantages. Additionally, women exceed men in the use of democratic or participatory styles, and they are more likely to use transformational leadership behaviours and contingent reward, styles that are associated with contemporary notions of effective leadership.

Although the predicament of female leaders has improved significantly in recent decades, there is still a long way to go. The invisible barrier preventing women from ascending into elite leadership positions was initially dubbed the *glass ceiling*, a term introduced into the American vernacular by two *Wall Street Journal* reporters in 1986 (Hymowitz & Schellhardt). Even in female-dominated occupations, women face the glass ceiling, whereas white men appear to ride a *glass escalator* to the top leadership positions.

Eagly and Carli (2007) recently identified limitations with the glass ceiling metaphor, including that it implies that everyone has equal access to lower positions until all women hit this single, invisible, and impassable barrier. They put forward an alternative image of *leadership labyrinth* conveying the impression of a journey riddled with challenges all along the way, not just near the top, that can and has been successfully navigated by women.

The leadership gap is a global phenomenon whereby women are disproportionally concentrated in lower-level and lower-authority leadership positions than men. Discussions of women's underrepresentation in high-level leadership positions generally revolve around three types of explanations:

1. **Human capital differences** → there is scant support for the notions that women receive less education than men, that they quit their jobs more often than men do, or that they opt out of the leadership track for the mommy track. There is support for the notion that women have less work experience and more career interruptions than men, largely because women assume significantly more domestic responsibility. Finally, women receive less formal training and have fewer developmental opportunities at work than men, both of which likely are related to prejudice against female leaders.
2. **Gender differences** → women are no less effective at leadership, committed to their jobs, or motivated for leadership roles than men. However, women are less likely to self-promote and negotiate than men. Furthermore, research shows a few small sex differences in traits associated with effective leadership, although these differences equally advantage women and men.
3. **Prejudice** → one prominent explanation for the leadership gap revolves around gender biases stemming from stereotyped expectations that women take care and men take charge.

Stereotypes are cognitive shortcuts that influence the way people process information regarding groups and group members. People assign characteristics to groups, or individual members of groups, regardless of the actual variation in characteristics between the members. Substantial empirical evidence reveals that gender stereotypes can significantly alter the

perception and evaluation of female leaders and directly affect women in or aspiring to leadership roles.

The number of women who successfully navigate the labyrinth is on the rise. A confluence of factors contributes to this increase in effective female leaders:

- The *culture of many organizations is changing*; gendered work assumptions such as the male model of work, the notion of uninterrupted full-time careers, and the separation of work and family are being challenged. In addition, many organizations are valuing flexible workers and diversity in their top echelons.
- Although the gendered division of labour contributes to the leadership gap, there is recent evidence of *increasing parity in the involvement of women and men in child care and housework*. In balancing work and home life, an appealing approach for women is structural role redefinition.
- Beyond work-home issues, *negotiations* for valued positions, experiences, and resources are important social interactions on the road to top leadership positions.

Women face a double standard in the leadership role: they must come across as extremely competent but also as appropriately feminine, a set of standards men are not held to. One way women can increase their perceived warmth and their influence is by combining communal qualities such as warmth and friendliness with agentic qualities such as exceptional competence and assertiveness.

While the barriers discussed in the previous sections are generally conceived to be against women, the labyrinth can be generalized to encompass other nondominant groups such as ethic, racial, and sexual minorities as well. There are a number of important motivations for removing these barriers into the upper echelons of leadership:

- Doing so will fulfil the promise of equal opportunity by allowing everyone the possibility of taking on leadership roles. This larger and more demographically diverse pool of candidates not only makes it easier to find talented people, but it also facilitates greater levels of organizational success.
- Promoting a richly diverse group of women into leadership roles will not only help make societal institutions, businesses, and governments more representative, but it can also contribute to more ethical, productive, innovative, and financially successful organizations that demonstrate higher levels of collective intelligence and are less rife with conflict.

The research on women and leadership has several strengths:

- *A consideration of the effects of gender on leadership has important implications for a comprehensive understanding of leadership.* Developing a more androgynous conception of leadership will enhance leadership effectiveness by giving people the opportunity to engage in the best leadership practices, and not by restricting people to those behaviours that are most appropriate for their gender.

- *Research on gender and leadership is productive in both dispelling myths about the gender gap and shining a light on aspects of the gender barriers that are difficult to see and therefore are often overlooked.*
- *Understanding the many components of the labyrinth will give us the tools necessary to combat this inequality from many perspectives, including individual, interpersonal, organizational, and social approaches.*

It also has several weaknesses:

- *Issues of gender and leadership can be subsumed under a more general topic of leadership and diversity.* Researchers should put a greater emphasis on understanding the role of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and other types of diversity, as well as important interactive effects between these types in leadership processes.
- *Much of the research examining gender in leadership has taken place in Western contexts.* Because most of the findings regarding female leaders stem from the culturally defined role of women in society, many of the findings will not generalize well across cultures in which the roles of women and men differ.
- *Research focuses on decreasing the gender gap in leadership positions, thereby lessening gender segregation at work.* However, the leadership gap will not be closed without a concurrent focus on closing the gender gap at home.