

LECTURE 4: TRAIT THEORY APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP (Part 2)

It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant—first to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served.

- Robert Greenleaf

POWER AND LEADERSHIP: LEADERSHIP THEORIES

KEY LEARNING OBJECTIVE: Understand personal leadership characteristics, traits, and attributes.

There are several theories to review in the study of leadership. Each author conducting a study on a particular leadership theory provides a unique conceptualization or perspective of how leadership is defined in its application of theory. This section classifies leadership Trait theory according to the types of variables that are most emphasized in a selected theoretical approach. Leadership variables are often classified in terms of three characteristics—namely, those of the *leader*, *follower*, and the *situation*. The “Key Variables in Leadership Theories” sidebar identifies the key variables of each leadership theory and its corresponding characteristics.

No theoretical approach in and of itself guarantees leadership success. Instead, a variety of leadership methods should be used to achieve leadership success. However, research explains the progress in discovering how leadership theories relate to the exercise of leadership with regard to the leader, the follower, and situational characteristics.

We will also briefly look at behavior approaches, situational, power influence and integrative approaches which relate closely to trait-based approach.

Key Variables in Leadership Theories Characteristics of a Leader

- Traits (motives, personality)
- Values, integrity, and moral development
- Confidence and optimism
- Skills and expertise
- Leadership behaviour
- Influence tactics
- Attributions about followers
- Mental models (beliefs and assumptions)

Characteristics of Followers

- Traits (needs, values, self-concepts)
- Confidence and optimism
- Skills and expertise
- Attributions about the leader
- Identification with the leader
- Cooperation and mutual trust

Characteristics of the Situation

- Type of organizational unit
- Size of organizational unit
- Position power and authority of leader
- Task structure and complexity
- Organizational culture
- Environmental uncertainty and change

- External dependencies and constraints
- National cultural values

Approaches to Leadership Theory: Trait Theory

trait approach

States that leaders are endowed with superior, unique, or inherent qualities, or naturally occurring tendencies, differentiating them from followers.

Trait approach theories study any exceptional or distinct qualities differentiating the leader from the followers, with the implication that it should be possible to identify a leader based on those traits. Most research in this area, beginning in the 1940s, focused on the individual traits and consequences of the leader's behavior in displaying specific traits. Chapter 3 gives detailed reviews of performance evaluations using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) as an example of looking at the combination of traits and personalities that form a leader's character. Barnard M. Bass^[1] conducted a mega study using fifty-two organizational surveys. In reviewing these surveys, he identified trait factors that appeared three or more times in any one organizational survey identifying a comprehensive list of traits used by organizational leaders (see the sidebar "Bernard Bass Trait Factors Appearing in Three or More Leadership Studies"). Also highlighted in Bass's work is whether the leader or employee possesses one or more specific traits that lend to or detract from achieving organizational success.

Bernard Bass Trait Factors Appearing in Three or More Leadership Studies

- Technical skills
- Social nearness, friendliness
- Task motivation and application
- Supportive of the group task
- Social and interpersonal skills
- Emotional balance and control
- Leadership effectiveness and achievement

- Administrative skills
- General impression (halo effect)
- Intellectual skills
- Ascendance, dominance, decisiveness
- Willingness to assume responsibility
- Ethical conduct, personal integrity
- Maintaining a cohesive work group
- Maintaining coordination and teamwork
- Ability to communicate, articulation
- Physical energy
- Maintaining standards of performance
- Creative, independent
- Conforming
- Courageous, daring
- Experience and activity
- Nurturant behavior
- Maintaining informal control of the group
- Mature, cultured
- Aloof, distant

behavioral approach

This theoretical approach focuses on the leader's observable behaviors that influence followers to commit their actions to meet the specified task requirement of the leader. The theory stipulates the leader's behavior is the cue that evokes the followers' actions to accomplish a task or behave in a certain manner.

path-goal theory

The leader reinforces change in a follower or subordinate by providing or showing the follower the "path" to the rewards available.

actions

The accomplishment of one or more activities or things, usually over a period of time, in stages, or with the possibility of repetition, including major activities leaders perform in the areas of influencing, operating, and improving.

Behavioral Approach

A way to better understand the **behavioral approach** involves an understanding of the **path-goal theory**^[2] in terms of the operant conditioning of the follower to perform a required task or behave in a certain manner. An example of the path-goal theory is when the leader reinforces the desired change behavior in a follower or subordinate by demonstrating what reward is available to him or her. The leader shows the follower the "paths" (behaviors) through which the reward may be obtained. The focus of this particular theoretical approach is on the leader's observable behaviors (actions) that influence followers to commit their **actions** to meet the specified task requirement of the leader.

The path-goal theory stipulates the leader's behavior is the operant condition cue that evokes the follower's actions to accomplish a task or behave in the desired manner the leader is seeking. The cue often begins with the leader communicating (written or verbal) an organizational task with a purpose, such as when a leader directs a follower to complete a report (task) in order to assess the number of customer uses per type of service (purpose). The leader is performing (behaving) his or her role by eliciting a cue to the follower to begin accomplishing a task. The desired follower's behavior to complete the report and meet the purpose of the task is in response to the leader's initial behavioral cue. The follower's actions to accomplish the task can act as a positive or negative consequence for the leader, reinforcing other actions from the leader that are dependent on the follower succeeding or failing at the task. Such responses may come in the form of a punishment, based on a negative consequence, or extinguish the leader's subsequent behaviors on how he or she may cue or communicate future actions.

A leader's behavioral approach may not come from the leader's cue but instead originate from one or more environmental cues. In this case, in the leader's absence, an environmental situation may influence or cause the follower to perform certain organizational tasks without the leader communicating a task or purpose. This is an example where leaders do not directly cause followers' behavior, though they do influence them by stating their intent (which can act as a communication cue) if an environmental condition or stimulus of a particular nature occurs. In this sense, the leader's intent causes the follower to take action based on the environmental cue rather than the leader's direct communication. Situational conditions, or cues, are important for leaders to recognize. Leaders will not always be present to "cue" the follower to take action. Because of this, leaders may set the conditions or provide a stimulus (positive or negative reinforcement cue), such as creating standard operating procedures in case of emergency responses at a school or in the workplace (like snow or ice storm days). The desired behavioral response the leader wants from the follower is either delayed arrival or absence. The consequence of not following the standard operating procedure, based on the situational condition, could be harmful to the employee or organization by causing safety violations. Not following such environmental cues may influence future leader and follower behaviors.

Power-Influence Approach**power-influence approach**

Studies influence processes between leaders and others. It is a leader-centered perspective that proposes that causality occurs when the leaders direct and the followers act on the direction.

This research approach involves a dyadic leader-follower relationship. Like most research on traits and behavior, some of the **power-influence** research takes a leader-centered perspective with an implicit assumption that a cause to effect, where the cause is the leader's action and the effect is the followers' reaction, involves a dyadic leader-to-led influence approach, where the leaders direct a task and purpose and the followers react to perform the task within the stated purpose of the action. The effectiveness of leadership power is examined in this approach in terms of the amount and type of personal and position power a leader has and how the power is managed. Chapter 4 presents a detailed section on what leadership power is and how leaders and followers use power to influence each other. Leadership power in this approach is viewed as a means to influence the behavior of not only followers but also peers, superiors, and other stakeholders coming in contact with the organization. As an introduction to position and personal power, the following definitions are offered:

- Position power includes potential influence derived primarily from the opportunities inherent in a person's position in the organization or from attributes of the leader and leader-follower relationship. There are five types of position power: legitimate, reward, information, coercive, and ecological.
- Personal power includes potential influence derived from the leader's task expertise and potential influence based on friendship and loyalty to the leader from the led. There are two types of personal power: expert and referent.

Gary Yukl states the desired outcome of power for effective leaders indicates a reliance on their personal power more than on position power. Personal power includes expert and referent power, yet the more effective leaders are identified with using expert power more than referent power and as having a moderate amount of position power in the organization.^[3]

Power relationships in organizations are never static, as situations and organizational climate conditions constantly change the type and quantity of power used to meet the leadership demands presented by followers, subordinates, or teams. The social exchange theory, strategic contingency theory, and

theories about the institutionalization of power explain how power is gained or lost in organizations. A discussion of power relationship follows a brief introduction to the social exchange and strategic contingency theories:

1. **Social exchange theory.** Richard M. Emerson describes the basic concepts of social exchange theory to include an understanding that most of them are employed as analytical tools within an exchange relationship.^[4] Emerson believes that a leader's use of analytical tools or resources is only effective when the social exchange of these tools is valued by the people involved in the exchange. An example of an employee agreeing in the social exchange between the leader and the led is when the leader uses position power components, such as a monetary reward or the coercive punishment tactic, with the purpose of reinforcing or extinguishing wanted or unwanted behavior. In addition, if employees identify with the organization, agree with the material resources offered, agree to the required level of productivity and profit sharing, and/or agree with the desired outcome of the organization's vision, then the social exchange between the leader and the led will work. In summary, the use of any one of these examples can only be effective if the led "value" the exchange being proposed by the leader.

In this case, resources are not possessions or attributes or qualities of any one focal leader but are relationship attributes between the leaders and the led. The examples are the basic concepts that involve psychology and the economic exchange of a good or service between one person and another. Emerson holds to the point that the basic conceptions of exchange are few in number and their meaning is fairly stable between the leader and led, as well as each being related to a predetermined level of value between the leader and led. Value provides the overarching stimulus or cue for motivating the social exchange between the leader and led. Emerson also states that reinforcement is the most simple and fundamental point of departure for most of the other concepts. An example is that a reward is similar to a positive reinforcement cue but with an understanding that the leader communicates it to the follower. A similar example is that a resource can be considered an ability, possession, or other leadership attribute that has the capacity to reward or punish a follower for the accomplishment of a task. Other examples include overt negotiation, bargaining, and joint decision making, each of which can be considered forms of social exchange.^[5]

2. **Strategic contingency theory.** This theory describes how some organizational subunits gain or lose power to influence important decisions. An example is a subunit determining or influencing the organization's competitive strategy. Uncertainty, according to D. J. Hickson, is defined as a "lack of information about future events so that alternatives and their outcomes are unpredictable."^[6] A leader's personal (expert and referent) power comes from his or her ability to cope with uncertainty. With this ability, the uncertainty can be reduced, and people and organizational subunits become dependent on the leader's power for survival, and the leader receives referent power from his or her followers based on their ability. In this way, a leader uses expert power to help problem solve to impose regularity on uncertainty in the situations the organization faces.

D. J. Hickson argues that if employees are solely dependent on the leader for solutions, they are limiting their ability to become empowered or function on their own without the focal leader's guidance. In this case, the followers totally subjugate themselves to the leader as the sole source of decision-making power based on his or her expertise. The leader may not gain referent power following this approach, but the follower is destined to be confined to performing his or her skill set and only able to function in his or her specified suborganization knowledge area. In this case, the follower is dependent on the leader who controls his or her activities, allowing the leader to dictate his or her activities, often using a transactional leadership style. An example is when a leader demonstrates a unique scope of expertise, or professional skill, in problem solving that creates a larger gap in personal-expert power between the leader and led, to the extent that the led are dependent on the leader's unique expertise. In this case, the leader can control the followers' behaviors based on the leader's expert decision-making power. According to Hickson, if followers working in a suborganization are dependent on the leader for a single solution and cannot offer an alternative, then the followers are dependent on the leader's specialized skills. The leader having specialized skills provides them with an advantage where the leader has greater control of them.^[7] Subunit organization dependencies can override situational uncertainties in assessing how much power exists for a leader if there are appropriate power checks and balances, even in a line-and-staff organization such as the military, where position (legitimate) power authority is vested at each level of leadership. Yet in this very constrained leadership organizational structure, subunit dependencies on the leader can override organizational uncertainty in how much power exists for a leader through defined regulations and known responsibilities at each level of authority. In addition, each subunit works with an understanding of the "intent" of the leader above them. This in itself provides the subunit organizational leader and followers with less dependency on the organizational focal leader during the course of executing their duties and responsibilities. "Here is where the strategic contingency theory may not promote efficiency, functionality, or rationality."^[8] That is, there may be cases where it should not be used in developing leaders, as they become the overall expert that all units and their subunits are dependent on to solve problems.^[9] An alternative developmental approach to lessen the control a leader has on a subunit is to educate suborganization personnel on how to act

without the leader's expertise and presence. This can be accomplished by subunit personnel learning how to perform their duties and responsibilities by following the leader's intent.

The amount of status and power given to an elected or emergent leader by other members of the group depends on the individual's traits, attributes, and values. Examples are loyalty, skill competence, and level of contribution to the attainment of shared goal. Amount of status (personal or position power) can also be linked to control over scarce resources (funding or material), access to unique or critical information (position information power), individual knowledge or expert skill (personal expert power), or the ability to perform a critical collective task. Authority in the form of position power (personal expert power) for appointed leaders can make them less dependent on subordinate evaluations of their competence. Leaders can gain influence from repeated demonstration of expertise (personal expert power) and loyalty to subordinates to gain personal power (personal referent power). A psychological explanation of interpersonal influence involves understanding the motives and perceptions of the follower in relation to imitating the leader's actions in the context in which the interaction occurs.^[10] The leader's ability to use interpersonal influence by way of personal power, or with the use of position power, can achieve the desired effect without having to coerce the follower to perform an action required to achieve the leader's intended outcome for a goal or objective. The use of a leader's influence in this way involves an attempt to shape the attitude and behaviors of stakeholders of the organization, employees, peers, and superiors who want to collaborate in achieving the organization's mission.

Three different types of influence processes are recognized by Yukl:^[11]

1. **Instrumental compliance.** This process involves followers carrying out requested actions to obtain rewards for their efforts or performing tasks to avoid a punishment legitimately authorized or controlled by the leader. The motive for performing the task is purely instrumental and is used to gain some tangible benefit for followers to complete given tasks.^[12]
2. **Internalization.** This focuses on building a long-term foundation of the leader's objectives, where they are accepted by a follower's beliefs, attitudes, and values. These are intrinsically accepted by the follower where he or she is committed to achieving the desired outcome to the leader's objectives. Internalization is often associated with obtaining knowledge, training to learn a skill, or adopting ideas or beliefs. Internalization often requires habitual tasks to "internalize" the practice.^[13]
3. **Personal identification.** The follower imitates the leader's behavior or adopts the same attitudes to please the leader and to be like the leader. The motivation to identify with the leader can result in follower innovativeness, commitment to the leader's objectives, and reduced turnover in the organization. Personal identification can significantly improve the dyadic relationship between the leader and led, resulting in followers accepting the leader and building their personal self-esteem through identifying with the leader.^[14]

Influence tactics are the types of behavior used intentionally to influence the attitudes and behavior of another person. According to Yukl, there are three general types of influence tactics that can be differentiated according to their primary purpose:^[15]

1. **Impression management.** Impression management is a goal-directed influence process (e.g., ingratiation or self-promotion) and can be a conscious or subconscious attempt to influence the perceptions of others. It can involve the use of communication, grooming, behaving, or dressing in a certain manner to form a perception of oneself to another person or group of people. Leaders can use this to influence followers, or vice versa, to achieve a desired goal or objective.
2. **Compliance.** The follower acts or is in the process of complying with fulfilling a desired task or proposal willingly but is apathetic rather than enthusiastic about it and will commit to only a minimal effort to perform the task. The follower is not convinced that the decision or action is the best thing to do or even that it will be effective for accomplishing its intended purpose. Compliance may be the only necessary effort to perform simple routine task.^[16]
3. **Resistance.** The follower is opposed to, denies, or rejects a proposal or request to perform a task rather than being indifferent about it. Resistance can take several different forms:^[17]
 - a. Outright refusal to carry out the request
 - b. Providing justification of why it is impossible to carry out the request
 - c. Trying to persuade the leader to withdraw or modify the request
 - d. Requesting for higher-level authority to countermand the request to support the follower
 - e. Using delay tactics in the hope that the leader might modify the request or delaying in performing the task in order to run out of time and make the task insignificant
 - f. Feigning like the task is being completed but sabotaging its ability to be executed

Leadership influence attempts also affect interpersonal relationships and the way followers perceive a leader; for example, a leader can be viewed as ethical, supportive, likable, competent, and trustworthy and be of strong moral character. Several outcomes of influence tactics are possible, including improving the leader-to-led relationship, making it less frictional, or making the relationship a more cooperative or collegiate one. Gary Yukl, Richard Lepsinger, and Antoinette Lucia^[18] provide eleven examples of proactive influence tactics leaders can use in the performance of their duties. Four of these are considered core influence tactics and include rational persuasion, consultation, collaboration, and inspirational appeals (Table 3.1). The other seven are listed in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.1 Four Core Influence Tactics

Tactic	Definition	Example in Use
Rational persuasion	Use of explanations, logical arguments, and factual evidence to explain why a request or proposal will benefit the organization or help to achieve an important task objective.	Andy explains to executives that using a percentage of the annual profit is necessary for the company's strategic future. He explains the revenue attained in the last two quarters reflects an unexpected growth in profit that can now be used to help expedite the research and development of their new product.
Consultation	Involves inviting the employee to participate in planning how to carry out a request, revise a strategy, or implement a proposed change.	Sam gathers the staff to conduct a strength, weakness, opportunity, and threat (SWOT) analysis to determine the company's fiscal strategy for next year.
Collaboration	Involves an offer to provide necessary resources and/or assistance if the employee agrees to carry out a request or approve a proposal. Similar to exchange in that both offer to do something for the employee but differs in the underlying motivational processes and facilitating conditions.	Matt and Sam agree to provide their time and individual expertise to Andy if he agrees to help them develop the next quarter's activities calendar.
Inspirational appeals	Involves an emotional or value-based appeal, in contrast to the logical arguments used in rational persuasion and apprising. It is an attempt to develop enthusiasm and commitment by arousing strong emotions and aligning a request or proposal to a person's needs, values, hopes, and ideals.	Matt gathers the company's leaders to deliver an emotional speech. He informs the group that at the beginning of the year they all agreed to attain the mission objectives for the year. They are now entering the last quarter, and even though they are slightly ahead of predicted outcomes, they cannot become complacent and expect to achieve the end state without their expertise. By fully participating, they will not only meet the company's objectives but raise the hopes of those that work in their departments.

TABLE 3.2 Seven Proactive Influence Tactics

Tactic	Definition	Example in Use
Exchange	The leader offers an incentive, suggests an exchange of favors, or indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time if the follower will do what the leader requests.	Katy, the store manager, offers Bill extra hours with double pay for expediting a project's completion to standard.
Apprising	The leader explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the follower personally or help advance the follower's career. May involve the use of facts or logic. Benefits are for the target person, not for the organization or the mission.	Kacy informs her subordinate how to complete a task usually reserved for her level of authority and responsibility. Kacy states that performing the task will help her subordinate develop a key skill for her career advancement.
Ingratiation	The leader uses praise and flattery before or during an influence attempt or expresses confidence in the follower's ability to carry out a difficult request. It is more credible and meaningful when the leader has higher status and expertise than the follower.	A key briefing is about to begin to a US state governor concerning emergency management, but Phil sees his executive officer (XO) is lacking confidence. The XO states he is unsure of his ability to conduct the briefing as he has not done it before. Phil, having held the same position previously, taught and coached the executive officer and reassured him that, as the commander, he was highly confident in the XO's communication skills and knowledge of the topic.
Personal appeals	The leader asks the follower to carry out a request or support a proposal out of friendship, loyalty, or appeal to a person's kindness or generosity. It involves asking for a personal favor before saying what it is. More useful in activities unrelated to work activities. Most effective with a peer or subordinate. Asking a boss may be frowned on by peers as it involves equity issues.	Sam, in preparation for a surprise after-work group activity, asks Cody if he would mind doing him a favor outside of company hours. As it is a surprise that includes members of Sam's staff, he does not tell Cody what the task is until after he accepts.
Legitimizing	The leader seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify the authority to make it by referring to rules, policies, contracts, or precedent. Unlikely to be questioned for routine requests; likely to be questioned when request are unusual and clearly exceed leader's authority.	Andy informs his staff that according to company regulation, they are required to conduct a monthly inventory of the company's sensitive or high-value items as listed in policy number ten (Inventory of Sensitive Items).
Pressure	The leader uses assertive demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to carry out a request. Useful to obtain compliance with employees who are lazy or apathetic. Pressure is not likely to result in commitment and may have serious side effects. Harder forms: Threats, warnings, and demands are likely to cause resentment and undermine working relationships. Softer forms: Persistent requests and reminders of obligations are more likely to gain compliance without undermining the relationship with the target person.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. As the community service chair, Danielle reminds her fellow workers that they are obligated to have the gift packets for the food bank completed by the following week. 2. Having just completed a walkthrough inspection of an area that was supposed to meet company standards, Hal cataloged several major deficiencies. His department is being inspected by headquarters in forty-eight hours. Because of this, he unceremoniously states to the staff that he will conduct another inspection in twenty hours, and he demands every deficiency be corrected to meet the company standard.

Tactic	Definition	Example in Use
Coalition	The leader seeks the aid of others to persuade the employees to do something or uses the support of others as a reason for the group to agree. Partners may participate in influence attempts toward the employee, or the leader may only use their endorsement of a request or proposal. When partners are involved, they usually use rational persuasion, exchange, or pressure to influence the target. When used on superiors, it is sometimes called an upward appeal.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bev seeks out the aid of Chris, a peer, to help her convince another peer, Tony, to keep a high standard of self-conduct at work. She is worried that Tony will inappropriately state something offensive that would result in a human resource complaint against him. 2. Phil informs his superior that what the superior is about to order is unethical, and he needs to stop the communication of the task he is about to issue to a subordinate.

Situational Approach

The **situational approach** is another possible approach. Situational theories, such as Hersey-Blanchard's leadership theory, help people choose the right leadership style for their situation. Situational leadership theory^[19] states that leaders should change their leadership styles based on the maturity of the people they are leading and the detail of the tasks to be performed. The theory states leaders should change their behaviors based on (1) the competence of the followers (this can be conceived of as maturity/development) and (2) the commitment of the followers (not the detail of the task).

In this case, the leader can focus his or her behavior on either the relationship with the followers or the task. Increasing or decreasing the emphasis on the task or on the followers becomes the leader's focus in achieving the organizational goal.

In this approach, the situation influences the demand that determines who will emerge as a leader for any given situation. For example, a situational theorist will contend that an emerging leader will appear in response to revolutionary upheaval, chaotic politics, social and economic distress, and the weakening of traditional institutions. In these situations, the emerging leader is a result of time, place, and circumstance, and the leader cannot help what he or she does since the result is directed and controlled by the historical moment. An example of a historical crisis can be found when looking at the BP oil spill in the Gulf Coast of the United States in April 2010, where Lieutenant General Russel Honoré^[20] was called on to serve as the crisis manager to mitigate the oil spill and its effects.

In the founding of Apple Computer, Steve Jobs's initial role as the top executive of the company is another great example of a person exercising situational leadership.^[21] In 1981, Apple Computer went public and within two years attained *Fortune* 500 status. Jobs, at the time, also recruited John Sculley, then head of Pepsi-Cola, to be the new chief executive officer (CEO). A leadership power struggle erupted between Sculley and Jobs in 1985 when Apple's board of directors sided with Sculley to remove Jobs from his leadership of the Macintosh project team.

At the time, Jobs was Apple's "visionary leader." The economic and business environment dictated that Jobs assume the leadership role that put him in charge of a team that would develop Apple's new revolutionary product, the Macintosh computer. Jobs influenced the situation by creating his own product team and then separating them from the core of Apple into a separate building with their own identity. This created a situational atmosphere of a company within a company, which ultimately created friction.

Even though Jobs was successful in developing and debuting the Macintosh computer in 1984 to widespread acceptance among consumers, the sales did not match the rhetoric, thus placing the company in a negative financial position. This furthered the deteriorating relationship between Jobs (the visionary exercising situational leadership) and Sculley (the steady executive), resulting in Jobs being relieved of his responsibilities and fired from the company he founded.

Situational theorists believe that key historical leaders appeared at a critically important phase of a socially valued cause, quickly devoted themselves to it, and profited greatly from the work of others in the conduct of their leadership. An example of this is the situational leadership role Mayor Rudolph "Rudy" Giuliani^[22] found himself in on September 11, 2001 (9/11). What it takes to be a successful leader has not changed throughout history. The 9/11 attacks provided the situational leadership elements it takes for a leader like Giuliani to emerge. Like Winston Churchill, who took the leadership role of prime minister of England during World War II, Giuliani was provided with a great situational crisis to display personal leadership skills. Though the Churchill and Giuliani crises are vastly different, their leadership reactions to their particular situations were not, with each reacting to solve the problems presented to them. Each leader was faced with dynamic situations requiring crisis action planning and adaptive leadership decision making that affected the health and welfare of the people he led. Giuliani, like Churchill, took control of the situation and did not let others dictate the outcomes. They both used years of personal development and experience to control their emotions and dominate their

teams' decision making. Their use of cool, logical judgment in their approach to solving problems for a nation, in the case of Churchill, and one of the largest cities in the United States and the victims of terrorist attacks, in the case of Giuliani, created a historical crisis situation where the leaders had to take control in order to make rapid life-and-death decisions for those they led.

Warren Bennis^[23] concluded that theories to explain who emerges and succeeds as a leader in an organization have to take into account the following circumstances:

- Impersonal bureaucracy
- Informal organization and interpersonal relations
- Benevolent autocracy that structures the relationship between superiors and subordinates
- Job design that permits individual self-actualization
- Integration of individual and organizational goals

As organizations mature, the charismatic founders of a social, technological, or political movement usually give way to bureaucratic successors. In these cases, as the movement matures, so do its followers, and leading them requires new approaches. The situation presents new issues involving the match between the leader and the situation that emerges—be it social changes, an increase in legislative activities, relations among the led and the leader, or the impact of foreign competition on the business environment.

Integrative Approach

The integrative approach includes more than a single variable of study. In this case, it could include a study of trait and behavioral approaches, or the power-influence and situational approaches, or a combination of more than two. It is rare, though, to find a study that includes all the approaches discussed in this section. Researchers today find that the outcome of leadership can be a matter of using various approaches; for example, situations provide self-selection of leaders, and the leader in this case must possess the appropriate traits to be effective in solving the situational problem.

The study of leadership involves three key variables: the leader, the followers, and the situation the first two find themselves in. Table 3.3 summarizes the characteristics of the five leadership theory approaches discussed in this section. As evidenced by the content of this section, leadership can and has been studied in many different ways, each dependent on the researchers' methodological preferences and definition of leadership.

The trait style of leadership gives more credence to the qualities a people are born with rather than those they develop or the relationships they develop with followers. Leadership trait theory is the idea that people are born with certain character traits. This is the style that is attributed to whom others see as a "born leader." These traits, while not totally responsible for an individual's success as a leader, are influential in the success of the leader. This theory assumes that if you can identify people with the correct traits, you will be able to identify leaders.

TABLE 3.3 Summary of Leadership Approaches

Approach	Definition
Trait approach	Trait theories study any superior or unique qualities that differentiate the leader from the followers, with the implication that it should be possible to identify a leader based on those traits.
Behavioral approach	This theoretical approach focuses on the leader's observable behaviors that influence followers to commit their actions to meet the specified task requirement of the leader. The theory stipulates the leader's behavior is the cue that evokes the followers' actions to accomplish a task or behave in a certain manner.
Power-influence approach	This research approach involves a dyadic leader-follower relationship. Like most research on traits and behavior, some of the power-influence research takes a leader-centered perspective with an implicit assumption that causality involves a dyadic leader-to-follower influence approach where the leaders direct a task and the followers react to perform the task based on the direction.
Situational approach	In this approach, the situation influences the demand that determines who will emerge as a leader for any given situation. For example, a situational theorist will contend that an emerging leader will appear in response to revolutionary upheaval, chaotic politics, social and economic distress, and the weakening of traditional institutions. In these situations, the emerging leader is a result of time, place, and circumstance, and the leader cannot help what he or she did since it was directed and controlled by the historical moment.
Integrative approach	The integrative approach includes more than a single variable of study. In this case, it could include a study of trait and behavioral approaches, or the power-influence and situational approaches, or any combination of approaches. It is rare, though, to find a study that includes all the approaches discussed in this section. Researchers today find that the outcome of leadership can be a matter of using various approaches.

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