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Leadership: A Comprehensive Review of Literature, Research and Theoretical Framework

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Abstract

This paper provides a comprehensive literature review on the research and theoretical framework of leadership. The author illuminates the historical foundation of leadership theories and then clarifies modern leadership approaches. After a brief introduction on leadership and its definition, the paper mentions the trait theories, summarizes the still predominant behavioral approaches, gives insights about the contingency theories and finally touches the latest contemporary leadership theories. The overall aim of the paper is to give a brief understanding of how effective leadership can be achieved throughout the organization by exploring many different theories of leadership, and to present leadership as a basic way of achieving individual and organizational goals. The paper is hoped to be an important resource for the academics and researchers who would like to study on the leadership field.

Keywords: Behavioral Approach, Contemporary Theories, Contingency Theories, Leadership, Servant Leadership, Trait Theories, Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership

1. Introduction

In order to attain organizational effectiveness, organizations have shifted away from the use of hierarchical structures and individualized jobs, and implemented team-based work structures. This implementation has increased the importance of individual initiative and cooperation (Le Pine, Erez, & Johnson. 2002). Therefore, in today's complex business world, one of the major concerns of organizations is motivating employees for initiative and cooperation in order to attain effective organizational functioning (Le Pine et al., 2002).

The concept of leadership has evolved and developed due to numerous organizational and environmental changes (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Several studies have been carried out to assess the effect of leadership on the performance of organizations and how organizational variables such as culture, employee effectiveness, satisfaction, performance, retention, and motivation are influenced by various leadership styles (Shaw & Newton, 2014; Siddique, Aslam, Khan, & Fatima, 2011; Yang, 2014; Yang & Islam, 2012).

The literature is very rich with theories about leadership in general. It has been a major topic of research in psychology, which has spawned thousands of empirical and conceptual studies (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). According to Yukl's (1989) study, most leadership researches suggest that leadership is an important determinant of organizational effectiveness. Leaders can significantly affect individual, group, and organizational performance (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Effective leaders influence individuals and groups so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels required by the organization (Ilies et al., 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

This paper aims to give a brief and clear understanding of leadership and theories of leadership in order to form the most effective leadership type.

2. Definition of Leadership

Leadership is mostly defined as the process of influencing a group toward the achievement of goals and directing the organization to make it more cohesive and coherent (Bass, 1997). A leader carries out such a process by applying his/her leadership qualities, such as values, beliefs, character, knowledge, skills, ethics, experience, and culture. Leaders inspire people, move them to action and change the world. Leadership is a social process that is highly complex.

Leadership includes influence processes involving determination of the group's objectives, motivating task behavior in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture (Yukl, 1989). Burns (1978) defined leadership as: "inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations, the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers." Table 1 summarizes the defining statements on leadership by researchers, which cover more than one century of academic work on the subject.

Table 1: Definitions of Leadership

Researchers	Definition of Leadership
Blackmar (1911)	It is the centralization of effort in one person.
Bernard (1927)	It focuses the attention of group members into the desired direction.
Copeland (1942)	It is the art of influencing.
Knickerbocker (1948)	It consists of a relationship between an individual and a group.
Stogdill (1950)	It is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its effort toward goal setting and goal achievement.
Bennis (1959)	It induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner.
Bass (1961)	It is an individual's effort to change the behavior of others.
Tannenbaum (1961)	It is interpersonal influence toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.
Katz and Kahn (1966)	It is an influential increment over and above compliance with the routine directives of the organization.
Burns (1978)	It transforms followers, creates visions of the goals that may be attained and articulates for the followers ways to attain those goals. Leadership persons mobilize resources to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers.
Pondy (1989)	It is a form of social influence.
Schein (1992)	It is the ability to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.
Bass (1994)	It is an interaction and leaders are agents of change whose acts affect other people more than people's acts affect them.
Drucker (1998)	It needs a leader. The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers.
Vroom and Jago (2007)	It refers to a potential or capacity to influence others.
Jung (2013)	It is the alignment of subordinates' activities and their motivational activation for goal attainment.

Source: Self-created

Review of the literature reveals three primary components to any leadership situation bound together by a concept of dynamic interaction between: the leader; the follower(s); and the context, environment, or situational aspect of their surroundings. The capable leader is one who knows how to capitalize on the potentialities inherent in his or her own personality, his or her subordinates, and the situation. From this perspective, leadership can be viewed as the ability to involve others in the process of accomplishing a goal within some larger system or environment.

3. Leadership Theories

Leadership is a social phenomenon that is found everywhere. People always are attracted by legends and myths about what distinguishes great leaders from followers (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

Several main trends can be discernible in the development of the study of leadership. While early theories tend to focus on the characteristics and behaviors of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and contextual nature of leadership (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003).

Over the years there have been a number of theories addressing the understanding of leadership, including great man theory, trait theory of leadership, behavioral theories, contingency theories, and contemporary leadership theories as charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and servant leadership theory.

3.1. Great Man Theory and Trait Theory

The Great Man approach is a leadership perspective that sought to identify the inherited traits leaders possessed that distinguished them from people who were not leaders (Daft, 2018). It assumes that the capacity for leadership is inherent – that great leaders are born, not made. The term 'Great Man' was used because leadership was conceptualized as a single 'Great Man' who put everything together and influenced others to follow along based on inherited traits, qualities, and abilities.

Trait theory assumes that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Traits are the distinguishing personal characteristics of a leader, such as intelligence, honesty, self-confidence, and appearance (Daft, 2018). A large number of personal traits and abilities have been associated with successful leaders, but traits themselves are not sufficient to guarantee effective leadership. Natural traits and behavior patterns can be developed into strengths. It is important for leaders to recognize their strengths and acknowledge the interdependence that is a key to effective leadership.

Trait research has been part of leadership studies conducted since the 1940s. Findings suggest that some traits are essential to effective leadership when other factors are present. Table 2 presents some of the traits and their respective categories that have been identified through trait research over the years.

Table 2: Studies of Leadership Traits and Characteristics

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive Ability
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task Knowledge
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		
Sociability		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Source: Leadership: Theory and Practice, P.G., Northouse. 2004, Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.

Researchers who pursue a trait approach to leadership assume that leaders are different from other people, and that there must be some deeper traits which cause some people to become leaders (Hampton, Summer, & Webber, 1978). The general approach was to compare leaders to non-leaders to see what differences existed with respect to different kinds of traits. The theory seemed valid for a time, but when it was recognized that leaders who didn't have those traits could always be found, another group of researchers began to concentrate on the behaviors of leaders.

3.2. Behavioral Theories

After World War II, research emphasis shifted from personality traits to a search for behavior that makes a difference in the performance or satisfaction of followers. Contrary to trait theories, leadership was viewed as an observable, personal characteristic. The theories developed at that time were called '*behavioral theories'* as they emphasized the leader's behavior. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. As Den Hartog and Koopman (2001) stated, the focus shifted from whom leaders are to what leaders do.

Behavioral theories' main theme is that leaders become successful and effective according to what they actually do – *behaviors* – when they are dealing with subordinates. Researchers focused on understanding the relationship between how the leaders behave and how the subordinates react emotionally – i.e. satisfaction – and behaviorally – i.e. performance (Feldman & Arnold, 1983). As an outcome of these studies, a variety of leadership styles are determined. The studies which are involved in behavioral approach are; University of Iowa Studies, Ohio State University Studies, University of Michigan Studies and University of Texas Study – The Leadership Grid.

3.2.1. Autocratic versus Democratic Behaviors

Autocratic is a leader who tends to centralize authority and derives power from position, control of rewards, and coercion, whereas *Democratic* is a leader who delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and depends on subordinate respect for influence (Daft, 2018).

3.2.2. University of Iowa Studies

The first studies on autocratic versus democratic leadership behaviors were conducted at the University of Iowa by Kurt Lewin (1939). The research included groups of children, each with their own designated adult leader who was instructed to act in either an autocratic or a democratic style.

Studies showed that the groups with autocratic leaders performed well when the leader supervised them. However, group members were displeased with the autocratic style of leadership, and feelings of hostility arose. Groups assigned to democratic leaders performed almost as good, and these groups were characterized by positive feelings rather than hostility. In addition, under the democratic style of leadership, group members performed well even when the leader was absent. Participative techniques and majority-rule decision-making used by the democratic leader trained and involved the group members to perform well with or without the leader present. The University of Iowa studies found that leadership behavior had a definite effect on follower performance and satisfaction.

This early work implied that leaders were either autocratic or democratic in their approach. Further work by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) indicated that leadership behavior could exist on a continuum reflecting different amounts of employee participation. Thus, one leader might be autocratic (boss-centered), another democratic (subordinate-centered), and a third a mix of the two styles, as shown in Figure 1 (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973).
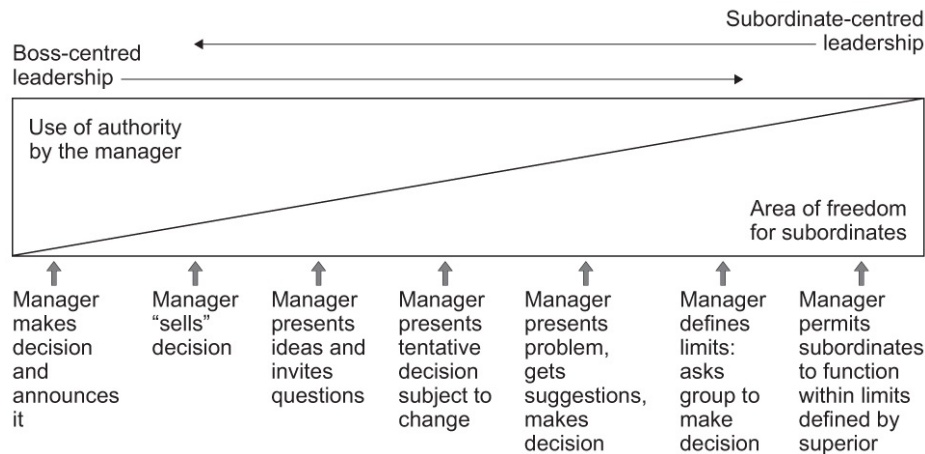
Figure 1: Leadership Continuum

Source: Harvard Business Review. An exhibit from Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt, ''How to Choose a Leadership Pattern'' (May–June 1973).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) suggested that the extent to which leaders should be autocratic or democratic depended on organizational circumstances and that leaders might adjust their behaviors to fit the circumstances. For example, if it takes too long for subordinates to make decisions, the leader will use an autocratic style. If subordinates can learn decision-making skills readily, a democratic style can be used. Also, the greater the skill difference, the more autocratic the leader approach, because it is difficult to bring subordinates up to the leader's expertise level (Heller & Yukl, 1969).

3.2.3. Ohio State University Studies

The Ohio State University Leadership Studies focused on how leaders could satisfy common group needs (Daft, 2018). As a result, two important dimensions of leader behavior were identified; *consideration* and *initiating structure*. Consideration is the extent to which a leader is sensitive to subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust. A leader who is high in consideration helps group members with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all group members as equals (Yukl, 1989). Initiating Structure is the extent to which a leader is task-oriented and directs subordinates' work activities toward goal achievement. A leader who is high in initiating structure directs tasks, plans, and rules with an iron hand (Bass, 1990).

The studies found that a leader who was high in both initiating structure and consideration – *a high-high leader* – achieved high group task performance and satisfaction more frequently than one who rated low on either dimension or both. In the studies of Ohio State University, a questionnaire was developed which was called Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill & Coons, 1957).

3.2.4. University of Michigan Studies

The studies directly compared the behavior of effective and ineffective supervisors. The effectiveness of leaders was determined by productivity of the subordinate group (Daft, 2018). Two types of leadership behavior were established: *employee-centered* and *job-centered*. Employee-centered is a leadership behavior that displays a focus on the human needs of subordinates. It deals with each employee, thinking that every employee is important and has personal needs. Job-centered is a leadership behavior in which leaders direct activities toward efficiency, cost-cutting, and scheduling, with an emphasis on goals and work facilitation. It focuses mostly on production and technical subjects, and it sees employees as tools for reaching company goals (Blanchard, Spears, & Lawrence, 2001).

The Michigan University researchers concluded that the employee-centered leaders were more effective as they were associated with high group productivity and high job satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). Unlike Ohio State University Studies, according to Michigan Studies, leaders could be employee-centered or job-centered, but not both. Performance was also influenced by other factors related to the situation.

3.2.5. University of Texas Study – The Leadership Grid

The Leadership Grid Model developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1985), from the University of Texas, is famous for its explanations about organizational leadership. This model focuses on two dimensions of the leader's behaviors, namely *concern for people* and *concern for production*. Concern for people is the degree to which a leader considers the needs of team members, their interests, and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task. Concern for production is the degree to which a leader emphasizes concrete objectives, organizational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task (Blake & Mouton, 1985).

The model identifies five different leadership styles based on the concern for people and the concern for production. The model is represented as a grid with concern for production as the X-axis and concern for people as the Y-axis; each axis ranges from 1 (Low) to 9 (High). The grid is shown in Figure 2.
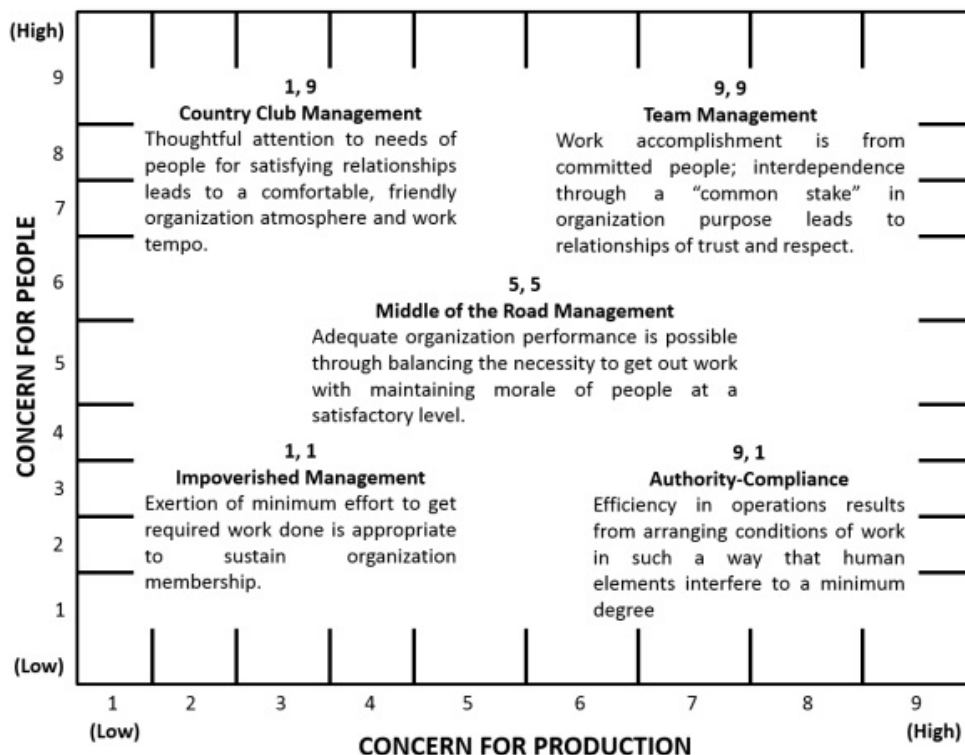

Figure 2: The Leadership Grid

Source: The Leadership Grid figure from Leadership Dilemmas—Grid Solutions by Robert R. Blake and Anne Adams McCanse. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, p. 29, (1991).
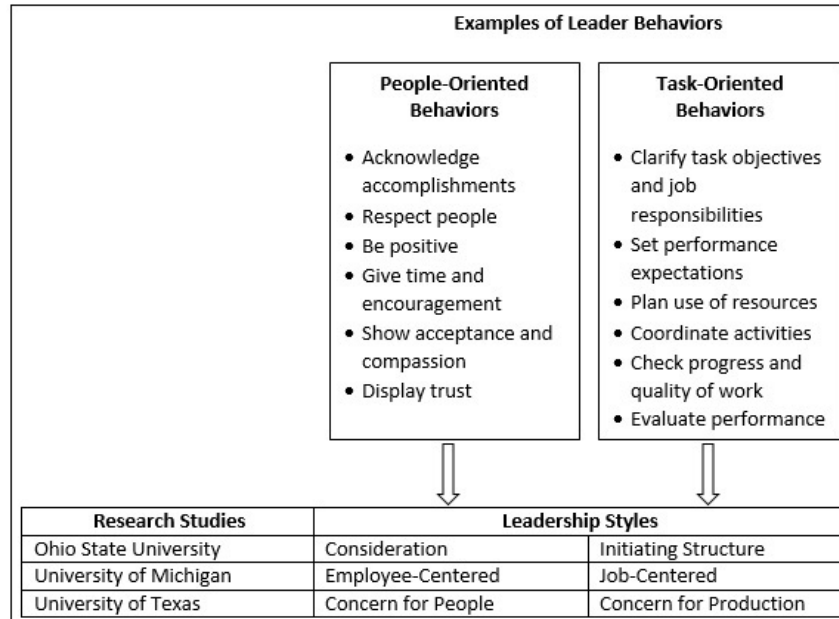
Five leadership styles are briefly described as follows (Blake & Mouton, 1985):

- *Team Management* (9,9): Members work together to accomplish tasks. It's considered the best style.
- *Country Club Management* (1,9): Emphasis is given to people rather than to work outputs.
- *Authority-Compliance Management* (9,1): Efficiency in operations is the dominant orientation.
- *Middle-of-the-Road Management* (5,5): A moderate amount of concern is shown for both people and production.
- *Impoverished Management* (1,1): Leaders exert little effort.

Blake and Mouton (1985) suggested that the way to reach effective leadership is integrating task-oriented and people-oriented behaviors.

The research about the behavior approach concluded in two dominant types of leadership behaviors; people-oriented and task-oriented. The behavior types as a result of the studies are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Themes of Leader Behavior Research

Examples of Leader Behaviors

People-Oriented Behaviors	Task-Oriented Behaviors
• Acknowledge accomplishments • Respect people • Be positive • Give time and encouragement • Show acceptance and compassion • Display trust	• Clarify task objectives and job responsibilities • Set performance expectations • Plan use of resources • Coordinate activities • Check progress and quality of work • Evaluate performance

Research Studies	Leadership Styles	
Ohio State University	Consideration	Initiating Structure
University of Michigan	Employee-Centered	Job-Centered
University of Texas	Concern for People	Concern for Production

Source: The Leadership Experience, by Richard L. Daft, 7th Edition, Cengage Learning, (2018).

The behavior approach explored autocratic versus democratic leadership, consideration versus initiating structure, employee-centered versus job-centered leadership, and concern for people versus concern for production. These are fundamental behaviors through which leaders meet followers' needs.

3.3. Contingency (Situational) Theories

In the late 1960s, the importance of situation on the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness began to hold a great place in researches. The general assumption of the situational approach is that different situations require different leadership styles. Leaders should select a style that best fits with the situation at a given time (Gordon, 1996). This is a very practical approach because it suggests different leadership styles to different situations. Well-known theories of situational approach include: Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership (1967), Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1969), House's Path-Goal Theory (1971) and Vroom, Yetton, and Jago's Contingency Model (1973).

3.3.1. Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership

Fiedler (1967) developed the 'Contingency Model of Leadership' and defined two leadership styles: '*relationship-oriented*' and '*task-oriented*' which were again similar to consideration and initiating structure, respectively. Relationship-oriented leaders are concerned with developing good relations with their subordinates and to be liked by them. Task-oriented leaders' primary concern is to ensure that subordinates perform at a high level so the job gets done. They provide clear directions and sets performance standards.

Fiedler measures an individual's leadership style through the LPC (Least Preferred Co-worker Questionnaire). It measures the leadership style by having the leader describe a coworker with whom he/she had difficulty completing a job; not necessarily someone disliked, but someone with whom they least liked to work. After the person is chosen, the LPC instrument asks the leader to describe the coworker on a set of adjectives. The adjectives the leader chooses to describe the LPC determine if the leader is task-oriented or relationship-oriented. Examples of the adjectives used by Fiedler (1967) on the LPC scale are as follows:

- *open   guarded*
- *quarrelsome   harmonious*
- *efficient   inefficient*
- *self-assured   hesitant*

- *gloomy   cheerful*

According to LPC scale, the leader who describes the least preferred co-worker in positive terms is relationship-oriented; and the leader who describes the least preferred co-worker in negative terms is task-oriented (Fiedler, 1967).

After assessing the leadership style through LPC, it is essential to evaluate the situation to match the leader with the situation. Leadership styles' effectiveness depends on the favorability of the situation as defined by three contingencies (Fiedler, 1967):

- *Leader-Member Relations* – quality of interpersonal relationships among a leader and group members. The extent to which followers like, trust, and are loyal to their leader
- *Task Structure* – degree of clarity or ambiguity in the group's work activities
- *Position Power* – the authority of the leader to reward and punish his/her subordinates.

A *favorable* situation will occur if leader-member relations are good, task structure is high and position power is strong; a *moderate* situation will occur if some of the three elements are high and others low; an *unfavorable* situation will occur if leader-member relations are poor, task structure is low and position power is weak (Fiedler, 1967). He suggested that, in very favorable and very unfavorable situations, the task-oriented leader would be effective, and in moderately favorable situations, the relationship-oriented leader. If the leader did not fit the situation, then the situation should have been changed by modifying these three contingencies (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

3.3.2. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) extension of the Leadership Grid focuses on the characteristics of followers as the most important element of the situation and, consequently, on determining effective leader behavior. There were two key leadership dimensions that Fiedler (1967) identified previously: task and relationship behaviors. In the situational leadership model, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) added the *readiness* to the task and relationship behaviors. The model explains the relationship between the followers' readiness and the effective leadership style.

The readiness level of the followers was defined as their ability and willingness to function (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). People tend to have varying degrees of readiness, depending on the particular task or goal that a leader tries to accomplish. The model shows that the readiness levels of a leader's subordinates play a major role in determining which leadership styles are best suited. People low in readiness need a different leadership style than those who are high in readiness.

According to the situational theory, a leader can adopt one of four leadership styles, based on a combination of relationship (concern for people) and task (concern for production) behavior. The appropriate style depends on the readiness level of followers, as shown in Figure 3.
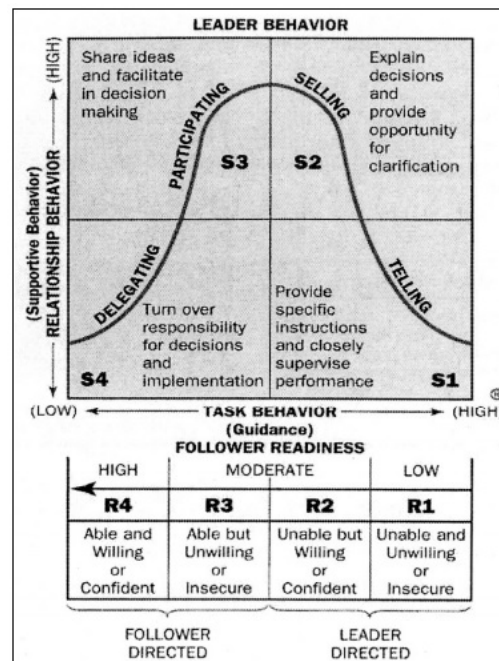
Figure 3: Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

Source: Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., (1993), Management of Organizational Behavior – Utilizing Human Resources, 6th Edition, Prentice-Hall International, New Jersey.

There are four stages of follower readiness (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993):

- *R1*: People are both unable and unwilling to take responsibility for doing something. They are neither competent nor confident.
- *R2*: People are unable but willing to do the necessary job tasks. They are motivated, but currently lack the appropriate skills.
- *R3*: People are able but unwilling to do what the leader wants.
- *R4*: People are both able and willing to do what is asked for them.

Task and relationship behaviors are considered as high or low and combined into four specific leadership styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993):

- *Telling (high task – low relationship)*: The leader defines roles and tells people what, how, when, and where to do various tasks.
- *Selling (high task – high relationship)*: The leader provides both directive and supportive behavior.
- *Participating (low task – high relationship)*: the leader and follower share in decision-making; the main role of the leader is facilitating and communicating.
- *Delegating (low task – low relationship)*: The leader provides little direction or support.

Matching the follower readiness with appropriate leader style is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Hersey and Blanchard's Leadership Styles

Follower Readiness	Appropriate Leader Style
Low readiness level – R1	Telling (high task – low relationship)
Moderate readiness level – R2	Selling (high task – high relationship)
High readiness level – R3	Participating (low task – high relationship)
Very high readiness level – R4	Delegating (low task – low relationship)

Source: self-created in reference to Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., (1993), Management of Organizational Behavior – Utilizing Human Resources, 6th Edition, Prentice-Hall International, New Jersey

3.3.3. House's Path–Goal Theory

The most supported and influential contingency theory to date is probably House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership, developed in 1971. The theory describes how the behavior of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates (Yukl, 1989). According to the theory, the duty of the leader is to clean the road for the employees and get rid of problems on the way leading to defined goals, so the employees can function more efficiently (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). In particular, as seen in Figure 4, leaders increase follower motivation either by (House 1971):

- *clarifying the follower's path to the rewards that are available, or*
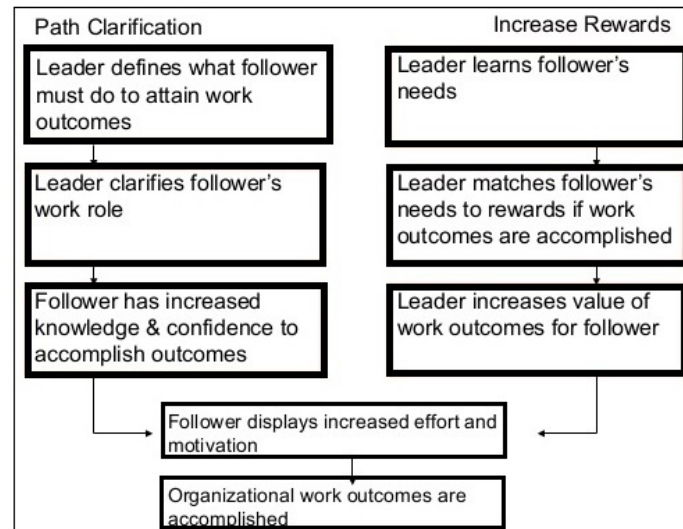- *increasing the rewards that the follower values and desires.*

Figure 4: Leader Roles in the Path–Goal Model

Source: self-created in reference to Daft, R.L., (2018), The Leadership Experience, 7th Edition, Cengage Learning.

A leader may perform these behaviors by adopting a certain leadership style based on the situation. The path–goal theory suggests a fourfold classification of leadership styles (House, 1971):

- *Supportive Leadership*: leader is friendly and approachable, attends to the wellbeing of subordinates, and treats everyone as equal.
- *Directive Leadership*: leader gives instructions, expectations, timelines, and performance standards.
- *Participative Leadership*: leader invites subordinates to give ideas, share opinions and integrates their suggestions into the decision-making process.
- *Achievement-Oriented Leadership*: leader challenges subordinates to perform at the highest level possible. Leader has high standards of excellence and seeks continuous improvement.

Some examples of how leadership behavior is tailored to the situation can be seen in Figure 5.
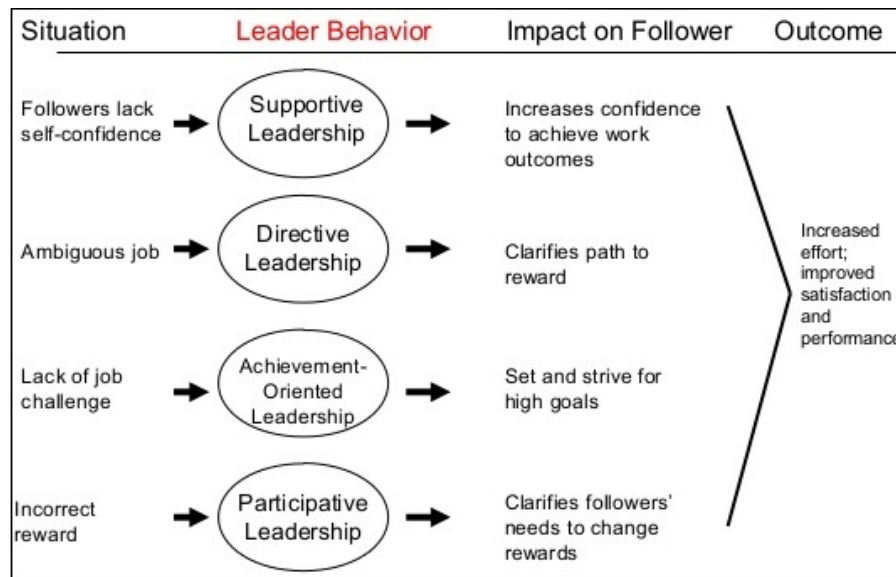
Figure 5: Path–Goal Situations and Preferred Leader Behaviors
Source: self-created in reference to Daft, R.L., (2018), The Leadership Experience, 7th Edition, Cengage Learning.

In all four cases, the outcome of fitting the leadership behavior to the situation produces greater employee effort by either clarifying how subordinates can receive rewards or changing the rewards to fit their needs (Daft, 2018).

3.3.4. Vroom, Yetton and Jago's Contingency Model

This model was first developed by Vroom and Yetton (1973) and some contributions were subsequently made by Vroom and Jago (1988). In the model, it is assumed that different leadership styles can be displayed by the same leader. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model asserts that, during the decision-making process, the contribution of the followers is important. The aim of the model is, while maintaining the quality of the decision, to provide the acceptance of it by the followers (Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). This leadership contingency model relates leadership behavior and participation in decision-making.

The model starts with the idea that a leader faces a problem that requires a solution. As a decision-making model, its premise is that the most effective leadership decision style depends on whether the leader desires a high-quality decision or is more concerned with subordinates' acceptance of the decision (Vroom& Yetton, 1973). The model's purpose is to predict when leaders should or should not allow subordinates to participate in the decision-making process. Vroom and Yetton (1973) determined five leadership styles from autocratic leadership to democratic leadership (Figure 6). A leader can choose to be autocratic and make decisions without input from employees or display democratic behaviors and encourage participation and input.
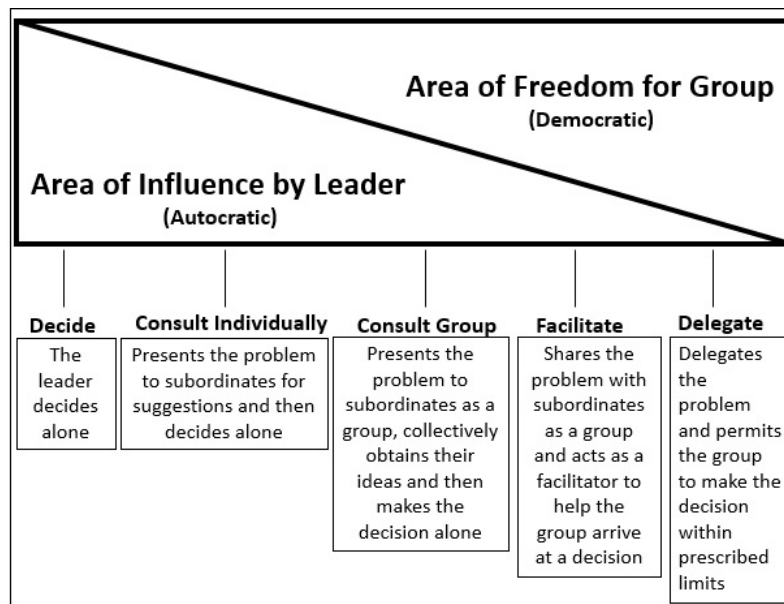
Figure 6: Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model Five Leader Decision Styles

Source: self-created in reference to Vroom, V.H. (2000), Leadership and the decision making process. Organizational Dynamics, 28(4), 82–94.

Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model is a normative model and it suggests a sequence of rules to be followed for determining the decision-making style. Seven diagnostic questions in the following areas can determine how much subordinates should participate in making a decision:

- *Decision Significance*. How significant is this decision for the project or organization?
- *Importance of Commitment*. How important is subordinate commitment to carrying out the decision?
- *Leader Expertise*. What is the level of the leader's expertise in relation to the problem?
- *Likelihood of Commitment*. If the leader were to make the decision alone, would subordinates have high or low commitment to the decision?
- *Goal Alignment*. Are the employee goals aligned with organizational goals?
- *Group Expertise*. What is the level of group members' knowledge and expertise in relation to the problem?
- *Team Competence*. How skilled and committed are group members to working together as a team to solve problems?

As the leader answers each question as high (H) or low (L), the answer will take the leader through the decision tree to an appropriate outcome (Figure 7).

Decision Significance	Importance of Commitment	Leader Expertise	Likelihood of Commitment	Goal Alignment	Group Expertise	Team Competence	
H	H	H	H	-	-	-	Decide
			L	H	H	H	Facilitate
						L	Consult (Group)
					L	-	Consult (Group)
				L	-	-	
		L	H	H	H	H	Delegate
						L	Consult (Individually)
					L	-	Consult (Individually)
				L	-	-	
			L	H	H	H	Facilitate
						L	Consult (Group)
					L	-	Consult (Group)
				L	-	-	
	L	H	-	-	-	-	Decide
		L	-	H	H	H	Facilitate
						L	Consult (Individually)
					L	-	Consult (Individually)
				L	-	-	
L	H	-	H	-	-	-	Decide
			L	-	-	H	Delegate
						L	Facilitate
	L	-	-	-	-	-	Decide

Figure 7: Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model Leadership Decision Tree
Source: Vroom, V. H. (2000). Leadership and the decision making process. Organizational Dynamics, 28(4), 82–94.

The main assumption of the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model is that there is no single leadership style or decision-making process that fits all situations. To find the process best suited to the situation, the leader needs to consider a number of factors. The model walks the leader through these factors logically, to help to identify the most appropriate process and style. Leaders can quickly learn to use the model to adapt their styles to fit the situation.

3.4. Contemporary Leadership Theories

Around the 1980s, the face of the business world and, in turn, the concept of effective leadership changed. Conger and Kanungo (1994) stated that: "*earlier distinctions between task-oriented and people-oriented and some contingency approaches such as Fiedler's Contingency and Path Goal Theories seemed inadequate to address certain organizational leadership issues of the 1980s.*" Due to rapid globalization in the world, it became a lot harder to lead large-scale companies and be successful in change efforts. This new environment demanded different characteristics and skills from so-called effective leaders. This need in the business world emerged '*contemporary leadership theories*' around the 1980s. Researchers defined new leadership styles and models which would not have been replaced nor explained by any other models, such as the people-oriented and task-oriented leadership models (Bass, 1990). These new leadership styles are Charismatic Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Servant Leadership.

3.4.1. Charismatic Leadership

The charismatic leadership approach today could be considered as the most influential approach on leadership studies (Winkler, 2010). Today's theories of charismatic leadership are strongly influenced by the ideas of an early sociologist, Max Weber. He used the term to define a form of influence-based not on traditional or formal authority, but rather on follower perceptions that the leader is endowed with exceptional powers or qualities (Weber, 1947). According to Weber, charisma takes place during a social crisis, when a leader emerges with a radical vision that proffers a solution to the crisis and attracts followers who believe in the vision (Yukl, 2010). Modern development of charismatic leadership theory is often attributed to the work of Robert House (Luthans, 2010). According to House's charismatic leadership theory, followers attribute heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when they observe certain behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Several studies have tried to identify the characteristics of charismatic leaders: they have a vision, they are willing to take personal risks to achieve that vision, they are sensitive to follower needs, and they present marvelous behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Most experts believe that individuals are not only born with traits that make them charismatic, but also they can be trained to present charismatic behaviors (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Evidence suggests that charismatic leaders influence their followers in a four-step process. It begins with articulating an appealing vision, a long-term strategy for attaining a goal by linking the present with a better future for the organization. Second, charismatic leaders may use vision statements to imprint on followers an overarching goal and purpose. They build followers' self-esteem and confidence with high performance expectations and belief that followers can attain them. Third, through words and actions, the leader transmits a new set of values and sets an example for followers to imitate. Finally, the charismatic leader engages in emotion-inducing and often unconventional behavior to demonstrate courage and conviction about the vision. Followers catch the emotions their leader is conveying (Robbins & Judge, 2013; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

Charisma can be used for positive outcomes that benefit the group, and charismatic leaders can be portrayed as wonderful heroes. However, there can also be unethical characteristics associated with charismatic leaders. It can also be used for self-serving purposes that lead to deception, manipulation and exploitation of others (Daft & Marcic, 2009; Luthans, 2010).

3.4.2. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership represents a paradigm shift with regard to the study of leadership (Medley & Larochelle, 1995). As an emerging leadership paradigm, transformational leadership focuses on transformation of the organization and its members from the current state to a better state that is aligned with organizational vision, mission and goals (Top, Akdere, & Tarcan, 2015). The term transformational leadership was first introduced by Burns (1978). According to him, transformational leaders provide change and movement in an organization. They emphasize new possibilities and promote a compelling vision of the future to minimize resistance to change. Transformational leaders manifest passionate inspiration, and visibly model appropriate behaviors (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders are briefly referred to as change agents (Eisenbach, Watson, & Pillai, 1999).

Following Burns' theory of leadership, Bass (1985) described a more detailed theory for transformational leadership. According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders make the followers more aware of the importance and values of task outcomes, activate their higher order needs, and stimulate followers to act for the sake of the organization. Bass (1985) noted that transformational leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their constituencies, and that they do so by generating awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group. Bass (1985) defined transformational leaders by their charismatic appeal to their followers, the inspiration they provide them and the individual consideration they give them. Transformational leadership also involves motivating the followers to perform beyond the minimum level of requirements for the organization by putting higher level goals and developing an appropriate work environment (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Williams et al., 1999). In the light of findings throughout the years, some characteristics of transformational leaders can be summarized as in Table 5.

Table 5: Characteristics of Transformational Leaders

Researchers	Characteristics of Transformational Leaders
Burns, (1978)	• They provide change and movement in an organization.
Bass, (1985)	• They broaden and elevate the interests of their constituencies.
Kuhnert and Lewis, (1987)	• They are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on people by causing shifts in the beliefs, the needs, and the values of followers; thus followers can become leaders themselves.
Den Hartog et al., (1997)	• They transform the organization by defining the need for change, creating new visions, mobilizing commitment to these visions and by providing awareness of the organizational vision and goals.
Eisenbach et al., (1999)	• They are referred to as change agents.
Egri and Herman, (2000)	• They tend to direct specific activities as much as to alter moods, to evoke symbolic images and expectations, and to inspire desires and objectives.
Antonakis et al., (2003)	• They are proactive, raise follower awareness for transcendent collective interests and motivate followers to achieve out of range goals.
Avolio and Bass, (2004)	• They inspire followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the organization with their vision. • They heighten the awareness of followers with vision they create and the strategies for reaching them. • They develop higher level needs for followers such as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work and not work related.

Source: Self-created

Transformational leaders consider their employees' individual differences and mentor them to develop themselves. Such leaders stimulate their incumbents intellectually, encourage and show them how to solve old problems with a new style, and put emphasis on rationality as a problem solving strategy (Bass, 1990).

The first clear distinction between transformational and transactional leadership was made by Burns (1978) in describing the leadership process as '*transformational*'. Bass refined the concept of transformational leadership and transactional leadership through numerous research studies in business organizations (Bass, 1999; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003, Bass, Berson, & Riggio, 2006; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). The vast majority of researchers in existing leadership literature suggest that transformational leadership is one of the most influential approaches towards leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass, 1995; Bass et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et al., 2006; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Hater, Bass, & Guion, 1988; Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

3.4.3. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership generally uses organizational bureaucracy, policy, power, and authority to maintain control; this style of leadership is occasionally referred to as authoritative (Bennet, 2009). Transactional leaders emphasize work standards, assignments, and task-oriented goals. In addition, transactional leaders tend to focus on task completion and employee compliance, and these leaders rely quite heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). They explain what is required of them and what compensation they will receive if they fulfil these requirements (Bass, 1990).

Transactional leadership focuses on ways to maintain the status quo and manage the day-to-day operations of a business. It does not focus on identifying the organization's goals and how employees can work toward and increase their productivity in alignment with these goals, thus increasing organizational profitability (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991).

Followers are motivated and corrected by the leaders' transactional actions. Egri and Herman (2000) defined the main concern of transactional leaders as being that of the accomplishment of the subordinates' task performance in terms of meeting organizational goals and objectives. Leaders gain the commitment of employees through giving them contingent rewards. Therefore, Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) suggested that effective transactional leaders must regularly fulfil the expectations of their followers.

The basis of transactional leadership is a transaction or exchange process between leaders and followers. The transactional leader recognizes followers' needs and desires and then clarifies how those needs and desires will be satisfied in exchange for meeting specified objectives or performing certain duties. Thus, followers receive rewards for job performance, while leaders benefit from the completion of tasks (Vecchio, 2002). Because of these transactional relationships, some of the theories explained in the previous section can be considered as transactional theories, such as path-goal theory and initiating structure. Transactional leadership involves a commitment to '*follow the rules*'; therefore, transactional leaders maintain stability within the organization rather than promoting change (Vecchio, 2002).

There is a temporary process for transactional leadership. Once a transaction is complete, the relationship between the leader and subordinates can end or be redefined for the next transaction (Lussier & Achua, 2001). Therefore, the nature of this kind of leadership style is based on a short-term relationship between leader and follower.

Comparison between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978) stated that transactional leaders motivate followers to perform their jobs, while transformational leaders insist on satisfying the needs of their followers. Burns (1978) also suggested that transactional and transformational leaderships are the two opposite ends of a whole.

An important point that separates a transactional leader from a transformational leader is that a transactional leader focuses on economy. That means a transactional leader is sensitive to who will better perform which job (Rosenberg, 1996). On the other hand, transformational leadership is the ability of understanding followers' needs, desires and what motivates them and also it is the ability of satisfying followers; thus, benefiting from employees' full capacity (Bennis, 1984; Conger, 1989; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1990).

Judge and Piccolo's (2004) study, which is about the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership, states that it is difficult to reveal the effect of each one of the leadership style because of the high relationship between these leadership styles. In transactional leadership, leaders and followers enter the interaction to be able to satisfy their needs mutually. However, in transformational leadership, leaders and followers enter the interaction to have a more creative environment for the benefit of the entire organization (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

According to Ross and Offerman (1997), transformational leaders try to change organizational culture, followers' norms, targets and ideals. They try to exceed the expectations of their followers. However, transactional leaders try to reach current targets.

Bass (1995) claimed that both leadership styles can be observed in a leader. In fact, he claimed that, if transformational leadership is based on transactional leadership, the effect of the latter will be higher. Parallel to this view, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) also affirmed that transactional and transformational leaderships are interrelated and the best of leadership emerges when they are used together. Avolio and Bass (2002) empirically proved that a combination of both may be effective and may produce positive impacts on performance. On the other hand, many research results show that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Ozaralli, 2003)

3.4.4. Servant Leadership

In the second half of the 20th century, traditional, autocratic and hierarchical leadership models were beginning to yield to newer ones (Bass, 1985; Spears, 1995). Robert K. Greenleaf (1970) defined his concept of servant

leadership, which stressed the need for a new, more holistic community-based leadership model. Ethical and caring behavior is key in this type of leadership.

Greenleaf (1970) also defined the servant leadership as leadership behavior motivated by the intention to serve so that the followers become empowered, responsible, healthier, wiser, and autonomous. Graham (1991) proposed that servant leadership would emerge as humility, relational power, autonomy and moral development of followers and emulation of leaders' service orientation. Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) studied the historical evolution of servant leadership and portrayed it as a genuine sense of calling to be just and trusted stewards and to inspire in others the full potential of their abilities.

According to Greenleaf (1970), the word 'servant' implies an approach to leadership that supports the moral and ethical empowerment of others, which is an important ingredient of becoming a servant leader. The implication of Greenleaf's conceptualization of servant leadership is that "leadership without service is less substantial, more ego-driven and selfish, instead of being community centered, altruistic and empathetic" (Crippen, 2005, p.4). Servant leadership is, therefore, not a model of leadership that is self-serving, manipulative, short-sighted or power oriented, but is motivated by the underlying principles of service (Taylor, 1998). Servant leaders believe that it is their duty to see to the overall mental and spiritual wellbeing of those with whom they associate. When people receive service and guidance from others, they will, in return, serve and lead more people, to the extent that a wider number of employees, consumers, and even the whole society perceive this service (Taylor, 1998).

The notion of servant leadership has received growing attention and recognition in recent years (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Various researchers have espoused servant leadership as a valid theory of organizational leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002) with great promise for theoretical and practical development.

4. Conclusion

The productivity and success of the organizations depend on the understanding of the complex and multifaceted human factor and the creation of an appropriate working environment. It is very important to create employee productivity and job satisfaction by applying effective leadership styles, as well as to achieve organizational goals and effectiveness. At this point, the knowledge of leadership theories may help to interact better with employees and to activate more effective leadership processes.

The paper has provided a comprehensive review on the literature, research and theoretical framework of leadership. The leadership approaches mentioned in this paper need to be fully understood in order to achieve individual and organizational effectiveness and efficiency. It is hoped that this work will serve as a resource for leadership researchers.

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