

Lesson:-22

Leadership and approaches to leadership

Dear students today we will be studying the concept leadership.

Definition and Meaning of leadership

Leadership is the **ability to influence** individuals or groups toward the achievement of goals.

Leadership, as a process, **shapes the goals** of a group or organization, **motivates behavior** toward the achievement of those goals, and helps define group or organizational culture. It is primarily a process of influence.

Leadership versus Management : Although some managers are able to influence followers to work toward the achievement of organizational goals, the conferring of formal authority upon a manager does not necessarily make that individual a leader. Yes, that individual has authority, but whether or not they are able to influence their subordinates may depend on more than just that authority.

Not all leaders are managers, and similarly, not all managers are leaders. Within a team environment, manager and leader are simply roles taken on by members of the team. Most teams require a manager to "manage" -- coordinate, schedule, liaise, contact, organize, procure -- their affairs. The functions of this role may well be quite different from those of the leader (to motivate followers towards the achievement of team goals). Management roles need not presuppose any ability to influence. A leader, on the other hand, must have the ability to influence other team members.

So students There is an interesting story, which nicely illustrates the difference between a manager and a leader.

Newly appointed to the position of supervisor in a large industrial plant, a manager decided to impress his subordinates with his authority. Striding purposefully onto the plant floor, the manager carefully chose the subject of his well-rehearsed address. Once he had arrived at the workstation manned by the union shop steward, he announced, in words loud enough for most workers to hear, "I want to make one thing perfectly clear: I RUN THIS PLANT!"

Unimpressed, the shop steward held up his hand. On seeing his signal, all the workers shut off their equipment. Then, in the eerie silence of the large plant, the shop steward challenged the manager: "OK. So, let's see you run it."

Clearly, by virtue of his appointment to the position of manager, the supervisor had authority. However, without followers, he was no leader. In this scenario, the union shop steward is the leader. In spite of the authority inherent in the position of supervisor, the workers chose to follow the directives of the shop steward.

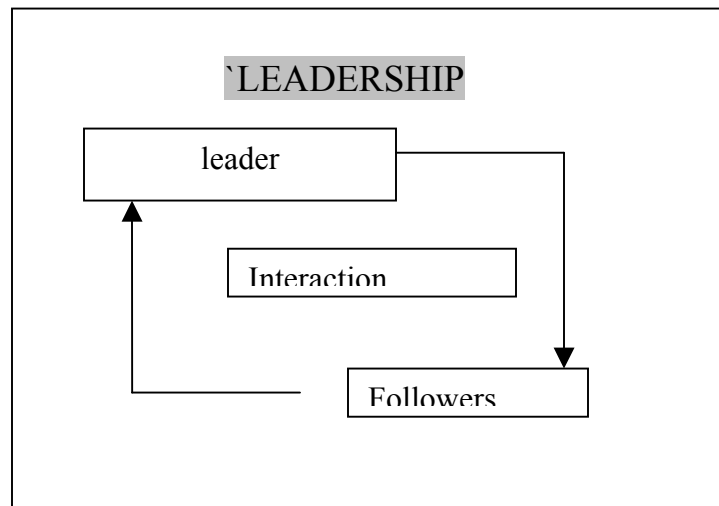
So students I think now u are clear with the difference between a leader and the Manager. So now lets sort out the fundamental difference between a manager and a leader:

- ◆ A manager administers, but a leader innovates
- ◆ A manager maintains, while a leader develops
- ◆ A manager focuses on systems and structures, whereas a leader's focus is on people
- ◆ A manager relies on control, but a leader inspires trust
- ◆ A manager keeps an eye on the bottom line, while a leader has an eye on the horizon
- ◆ A manager does things right, a leader does the right thing.

A leader must, by definition, have followers. To understand leadership, we must explore the relationship which leaders have with their followers

If we examine the term leadership more minutely, it will be found that it has the following implications:

- ❖ Leadership *involves other people*. In the absence of followers or employees, the whole idea of leadership does not make any sense.
- ❖ Leadership involves an *unequal distribution of power* between leaders and other group members.



Leadership is related to someone's ability to motivate others and managing interpersonal behaviour. Needless to say, it relies heavily on the process of effective communication. Leadership is important in attempting to reduce employee dissatisfaction. Good leadership also involves the effective delegation of power and authority. It is important to

note that leadership is a dynamic process involving changes in the leader-follower relationship. The leader-follower relationship is a two-way process and is essentially a reciprocal one in nature.

The concept of power is inherently implied in the process of leadership. Power, as we understand the term in this context, is one's ability to exert influence, i.e. to change the attitude or behaviour of individuals and the groups. There are five possible bases of power as identified by French and Raven (1968) which are: **reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, and expert power**. The greater the number of these power sources available, the greater is one's potential for effective leadership.

Let us try to understand each of these power sources.

- ◆ **Reward power** is based on the subordinate's *perception* that the leader has the ability to control rewards that the followers are looking for; for example, leader's ability to influence the decisions regarding pay, promotion, praise, recognition, increased responsibilities, allocation and arrangement of work, granting of privileges etc.
- ◆ **Coercive power** is based on fear and the subordinate's *perception* that the leader has the ability to punish or to cause an unpleasant experience for those who do not comply with directives. Examples include withholding pay raises, promotion or privileges; allocation of undesirable duties or responsibilities; withdrawal of friendship or support; formal reprimands or possibly dismissal. This is in effect the opposite of reward power.
- ◆ **Legitimate power** is based on subordinate's *perception* that the leader has a right to exercise influence because of holding a particular position in the hierarchy of organizational structure. Legitimate power is thus based on authority and not on the nature of personal relationship with others.
- ◆ **Referent power** is based on the subordinate's *identification* with the leader. The leader is able to influence the followers because of the interpersonal attraction and his personal charisma. The followers obey the leader because of their respect and esteem towards him.
- ◆ **Expert power** is derived from the subordinate's *perception* of the leader as someone who has access to information and relevant knowledge.

Management and Leadership

Though the terms 'management' and 'leadership' are often used interchangeably there are certain fundamental differences between these two. As Belbin (1997) pointed out, leadership does not necessarily take place within the hierarchical structure of the organization and there is a clear implication that leadership is not part of the job but a quality that can be brought to a job. Hollingsworth (1989) lists at least six fundamental differences between management and leadership.

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- ◆ A manager maintains, while a leader develops

- ◆ A manager focuses on systems and structures, whereas a leader's focus is on people
- ◆ A manager relies on control, but a leader inspires trust
- ◆ A manager keeps an eye on the bottom line, while a leader has an eye on the horizon
- ◆ A manager does things right, a leader does the right thing.

Approaches To Leadership

The subject of leadership is so vast and perceived to be so critical, it has generated a huge body of literature. Each researcher working in the field has tried to explain leadership from a different perspective. Broadly, there are four distinct approaches to leadership, viz. Traits theory, Behaviouristic theory, Contingency theory and Charismatic theories of leadership.

Traits Theory

Ask people what good leadership is, and it's quite likely you will get a response that suggests good leadership can somehow be defined in terms of traits or characteristics.

Similarly, if one were to ask people to design an experiment aimed at defining good leadership, it's likely the response will be an attempt to isolate the characteristics of leaders of organizations deemed to be successful (by whatever terms that success is measured).

This is exactly what the initial, formal research into leadership was all about. There was a sense among researchers that some critical leadership traits could be isolated. There was also a feeling that people with such traits could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership positions.

Leadership theories 1 : Trait theory

Assumes a leader's personal attributes are the key to leadership success

- How do we explain leaders as diverse, as Hitler, Stalin, Gandhi?
- What are the key attributes ?

The problem with the trait approach lies in the fact that almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified. After several years of such research, it became apparent that no such traits could be identified. Although some traits were identified in a considerable number of studies, the results were generally inconclusive.

Researchers were further confounded by questions about how to find commonality or generalizability from an examination of the traits of leaders as diverse as Stalin, Hitler, Martin Luther King Jr., John F. Kennedy, Churchill, Mother Theresa, Gandhi and Margaret Thatcher. Do these leaders have any trait in common? Is this a trait all leaders must possess?

- *technical skill*
- *friendliness*
- *task motivation*
- *application to task*
- *group task supportiveness*
- *social skill*
- *emotional control*
- *administrative skill*
- *general charisma*
- *intelligence*

Behaviouristic Theory:

The results of the trait studies were inconclusive. Traits, among other things, were hard to measure. How, for example, do we measure traits such as honesty, integrity, loyalty, or diligence? Another approach in the study of leadership had to be found.

To measure traits, researchers had to rely on constructs which lacked reliability and, given differing definitions, also lacked validity. After the problems with the trait approach became evident, researchers turned to an examination of leader behaviors. With behaviors, researchers could rely on empirical evidence. Behaviors, contrary to traits, could be observed. It was thus decided to examine the behaviors of successful (again, by whatever means success was measured) leaders.

The initial phases of the behavioral research seemed as frustrating as the trait approach -- the number of behaviors identified was staggering. However, over time, it appeared that the key behaviors could be grouped or categorized. The most prominent studies were those undertaken by the University of Michigan and by Ohio State University.

Interestingly, both studies arrived at similar conclusions. Both studies concluded that leadership behaviors could be classified into two groups.

The University of Michigan studies (Rensis Likert) identified two styles of leader behavior:

- Production centered behavior: when a leader pays close attention to the work of sub-ordinates, explains work procedures, and is keenly interested in performance.

- Employee centered behavior: when the leader is interested in developing a cohesive work group and in ensuring employees are satisfied with their jobs.

These two styles of leader behavior were believed to lie at the ends of a single continuum. Likert found that employee-centered leader behavior generally tended to be more effective.

Researchers at Ohio State leadership found results which suggested two basic leader behaviors or styles.

- Initiating structure behavior: when the leader clearly defines the leader-subordinate, establishes formal lines of communication, and determines how tasks are to be performed.
- Consideration behavior: the leader shows concern for subordinates and attempts to establish a warm, friendly, and supportive climate.

Unlike the Michigan Studies, these two behaviors were not viewed as opposite ends of a continuum, but as independent variables. Thus the leader can exhibit varying degrees of both initiating structure and consideration at the same time.

Rather than concentrating on what leaders are, as the trait approach did, the behavioral approach forced looking at what leaders do. The main shortcomings of the behavioral approach was its focus on finding a dependable prescription for effective leadership.

The Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton (1985) tried to show an individual's style of leadership on a 9x9 grid consisting of two separate dimensions, viz. concern for production and concern for people which are similar to the concept of employee-centered and production-centered styles of leadership as mentioned earlier. The grid has nine possible positions along each axis creating a total of eighty-one possible styles of leader behaviour. The managerial grid thus identifies the propensity of a leader to act in a particular way. The (9,1) style is known as **task management** which focuses wholly on production. Managers with this style are exceptionally competent with the technicalities of a particular job but are miserable failures in dealing with people. The (1,9) style in contrast emphasizes people to the exclusion of task performance and is known as **country club style of management**.

The ideal style of leadership, as envisioned by the theory of managerial grid is the (9,9) style or **team management style** where there is maximum concern for both people and production. The research evidence in favour of the view that managers perform best under (9,9) style is however scanty.

The basic criticisms against the behaviouristic theories are that:

- Lack of generalizations of the findings as they found to vary widely
- Ignoring the significant influence of the situational factors.

Contingency theories

Managerial leadership has influenced organizational activities in many ways. These influences include motivating subordinates, budgeting scarce resources, and serving as a source of communication. Over the years researchers have emphasized the influences of leadership on the activities of subordinates. These emphasis by researchers led to theories about leadership. "The first and perhaps most popular, situational theory to be advanced was the 'Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness' developed by Fred E. Fiedler" This theory explains that group performance is a result of interaction of two factors. These factors are known as leadership style and situational favorableness. These two factors will be discussed along with other aspects of Fiedler's theory. "In Fiedler's model, leadership effectiveness is the result of interaction between the style of the leader and the characteristics of the environment in which the leader works" .

The first major factor in Fiedler's theory is known as the leadership style. This is the consistent system of interaction that takes place between a leader and work group. "According to Fiedler, an individual's leadership style depends upon his or her personality and is, thus, fixed" . In order to classify leadership styles, Fiedler's has developed an index called the least-preferred coworker (LPC) scale.

The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the persons with whom he or she has ever worked, and then to describe the one person with whom he or she worked the least well with. This person can be someone from the past or someone he or she is currently working with. From a scale of 1 through 8, leader are asked to describe this person on a series of bipolar scales such as those shown below:

Unfriendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive

Guarded 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

The responses to these scales (usually sixteen in total) are summed and averaged: a high LPC score suggests that the leader has a human relations orientation, while a low LPC score indicates a task orientation. Fiedler's logic is that individuals who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales derive satisfaction out of interpersonal relationship; those who rate the coworker in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance" . This method reveals an individual's emotional reaction to people with whom he or she cannot work. It is also stressed that is not always an accurate measurement.

"According to Fiedler, the effectiveness of a leader is determined by the degree of match between a dominant trait of the leader and the favorableness of the situation for the leader.... The dominant trait is a personality factor causing the leader to either relationship-oriented or task-orientated" . Leaders who describe their preferred coworker in favorable terms, with a high LPC, are purported

to derive major satisfaction from establishing close relationships with fellow workers. High LPC leaders are said to be relationship-orientated. These leaders see that good interpersonal relations as a requirement for task accomplishment.

Leaders who describe their least preferred coworker unfavorable terms, with a low LPC, are derived major satisfaction by successfully completing a task. These leaders are said to be task-orientated. They are more concerned with successful task accomplishment and worry about interpersonal relations later.

The second major factor in Fiedler's theory is known as situational favorableness or environmental variable. This basically is defined as the degree a situation enables a leader to exert influence over a group. Fiedler then extends his analysis by focusing on three key situational factors, which are leader-member, task structure and position power.

Each factor is defined in the following:

1. Leader-member relations: the degree to which the employees accept the leader.
2. Task structure: the degree to which the subordinates jobs are described in detail.
3. Position power: the amount of formal authority the leader possesses by virtue of his or her position in the organization.

For leader-member relations, Fiedler maintains that the leader will has more influence if they maintain good relationships with group members who like, respect, and trust them, than if they do not. Fiedler explains that task structure is the second most important factor in determining structural favorableness. He contends that highly structured tasks, which specify how a job is to be done in detail provide a leader with more influences over group actions than do unstructured tasks. Finally, as for position power, leads who have the power to hire and fire, discipline and reward, have more power than those who do not. For example, the head of a department has more power than a file clerk.

By classifying a group according to three variables, it is possible to identify eight different group situations or leadership style. These eight different possible combinations were then classified as either task orientation or relationship orientated. The following information shows that task-orientated leadership was successful in five situations, and relationship-orientated in three.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

Leader-Member Task Position Power Successful Leadership

Relations Structure Of Leader Style

Good -- Structured -- Strong -- Task Orientation

Good -- Structured -- Weak -- Task Orientation

Good -- Unstructured -- Strong -- Task Orientation

Good -- Unstructured -- Weak -- Consideration

Poor -- Structured -- Strong -- Consideration

Poor -- Structured -- Weak -- Consideration

Poor -- Unstructured -- Strong -- Task Orientation

Poor -- Unstructured -- Weak -- Task Orientation

"According to Fiedler, a task-orientated style of leadership is more effective than a considerate (relationship-orientated) style under extreme situations, that is, when the situations, is either very favorable (certain) or very unfavorable (uncertain)". Task-orientated leadership would be advisable in natural disaster, like a flood or fire. In and uncertain situation the leader-member relations are usually poor, the task is unstructured, and the position power is weak. The one who emerges as a leader to direct the group's activity usually does not know any of his or her subordinates personally. The task-orientated leader who gets things accomplished proves to be the most successful. If the leader is considerate (relationship-orientated), he or she may waste so much time in the disaster, which may lead things to get out of control and lives might get lost.

Blue-collar workers generally want to know exactly what they are supposed to do. Therefore it is usually highly structured. The leader's position power is strong if management backs his or her decision. Finally, even though the leader may not be relationship-orientated, leader-member relations may be extremely strong if he or she is able to gain promotions and salary increases for subordinates. Under these situations is the task-orientated style of leadership is preferred over the (considerate) relationship-orientated style.

"The considerate style of leadership seems to be appropriate when the environmental or certain situation is moderately favorable or certain, for example, when (1) leader-member relations are good, (2) the task is unstructured, and (3) position power is weak". For example, research scientists do not like superiors to structure the task for them. They prefer to follow their own creative leads in order to solve problems. Now under a situation like this is when a considerate style of leadership is preferred over the task-orientated style.

Fiedler's theory has some very interesting implications for the management of leaders in organizations:

1. The favorableness of leadership situations should be assessed using the instruments developed by Fiedler (or, at the very least, by a subjective evaluation).
2. Candidates for leadership positions should be evaluated using the LPC scale.
3. If a leader is being sought for a particular leadership position, a leader with the appropriate LPC profile should be chosen (task-orientated for very favorable or very unfavorable situations and relationship-orientated for intermediate favorableness).
4. If a leadership situation is being chosen for a particular candidate, a situation (work team, department, etc.) should be chosen which matches his/her LPC profile (very favorable or

unfavorable for task-orientated leaders and intermediate favorableness for relationship-orientated leader).

Several other implications can be derived from Fiedler's findings. First, it is not accurate to speak of effective and ineffective leaders. Fiedler goes on by suggesting that there are only leader who perform better in some situations, but not all situations. Second, almost anyone can be a leader by carefully selecting those situations that match his or her leadership style. Lastly, the effectiveness of a leader can be improved by designing the job to fit the manager. For instance, by increasing or decreasing a leader's position power, changing the structure of a task, or influencing leader-member relations, an organization can alter a situation to better fit a leader's style.

In conclusion, the Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership, has been cautious of accepting all conclusions. Fiedler's work is not without problems or critics. Evidence suggests that other situational variables, like training and experience have an impact in a leader's effectiveness. There are also some uncertainties about Fiedler's measurement of different variables. For instance, there is some doubt whether the LPC is a true measure of leadership style. "Despite these and other criticisms, Fiedler's contingency theory represents an important addition to our understanding of effective leadership". Fred Fiedler's theory became an important discovery in the study of leadership. His theory made a major contribution to knowledge in the leadership area.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Model

The situational leadership model, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, suggests that the leader's behaviour should be adjusted according to the maturity level of the followers. The level of maturity or the readiness of the followers were assessed to the extent the followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Four possible categories of followers' maturity were identified:

R1 : Unable and Unwilling

R2 : Unable but Willing

R3 : Able but Unwilling

R4 : Able and Willing

The leader behaviour was determined by the same dimensions as used in the Ohio studies, viz. production orientation and people orientation. According to the situational mode, a leader should use a *telling style* (high concern for task and low concern for people) with the least matured group of followers who are neither able nor willing to perform (R1). A *selling style* of leadership (high concern for both task and relationship) is required for dealing with the followers with the next higher level of maturity, that is those who are willing but unable to perform the task at the required level (R2). The able but unwilling followers are the next matured group and require a *participating style* from the leader, characterized by high concern for consideration and low emphasis on task orientation. Finally the most matured followers who are both able and willing requires a *delegating style* of leadership. The leader working with this kind of followers must learn to restrain himself from showing too much concern for either task or relationship as the followers themselves do accept the responsibility for their performance.

Though this theory is difficult to be tested empirically, it has its intuitive appeal and is widely used for training and development in organizations. In addition, the theory focuses attention on followers as a significant determinant of any leadership process.

The Path Goal Theory

In the recent time, one of the most appreciated theories of leadership is the path-goal theory as offered by Robert House, which is based on the expectancy theory of motivation. According to this theory, the effectiveness of a leader depends on the following propositions:

- ◆ leader behaviour is acceptable and satisfying to followers to the extent that they see it as an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction
- ◆ leader behaviour is motivational to the extent that (1) it makes the followers' needs satisfaction contingent or dependent on effective performance, and (2) it complements the followers' environment by providing the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards necessary for realizing the linkage between the level of their performance and the attainment of the rewards available.

The leader selects from any of the four styles of behaviour which is most suitable for the followers at a given point of time. These are directive, supportive, participative, and the achievement-oriented according to the need and expectations of the followers. In other words, the path-goal theory assumes that leaders adapt their behaviour and style to fit the characteristics of the followers and the environment in which they work. Actual tests of the path-goal theory provides conflicting evidence and therefore it is premature to either fully accept or reject the theory at this point. Nevertheless the path-goal theory does have intuitive appeal and offers a number of constructive ideas for leaders who lead in a variety of followers in a variety of work environments.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational or charismatic leaders are those who could inspire their followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organizations or for a greater objective. Thus leaders like *Netaji* Subhas Chandra Bose or *Gandhiji* could inspire their followers to submit their own personal goals of pursuing lucrative academic or professional careers and sacrifice everything for the sake of the freedom of their motherland from the British rules. By the force of their personal abilities they transform their followers by raising the sense of the importance and value of their tasks. Five leadership attributes have been identified as important in this context which are self-confidence, a vision, strong conviction in that vision, extraordinary or novel behaviour and ability to create an image of a change agent.

It is however important to note that the effect of cultural difference in the context of leadership must be considered in order to understand and identify the effective leadership behaviour. An extensive project has been undertaken jointly by GLOBE foundation and Wharton Business School to identify the impact of culture on leadership across the world, which concluded only recently. The study has identified lists of both positive and negative leader attributes which have been universally accepted across culture. The findings from the completed phases of the study however suggest the presence of a strong influence of cultural bias on the success and effectiveness of the leaders.

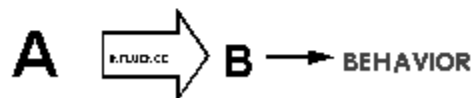
POWER AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

During discussions of leadership, the question often arises: "Why or how are leaders able to get followers to follow?" We have already discussed the notion that followers follow if they perceive the leader to be in a position to satisfy their needs. However, our discussion also included frequent reference to the concept of "power". We are now in a position to take a closer look at power.

Definitions of power abound. German sociologist, Max Weber defined power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance." Along similar lines, Emerson suggests that "The power of actor A over actor B is the amount of resistance on the part of B which can be potentially overcome by A." Power appears to involve one person changing the behavior of one or more other individuals -- particularly if that behavior would not have taken place otherwise.

POWER

capacity of "A" to influence
the behavior of "B" so that
"B" does things he/she would
not otherwise do



power refers to A's ability to influence B, not A's right to do so; no right is implied in the concept of power...

At this point it is useful to point out that power refers to A's ability to influence B, not A's right to do so; no right is implied in the concept of power. A related concept is authority. Authority does represent the right to expect or secure compliance; authority is backed by legitimacy.

For purposes of differentiating between power and authority, let us examine the relationship between the manager of a sawmill and her subordinates. Presumably, the manager has the authority -- the right -- to request that the sawyer cut lumber to certain specifications. On the other hand, the manager would not have the right to request that the sawyer wash her car. However, that sawyer may well accede to her request that he wash her car. Why? It is possible that the sawyer responds to the power that the manager has over him -- the ability to influence his behavior.

Classification of power : Etzioni has made the classification of power as follows:

COERCIVE POWER : Involves forcing someone to comply with one's wishes. A prison would be an example of a coercive organization.

UTILITARIAN POWER: Is power based on a system of rewards or punishments. Businesses, which use pay raises, promotions, or threats of dismissal, are essentially utilitarian organizations.

NORMATIVE POWER : Is power which rests on the beliefs of the members that the organization has a right to govern their behavior. A religious order would be an example of a utilitarian organization.

