Major Schools of Leadership

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Abstract

In this paper, I review the Leadership literature and Leadership research. I propose a framework based on how different theoretical approaches study the influencing process that the leader exerts. I divide the influencing process into two dimensions. The first dimensions categorizes whether the influence comes from fix or adaptable characteristics of the leader. The second dimensions categorizes whether the process focuses on the individual or on the relation. Those combinations give us a matrix with four quadrants. Using these four quadrants I review the major leadership theories and summarize all of the important findings.

Keywords: leadership, leadership theories

Introduction

Leadership has long interested researchers from different fields, such as management, political science, sociology, among others. According to some authors, it is one of the world's oldest concerns (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990). Through history, researchers have tried to understand what makes leaders special (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). Yet, scientific research on leadership only began almost 100 years ago.

Different perspectives and paradigms have emerged during all these years of study. There is no universally accepted definition of leadership. Researchers have proposed different definitions and methods to study leadership and its components (Bass, 1990; Kanungo & Mendoca, 1996; Pfeffer, 1977; Yukl, 2002). Also, the study of leadership has evolved through time, responding to different changes in the environment. We can find different focuses on leadership studies: on one side, research that conceptualizes leadership as a trait; on the other side the ones that consider it from a relational standpoint, using quantitative and qualitative methods, and in many contexts (Northouse, 2007).

There is some overlap between leadership and managerial competencies (Madlock, 2008). More specifically, authors agree that leadership and management are different but complementary (Bass, 1990). Most leadership scholars agree that leadership can be defined as the influencing process between a leader and her followers that results in superior outcomes (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). This influencing process depends on dispositional characteristics, the possible different behaviors leaders can have, followers' perceptions and attributes, as well as context. Overall, we can consider management practices as the process of making the organizations operate smoothly. Thus, leadership focuses on the influence process while management focuses on organizing.

Framework

Leadership is similar to broad concepts such as democracy, love or peace; they are easy to identify in situ, but hard to define with high precision. Northouse (2007) suggests that in most leadership definitions we can always find four components: a) leadership is a process; b) leadership involves influence, c) leadership occurs in a group context, and d) leadership involves goal attainment. Using these four components he proposed the following definition: *'Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group so as to achieve a common goal (pp.3).*

Using Nothouse's definition we can distinguish two main dimensions: influence and process. Each of these two dimensions can be divided in two poles. In the first dimension a leader can influence a group of people with characteristics that he already possesses (fix), or by developing new characteristics (adaptable). Fix characteristics are those characteristics that are inherent to the leader and hard to develop, while adaptable characteristics are those characteristics that can be developed through learning and observation.

In the second dimension we can analyze the process taking into account only the individual and her actions (individual), or the relation she generates with her followers (relations). Individual level refers to aspects that focus on the person and leader actions. Relational level refers to aspects that focus on the relationship between the leader and the followers.

With these two dimensions, we can build up a matrix with four quadrants and categorize the main leadership theories. The first quadrant is characterized by fix characteristics and individual level. In this quadrant we can find theories that concentrate only on the leader and leader's specific attributes. For example, we can find theories that differentiate the main characteristics of a leader from a non-leader. The main theory in this quadrant is the *trait approach.*

The second quadrant is characterized by adaptable characteristics and individual level. In this quadrant we can find theories that concentrate only on the leader but include changes that the leader can make in different situations. For example, we can find theories that include changes in the leader's behaviors according to the subordinate's maturity, or theories that include changes in the leader's actions according to different situations. The main theories in this quadrant are: *skill approach, style approach, contingency theory* and *situational approach*.

The third quadrant is characterized by adaptable characteristics and relational level. In this quadrant we can find theories that concentrate on the relation that the leader builds with her followers and how the leader adapts to different situations. For example, we can find theories that evaluate the relationship between leader and followers depending on followers' motivations or perceptions. The basic theories in this quadrant are: *path-goal theory, LMX theory, transformational leadership,* and *charismatic leadership*.

The last quadrant is characterized by fix characteristics and relational level. In this quadrant we can find theories that concentrate on inherent characteristics of the leader and how these characteristics affect the relationship between the leader and his/her environment. For example, we can find theories that differentiate leaders by gender or by culture, also theories that evaluate leader's relationship with her followers, precisely by analyzing the leader's ethical values. The basic theories in this quadrant are: *leadership and culture, leadership and ethics,* and *leadership and gender*.

Figure 1: Category of Leadership Theories
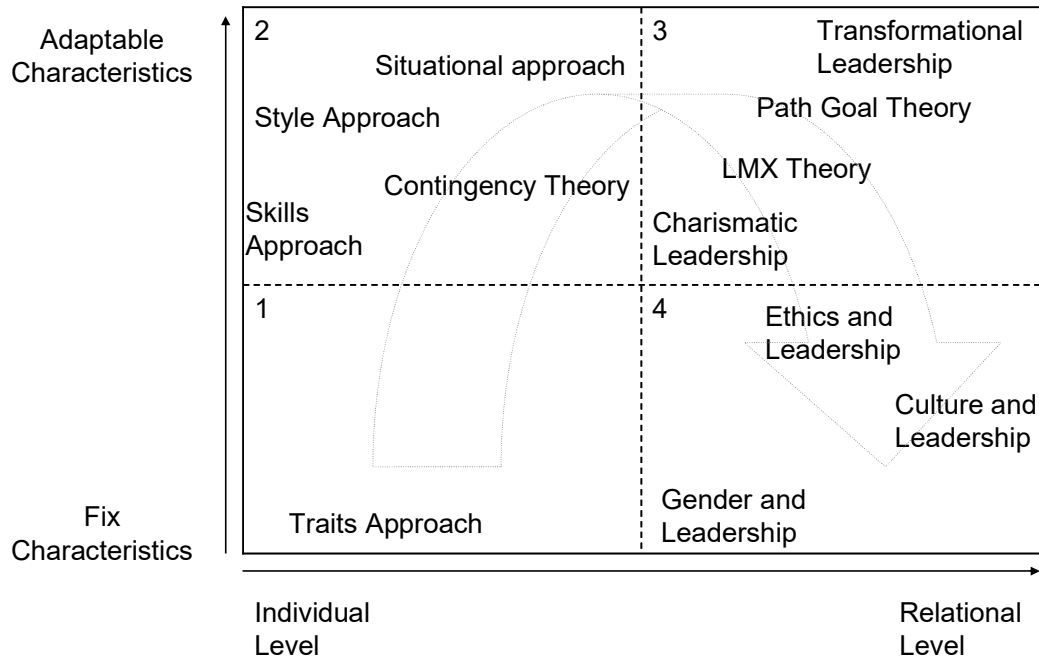
The objective of this paper is to provide a literature review of the main leadership theories based on these four quadrants.

1. First Quadrant: Fix characteristics and Individual Level

Trait approach

The first scientific leadership studies began with the "great man perspective". This school proposed that certain characteristics can differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The great man perspective proposed that leaders were born and not made. Through history we can look for descriptions of great men and heroes.

The trait approach emerged during the mid-20th century. This research stream did not differentiate if a leaders were made or born, but it distinguished the traits that leader had from the ones a non-leader had not (Bryman, 1992; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Kanungo & Mendoca, 1996). Traits are consistent patterns of

behavior that are not affected by situational contingencies. Traits include personality, temperament, motives, cognitive abilities, skills, and expertise (Antonakis et al., 2004).

The trait approach was challenged in the mid-20th century. Researchers challenged the universality of leadership traits, with the fact that an individual with certain traits can be a leader in one situation while cannot be a leader in another situation. The main theorist that challenged the trait approach was Ralph M. Stogdill. Using a survey, he suggested that there was no evidence that traits differentiate leaders from non-leaders when a different situation is proposed (R.M. Stogdill, 1948). Traits that are necessary to be a leader in one situation may not be necessary to become a leader in another situation.

This stream of leadership research emerged in its explanation on how traits influence leadership (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Mann, 1959; R.M. Stogdill, 1974). In 1974, Stogdill conducted a second survey. He concluded that leadership is determined by both personality and situational factors (R.M. Stogdill, 1974). This survey identified traits that were positively related to leadership. Mann also conducted a survey not placing too much emphasis on situational factors (Mann, 1959). He suggested that personality traits could distinguish leaders from non- leaders. The traits Mann found are the following: intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extraversion, and conservatism. Lord, De Vader and Alliger conducted a Meta-Analysis (1986) where they identify the three most important leadership traits: intelligence, masculinity, and dominance. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) also found support for distinguishing traits between leaders and non-leaders. The six traits are: drive, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) proposed that those differences contribute significantly to leaders' effectiveness, according to Kirkpatrick et al. (1991) individuals can alternatively born with these traits, learn them, or both.

A summary of traits and characteristics that researchers have identified are:

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord et al. (1986)	Kirpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsability	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive ability
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsability		Task knowledge
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		
Sociability		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Yulk and Van Fleet (1992)	House and Aditya (1997)	Northouse (1997)	Yulk (1998)
Emotional Maturity	Achievement motivation	Self-confidence	Energy level and stress tolerance
Integrity	Prosocial influence motivation	Determination	Self-confidence
Self-Confidence	Asjustment	Integrity	Internal locus of control
High energy level	Self-confidence	Sociability	Emotional maturity
Stress tolerance			Personality integrity
			Socialized power motivation
			Achievement orientation
			Low need for affiliation

The major leadership traits, the ones that are central and appear in all of the studies are: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Antonakis et al., 2004). Many researchers continued studying the relationship between individual personality and leadership effectiveness (Church & Waclawski, 1998; Judge & Bono, 2000; LePine, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, & Hedlund, 1997).

I place the trait approach at the bottom and left hand side of the first quadrant because this theory focuses on the leader and, more specifically, on leader characteristics that are difficult to change. For example, Mann (1959) finds personality traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Similarly, Lord et al (1986) identify the three most important leadership traits. In another study, Kirkpatrick et al (1991) looks for traits that contribute to leadership effectiveness.

2. Second Quadrant: Adaptable Characteristics and Individual Level
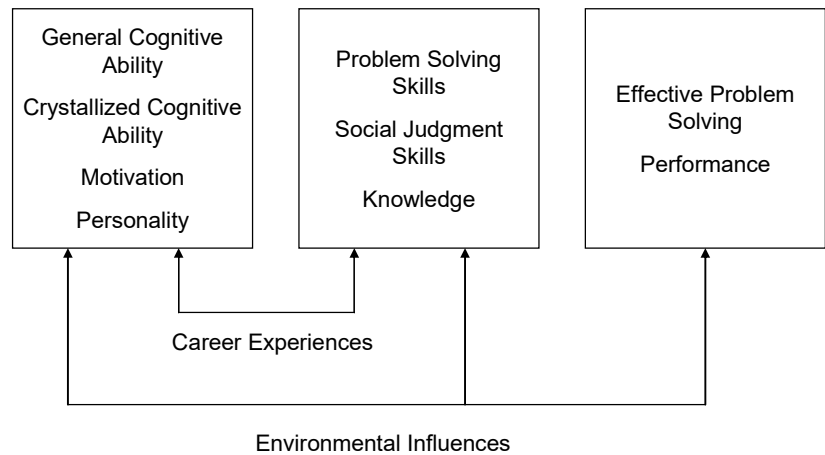
Skill Approach

The skill approach emerged when researchers were trying to identify a set of leadership traits. Katz was the first one to propose the skill approach (Katz, 1974). The main difference between the skill approach and the trait approach is that, contrary from traits skills can be learned and developed.

Katz proposed that effective leadership depends on three basic skills: technical, human and conceptual. Technical skill is knowledge about and proficiency in a specific type of work or activity. Human skill is knowledge about and ability to work with people. Conceptual skills are abilities to work with ideas and concepts. An important aspect of Katz's proposal is that leaders should have all three skills, but it depends on where they are or not in the management structure that some skills were more important. In a top management position, conceptual and human skills are considered more important than the technical one, while on a supervisory position, technical and human skills are more important than the conceptual ones.

After Katz, Munford et al, develop a skill-based model of leadership (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000). The model identified which skills are the capabilities that an individual must possess in order to perform effectively as a leader in an organization. The skill-based model components are: individual attributes, competencies, leadership outcomes, career experience, and environmental influence (see

Figure 2). The model proposes that a leader's performance is based on three competencies: problem-solving skills, social judgment skills and knowledge.

Figure 2: Skills Model of Leadership by Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly and Marks, 2000

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┌─────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────┐
│ General Cognitive   │   │   Problem Solving   │   │                     │
│     Ability         │   │       Skills        │   │  Effective Problem  │
│                     │   │                     │   │      Solving        │
│ Crystallized        │   │   Social Judgment   │   │                     │
│ Cognitive Ability   │   │       Skills        │   │     Performance     │
│                     │   │                     │   │                     │
│    Motivation       │   │     Knowledge       │   │                     │
│                     │   │                     │   │                     │
│    Personality      │   │                     │   │                     │
└─────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────┘
          ↑        ↑          ↑           ↑                    ↑
          │        └──────────┘           │                    │
          │     Career Experiences        │                    │
          │                               │                    │
          └───────────────────────────────┴────────────────────┘
                          Environmental Influences
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Later Cardona and Garcia (2005) developed a map of the main leadership competencies (see Figure 2). Cardona and Garcia's framework (2005) is based on three factors: external, interpersonal and personal. Those dimensions in turn come from an anthropological model proposed by Peréz López (1993) which distinguishes three talents that are specific to managers. The first is the Strategic talent, that is, the capacity to develop and implement strategies that lead to the attainment of good financial results. The second is the Executive talent, that is, the capacity to develop efficient relationships with collaborators. And the third is the Personal Leadership talent, that is, the capacity to build trust and sense of mission among the team. Cardona and Garcia propose that everyone with training, practice and personal effort can become a leader (Pablo Cardona & Garcia, 2005).

Table 2: Leadership competencies by Cardona and Garcia, 2005

External	Interpersonal
Business Vision	Communication
Organizational Vision	Conflict management
Customer orientation	Charisma
Resources management	Delegation
Negotiation	Coaching
Networking	Team work
Personal	
External	**Internal**
1) Proactivity	1) Self- improvement
Initiative	Self-criticism

Optimism	Self-knowledge
Ambition	Learning
2) Personal management	2) Self management
Time Management	Decision making
Information Management	Self-control
Stress Management	Emotional Balance
	Integrity

I place the skill approach at the bottom and left hand side of the second quadrant because this theory focuses on the leader and, more specifically, on leader characteristics that can be developed up to a certain point. For example, Katz (1974) skills proposition introduces some variation depending on the leaders' managerial position. Also, Cardona et al (2005) leadership competency map proposes three dimensions of competencies that leaders can develop. Although skills can be developed theoretically, the process takes time and consistent effort.

Style/Behavioral Approach

The style approach focuses on the behavior of the leader. It focuses on what leaders do and how they act. Researchers have specified general different kinds of behaviors: task behaviors and relationship behaviors (Antonakis et al., 2004).

There are many studies on the style approach; the first one was conducted at Ohio State University. They studied how individuals behave when they were leading a group or an organization with a questionnaire with 150 questions called the Leader Behavior Description. They grouped leadership behaviors in to groups: initiating structure and consideration (R.M. Stogdill, 1974). Initiating structure behaviors refers to task behaviors, such as giving structure to the work, organizing work, among others. Consideration behaviors refer to relationship behaviors, such as trust, respect and building camaraderie (Northouse, 2007).

Almost at the same time as in Ohio, the University of Michigan also conducted several studies focusing on the effect that leadership behavior has on the performance of small groups. They identify two groups: employee orientation and production orientation. Employee orientation refers to leadership behaviors that have a strong human relationship emphasis. Production orientation refers to leadership behaviors that have a focus on the technical part of the job.

The most popular model in the behavioral approach is the one of Blake and Mouton (Blake & Mouton, 1982, 2003; Mouton & Blake, 1978). The model divides the behavior of leaders in two aspects: concern for production and concern for people. Concern for production refers to the attention placed on achieving organizational tasks. Concern for people refers to the attention placed on people and their needs. Both behaviors are divided as a 9-point scale, producing five leadership styles (See Figure 3): authority-

compliance (9,1); country club management (1,9), impoverished management (1,1), middle-of-the-road management (5,5) and team management (9,9).

Figure 3: Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton's, 1982
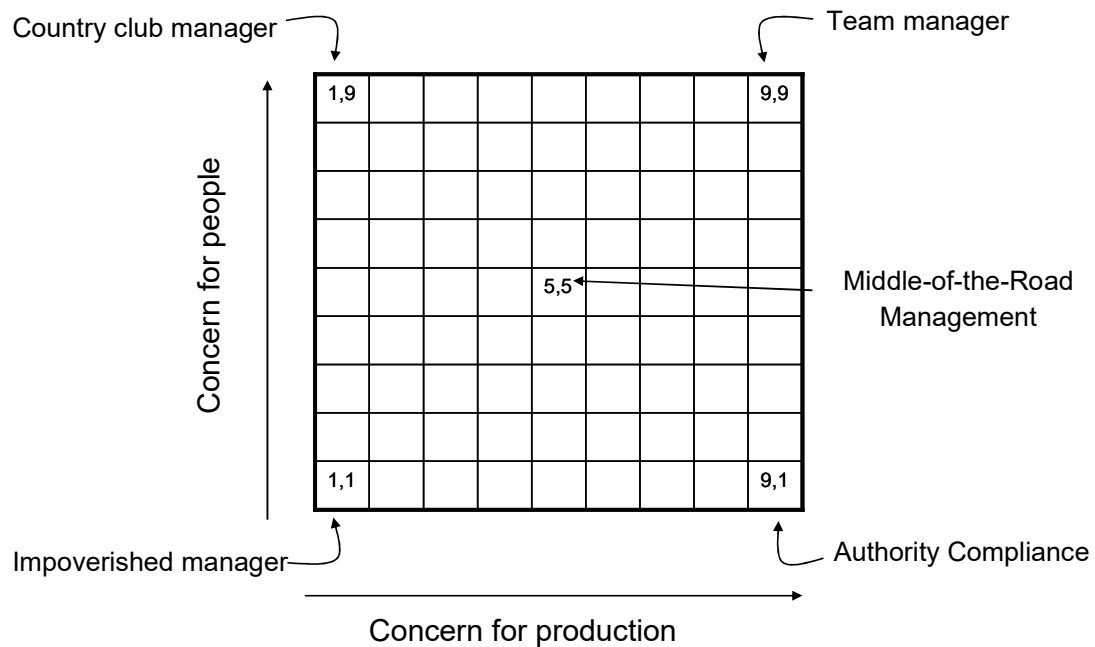
Impoverished manager (1,1) is the minimum expression of a manager, it does not show interest for the people or the task. In other words, managers in that group avoid contact and commitment with other people. Another type is the Country Club Manager (1,9), because of its special care on the relationship with others. These managers avoid conflict at all cost. Authority Compliance (9,1) sees the people as pieces of a machine and managers in that group are indifferent and noncommittal. Middle-of-the-Road Management (5,5) finds a balance between taking care of people and emphasizing the work requirements. Team Managers (9,9) usually take care to include all of the necessary conditions to make people comfortable in the organization. They could be described as organized and accurate in their perceptions of the environment (Álvarez de Mon et al., 2001).

I place the behavioral approach at the left middle hand side of the second quadrant because this theory focuses on the leader and, more specifically, on leader behaviors that can be learned. For example, the studies of the University of Michigan distinguish between employee-oriented and production-oriented leadership behaviors. Similarly, Blake et al model (1978) distinguishes between concern for the task and concern for the people. In these theories, leaders can adapt their behaviors from one style to another.

Situational Approach

Situational focus, as the name suggests focuses on leadership in some specific situation. This stream of leadership research suggests that different situations demand different leadership styles. Dimensions looked are two: directive and supportive. An important assumption of this approach is that subordinates' motivations and skills vary over time. Leaders should adapt to those changes by adjusting dimensions, directive and supportive dimensions.

The model proposed by Blanchard and others (1985) is called the Situational Leadership II. In order to understand the model it is better to see it in two steps (See Figure 4). First, the Leadership Style is divided into the two dimensions mentioned before: directive and supportive. This combination produces four behaviors: S1: high directive and low supportive behaviors; S2: high directive and high supportive; S3: low directive and high supportive; and S4: low directive and low supportive.

The second step is to see the development levels of the subordinate. In this case, dimensions looked are two: the competence and commitment of the subordinate to accomplish a given task or activity. This combination produces four categories: D1: employees are low in competence and high in commitment; D2: employees are described as having some competence but low commitment; D3: employees have moderate to high competence, but low commitment; and D4: employees have a high degree of competence and a high degree of commitment (Northouse, 2007).

The combination of these two steps generates four categories of behaviors: (Álvarez de Mon et al., 2001):

Figure 4: Situational Leadership by Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 1985
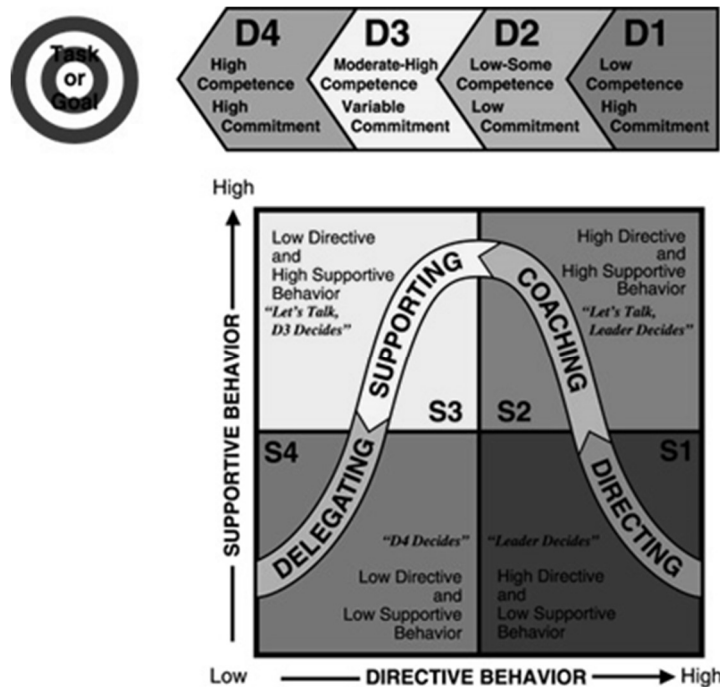
1. *Delegating*: This behavior is good when followers do not need help to do their job.
2. *Coaching*: This behavior is good when leaders communicate tasks and goals, and also take into account the emotional aspects of employees.
3. *Supporting*: This behavior is good for leaders when their followers have the capacities to perform, but they do not trust themselves to do the task.
4. *Directing*: This behaviour is good for directing people that have not still developed those competencies necessarily required for the job, but they still have a good attitude.

I place the situational approach at the top and on the right corner of the second quadrant because this theory focuses mainly on the leader but also introduces some aspects of the follower, such as commitment. More specifically, the influencing process is based on behaviors that the leader engages in for different situations. For example, Blanchard et al (1985) propose how to adapt leadership behaviors to the competencies and commitment of the follower.

Contingency Theory

Between the 60s and the 70s, many models and leadership theories demonstrated that the leaders' effectiveness was related to the situation (Antonakis et al., 2004). The first scholar relating traits and contingent aspects was Fiedler (1964).

Fiedler contingency model has the basic thesis that the relationship between leadership style and leadership effectiveness is contingent to the situation (Rice & Kastenbaum, 1983). Thus, he concluded that leadership style is possibly effective in all situations.

The Contingency model of leadership effectiveness divides leadership into two dimensions: relationship oriented and task focused leaders. Leadership style is evaluated by the leader responses to the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale. Leaders that obtain a low score are though in being task-oriented, while leaders that obtain a high score are though in being relationship-oriented.

The situation faced by the leaders is evaluated in terms of how specific factors affect the degree of influence and control that the leader exerts over the behavior of others. Situations are divided into three factors: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Antonakis et al., 2004).

Leader-member relationship defines whether the relationship is good or bad based on the atmosphere, the degree of confidence, loyalty and attraction that subordinates feel for their leader. Task structure is defined based on the clarity and well communication of the task. Position power is defined based on the amount of authority a leader has to reward or punish their followers (F. E. Friedler, 1967). The combination of these three factors determines whether the situation is favorable or not (See Figure 5).

Figure 5: Contingency Model by Fiedler, 1967

Leader-Member Relations	Good				Poor			
Task Structure	High Structure		Low Structure		High Structure		Low Structure	
Position Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power	Strong Power
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Preferred Leadership Style	Low LPCs Middle LPCs			High LPCs				Low LPCs

While in the trait approach, we have seen the effect of the situation on leader's effectiveness, the Contingency approach allows leaders to be effective in every situation.

I place the contingency theory at the right hand side and in the middle of the second quadrant because this theory focuses mainly on the leader but also incorporates environmental aspects such as, for example, position power and the task structure (Fiedler, 1964). Besides, the influencing process is based on the best combination between the leader's behavior and the situation, requiring high levels of adaptation. For example, in order to have good Leader-Member Relations, in a structure with strong position power and high task structure, the leader style must be Low LPCs.
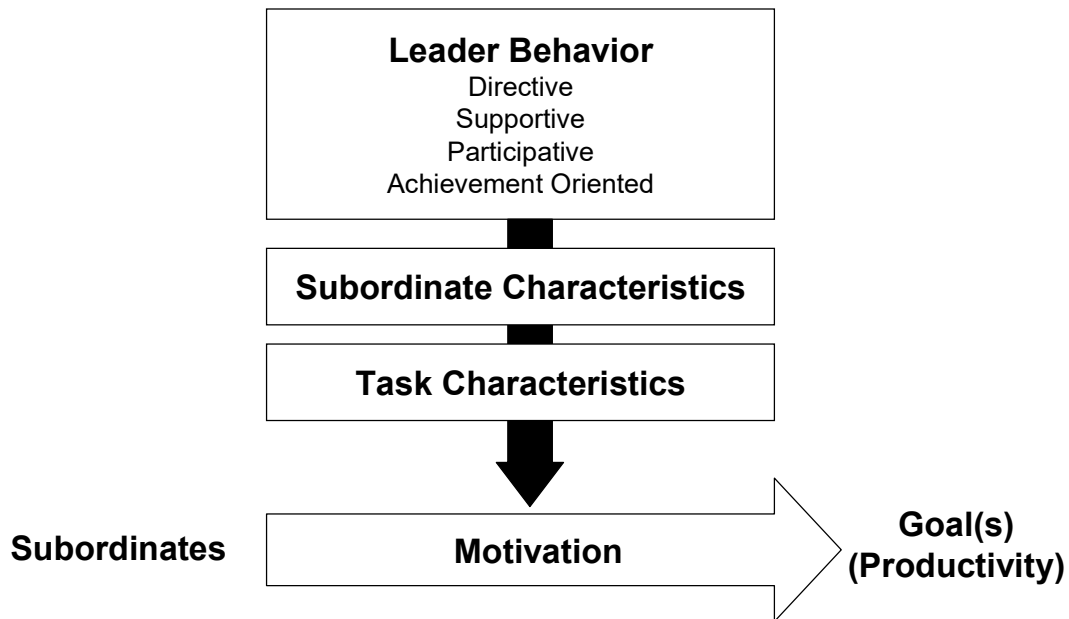
3. Third Quadrant: Adaptable Characteristics and Relational Level

Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory started with House (1971) and tried to find the relationships between leadership behaviors and subordinates' motivations. This theory proposed that employee performance and employee satisfaction can be improved if the leader pays attention to subordinates' motivations. This assumption is based on the leader-behavior approach (R. M. Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and the expectancy theory of motivations (Vroom, 1964).

The leader should adapt his style according to the subordinates' motivations. By selecting specific behaviors that adapt to those specific subordinates' needs, the leader helps subordinates through fixing the possible paths leading to their goals. Thus, the path goal theory suggests that each leader's behavior has a different impact on the subordinates' motivations. The main components of the Path-goal theory are explained in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Path-goal Theory by House, 1971

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┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Leader Behavior            │
│             Directive               │
│            Supportive               │
│           Participative             │
│        Achievement Oriented         │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│      Subordinate Characteristics    │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│         Task Characteristics        │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  ↓
                                          Goal(s)
  Subordinates    │  Motivation   ⟩     (Productivity)
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House (1971) identifies four leadership behaviors: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. The first two leadership behaviors are more tasks oriented, while the last two are more consideration oriented. Directive leadership is type of leadership in which a leader gives instructions about how the specific task needs to be performed by the subordinate. Supportive leadership is a type of leadership in which a leader is friendly, approachable and that takes care of the well-being of her subordinates. Participative leadership is a type of leadership in which a leader includes subordinate into the decision making process. Achievement oriented leadership is a type of leadership in which a leader encourages and challenges her subordinates to perform as best as they could (Northouse, 2007).

House (1971) also identified four subordinates' characteristics. These characteristics affect how subordinates understand leader's behaviors. Those four characteristics identified by House are: need for affiliation, preference for structure, desire for control, and self-perceived level of task ability.

The final component of the model is the characteristics of the task. Those characteristics associated to a task are the ones affecting the design of this tasks, the formal authority system of the organization, and the subordinates' work group.

I place the path-goal theory at the top, and in the middle, on the right hand side of the third quadrant because this theory focuses on the relationship between the leader's behavior and her followers'

characteristics. More specifically, the influencing process is analyzed considering behaviors that the leader adapts to the task and the subordinates' motivations (House 1971).
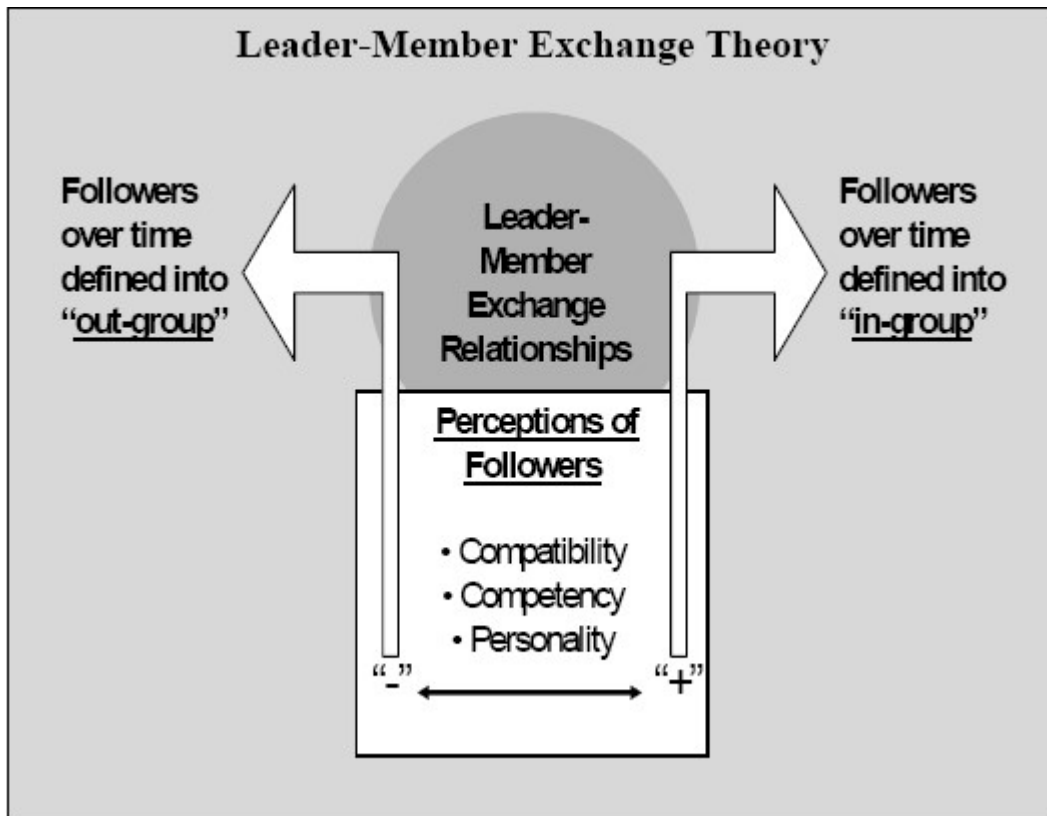
Leader-Member exchange Theory

Leadership-Member exchange Theory (LMX) focuses on the interactions happening between the leader and her subordinates. This relationship is seen as the central point of the leadership process (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975). LMX appears to challenge the previous assumption that leaders treat their followers in a collective way. The root of this theory is in the Vertical Dyad Linkage, which distinguishes the different relationships leaders could develop with their subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Atwater, 2009).

Dyadic relationships assert that both, the leader and the subordinate bring value to the relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The dyads are built upon the concept of continuous interaction between those two parties through an informal process (House & Aditya, 1997). LMX developed quickly and still stays over time (Bauer & Green, 1996; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997)

In those early LMX studies, the main focus was on the vertical linkage that a leader created with her followers. Researchers distinguish between two types of relationships: in-group and out-group relationships. In-group relationships are expanded relationships in which the followers can negotiate their roles and usually the relationship happens to be much closer to the leader. Out-group relationships are the ones in which the type of relationship is merely contractual. In a work unit, there can be in-group and out-group relationships, specifically depending on the relationship that the leader creates between her and each one of her subordinates (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: Leadership Member Exchange Theory

Later on studies were more focused on the relationship between LMX and organizational effectiveness. They explain the quality of leader-member exchange in terms of positive outcomes for leaders, followers, groups and the organization in general (G.B Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High quality LMX relationships generate mutual trust, respect and obligation and therefore usually go beyond their formal job description (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Bolino, 2009). Results show that organizations gain much from leaders who are able to generate good working relationships.

Current studies focus on the relationships between LMX and leadership making. Leadership making suggests that leaders should develop high quality exchanges with all of their subordinates, and not only with some of them. Leadership making encourages leaders to build effective dyads with all of the members of their work unit (G.B Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009).

I place the LMX theory at the top and in the middle, and to the left hand side of the third quadrant because this theory analyzes the leadership process focusing on the interaction that occurs between the leader and her subordinates. More specifically, the influencing process is based on the type of relationship

between the leader and the follower. For example, in the early LMX studies they distinguish between in group and out group relationships (House & Aditya, 1997), later LMX studies focused on positive outcomes for the leader (G.B Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Transformational Leadership

This theory is the one that has received more attention since the early 1980s (Northouse, 2007). Its popularity may be explained by the emphasis that this theory puts on intrinsic motivation and follower development (B. M. Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Burns

In the seventies, Downton (1973) used the term transformational leadership, but it was Burns (1978) with his book Leadership who set the basis of this theory and established the term to be used in it. Burns described leaders as people who take care of followers' motivations in order to achieve the goals of both, leaders and followers.

Burns (1978) distinguishes between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational leadership. The first kind of leadership is associated with a leader that gives orders, while the second one is more closed to a leader that guides and inspires people. On one hand, Burns suggests that transactional leadership is merely a formal exchange relationship between the leader and her follower: for example, an economic transaction of goods for money or current influence for future favors. On the other hand, Burns (1978) defines transformational leadership as the process of pursuing collective goals through the mutual tapping of both, the leader's and the followers` motives base, towards the achievement of the some intended change.

Bass and Avolio

Bass (1985) was the first one investigating Burn's idea. Using specific data he demonstrates that transactional and transformational leadership are really two separate and independent dimensions.

Bass (1985) suggested that transactional leaders only meet subordinates' needs in return of some contracted services. Transactional leadership is then using a cost-benefit approach (B.M. Bass, 1990). Thus transactional leaders can only achieve what can be measured. Bass suggested that transformational leaders transform followers from self-centered individuals to committed members of a group. Transformational leaders, by motivating their followers, achieve higher performance, because followers do more than they originally intended and sometimes even more than what they thought as possible (B. M. Bass & Avolio, 1994; B. M. Bass & Avolio, 1996).

In order to distinguish transformational leadership from transactional leadership, Bass and Avolio constructed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). They distinguished four factors for the transformational leadership:

1. *Idealized influence:* transformational leaders are strong role models for their followers. They generate respect and trust. Followers identify with the leaders and want to imitate them.
2. *Inspirational Motivation*: transformational leaders behave in ways that inspire and motivate their followers. They generate commitment and a sense of belonging to a shared vision. Followers want to meet the leaders' expectations.
3. *Intellectual Stimulation*: transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative. This means that they explicitly encourage creativity. Followers are not criticized if they propose ideas that are different from the one the leader holds.
4. *Individualized Consideration*: transformational leaders pay attention to the need for achievement and growth of each of these individuals of the team. They usually act as coach or mentor. Followers are developed to achieve successive and higher levels of potential.

Also, they distinguish two factors for the transactional leadership:

5. *Contingent Reward*: it is centered in the transaction between leaders and followers. Every effort of the follower is exchanged for a specific reward.
6. *Management-by-Exception*: it is centered in corrective actions like negative feedback and negative reinforcement. Leaders focus on follower's mistakes, and only intervene when something goes wrong. Management by exception takes two forms: active and passive (Hater & Bass, 1988). The active form is when leaders watch followers closely for mistakes and then they take specific corrective actions. The passive form is when leaders intervene only after some well based standards have not been met.

Figure 8: Full Range of Leadership Model
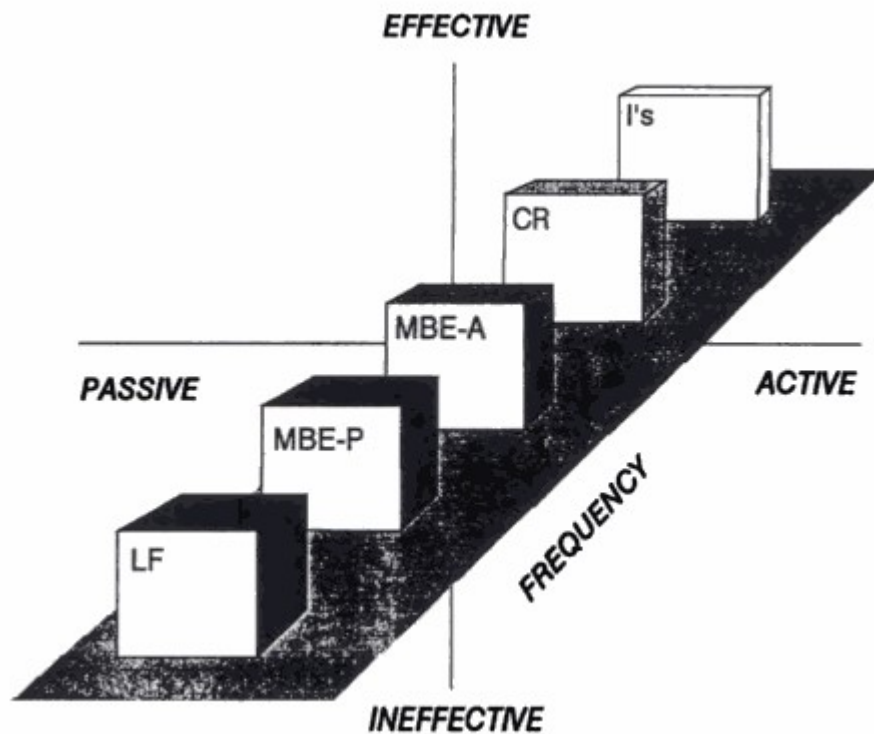
Legend
Nonleaderhip
LF Laisez-Faire

Transactional
MBE-P Management-by-Exception, Passive
MBE-P Management-by-Exception, Active

Transformational 4 I's
Idealized influence
Inspirational Motivation
Intellectual Stimulation
Individualized Consideration

Finally, they distinguished a seventh factor for Laissez-faire that is when there is no leadership

7. *Laissez-Faire*: this factor represents the absence of leadership. These leaders do not generate any exchange with followers. They do not take responsibilities and as a consequence they do not give feedback and furthermore, they usually delay decisions.

I place the transformational leadership theory at the top, and in the right hand side corner of the third quadrant, because this theory focuses on the leadership process analyzing the type of relationship the leader has with his followers: transactional of transformational. More specifically it looks at how leaders motivate their followers. For example, we can distinguish leaders that motivate their followers with economic (transactional) or inspirational (transformational) rewards (Burns, 1978). Also, the same leader can act as a transformational leader and a transactional leader, with different intensities, depending on the need to adapt to some specific situations (Bass 1985).

Charismatic Leadership

Charisma is a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of being considered extraordinary (Weber, 1947). Weber expanded the concept by including that the leading authority's legitimacy does not come from rules, positions or traditions, but from a "devotion to the specific and exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character of an individual person, and of the normative patterns or order revealed or ordained by him" (Eisenstadt, 1968; pp.46). The importance of charisma depends on the point of view of the followers of that specific leader. According to Weber's definition, charisma can alter some situations in life, can change peoples' attitudes and can intellectualize individuals.

Several studies focus on leadership characteristics that are associated with charismatic influence (B. M. Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Zaccaro, 2001)

House and Shamir

In parallel with Burns' book, House (1977) proposed this charismatic leadership. House extended the approach proposed by McClelland (1975) in his study of human needs and motives. McClelland discovered that effective leadership was based on the need for power. In his study, he proposes that this need could be positive or negative. According to McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) the usual motive pattern of this leadership was high need for power.

In several studies House and colleagues developed a formal theory based on motives (House & Shamir, 1993; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). In the same vein, Antonalis et al. (2004), focused on how effective leaders use their need for power (Antonakis et al., 2004). They recognized some specific behaviors that transformational leaders use, such as the fact of communicating a vision.

Charismatic leaders proposed by House have high need for power, high self confidence and strong sense of values. They motivate followers by increasing the intrinsic value of effort, effort-accomplishment expectancies, and intrinsic valence of goal accomplishment, and also by instilling faith in a better future and creating personal commitment

House et al. (1993) described two main behaviors that could activate the motivational process:

1. *Role modeling*: followers receive a message by observing the leaders' life, actions, emotional reactions, and so on. It is by using this image that followers could know what kind of traits, values, beliefs and behaviors are good to develop (Shamir et al., 1993).
2. *Frame alignment*: is the link between the followers' needs, interests, and beliefs and those leaders' activities, goals, and ideology. The follower sees congruence between the leaders' activities and her own activities. Charismatic leaders communicate in order to precisely generate this frame.

Conger and Kanungo

Conger and Kanungo (1987,1988 & 1994) extended House's work. Conger and Kanungo propose that in order to have a better understanding of charisma it is important to take out from charisma its mysticism, and to study it as a behavioral process.

Conger and Kanugo (1987,1988 & 1994) developed a model that focused on several behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership within organizations (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1988, 1994). The model of Conger and Kanungo builds on the idea that charisma is an attributive phenomenon. They propose that when people work in groups and one of them exerts maximum influence over the others, this person is recognized as the leader. When people that interact recognize and identify the leader is when he is truly validated. The same process happens to the charismatic leader. Other people can recognize this attribution by observing certain behaviors on the part of the leader within some organizational context (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). It is important to notice that the followers can observe charismatic expressions as they can observe other qualities.

The model of Conger and Kanungo proposes that attributing that someone is a charismatic leader depend on six variables: charisma and the future vision, charisma and unconventional behavior, charisma and sensitivity to the environment, charisma and articulation, charisma and the use of personal power, and charisma and the reformer role.

I place the charismatic leadership theory at the bottom and in the left corner of in the third quadrant because this theory focuses on the relation between leaders and followers. More specifically, on leadership characteristics that are associated with charismatic influence (Bass, 1985), and how charismatic leader motivates their followers (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). For example, House (1977)

identifies three charismatic leadership characteristics. Also, House et al (1993) describe two main leadership behaviors that activate the followers' motivational process. Although, charisma is a characteristic a leader can develop, the process takes time and consistent effort.

4) Fourth Quadrant: Fix Characteristics and Relational Level

Culture

With globalization, cultural context has become more relevant. Researchers have tried to understand the influence and impact of culture over leadership. The main contributor to this field is Hofstede (1984). He proposed that cultures were like mental programming. Following Hofstede's five value dimensions we can see that:

1. *Power distance*: indicates the degree of acceptance of inequality between a boss and her subordinate. Hofstede differentiates cultures with high and low power distance.
2. *Uncertainty avoidance*: refers to the intolerance for what is unpredictable, ambiguous, or uncertain. Hofstede differentiates cultures with high and low uncertainty avoidance.
3. *Collectivism vs. individualism*: this value dimension describes the relationship between the individual and the collectivity which prevails in a given society (Hofstede, 1980, pp 213).
4. *Masculinity vs. feminism*: differentiate between masculine goals, which are related to economic and other achievement, and feminine goals, which are related with taking care of people in general with the special care of children (Hofstede, 1980, pp 262)

Future orientation: distinguish between cultures in which the fostering of virtue is future oriented or "long term" and those in which virtue is "short term" and concern with the past and present (Ailon, 2008, pp 897)

Hofstede's research has evolved over time and has been used in many cross cultural studies (Casimir & Waldman, 2007; Euwema, Wendt, & van Emmerik, 2007; Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006; Yan & Hunt, 2005).

Another important contribution in this field was Schwartz. He proposed a framework with six categories that identify seven cultural regions (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). The categories are:

1. *Embeddedness*: in embedded cultures, people are viewed as entities embedded in the collectivity (pp 179).

2. *Autonomy*: in autonomy cultures, people are viewed as autonomous, bounded entities who should find meaning in their own uniqueness and who are encouraged to express their internal attributes (pp 179). There are two types of cultural autonomy:
   a. *Intellectual autonomy*: encourage individuals to pursue their own ideas and intellectual directions independently (pp 179).
   b. *Affective autonomy*: encourage individuals to pursue affectively positive experiences for themselves (pp 179)
3. *Hierarchy*: in hierarchical cultures, the system defines the unequal distribution of power, roles and resources as legitimate (pp 180).
4. *Egalitarianism*: egalitarian cultures, induces people to recognize one another as moral equals who share basic interest as human beings (pp 180).
5. *Mastery:* master cultures, encourages active self-assertion in order to master, direct and change the natural and social environment to attain group and personal goals.
6. Harmony: harmony cultures encourage accepting the world at it is, trying to understand and appreciate rather than to change, direct or exploit.

This approach has the advantage of grouping the countries of the world in specific cultural regions: West Europe, East Europe, English speaking, Confucian, Africa and the Middle East, South Asia, and Latin America.

The largest study of how culture impacts leadership is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness project (GLOBE). The GLOBE project studies how leaders should behave in different cultures (House, 2004; Javidan et al., 2006). They propose six leadership dimensions and show how these dimensions are distributed among different cultures.

I place the leadership and culture theory at the right hand side, and in the middle of the fourth quadrant, because this theory analyzes the leadership process focusing on the relationship between leaders and followers. More specifically, on the leader and the followers' culture. For example, Schwartz (2007) distinguishes between hierarchical and egalitarian cultures, this will affect how a leader behaves, but also how the subordinates relates to the leader. Also, Hofstede (1980) propose that cultures are like mental programming; leaders from a high uncertainty avoidance culture will act different as one of a low uncertainty avoidance culture.

Ethics

Another important issue is ethics and leadership effectiveness. The question raised by ethics is if we could consider Hitler to be a leader. Which are the differences between Hitler and Gandhi or Lincoln? Popular theories such as charismatic and transformational leadership do not include a moral component that could distinguish between good and bad leaders.

Many authors have explored possible explanations. Heifetz (1994) includes the ethical aspect by emphasizing if leaders help in solving conflicts. He suggested that a leader must use authority to help followers in solving the conflict values that emerge in a rapidly changing work environment in different social cultures. Collins (2001) proposed a five level leadership. This level reflects an individual who blends extreme personal humility with intense professional will.

One of the most explored concepts is the one proposed by Greenleaf (1998), the servant-leadership concept. He suggests that this leader, with a strong altruistic ethical overtone, should take care of the concerns of their followers. Servant leaders focus on their followers' individual development and growth (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). Servant leaders act in the best interest of their followers; this generates high prosocial behaviors from the followers. Also, because they do not act in self-interest ways, they are very trusted and credible.

Cardona (2000) distinguished between transactional, transformational and transcendental leadership. Transactional leaders motivate their followers with extrinsic rewards. Transformational leaders take into account their followers intrinsic motivation and provide them with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Transcendental leaders take into account the transcendental motivation of their followers, their willingness to contribute and provide them with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards by developing their transcendental motivation. This kind of leadership is mission centered and using it the leader helps the rest of the organization to serve the mission.

I place the leadership and ethics theory at the top and in the middle of the fourth quadrant because this theory focuses on the leader and the relation she builds with her follower. More specifically, on the leader ethical values that hold the relationship. For example, Heifetz focuses on the ethical aspects of the leader that help solving problems. Similarly, Cardona (2000) differentiate the type of relationship that the leader promotes.

Leadership and Gender

Many researchers have focused their interest on the differences between male and female leadership and if those difference exists and when (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Grieffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Keith & McWilliams, 1997; Lynch, 1991).. Men and women are physically different, but it is of great interest if these differences really affect their leadership style in organizations (Bianchi, 2000; Pleck, 1997). Women are increasing their participation in many organizational contexts and this is promoting a lot of changes (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, & Robinson, 2000). There are three main focuses of the study of how women and leadership are related one to the other. One is the difference in human capital investment in professional context between women and men. The second is the gender differences in leadership styles. The third one is gender discrimination.

One of the most popular explanations for the leadership gender gap is that women invest less than men in their human capital, like education, training, and work force experience (Bowles & McGinn, 2008; Eagly & Carli, 2004; Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 1999). However, a closer look to the numbers, reveal that women are obtaining undergraduate degrees at a higher rate than men. In most professional schools, the same amount of men and women are graduating (Belking, 2003; Ehrlich, 1989). Women represent only one third of the MBA top schools graduates, but their representation is much lower in high hierarchical positions (Buding & England, 2001; Belking, 2003; Ehrlich, 1989).

A second explanation for the gender gap is that men and women lead differently. But research show mixed results (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Van Engen, 2001). Writers who based their work on personal experience argue that women style is less hierarchical, more collaborative and more comprehensive (eg., Helgesen, 1990). On the other hand, social scientist claim that there are no differences or that the differences are unimportant (eg., Powell, 1990).

In the 80's and 90's many scholars contrasted transformational and transactional leadership between men and women. Significant research shows that the four components of transformation leadership and the contingent reward component of transactional leadership are related to leadership effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) meta-analysis show small but robust differences between men and women leadership styles. Women leadership style tends to be more transformational than mens' and also engaged in more contingent reward behaviors (one component of transactional leadership) than men.

A third explanation is discrimination. Gender stereotypes are persistent and resistant to change. Gender stereotypes describe the attributes of men and women, but also prescribe how they should be. Gender stereotype lead to bias judgment and it is easily activated (Heilman, 2001).

Women leaders confront cross-pressures, as leaders they are asked to be tough and masculine, but as women they are expected to not be "too manly". In Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky;s meta-analysis (1992), results show that women were devaluated compared with men when they led in a masculine manner, when they occupied a typically masculine leadership role, and when their evaluators were men. Women respond to gender-bias leadership stereotype by undermining their leadership aspirations (Davis, Spencer, & Steele, 2005).

I place the leadership and gender theory at the bottom, and left corner of the fourth quadrant because this theory focuses on the leader and the relation she builds with her follower. More specifically, on leaders' gender and it effect over the leadership influencing process. For example, Eagly et al (1992) show the differences between leaders' evaluation, depending on both, the leader and the follower gender. Similarly, Eagly et al (2003) identify differences between women and men leadership styles.

Conclusions

Leadership theories have evolved through time adapting to the changes in the environment. Also, theories have become more complete and have included more aspects of the leadership influencing process.

Over the last 100 years, leadership has been studied from many different perspectives. Until the 1940's the main stream of study was the trait approach. Then, scholars realized that leaders are not just born and the behavioral approach emerged. Between the 40's and the 70's other theories were developed, like contingency theory and situational theories. These theories not only include the leader's characteristics, but also the context in which leadership occurs. Scholars realized that not every leadership behavior will have the same effect in a different context. In the 70's a new stream of leadership emerged. These new stream focuses on the relation between leaders and followers. Theories like LMX, transformational leadership and charismatic leadership became very popular. Scholars realized that leadership influence, trust, and high quality relations between leaders and followers generate more positive outcomes (Antonakis, 2004).

Lately, there have been changes within the Western Culture itself over the last 100 years. For example, issues like gender and ethics have become more relevant today. From a relational point of view, ethical values affect the quality of the relationship between a leader and his followers. For example, integrity affects the trust a subordinate has in his leader. From a leader's characteristic point of view, gender has become more relevant as more women have reached leadership positions in the last years. Understanding the differences between men and women as leaders can help organizations achieve more effective and balanced teams.

Also, leadership theories have focused again on specific attributes of the leader. The inclusion of culture in leadership studies represents an important change. Leadership research has been mainly developed within a Western culture environment. In today's world, however, relationships are no longer among people from the same culture: leaders and followers may belong to different cultures, and followers may belong to different cultures as well.

In summary, we see a development of leadership theories due to an evolution from both within and between cultures. The first theories focused on fix characteristics at the individual level. Then, they incorporated more adaptable characteristics still focused on the leader. After, they introduce the relationship with the follower. And finally, the new theories go back to fix characteristics of the leader as they affect the relationship with the followers.

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