Leadership Theories and Concepts

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Leadership has been a subject of numerous studies. Ancient literature, be it Egyptian, Chinese, Indian and many others, highlight the importance of leadership and the role of the leader. Indian classics like *Mahabharata*, and *Ramayana* are replete with leadership illustrations. This interest has continued in the modern times as well. Over time, many theories on Leadership have emerged as a result of empirical and conceptual contributions. King (1990) opined that Leadership is one of the most intricate and multifaceted occurrences that has been the focus of organizational and psychological studies.

King (1990) presented an overview of various leadership *eras* in his review. This review indicated that each leadership era symbolized a higher state of development in leadership thought compared to the earlier era. He also noted disenchantment at the end of each leadership era leading to search for an alternative model. These eras are shown in Fig 2.1.

The Personality Era focused on the leader as an individual or as a person. The attention was on the background or traits of the individual. This era has two streams, i.e., the *Great Man Period* and the *Trait Period*. The Great Man Period suggested that an individual who emulated great personalities was expected to emerge as a strong leader. In this Era, leadership was mainly equated with personality. Under the *Trait Period*, there was an endeavour to enlist the attributes which if espoused, would predict the performance of a leader.
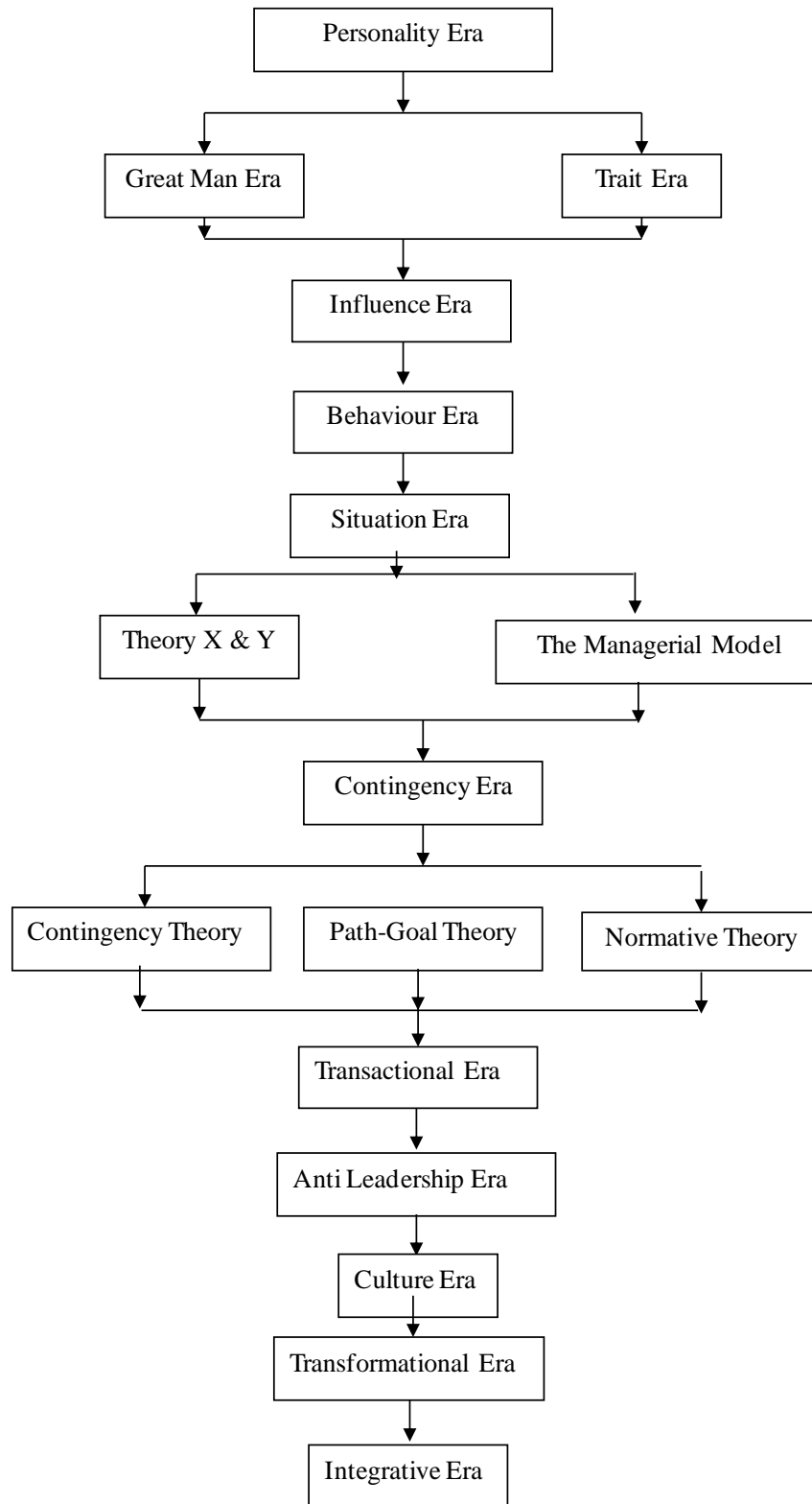
Under the **Influence Era** leadership was considered as an association between people and not a trait. This paved the way for Behaviour Era, in which, leadership was considered to be a subset of human conduct. In this Era, Theory X&Y, the Managerial Grid Model received significant attention.

Under the **Situational Era**, it was acknowledged that there were aspects which extended beyond the leader and the subordinate. These situational facets decided which types of leader attributes, skills, impact and conducts led to successful leadership. Under the **Contingency Era**, there were

attempts to select the situational moderator variables which best depicted which leadership style

Fig 2.1**: Evolution of Leadership**

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          │ Great Man Era │   │   Trait Era   │
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          │ Theory X & Y  │   │ The Managerial Model│
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    │Contingency Theory│ │Path-Goal Theory│ │ Normative Theory │
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                    │ Integrative Era │
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Source: King (1990)

must be   employed.   In

Taken from the Doctoral (PhD) Thesis on Servant Leadership in India NGOs, a research done by Dr. Madana Kumar. For more details and permission to use further, please contact the author/ researcher at madanakumar@menorahleadership.com

this Era, the Contingency Theory, the Path-Goal Theory and the Normative Theory were considered to be most important. In the **Transactional Era**, it was suggested that leadership resided not in the individual or setting but in differentiating amongst the role and social interaction. In the **Anti-Leadership Era**, it was generally believed that there was no construct such as 'Leadership'. In the **Culture Era**, it was suggested that if a leader was successful in developing a strong culture, the employees would be able to lead themselves. The **Transformational Era** believed that leaders need to be proactive, radical and innovative. The Transformational Era combined several aspects of earlier eras. In this era, the leaders needed several qualities to perform successfully. They needed to think and to execute. He or she must be a visionary, and have the ability to think strategically. He or she must focus on creativity. At the same time they must be willing to take risks, be adaptable to change, and willing to delegate. They need to come out with intelligent actions to execute the strategy. New leaders need to take a collective perspective on leadership.

King (1990) also foresaw the need of a Tenth Era-, what he termed as the **Integrative Era**. He recommended that the Tenth Era hopefully would integrate conceptually varied approaches in creating a sustainable theory of leadership. Success of a leader cannot be ascertained by a single approach; it needs simultaneous interaction of varied kinds of variables.

In the backdrop provided by King (1990), let us review various theories of leadership as they emerged over time. Broadly, these theories can be grouped into eight categories.

First came the *Great Man* **theory**. This theory assumed that the capacity for leadership was inherent – that great leaders are born, not made. It portrayed great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed. This theory was popularized in the 19th century by Carlyle (1888) who commented that "The history of the world is but the biography of great men". Great men were the leaders of men, the modelers, patterns, and in wide sense creators, of whatsoever the general mass of men contrived to do or to attain. All things that we see standing accomplished in the world are properly the outer material result, the practical realization and embodiment, of thoughts that dwell in the Great Men sent into the world, and thus the soul of the whole world's history, it may justly be considered, are the history of these great men. The

term "Great Man" was used because, at that time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership.

This theory gave way to **Trait Theory**. Like *Great Man* theory, this theory assumed that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theory attempted to crystallize particular personality or behavioral characteristics shared by leaders. Galton (1869) found that leadership was a unique property of extraordinary individuals, and the traits leaders possessed were immutable and could not be developed. Throughout early 1900s, the study of leadership focused on traits. However, a dilemma baffled the proponents of this theory. If particular traits are key features of leadership, then how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? Further, the list of the traits grew endlessly with each leader bringing in additional traits. Many of the times, the traits were contradictory as well.

Behavioral theories were the next phase of leadership theories. This leadership theory focused on the actions of leaders not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. The leader's behaviours came to be called leadership styles. Lewin et al (1939) studied the influence of leadership styles and performance. The identified three styles namely: *authoritarian, democratic,* and *laissez-faire*, which impacted group decision making, praise & criticism (feedback), and the management of the group tasks (project management). In 1945, a group of researchers at the Ohio State University identified observable behaviors of leaders, and argued that it is not the personality traits that make a leader. They came up with two factors that accounted for most of the variance in leader behaviour. These two factors were labeled *Consideration* (the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of the members of the group) and *Initiating Structure* (the extent to which a leader defines leader and group member roles, initiates actions, organizes group activities and defines how tasks are to be accomplished by the group). In 1947 Rensis Likert and his group of social researchers at University of Michigan launched series of leadership studies. These studies indicated that leaders could be classified as either "*employee centered*," or "*job centered*." It identified three critical characteristics of effective leaders: *task oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior,* and *participative leadership*. The *managerial grid model* is also based on the behavioral theory. The model was developed by Blake and

Mouton (1964). It suggested five different leadership styles, based on the leaders' *concern for people* and their *concern for goal achievement.*

Contingency theories of leadership focused on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to this theory, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation. Among the first proponents of this theory were Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957), who developed a leadership continuum with relationship orientation characterized by high employee freedom on one extreme and task oriented behavior characterized by high use of leader authority at the other extreme. According to this model, as a leader became more relationship oriented, he became less task oriented. A more detailed (and more researched) Contingency model was developed by Fiedler (1964). This model recognized that the style of leadership that was most effective depended upon the context in which the style was applied. Leadership behavior was modeled as a continuum between either task oriented or relationship oriented. Fiedler also developed a scale to classify leaders into one of these styles.

Situational theories proposed that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variables. Different styles of leadership might be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making. This theory was propounded by Hersey and Blanchard (1969). The fundamental argument of the situational leadership theory was that there is no single "best" style of leadership. Effective leadership depended on the task and that the most successful leaders were those that adapted their leadership style to the situations. Effective leadership depended, not only on the person or group that was being influenced, but also depended on the task, job or function that was needed to be accomplished.

Functional leadership theory addressed how specific leader behaviors contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness. McGrath (1962), its proponent, suggested that the leadership role is "to do, or get done, whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs". This theory argued that the leader's main job was to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; thus, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion (Hackman and Walton, 1986). One of the functional theories of

leadership, used in many leadership training programmes, is "Action-Centred Leadership". (Adair , 1973)

Transactional theories, also known as management theories, focused on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. These theories proposed that leadership involved using a system of rewards and punishments. The main proponent of this theory was Burns (1978). Transactional Leadership theory gave the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agreed to follow his lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power was given to the leader to evaluate, correct, and train subordinates when productivity was not up to the desired level, and reward effectiveness when expected outcome was reached. These leaders gave clear instructions to followers about what their expectations were and when those expectations were fulfilled there were rewards in store for them and failure was severely punished.

Transformational theories, also known as Relationship theories, focused upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders inspired people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders were focused on the performance of group members, but also wanted each person to fulfill his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards. Burns (1978), its proponent, noted that transforming approach created significant change in the life of people and organizations. It redesigned perceptions and values, and changed expectations and aspirations of employees. Bass (1985) further worked on this concept by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming and transactional leadership. He extended the initial concepts by proposing how transformational leadership could be measured, as well as how it impacted follower's motivation and performance.

Running across the various theories was another dimension of leadership, i.e., leader's behaviour. Behaviour of a leader in a given situation came to be referred as **Leadership Style**. This behaviour could depend on a number of factors like the leaders Skills, Knowledge, Values, Personality, Traits, Motives, etc. One of the earliest studies on Leadership Styles was that of Lewin et al (1939). They came out with three basic Leadership styles given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1**: Lewin's Leadership Styles**

Style	Characteristics
Authoritarian Leadership (Autocratic)	Authoritarian leaders, also known as autocratic leaders, provide clear expectations for what needs to be done, when it should be done, and how it should be done. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently with little or no input from the rest of the group. This leadership is best applied to situations where there is little time for group decision-making or where the leader is the most knowledgeable member of the group.
Participative Leadership (Democratic)	Participative leaders encourage group members to participate, but retain the final say over the decision-making process. Group members feel engaged in the process and are more motivated and creative. Democratic leaders offer guidance to group members, but they also participate in the group and allow input from other group members.
Delegative (Laissez-Faire) Leadership	Delegative leaders offer little or no guidance to group members and leave decision-making up to group members. While this style can be effective in situations where group members are highly qualified in an area of expertise, it often leads to poorly defined roles and a lack of motivation. The members in this group also made more demands on the leader, showed little cooperation and were unable to work independently.

Source: Lewin et al (1939)

Further studies on leader behaviour by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) suggested that leadership behaviour varies along a continuum and that as one moves away from the autocratic extreme the amount of subordinate participation and involvement in decision taking increases. They also suggested that the kind of leadership represented by the democratic extreme of the continuum would rarely be encountered in formal organisations.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) proposed four main leadership styles described in Table 2.2 that can be located at points along such a continuum.

Table 2.2**: Leadership Styles Continuum**

Style	Characteristics
Autocratic	Leader takes the decisions and announces them; expecting subordinates to carry them out without question (the *Telling style*).
Persuasive	Leader takes all the decisions for the group without discussion or consultation, but persuades the group to accept the decision. Leader explains and 'sells' in order to overcome any possible resistance. The leader attempts to create enthusiasm for the goals (the *Selling style*)
Consultative	Leader confers with the group members before taking decisions and, in fact, considers their advice and their feelings when framing decisions. He or she may, of course, not always accept the subordinates' advice but they are likely to feel that they can have some influence. The full responsibility of the decision remains with the leader but the degree of involvement by subordinates in decision taking is very much greater than telling or selling styles (the *Consulting style*).
Democratic	Leader lays the problem before his or her subordinates and invites discussion. The leader's role is that of conference leader, or chair, rather than that of decision taker. Leader allows the decision to emerge out of the process of group discussion, instead of imposing it on the group (the *Joining style*).

Source: Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957)

Goleman (2000) opined that leaders with best results rely on more than one style of leadership. He postulated six kinds of leaders namely *Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pacesetting* and *Coaching*. Key elements of these styles are presented in the Table 2.3

Goleman (2000) conducted this study to explore links between leadership and emotional intelligence, organisational climate (*flexibility, responsibility, standards, rewards, clarity* and *commitment*), and performance. This study noted that all six leadership styles had a measurable impact on each aspect of climate. Leaders who used styles which had a positive impact on the climate ensured superior financial performance. Goleman (2000) exhorted leaders to expand their options. For that, they need to comprehend their emotional intelligence (EI) competencies. Leaders need to have six styles in their repertoire and know when and how to use them. The leader needs to build a team with members who employ styles they lack.

Table 2.3: **Goleman's Leadership Styles**

Style	Characteristics
Coercive Leadership	Demands immediate compliance. This is a "tell" mode of leadership. The refrain generally is "Do as I say".
Authoritative Leadership	Provides vision and mobilises the team towards the same. Explains the reason for actions. Paints the big picture.
Affiliative Leadership	Revolves around people – their emotions and goals. Keeps employees happy and creates harmony amongst them. People needs always comes first.
Democratic Leadership	Forges consensus through participation. Fosters collaboration and team leadership.
Pacesetting Leadership	Sets high standards for performance and exemplifies them by self. Exhibits high drive to achieve and initiative.
Coaching Leadership	Develops people for future. Assists employees in identifying their individual strengths and weaknesses and link them to their personal and career goals.

Source: Goleman (2000)

Most of the styles discussed till now focused on the Leader and much less on the Team members or followers. However, over a period of time, the efficacy of Team leadership became a subject matter of study. These studies highlighted the importance of the leaders' relationship with his/her followers and an interdependency of roles. These set of conclusions emphasized that leader was not a hero or solo leader but a team leader. A leader had the capacity to follow. A leader was not necessarily the master, but the servant.

The first contribution on what could be called **Non Leader centric style** came from the works of Burns (1978). He put forth the Transformation Theory and Transforming style of Leadership, defining transforming leadership as *"a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converted followers into leaders and might convert leaders into moral agents"*. He suggested that *"Transforming leadership occured when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality…"*

Bass (1985) expanded on this style of leadership, by studying the psychological mechanisms that underlie both transactional and transforming leadership. He suggested ways to measure the transformational leadership and its impact on follower motivation and performance.

Tichy and Devanna (1990) built further on the work of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) in organisational and work contexts. They described the hybrid nature of transformational as *"… not due to charisma. It is a behavioral process capable of being learned"*.

Bass continued his research on topic and along with Avolio (Bass & Avolio, 1994) suggested that *"Transformational leadership is closer to the prototype of leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader, and it is more likely to provide a role model with which subordinates want to identify"*.

In fact, Non Leader centric styles have been put forth much earlier when the idea of Scientific Management was getting crystallized. Taylor (1911) postulated Four Principles of Scientific Management, where the first was *knowledge of the workmen*. Then it was proposed that the second duty under Scientific Management was the *scientific selection and then the progressive development of the workmen*. In this way, the workmen become the subject of study. In the past, efforts were made to study machines not workmen. After the organization studied these workmen, then possibilities and ways of developing workmen were crystallized. The next principle suggested bringing scientifically selected workmen and the science together, so that work could be performed efficiently. The fourth principle suggested deliberate division of the work between workmen and management. This required cooperation between the management and the workmen. This study therefore laid the foundations for more Non Leader centric approaches to leadership.

Belbin (1981) studied the behaviour of Teams and differentiated "solo Leader" and a Team Leader. This is captured in Table 2.4. Belbin (1981) suggested that Team Leadership can be learned through understanding the nature of leadership and the qualities required. In the rapidly changing and uncertain work environment no one person has all the answers to leadership. A Team leadership style based upon the development of the strengths and the allowable weaknesses of all the roles would permit a more holistic, or participative, style of leadership where teamwork, problem solving, decision making and innovation could flourish with heightened teamwork and work performance.

Table 2.4**: Solo Leader Vs Team Leader**

SOLO LEADER	TEAM LEADER
Plays unlimited role. Interferes in everything	Chooses to limit role to preferred team roles – delegates roles to others
Strives for conformity. Attempts to mould people to particular standards	Builds on diversity. Values differences
Collects acolytes, admirers and sycophants	Seeks Talent. Values people with special abilities
Directs Subordinates	Develops colleagues. Encourages the growth of personal strengths
Specifies objectives. Lays down what everyone is expected to do	Creates mission. Projects the vision which others can act on as they see fit

Source: Belbin (1981)

Table 2.5**: Leader as follower**

Area	Leader Action
Individual performance	As a leader, you must follow another individual, regardless of hierarchy, if: • That individual, through experience, skill, and judgment, knows best. • That individual's growth demands that you invest more in his or her skill and self-confidence than in your own. • Only that individual, not you, has the capacity (the time and opportunity) to "get it done"
Team performance	As a leader, you must follow the team if: • The team's purpose and performance goals demand it • The team, not you, must develop skills and self-confidence • The team's agreed-upon working approach requires you, like all the others, to do real work
Organizational performance	As a leader, you must follow others, regardless of hierarchy, if: • The organization's purpose and performance goals demand it • The need for expanding the leadership capacity of others in the organization requires it • "Living" the vision and values enjoins you to do so

Source: Katzenbach and Smith (1994)

Katzenbach and Smith (1994) proposed the idea of Leaders as followers. They highlighted the areas where being a follower was expected to give better results. This is highlighted in Table 2.5

Contemporary thinkers have studied leadership beyond the established theories and styles. They have explored various aspects of leadership that leads to better performance, better motivation, better success, and overall betterment of the world itself. There are conceptual and empirical efforts for exploring **excellence in leadership**, focusing both on individuals and organisations. Leadership has been studied in conventional settings in professional organisations. Leadership has been explained with context of varied non conventional settings like, in Orchestras, parables, and example of sledge dogs. Leadership has been studied through Mountaineering experiences. These studies attempt to find out what are some of the qualities that result in excellent Leadership.

Pinchot (1985) propounded Ten Commandments for leaders. He noted that team building is a team activity. The leader should share credit widely. One should ask for advice before asking for resources. He/she must underpromise and overdeliver. He/she must be prepared to undertake any job needed to make his dream work, regardless of his/her specific job description. One must remember that it was easier to ask for forgiveness than for permission. Keep the best interest of the company and its customers in mind. Come to work each day willing to be fired. Be true to your goals, but be realistic about how to achieve them, and honor and educate your sponsors.

Mintzberg (1989) noted that all managers are expected to play 3 broad roles; namely *Interpersonal, Informational* and *Decisional*. These broad roles have their sub roles as well. For interpersonal category, the manager was expected to perform a *Figurehead, Leader* or a *Liaison* role. For the Informational Category, the roles were as a *Monitor, Disseminator* or S*pokesperson*. Roles under the Decisional category are that of an *Entrepreneur, Disturbance Handler, Resource Allocator* or *Negotiator.*

Mintzberg (1998) later postulated the theory of Covert leadership, after studying leadership insights that he has gathered by closely observing an orchestra conductor. A symphony orchestra was like any other professional organizations. They employed highly trained individuals who know what to do and they just do it. Covert leadership meant managing with a sense of balance keeping in view the constraints and limitations. A covert leader led without seeming to, without

his people being fully aware of all that he was doing. In covert leadership, a leader was not completely powerless--but neither did he possess absolute control over others. The key insight was that in case of an orchestra conductor, a covert leader's focus was on inspiring the team members.

Kim and Mauborgne (1992) explained leadership in terms of a "bowl of clay". For many, the bowl is made of out of clay. But the true picture of a bowl must include that hollow that is carved into the clay – the unseen space that defines the bowl's shape and capacity. Their search led them to Oriental masters who taught the wisdom of life through parables. Some of the qualities of excellent leadership that emerged out were '*the leader's ability to hear what is left unspoken, humility, commitment, the value of looking at reality from vantage points, the ability to create an organization that draws out the unique strengths of every member*."

Drawing from the experiences of 12 leaders whom he interviewed, Bennis (1994) argued that leadership starts with a leader's capacity for *self-invention*, and this begins with *self-knowledge*. Leaders *innovate* and learn from experience *without fear of mistakes*. A leader is someone in the front, doing things others have not done. A leader must add *knowledge of the world* to self-knowledge. This knowledge of the world should be gained through participation rather than reaction. A leader must trust his instincts, his *blessed impulse*. Blessed impulse is a tool for making decisions in a world too complex to be completely understood. Leaders must deploy themselves through self-expression. Leaders must *get people on their side* through constancy, congruity of words and action, reliability and integrity.

Coming to the realm of organisational leadership, Treacy and Wiersema (1997) focused on value disciplines needed for companies to become and remain number one in the market. They identified three value disciplines namely; *operational excellence, product leadership* and *customer intimacy*. *Operational excellence* requires leaders to look into the processes, avoid non value added steps in processes, reduce wastages, reduce cost and be able to turn around customer requirements with speed and urgency. To build and sustain *Product leadership*, leaders need to be focused on innovation, reduce cost, and continuously seek customer feedback. *Customer intimacy* requires leaders to strive to be close to the customer and anticipate future customer needs. They must also acquire more knowledge on the product or service than the customers.

Singh (1999) pointed out the challenges of providing the world with leaders of *greater breadth* (Capacity to respect other's opinions, freedom from prejudice or intolerance, ability to see the whole), *Versatility* (Ability to turn easily and readily from one subject to another and capability of dealing with many subjects), and *understanding* (Abilities to perceive, to conceptualize, to interpret, and to judge). The leadership role demands perspectives, worldviews, beliefs and a passionate commitment to some values balanced by a sense of responsibility. In addition leaders need a sense of humor, ability to maintain humility, and ability to listen to others. Leaders with such qualities are in short supply. These qualities can however be taught. Singh (1999) suggested that study of classic literature is one of the effective ways of developing such leaders. He suggested that choosing the right classic to read, relating literature to leadership & decision-making, and experiencing them through interpretation are the three steps that may help develop excellent leaders.

Dayal (1999) studied various behavioral characteristics of effective leaders and grouped them under three categories namely; *Organisation related, Individual related* and *Other people related*. Under *Organisation related characteristics* he noted that leaders build organisations and have clarity of purpose. Deep faith, innovation, energy, service above self, and leading by examples fell into the *Individual related characteristics*. Under the *Other people related characteristics*, openness, allowing freedom and developing people were included. Dayal (1999) went further to look at processes for developing an effective leader. He felt that any interventions for leader development would have poor chance of success without developing an overall feeling of acceptance and belonging among the employees. The study identified three means to develop effective leaders. These are; *an urge to achieve or to succeed, a process of maturing,* and *a process of becoming oneself.*

Collins (2001) opined that organisations that are in good health also looked for leaders who can convert from good to excellent. His work indicated that one of the most significant differences, in turning an organisation from good to great is the quality and nature of leadership in the firm. He identified "*Level 5 leadership*" as a common characteristic of the great companies. In his opinion, Level 5 leaders build enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of humility and professional will. This is summarised in Table 2.6

Table 2.6: **Two sides of Level 5 leadership**

Professional Will	**Personal Humility**
Creates superb results. Acts as a catalyst	Demonstrates compelling modesty. Shuns public adulation. Not boastful
Demonstrates strong resolve. Focuses on long term results. Not deterred by difficulties	Acts with quite calm determination. Sets high standards. Motivates. Does not depend on charisma.
Sets high standards. Does not compromise on standards.	Channels ambition to the company. Focuses on and develops successors.
Takes total responsibility for failures	Apportions credit to other people for success

Source: Collins (2001)

Badaracco, Jr. (2001) postulated the model of *Quite Leadership*. This style of leadership is practical, effective and sustainable. Quite leadership is highly effective in situations where ethical challenges require direct and public action. This is because quite leaders prefer to choose their position carefully rather than doing something in haste and dramatically to achieve a single time glory. Quite leaders move carefully, incrementally and patiently and win the race without any bitterness and casualties. These people are called quite leaders because their modesty and restraint are in large measure responsible for their extraordinary achievements. The author believed that "big problems can be solved by a long series of small efforts." Quite leaders, in spite of their apparently slow pace response, often proved to be the quickest way to take the world to a better place.

Following the studies on excellence in leadership, Fryer (2003) studied the attributes of successful leaders. He discussed how managers inspire ordinary people to do extraordinary things.

Table 2.7: **Leaders and their characteristics**

Leader	Characteristic
Carly Fiorina, Chairman and CEO of Hewlett-Packard	Start with the Truth
Christopher Bangle, Global Chief of Design at BMW	Appeal to Greatness
Chauncey Veatch, 2002 National Teacher of the Year, USA	Make Them Proud
L.M. Baker, jr. Chairman of Wachovia	Stick to Your Values
Robert A. Eckert, Chairman and CEO of Mattel	Be a Broken Record
Susan Butcher, Four-time winner of the 1150-mile Iditarod sledge dog race.	Build Trust
Ross J. Pillari, President of BP America	Encourage Risk
Herb Baum, Chairman, President and CEO of the Dial Corporation	Call for the Little Guy
Mario Mazzola, Chief Development Officer at CISCO Systems	Ground without Grinding
Robert D. Ballard. President of the Institute for Exploration in Mystic	Leap First, Ask Later
Liu Chuanzhi, Chairman Legend Group	Set Different Incentive Level
Hank McKinnell, Chairman and CEO of Pfizer	Work quickly through pain

Source: Fryer (2003)

The author profiled twelve leaders and described tough motivational challenges they had faced. Motivating people required a clear, unbiased understanding of situation at hand, deep insight into the vagaries of human nature at the individual and group levels, the establishment of appropriate and reasonable expectations and goals, and the balancing of tangible and intangible incentives. Table 2.7 lists the leaders profiled and the key characteristics that they advocate

Goldsmith (2007) went against the norm of studying what leaders should do and focused on what they should stop doing. He compiled a list of 20 habits that every leader should be consciously avoiding in order to get ahead. He warned against the habit of *wanting to win always*. Leaders should curtail their desire to *add 2 cents to every discussion*. Excellent leaders do not *pass judgment*. They do not *use sarcasm and cutting remarks*. Only destructive leaders convey to everyone that *I'm right and you're wrong*. Excellent leaders do not have to *tell the world how smart they are*. They do not use *emotional volatility* as a management tool. They do not exhibit

negativity. Excellent leaders do not *withhold information.* Some leaders do not progress because of their *inability to give praise and reward.* Excellent leaders do not *claim credit that that they don't deserve.* They do not *make excuses.* Only poor leaders *cling to the past.* They also *play favorites.* They *refuse to express regret. Not listening* is one of the other things he warns about. According to Goldsmith (2007) excellent leaders never fail to express gratitude. They never punish the messenger, and never pass the buck. Excellent leaders do not have an *excessive need to be "me".*

Khandwalla (2008) studied the concept of greatness in corporate context. The author described greatness as outstanding performance in terms of business performance which is also outstandingly humane, upright and committed to some larger vision of quality of life. This study emphasized the need for blending of corporate greatness in business excellence and 'goodness' excellence at the highest level. "These new breed of corporate managers need to possess an intriguing mix of skills. People at that level need to possess altruism and change agent competencies." Change agent skills are anchored in a strong proclivity for innovation and ability to utilize other's power for one's mission. Their capacity to mobilize scarce resources and support of the stakeholders in a situation, task accomplishment drive, high self-confidence, and leadership, communication, and inter-personal skills helps the organization to be effective. At the same time there is a need to ensure that the company has greater linkages (and influencing ability) with other external facilitators such as political system, the bureaucracy, the business community, and the civil society.

Jones and Jones (2008) noted that trust and confidence in leaders have fallen. To effectively face current and future leadership challenges, there is a need for leaders to embrace what the authors termed as *Principled Leadership.* Principled Leaders develop a long-term purpose and design their career based upon honesty, integrity and honor. They practice selfless service to the company, customer and team. They help followers to see success in their mind's eye and motivate them to work harder and take challenging jobs in order to be effective. The foundation of Principled Leadership is The Holy Bible. The Apostle Paul demonstrated principled leadership characteristics. A Principled Leader must be hospitable, love what is good, self-controlled, upright, holy and disciplined. This theory was influenced by trait theory, and transformational theory.

Maxwell (2008) shared lessons from his own life and other leaders on how to become the smartest leader. He opined that looking for leadership insights in like mining for gold. Smart leaders do not isolate themselves from the people they are leading. *Creating relationships* with others brings more opportunities than leading alone. *Self awareness and self control* are two key aspects of becoming an excellent leader. Best leaders will always be the ones that *listen* to their employees. A leader can improve their performance through an *honest evaluation from others*. Leaders must be able to *define reality*. A leader must find the *right people* who work best for the organization. Leaders should always continue to *ask questions*. Excellent leaders keep learning. Finally a leader should always think about the *impression they are leaving with others,* because it will be the legacy after the leader is gone.

Manikutty and Singh (2010) noted that real/true leaders create a group of people who are willing to work beyond accomplishing pre decided tasks. Such leaders help followers raise their latent energy and spirit, helping them acquire certain amount of energy and vitality. A leader works quite differently from a manager. Leaders dream ideas and translate them into images that excite people. Leaders work through passions whereas managers work through interests. Most people in an organization are managers. The potential ones among them need to prepare themselves to become leaders. This transition process requires managers to develop and manage emotions, set their own standards, and become dreamers.

Wilson (2010) studied Indian corporates focusing on how Indian Business leaders develop over time. This study intended to propose pathways to prepare executives to be more effective leaders. The author conducted interviews with more than 100 business executives from Indian industries. The eleven leadership lessons learned were categorized under three broad groups, namely; *Leading self* (Confidence, Self-awareness, and Personal leadership insights), *Leading others* (Managing & motivating subordinates, Developing subordinates, Navigating politics & gaining influence, Engaging with multiple stakeholders and Cross-cultural savvy) and *Leading the business* (Effective execution, Innovation & entrepreneurship, and Functional & technical expertise).

Barney (2010) profiled the Indian IT company Infosys and compiled leadership lessons. Infosys's value system was explained as "*the ability to accept deferred gratifications, the ability*

to make sacrifices currently, the ability to work in a team based on an agreed protocol of do's and don'ts, subordinating individual egos and putting the interest of the organization ahead of individual interests, recognizing people competency and accepting the leadership of individuals in different areas." He suggested that five '*context-invariant and time-invariant attributes'* that lay the foundation for success at Infosys are *openness to new ideas in an environment of pluralism*, *meritocracy* - making sure that the best idea is selected, *speed* - doing things faster today than yesterdays, *imagination* and *excellence in execution*. These values were crystallized as C-LIFE, which stands for *Customer Delight*, *Leadership by Example, Integrity & Transparency*, *Fairness* and *Pursuit of Excellence*. These values were instilled in all employees and across company's core values in all processes. Leaders were interviewed for their perspectives on what made them so successful. Seven themes that emerged were *metacognition & thought leadership*, *unconventional thinking, collective thought leadership, building on existing thought leadership, foresight plus insight, focus plus flow* and personal *contents, views & challenges*. This study offered guidance to aspiring entrepreneurs on how to lead a start up organisation to great success.

Sharma (2010) proposed eight lessons that leaders, managers and entrepreneurs can apply to boost morale, command loyalty and improve productivity while fulfilling personal lives. He called them the *eight rituals*. These rituals are *compelling future focus* (get people excited about a compelling cause that contributes to the life of others), *human relations* ("Manage by mind, lead by heart"), *team unity* (employees who feel they are valued members of an exciting team will go an extra mile and give their best), *adaptability & change management* (there is a joy in change), *personal effectiveness* (focus on the worthy), *self leadership* (personal renewal, abundant knowledge, physicality, early awakening and the deathbed mentality), *creativity & innovation* (create a workplace that liberates these), and *contribution & significance* (leave a footprint and make a difference). Author concluded that the best way to ensure these leadership lessons became a part of who you are is to create rituals around them. These rituals will give the leader a strong support and foster self-discipline.

A summary of the attributes required for excellence in leadership that come out as a result of the studies perused in this section is presented in Table 2.8

Table 2.8: Excellence in leadership

No	Leadership Attribute	Reference(s)
	Thinking Related Attributes	
1	Dreams that invoke commitment, passion, determination and courage	Manikutty and Singh (2010)
2	Innovation and Entrepreneurship	Wilson (2010), Barney (2010), Sharma (2010)
3	Creating and Managing Change	Wilson (2010), Barney (2010), Goldsmith (2007)
4	Metacognition and thought leadership	Barney (2010), Metcalfe and Shimamura (1994)
5	Unconventional Thinking	Barney (2010)
6	Master Managing of the Unexpected	Sharma (2010)
7	Creating and Communicating Vision	Manikutty and Singh (2010), Sharma (2010)
8	Creating and Executing Strategies	Barney (2010), Porter (1985), Bowman and Faulkner (1997), Mintzberg (1994), Kim and Mauborgne (2004)
9	Picking your battles	Badaracco Jr (2001)
10	Executing with excellence	Wilson (2010), Barney (2010), Sharma (2010), Jones and Jones (2008), Goldsmith (2007)
11	Creating Value	Treacy and Wiersema (1997), Barney (2010), Goldsmith (2007)
	Character Related Attributes	
12	Leading by example	Manikutty and Singh (2010), Wilson (2010), Barney (2010), Jones and Jones (2008)
13	Keeping your word	Sharma (2008)
14	Admitting mistakes, forgiving mistakes, be forgiven	Goldsmith (2007), Maxwell (2008), Barney (2010)
15	Balancing work and life	Manikutty and Singh (2010), Maxwell (2008), Jones and Jones (2008), Badaracco Jr (2001)
16	Taking a stand and make a choice	Wilson (2010), Khandwalla (2008), Sharma (2010), Goldsmith (2007)
17	Being a learner	Maxwell (2008), Jones and Jones (2008)
18	Listening	Sharma (2010), Goldsmith (2007), Maxwell (2008), Jones and Jones (2008)
	People Related Attributes	
19	Developing and demonstrating Faith and Confidence, in self and others	Manikutty and Singh (2010), Wilson (2010)
20	Self Awareness & seeking feedback	Manikutty and Singh (2010), Wilson (2010), Sharma (2010), Goldsmith (2007), Maxwell (2008)
21	Identifying, selecting, motivating and developing the team members	Wilson (2010), Barney (2010), Sharma (2010), Goldsmith (2007), Jones and Jones (2008)
22	Helping Others to Grow	Maxwell (2008), Jones and Jones (2008)
23	Influencing	Maxwell (2008), Wilson (2010), Goldsmith (2007)
24	Promoting and encouraging diversity	Wilson (2010)
25	Developing and nurturing relationships	Barney (2010), Goldsmith (2007), Maxwell (2008), Jones and Jones (2008)
26	Appreciating and Thanking	Goldsmith (2007)

Source: Researcher's distillation

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