

levels of control and discretion into jobs. Job enrichment was applied successfully, but it eventually gave way to the job characteristics approach. This approach involves changing jobs in order to build in greater levels of the core job dimensions from Job Characteristics Theory (e.g., job autonomy, variety, significance, identity). A recent development relevant to this approach is the importance of illustrating to employees the positive impact their performance has on others.

Campion's interdisciplinary approach to job design has suggested a number of ways that jobs can be changed to enhance a variety of outcomes, some of which are relatively unfamiliar to organizational psychology. The most recent trend in this area is to integrate Job Characteristics Theory with Campion's interdisciplinary approach in order to redesign jobs in an attempt to maximize both motivation and productivity. Regardless of the approach taken, it should always be remembered that job redesign is a complex undertaking that requires careful advance planning and, often, considerable financial resources.

Organizations also use motivation theory to discourage other forms of behavior. The most typical way of doing this is through the use of progressive disciplinary policies. Such policies differ by organization. Their actual content depends on factors such as the behavior being discouraged, collective bargaining agreements, and other legal constraints. Ultimately, the success of a progressive disciplinary policy depends on how well it is communicated and whether it is applied consistently and in a fair manner.

Many organizations often develop grievance procedures to accompany progressive disciplinary measures. These allow for em-

ployees to dispute disciplinary actions if they are not considered fair. As with progressive disciplinary procedures, the effectiveness of grievance procedures depends on whether they are seen as fair by employees. In many cases, formal grievance procedures can be avoided if supervisors and subordinates are open to informal problem solving.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

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Chapter Ten

Leadership and Influence Processes

Leadership is a topic that has been of interest to organizational psychologists for several decades. Indeed, volumes have been written about leadership, though not all have been products of organizational psychologists. Authors ranging from business executives to collegiate athletic coaches have written books about what it takes to succeed as a leader. Because much of leadership involves getting things done through other people, power and influence represent core activities of leaders. In fact, power and influence are deemed so vital to leaders that some authors have defined leadership largely as a form of influence (Yukl, 1989, 2006).

In this chapter we examine leadership as well as power and influence processes. Coverage of the general approaches to leadership is followed by descriptions of well-known leadership theories. Consistent with recent advances in the study of leadership, the chapter devotes much more attention to *contingency* and process approaches to leadership, in comparison to those that focus exclusively on the traits and behaviors of leaders.

Compared to other treatments of leadership, this chapter is somewhat unique in that power and influence are covered in the same chapter as leadership theories. This was done intentionally to acknowledge that the essence of leadership is influencing other people's behavior. Whether one is leading a church congregation, a Fortune 500 corporation, or a major league soccer team, much of what one does involves influencing others' behaviors. Furthermore, a leader's success in influencing others, as well as the means by

which he or she chooses to do so, will depend heavily on the amount and nature of power held. Power and influence are clearly the "nuts and bolts" of leadership.

DEFINING LEADERSHIP

If you were to pick 10 people at random and ask them to define leadership, there is a good chance that you would get a variety of definitions. According to Yukl and Van Fleet (1992), *leadership* is difficult to define because of the complexity of the leadership process. Because leadership involves interactions between leaders and subordinates

(typically, the members of a work group), leadership can be viewed in many ways. For example, we can view leadership as consisting of the behaviors that are enacted by the group leader. These may include organizing the work, obtaining resources for the group, providing encouragement to group members, and ultimately evaluating the group's output (Guzzo & Shea, 1992).

On the other hand, one could just as easily view leadership as a series of functions that need to be carried out in order for a group to be effective. The nature of a group's task may need to be clarified, resources may need to be obtained, the spirits of group members may need lifting, and the group's output must eventually be evaluated. These functions can be but don't necessarily have to be performed by a leader. Any group member with relevant expertise may help to provide task clarification, or someone with an outgoing personality may motivate others. By viewing leadership in this way, we are saying that it resides within groups, and not with one specific individual.

Definitions of leadership often differ in whether they emphasize leadership behaviors or the results of those behaviors. Ideally, when a leader attempts to influence his or her subordinates, these individuals will do what the leader wants, and do it willingly. Sometimes, however, an influence attempt by a leader will result only in grudging compliance or may even be actively resisted by subordinates. According to some definitions of leadership, compliance or resistance does not represent *true* leadership. On the other hand, according to other definitions of leadership, influence attempts that lead only to compliance or resistance still represent leadership, albeit unsuccessful leadership.

Another issue that complicates the task of defining leadership is the frequent distinction between *leadership* and *management*. A leader,

some have argued, is a person who obtains commitment from his or her subordinates and, in some cases, may even inspire them. A manager, on the other hand, is someone who makes sure the "trains run on time" and primarily obtains compliance from his or her subordinates. A manager is someone who doesn't make things worse for his or her work group, but doesn't get them too excited either. Interestingly, the leadership-management distinction is much more of an issue in the popular leadership literature than it is among leadership scholars. This may explain why people have strong feelings about the issue (see Comment 10.1).

Despite all the factors that complicate the meaning of leadership, it is possible to identify some common ground among the numerous definitions. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) define *leadership* as "a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of an organization, influencing people in the organization to implement the strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing the group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of the organization" (p. 149). This definition is summarized in Figure 10.1. Vroom and Jago (2007) have recently defined leadership more succinctly as "a process of motivating people to work together collaboratively to accomplish great things" (pg. 18).

There are several things to note about these definitions. First, leadership involves the influencing of others' behaviors. Second, leadership is viewed as a process and not as an outcome. It is possible, based on this definition, for a leader to engage in unsuccessful influence attempts. Third, these definitions imply that leadership requires a variety of skills. Influencing task objectives and strategy may require strong analytical and conceptual skills; influencing people to implement those strategies and objectives

COMMENT 10.1

MANAGEMENT VERSUS LEADERSHIP

LIKE MANY AREAS in organizational psychology, leadership has had its fair share of problems with definition of important terms and constructs. One issue that often comes up, particularly among those who work in organizations, is the distinction between *management* and *leadership*. A *manager* is typically defined as an individual who engages in traditional administrative behaviors such as planning, helping to organize the work of subordinates, and exerting control over their behavior. A *leader*, on the other hand, is a person who not only fulfills required administrative functions, but also is able to inspire and motivate employees to strive for excellence, and, at times, facilitates meaningful change in organizations.

One of the reasons that we find this "management versus leadership" distinction interesting is that it seems to be more of an issue for employees, and less of an issue for leadership researchers. Although recent theories of charismatic and transformational leadership

requires interpersonal and persuasive skills. Finally, leaders are frequently important agents of change in organizations. Changing the culture of an organization is a tall order, although it may be necessary at times if an organization is to survive. Because of the influence they have, leaders are often in the best position to facilitate cultural change.

The Importance of Leadership

What exactly do leaders do that is so important? Leaders are often needed to provide *strategic direction and vision* to groups and, in many cases, to entire organizations (Bass, 1998). Work-group members are often too busy with routine task completion, and with

address this issue to some degree, leadership researchers have not focused a great deal of effort on the issue. In contrast, I (SMJ) have found that in courses I have taught during the past 10 years, the issue is always raised and discussed with a great deal of enthusiasm. To most people, at least in my experience, managers and leaders are distinct groups.

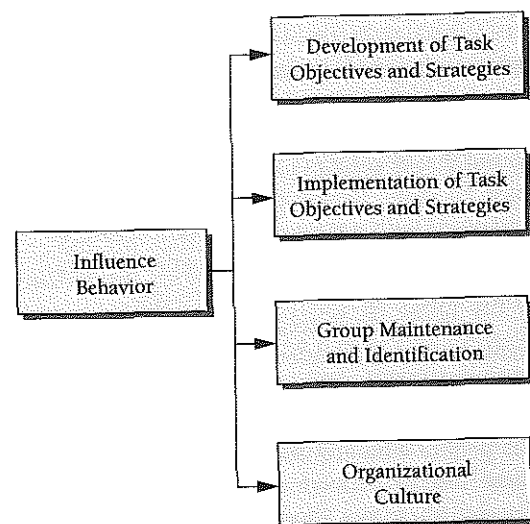
If people do indeed distinguish between management and leadership, and have strong feelings about it, this suggests two things to me. First, employees in organizations want to work for people who are true leaders and are not there just to perform administrative duties. Second, there is a shortage of real leaders in organizations. There may be many reasons for this; it may be due to the fact that real leaders are often agents of change. If those in positions of authority simply carry out administrative duties, this allows an organization to maintain the status quo, and no pressure for change is created.

meeting deadlines, to think about where the group is headed in the future. In many groups, strategic planning and visioning activities are shared among group members, but the leader is typically the focal point of such efforts. In a sense, then, leaders help organizations to channel productive behavior in directions that are beneficial and that meet relevant strategic objectives.

Another important function of leaders, particularly those in small groups, is to engage in *motivation and coaching* behaviors. Even highly experienced employees occasionally need encouragement and, in some cases, help in solving difficult work-related problems. As with strategic planning and visioning, motivation and coaching

FIGURE 10.1

Summary of Yukl and Van Fleet's (1992)
Definition of Leadership



activities could potentially be shared among the members of a group. However, it is often more efficient, as well as less confusing for group members, to have one individual who is primarily responsible for fulfilling these functions. In most cases, that person is the leader.

A third important function of leaders in organizations is *enforcement and interpretation of organizational policies*. For most employees, leaders serve as “linking pins” to people in higher levels of the organization (Likert, 1967). Because of this concept, leaders are often required to interpret and enforce organizational policies. Again, it is certainly possible that a group could informally “police itself,” but having a formally designated leader makes it much more likely that organizationally mandated rules and procedures will be followed.

Finally, leaders are important because they are typically responsible for *obtaining resources for groups*. Leaders essentially represent the interests of their work groups within the broader organizational environ-

ment. Because of this, groups often rely heavily on the persuasive skills of leaders to obtain resources for task completion. Without a leader, the members of a group may all be trying to obtain resources and, at times, may get in each other's way.

The four leadership functions just mentioned are not meant to be exhaustive, but they make a fairly compelling case for the importance of leadership. Furthermore, with organizations becoming flatter, skilled leadership is even more crucial to the success of organizations. In flatter organizational structures, leaders have a much wider span of control (i.e., they supervise a larger number of employees), and the impact of each leader's behavior is much greater than in organizations with a great many levels. Thus, leadership is very important, if not vital, to the success of an organization.

GENERAL APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Like many of the topics covered in this book, leadership has been of interest for centuries, although much of the early writing on leadership came from philosophers, historians, and political scientists. Only within the past half-century have organizational psychologists become heavily involved in the study of leadership. During this time, distinct approaches to the study of leadership have evolved. In this section, we review three of these approaches: the trait approach, the behavioral approach, and the contingency approach.

The Trait Approach

The basic premise behind the trait approach to leadership is actually quite simple: Those who are effective leaders possess traits that are different from those who are less effective

leaders. Leadership research guided by the trait approach is aimed primarily at identifying traits that discriminate between effective and ineffective leaders. Indeed, a good deal of early leadership research was based on the trait approach. More exhaustive summaries of this research can be found in Mann (1959) and Stogdill (1948).

Unfortunately, early trait-based leadership research failed to generate a definitive profile of the traits that characterized “the effective leader,” partly because some of the “traits” explored by these early leadership researchers (e.g., physical characteristics, gender) were not based on sound theoretical reasoning. In addition, the aim of most of these early leadership researchers was to use traits to distinguish effective from ineffective leaders. Given that numerous variables influence leaders' effectiveness, it is understandable that using traits alone to predict effectiveness met with only limited success.

Because traits did not predict leader effectiveness well, and because, within psychology, emphasis shifted to environmental influences on behavior, the trait approach to leadership generally fell out of favor in the 1940s and 1950s. Trait-based leadership research was still conducted but was clearly a much less dominant approach to leadership than it previously had been. Over time, however, the trait approach to leadership resurfaced and made important contributions to the study of leadership, primarily due to two factors. First, researchers eventually decreased the emphasis on the prediction of leader effectiveness, in favor of predicting *leader emergence*. In group situations where there is not a formally designated leader, someone within the group eventually assumes the leadership role. Leadership emergence is simply the process by which this occurs.

The trait approach has also made great strides in identifying traits that predict leader emergence (Foti & Rueb, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenney, 1991). Those who are more intelligent, have higher needs for dominance, are high self-monitors, and are socially perceptive tend to emerge as leaders when no leader has been formally designated. This profile suggests that emergent leaders are able to (1) accurately “read” the social dynamics of a situation, and (2) adapt their behavior to meet those social demands. Although not yet researched in the trait literature, it is plausible that such individuals are also more likely to end up in leadership positions when formal selection procedures are used. Longitudinal studies of managerial effectiveness would certainly suggest that this is the case.

Second, trait-based leadership research has made a comeback because the traits investigated in more recent research have been more theoretically plausible. According to Yukl and Van Fleet (1992), several traits have been identified that predict managerial effectiveness and advancement within organizations. These include a high energy level, stress tolerance, integrity, emotional maturity, and self-confidence. Given the nature of managerial work, it is easy to see how these traits would be related to success, especially when they are compared to things such as physical characteristics or gender.

Zaccaro (2007) has recently developed an integrative model of how leader traits are related to leader emergence, effectiveness, advancement, and promotion. Zaccaro emphasizes that leader traits include personality traits, cognitive abilities, motives, and values, and that combinations of traits are likely to be better predictors of leader effectiveness than single traits considered in isolation. For example, Kemp, Zaccaro, Jordan, and Flippo (2004) examined the ability of

social intelligence, metacognition (awareness of one's thought processes), and tolerance of ambiguity to predict leader effectiveness among military personnel on a 3-day decision-making simulation. The authors found that those leaders with high levels on all three traits performed the most effectively, and that low scores on any one trait harmed performance. This line of research emphasizes the importance of considering how leader traits act in combination rather than in isolation.

In Chapter 4 we talked about the "Big Five" personality traits as predictors of job performance. Recall that personality researchers have identified five major traits: extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience. One new direction in leader traits is to examine the relationships between the Big Five and ratings of leadership and performance. Bono and Judge (2004) found that extraversion was the most consistent predictor of transformational leadership—a type of leadership we will turn to later in the chapter. Transformational leadership refers to the ability of a leader to articulate a clear and important vision that will motivate followers to strive to achieve. The authors noted that, in general, the relationships between the Big Five and leadership were rather weak. The authors suggest that situational variables may influence (i.e., moderate) the relationships between the Big Five and leadership (see also de Hoogh, den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005).

Although much has been done to revive the trait approach to leadership, there are still many questions that trait researchers have yet to answer. For example, what are the practical implications of trait leadership theory? One would assume that the practical value of this approach lies mainly in the area of selection for leadership positions, but that has

not been fully articulated by trait researchers. Another issue that has not been fully addressed by trait researchers is the impact of various combinations of traits within work groups. What happens, for example, if a group consists of several individuals who possess traits indicative of leadership emergence? Do these individuals share leadership functions, or do they compete for this role? Despite these potential shortcomings, the trait approach, particularly in recent years, has advanced our understanding of leadership processes considerably.

The Behavioral Approach

Due largely to shortcomings of early trait research, the focus of leadership research shifted to the behaviors that seem to distinguish effective from ineffective leaders. The best-known taxonomy of leader behavior was developed by Ralph Stogdill and Edwin Fleishman and their colleagues at Ohio State University (e.g., Fleishman, Harris, & Burt, 1955). According to these researchers, leadership behavior can be broken down into two basic categories: (1) *initiating structure* and (2) *consideration*. Leader behaviors that comprise the initiating structure dimension are aimed at facilitating the task performance of groups. Examples might include organizing work for subordinates, communicating performance expectations, and making sure that subordinates' behaviors stay focused on the tasks that they are performing.

Consideration is represented by behaviors that are designed to show subordinates that they are valued and that the leader cares about them as people. Examples of this dimension include showing an interest in subordinates' families, "touching base" with subordinates periodically to see how things are going, and being compassionate when problems occur.

During roughly the same time period when the Ohio State leadership studies were conducted, other researchers were involved in efforts to provide meaningful classifications of leader behavior. For instance, Rensis Likert and his colleagues at the University of Michigan made the distinction between *job-centered leadership behavior* and *employee-centered leadership behavior* (Likert, 1961). Blake and Mouton (1964) made a similar distinction between *concern for production* and *concern for people* in the development of their managerial grid. Note that all of these reflect a basic distinction between leader behaviors designed to facilitate task completion, and leader behaviors designed to enhance interpersonal harmony in a group.

Despite the apparent parsimony of classifying leader behaviors into two broad categories, a number of issues were still unresolved. For instance, some argued that these two dimensions were largely independent (e.g., Blake & Mouton, 1964). In other words, a leader could simultaneously exhibit behaviors indicative of initiating structure and consideration. Others argued that these two forms of leader behavior are negatively related (e.g., Likert, 1961). For example, initiating structure behaviors were performed at the expense of consideration, and vice versa.

Another issue was that some leader behaviors were difficult to classify as strictly initiating structure or strictly consideration. For instance, a leader may make a point of talking to each subordinate each day, to see how things are going. This could certainly be viewed as consideration because it provides the leader with an opportunity to express concern for these subordinates. These informal chats may also help to keep subordinates focused on their work-related tasks, and may provide an opportunity to

exchange important task-related information with the leader. Thus, the behaviors leaders engage in may be more complex than this two-dimensional classification would suggest.

Although the Ohio State University two-factor approach enjoyed some success initially, a number of authors expressed doubts about the ability of consideration and initiating structure to predict leader effectiveness (Yukl & van Fleet, 1992). Judge, Piccolo, and Ilies (2004) pointed out that these pessimistic assessments were based largely on qualitative reviews of the literature, rather than an objective assessment of the ability of consideration and initiating structure to predict outcomes such as follower satisfaction and leader effectiveness. Judge et al. (2004) conducted meta-analyses of 163 independent correlations between initiating structure, consideration, and these outcomes. The authors found the overall relationship between consideration and key outcomes, controlling for measurement error in the variables, was .48, and that the overall relationship between initiating structure and the key variables was .29. Judge and his colleagues point out that these relationships are rather impressive, and support the validity of the two major categories of leader behavior.

However, one final issue that continues to plague the behavioral approach (and has from the beginning) is that researchers were never able to identify a set of leader behaviors that were consistently associated with effectiveness across all types of situations. This suggests that there is no *universal* set of leader behaviors that will result in leader effectiveness in all situations. Rather, the behaviors that are needed from a leader will vary from situation to situation. This realization led to the contingency approach to leadership, which will be described next.

The Contingency Approach

The contingency approach is based on the assumption that the relationship between leader behaviors and traits and effectiveness depends on characteristics of the particular situation the leader is in. The task of a leader, according to the contingency approach, is to first “read” the situation to determine what behaviors would be most appropriate. Once this is determined, the leader has to adjust his or her behavior to meet the demands of the situation.

To illustrate how the contingency approach works in practice, let’s say that a leader has been asked to take charge of a group consisting of five highly skilled and experienced design engineers. In this type of situation, the leader would probably not have to do a great deal of teaching and performance-related coaching. In fact, if the leader tried to do this, the group members might consider him or her an annoyance. Instead, the leader in this situation will be more effective if he or she concentrates on obtaining resources for the group, facilitates professional development activities for group members, and periodically makes an effort to boost the morale of the group.

Now consider a different leader who is in charge of a group of five design engineers who are all recent college graduates. A good deal of this leader’s behavior will be focused on task clarification, teaching, and performance-related coaching. In a group like this, these activities would not be considered an annoyance at all; in fact, they would probably be welcomed. To be effective in this situation, a leader would have to be very “hands on” with his or her subordinates. If a leader in this situation spent the bulk of his or her time negotiating for resources within

the organization, or remained very distant from the group members, he or she would probably not be successful.

Most leadership theories developed during the past 30 years are contingency theories. Thus, it is accurate to say that the field of leadership has accepted the general premise behind contingency theories. Less consensus, however, has been given to many of the specifics of the contingency approach. For example, there is not a great deal of consensus regarding the specific aspects of the situation that leaders must “read” in order to adjust their behaviors. For example, several contingency theories propose that “subordinates” are one such factor, but there is not a great deal of agreement on what specific aspects of subordinates are the most important.

Another area of disagreement surrounding contingency theories has to do with the behaviors that leaders must exhibit in order to be successful. As readers will see, contingency theories differ in the level of adaptability they ascribe to the leader. In some theories (e.g., Fiedler, 1967), it is proposed that leaders have a predetermined leadership style that is not subject to a great deal of modification. Other contingency theories (e.g., House, 1971), however, propose that leaders are fully capable of adapting their behaviors to different situations. This really speaks to the more basic issue of the malleability of behavior, which was discussed in the previous chapter (e.g., Hellervik, Hazucha, & Schneider, 1992). Based on that literature, the weight of the evidence suggests that leaders are capable of modifying their behaviors to meet situational demands. What is not nearly as clear is what leaders are specifically supposed to do in response to the situations they face.

MODERN THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

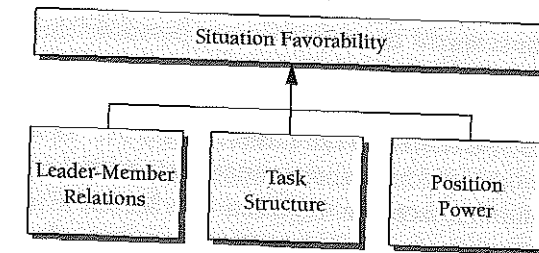
Most leadership theories developed within the past 30 years can be classified as contingency theories. In this section, we examine the contingency leadership theories that have been most influential in the leadership literature. Influence is defined in terms of the research generated by the theories, as well as the impact the theory has had on the practice of leadership within organizations.

Fiedler’s Contingency Theory

The basic premise behind Fiedler’s contingency theory is actually quite simple. Like all contingency theories, it proposes that the success of a leader depends on the interaction between characteristics of the situation and characteristics of the leader. According to Fiedler, *situation favorability* depends on the three factors illustrated in Figure 10.2. The first of these, leader-member relations, reflects the extent to which a leader gets along well with his or her subordinates. Generally speaking, situations are more favorable for leaders when they get along well with subordinates, and, conversely, less favorable if leader-member relations are poor.

The next situational attribute, task structure, reflects whether the subordinates are working on a task that is very straightforward and structured (e.g., produce 50 cars per day), or whether the task is vague and unstructured (e.g., “Develop innovative products”). Although subordinates may find a lack of structure challenging, from a leader’s perspective having a high degree of structure is more favorable than having a low degree. When task structure is high, the leader is required to spend less time clarifying the task

FIGURE 10.2
Determinants of Situation Favorability in Fiedler’s Contingency Theory



for subordinates, and decisions are typically much easier to make.

The third determinant of situation favorability is the position power of the leader—the amount of formal authority that a leader has over his or her subordinates. Some degree of authority is inherent in all leadership positions, but the amount of authority actually varies considerably. Some leaders are granted the authority to assign subordinates to different jobs, to evaluate their work, and to dismiss those who are not performing well. However, leadership positions do not always carry a great deal of authority. A good example is the chairperson of an academic department. A chairperson is technically “in charge” of an academic department, but this person has very little formal authority beyond that of supervisors in many other types of organization.

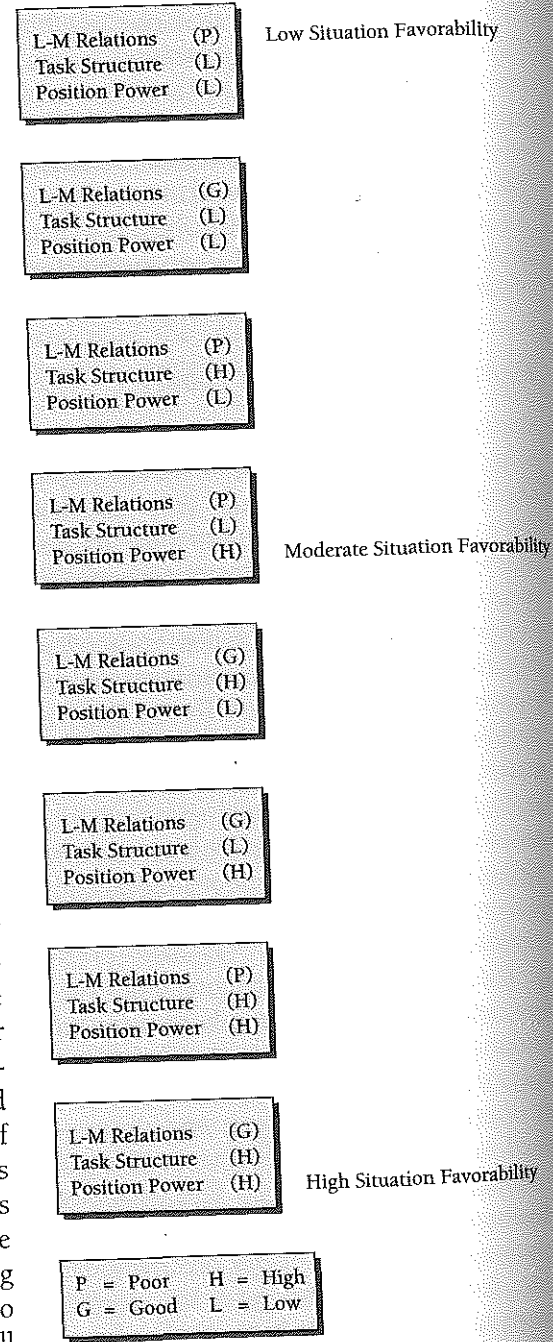
From a leader’s perspective, a high rather than a low position power is desirable. When position power is high, subordinates will typically do what the leader wants, and the leader does not have to exert a great deal of force over employees. When a leader’s position power is low, subordinates may still do what the leader wants, but the leader may have to expend a great deal of effort in order to make that happen. Consider, for example, the chairperson of an academic department

who is trying to persuade a tenured faculty member to teach a class that this individual does not want to teach. The chairperson must spend time and effort to persuade this individual to teach the course, and perhaps may have to offer something in return (a course release in the future).

Given these three situational attributes, and the fact that each has two levels, it is possible to come up with eight unique situations (called *octants*) in terms of favorability. These are illustrated in Figure 10.3. The most favorable situations for leaders are those in which leader-member relations are good, task structure is high, and position power is high. In this type of situation, a leader gets along well with his or her subordinates, is directing a group of employees working on a well-defined task, and has a great deal of formal authority. From a leader's perspective, what could be better? A leader can then spend his or her time on activities such as strategic planning, acquiring resources for the group, and perhaps helping subordinates to develop their skills.

At the other end of the spectrum, the least favorable situations for leaders are those in which leader-member relations are poor, task structure is low, and the leader has very low position power. From a leader's perspective, what could be worse? The fact that the leader does not get along well with his or her subordinates is likely to be unpleasant. However, when combined with a very vague and unstructured task and a very low level of authority, this is even worse. A leader in this situation may have to spend the bulk of his or her time trying to influence or negotiate with subordinates in order to get anything accomplished. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that such influence attempts will be successful. The leader will have considerably less time available for things such as

FIGURE 10.3
Summary of the Eight Octants Which Represent Differing Degrees of Situation Favorability



strategic planning, resource acquisition, or employee development.

In between these extremes are six other situations that Fiedler referred to as having *moderate* favorability for the leader. In the interest of brevity, all of these moderately favorable situations will not be described. However, as an example of a moderately favorable situation, a leader may have good leader-member relations, high task structure, and low position power vis-à-vis his or her subordinates. From the leader's point of view, these situations are inherently more complex than situations of either very high or very low favorability.

The second portion of Fiedler's theory has to do with the characteristics of the leader. According to Fiedler, leaders can be reliably distinguished in terms of whether they are *task-oriented* versus *relationship-oriented*. To measure task versus relationship orientation in leaders, Fiedler and his colleagues developed the *Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale* (Fiedler, 1967). As can be seen in Table 10.1, the LPC Scale consists of 18 pairs of adjectives. Respondents completing this scale are asked to think of a person with whom they currently work or have worked in the past, and with whom they have had the most difficulty in getting work done. A high LPC score indicates that a leader has described his or her least preferred coworker in relatively favorable terms. This indicates that the leader is relationship oriented because he or she is able to rate this coworker favorably, even though the individual is not seen as someone who would facilitate task accomplishment. In contrast, a low LPC score indicates that the least preferred coworker is described in relatively unfavorable terms. This indicates that the leader is task oriented, according to Fiedler, because this coworker's

negative impact on task accomplishment overrides any positive qualities this person may possess.

Fiedler proposed that leaders who are task oriented (herein referred to as Low LPC leaders) are most successful in either highly favorable or highly unfavorable situations. In highly favorable situations, a Low LPC leader will basically leave things alone and not try to introduce major changes. He or she will also not try to "get into people's heads" and become very close to them interpersonally. This type of leader behavior simply is not needed. In contrast, when situations are highly unfavorable, a Low LPC leader is probably the only type that will get anything done. In these situations, a High LPC leader's attempts to develop strong interpersonal ties will likely fall flat and will ultimately reduce the chances of any form of task accomplishment.

When situations are moderately favorable, Fiedler proposed that leaders who are relationship oriented (herein referred to as High LPC leaders) are most effective. The logic here is that moderately favorable situations are not "black and white." Such situations often require some interpersonal finesse, and a High LPC leader has this trait. Let's say, for example, that a leader is in a moderately favorable situation: Leader-member relations are good, but task structure and position power are low. A High LPC leader is needed because the leader may have to rely heavily on his or her relationships with subordinates in order to clarify the task and ultimately get things done. A Low LPC leader would be unsuccessful in this situation, primarily because he or she may not see the complexities in the situation and may simply demand performance. The relationship between LPC and situational favorability is summarized in Figure 10.4.

Considerable research has been done on Fiedler's contingency theory over the years,

TABLE 10.1
Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale (Fiedler, 1967)

Over the course of your life you have probably worked in many groups with other people on your job, in community groups, church groups, athletic teams, etc. Some of your coworkers may have been very easy to work with in attaining the group's goal, while others were less easy to work with.

Think of the person in your life with whom you worked least well. He or she may have been someone you knew in the past or someone you work with now. The person does not have to be the person you like least well, but should be the person with whom you have the most difficulty getting the job done. In this scale you will be describing this person. You do not need to give the person's name.

Following are pairs of words which are opposite in meaning, such as "Very Neat" and "Not Neat." Between each pair of words are eight blanks to form a scale.

EXAMPLE: In describing the person with whom you least like to work, if you ordinarily think of him or her as being "Quite Neat," you would put an "X" in the space marked 7.

If you ordinarily think of this person as being only "Somewhat Neat," you would put your "X" in the space above the 6.

If you think of this person as being "Slightly Untidy," you would mark the space above the 4.

If you would think of this person as being "Very Untidy" (or not neat), you would put your "X" in space 1.

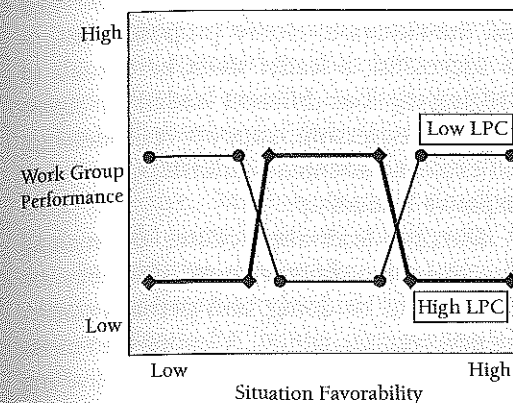
Look at the words at both ends of the line before you mark your "X." Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be your best one (there are no right or wrong answers, though). Please do not omit any items, and mark each item only once.

Now use the scale to describe the person with whom you find it hardest to get the job done.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------|
| Pleasant: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Unpleasant |
| Friendly: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Unfriendly |
| Rejecting: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Accepting |
| Tense: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Relaxed |
| Distant: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Close |
| Cold: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Warm |
| Supportive: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Hostile |
| Boring: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Interesting |
| Quarrelsome: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Harmonious |
| Gloomy: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Cheerful |
| Open: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Guarded |
| Backbiting: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Loyal |
| Untrustworthy: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Trustworthy |
| Considerate: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Inconsiderate |
| Nasty: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Nice |
| Agreeable: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Disagreeable |
| Insincere: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Sincere |
| Kind: | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Unkind |

Note: 1 = least descriptive of the Least Preferred Coworker; 8 = most descriptive of the Least Preferred Coworker.
Source: F. E. Fiedler. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill. Used with permission of the author.
Scores on the LPC Scale can range from 18 to 144. A score of 56 or less indicates that a person is a task-oriented leader; a score of 63 or above indicates that a person is relationship-oriented. Scores between 56 and 63 indicate that a person's leadership style cannot be

FIGURE 10.4
Effectiveness of High versus Low LPC Leaders at Different Levels of Situation Favorability



and the evidence is mixed. For example, it has been found that leader LPC scores predict performance in situations of differing favorability in a way that is consistent with the theory (Chemers, 1983; Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt, & Wysocki, 1985), but other tests have not been supportive (e.g., Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977; Vecchio, 1977). The most comprehensive test of contingency theory to date was a meta-analysis conducted by Schriesheim, Tepper, and Tetrault (1994). This study found that the differences in mean performance levels of High versus Low LPC leaders in different octants generally supported Fiedler's theory. However, in terms of absolute levels of performance, the results were less supportive. For example, in highly favorable situations, it was found, as predicted by Fiedler's theory, that Low LPC leaders out-performed High LPC leaders. However, the performance of High LPC leaders was still above the mean, which is consistent with the idea of "mismatch" proposed by Fiedler. Schriesheim et al. (1994) recommended that "organizations without the ability or interest in situational engineering might consider just trying to make all lead-

ership situations highly favorable (Octant 1)" (p. 571).

Other than the equivocal support, the portion of Fiedler's theory that has been the source of greatest criticism is the LPC Scale. Many researchers have questioned the logic behind the measurement strategy (e.g., McMahon, 1972; Theodory, 1982). In fact, having given the LPC Scale to students for several years, we have noted they are often confused by the instructions. A more serious problem is the lack of support for the construct validity of this scale. Recall from Chapter 2 that construct validity reflects whether a measure is measuring the intended construct or attribute. Strong support for the construct validity of the LPC Scale simply does not exist.

At this point in time, Fiedler's theory no longer represents one of the major theoretical approaches used by leadership researchers. Even so, it is a valuable theory because it has generated a great deal of research on leadership. It has also served as the basis for *Cognitive Resource Theory* (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987), which states that groups draw on the different cognitive resources from the leader, depending on the situation. This is a relatively new approach, and not a great deal of work has been done on it as yet. It does seem to be a promising approach, though, and ultimately may be more useful than Fiedler's original theory.

In addition, Fiedler drew researchers' attention to the importance of considering the role of the situation in understanding the leadership behaviors that are most supportive of effective performance (see Vroom & Jago, 2007). A recent study by Yun, Faraj, and Sims (2005) illustrates the importance of situational factors as determinants of leader effectiveness. These authors examined the effects of leadership in the stressful situation of trauma-resuscitation teams. The authors examined the effects of empowering

(delegating responsibility to team members, encouraging initiative) versus directive (expecting team members to follow detailed instructions and guidelines) leadership under situational conditions of high versus low trauma severity and low versus high team experience.

The authors used a scenario approach in which trauma-resuscitation personnel read scenarios describing realistic events varying along leadership style, trauma severity, and team experience. The authors examined how effective participants thought the team would be in the given scenario and how much of a learning opportunity the event would provide. The authors found that empowering leadership was perceived to be most effective when the severity of trauma was low and when the amount of team experience was high. Directive leadership was perceived to be more effective when trauma severity was high or team experience was low. This study showed that the most effective leadership style depended on realistic features of the situation, which is the primary tenet of the contingency approach to leadership.

Path-Goal Theory

Path-Goal Theory represents a very ambitious attempt to blend leadership and employee motivation into one theory (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974). The basic idea behind Path-Goal Theory is that the role of a leader is really to help his or her subordinates become successful. House actually stated this in Expectancy Theory terms (Vroom, 1964); specifically, if a leader is successful, subordinates' level of expectancy (the perception that effort will lead to performance) is raised. Stated differently, the function of leaders is to show subordinates the "path to the goal."

Path-Goal Theory states that a leader must be able to adapt his or her leadership style to the subordinates being supervised and the situation. House proposed that, to be successful, a leader must be capable of utilizing the four different leadership styles: directive leadership, supportive leadership, achievement-oriented leadership, and participative leadership.

Directive leadership focuses on making sure that subordinates know what they are supposed to be doing, and perhaps clarifying task responsibilities. A leader who meets with subordinates once a week to give out work assignments is exhibiting directive leadership. *Supportive leadership* represents behaviors that are aimed at showing concern and caring for subordinates. A leader who makes it a point to ask about a subordinate's sick child is exhibiting supportive leadership.

Achievement-oriented leadership represents behaviors that are aimed at helping employees to improve their performance and ultimately perform better. A leader may exhibit this leadership style in a number of ways, such as providing on-the-job coaching, setting challenging goals, making sure training and development opportunities are available, and seeing to it that subordinates have the resources they need in order to be successful. Finally, *participative leadership* represents behaviors that are aimed at getting the input of subordinates on work-related matters. A leader who regularly seeks the input of subordinates before making important decisions is exhibiting this form of leadership.

Having described the four leadership styles, the next issue is to determine when each of these leadership styles should be used. Path-Goal Theory proposes that leaders should consider two situational factors when they are deciding on the appropriate leadership style (1) characteristics of one's subordinates and (2) characteristics of the

work environment. With respect to subordinates, the two key factors that a leader must consider are perceived ability and personality. In considering perceived ability, what would be the most appropriate leadership style for subordinates who perceive themselves as having limited job-related abilities? For these subordinates, a leader would probably need to be quite directive, because these individuals likely would want to know exactly what to do. Participative leadership may not be emphasized because individuals who perceive their abilities to be limited may not have a great deal to contribute. Achievement-oriented and supportive leadership would probably be used to varying degrees, depending on other characteristics of the subordinates.

When subordinates perceive themselves as having a great deal of task-related ability, a leader would probably need to put relatively little emphasis on directing. Instead, the leader may need to strongly emphasize achievement-oriented and participative leadership. Those who perceive their abilities to be high may have a strong desire to further develop those abilities; thus, achievement-oriented behaviors would be called for. These subordinates may also have a great deal to contribute, so it would be in the leader's best interests to solicit input and ideas from these individuals. Supportive leadership would likely be used in varying degrees, depending on other characteristics of subordinates.

The second subordinate characteristic that leaders need to consider when deciding on a leadership style is personality. This is obviously a broad category, but one personality trait that Path-Goal Theory deems important is subordinates' *locus of control*. According to Rotter (1966), locus of control reflects relatively stable individual differences in beliefs regarding control of external

reinforcements. A person with an internal locus of control believes that he or she has a great deal of control over reinforcements. Such a person, for example, would believe that working hard would be a good thing to do because it would lead to positive outcomes. Persons with an external locus of control believe that reinforcements in their lives are due to external forces such as luck, fate, or, perhaps, powerful people.

As a leader, managing an individual with an internal locus of control would probably require an emphasis on achievement-oriented and participative leadership, and comparatively less on directive and supportive leadership. An employee with an internal locus of control believes that he or she has control over reinforcements, and hence is also likely to believe that if performance is increased, then positive rewards will result. Facilitating this process requires the use of achievement-oriented leadership. Also, because those with an internal locus of control (*internals*) may also perform well (Spector, 1982), it is often in the best interest of the leader to seek input from such individuals through participative leadership.

Those with an external locus of control will likely need greater direction from the leader; thus, directive leadership behaviors will be needed. Also, it is very likely that those with an external locus of control (*externals*) will need more support from the leader, compared to internals. Having an external locus of control has been shown to be associated with negative mental health outcomes (e.g., Spector, 1982; Storms & Spector, 1987); thus, externals may often be more anxious, frustrated, and dissatisfied than internals.

In addition to the characteristics of subordinates, Path-Goal Theory proposes that leaders must focus on characteristics of the work environment when they are determining the most appropriate leadership style.

One aspect of the situation that is important is the prevailing norms regarding authority and leadership within an organization. This is really an aspect of an organization's culture and reflects, for example, prevailing views on issues such as employee involvement and participation, the extent to which employees should take the initiative to solve work-related problems, and whether managers should get involved in subordinates' personal lives. In an organization that strongly values employee involvement and participation, a participative leadership style would fit much better than in a very autocratic organization. Similarly, in an organization that places a great deal of emphasis on employee self-reliance, a very directive style of leadership would probably not fit very well. On the other hand, achievement oriented and participative styles would be very compatible.

Task structure is a second characteristic of the work environment that is important in determining the most appropriate leadership style. If a leader is directing a group that is working on a highly structured task (e.g., producing a very simple product), there would probably be little need for the leader to adopt a directive or a participative leadership style because members of the group know exactly what they're supposed to do. In contrast, when a task is highly unstructured (e.g., developing a new product), a leader may at times have to be directive, but may also need to be participative in order to help the group figure out how best to approach the task.

The final environmental characteristic proposed by Path-Goal Theory is the nature of the work group one is leading. For example, in some groups, the task of providing direction is done by experienced members of the group rather than the leader. If this is the case, the leader does not need to be directive but could emphasize

other leadership styles. Essentially, this means that the leader's behavior needs to "add value" to the behaviors being performed by members of the group.

House reformulated his theory in 1996 to provide a comprehensive theory that describes 10 different categories of leadership behaviors and identifies which behaviors are appropriate in specific circumstances (House, 1996). The 10 categories cover a large range of behaviors including behaviors designed to clarify the work roles of subordinates to behaviors designed to help subordinates achieve excellence in performance. House derives 22 propositions from his theory that provide guidelines for when a specific type of leader behavior is likely to have positive, negative, or no consequences. The essence of House's theory remains the same: Leaders need to possess a broad repertoire of behaviors that they can strategically call on depending on key aspects of the situation and characteristics of subordinates.

Given the nature of Path-Goal Theory, it is difficult to test in its entirety. However, tests of various parts of the theory have been relatively successful (e.g., Wofford & Liska, 1993). Britt, Davison, Bliese, and Castro (2004) also reviewed a number of studies relevant to the effects of military leadership that supported aspects of House's overall theory. The practical implications of Path-Goal Theory come primarily in the area of management training and development. Specifically, managers need to be trained to recognize meaningful differences among their subordinates, as well as important aspects of the work environment, and they have to learn to use the different leadership styles proposed by Path-Goal Theory. The theory may have implications for selection and placement. For example, if a leader is very good at developing subordinates (i.e., providing achievement-oriented leadership),

an organization may wish to place this person in charge of a group consisting of a number of young, high-potential employees. Conversely, if a leader is very adept at participative leadership, an organization may want to place this person in charge of a group that must make many consensus decisions.

Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model (Vroom & Jago, 1988, 2007; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) is a contingency theory of leadership that focuses on one aspect of leadership: decision making. This model is also more prescriptive than the other theories discussed; that is, this theory is focused on providing leaders with a set of guidelines for which decision-making style to adopt. According to this model, leaders will be more effective to the extent that their decision-making style is compatible with the situations they face.

The first component of the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model to consider is the various styles that a leader could use in making a decision. As can be seen in Table 10.2, in the first decision-making style (AI), the leader makes a decision alone after considering relevant information. The next decision-making style (AII) also involves the leader

making the decision alone, but, in this case, information is obtained from subordinates before making the decision. Decision-making style CI involves sharing the problem with each subordinate individually, and then making the decision alone. Decision-making style CII involves sharing the problem with subordinates as a group and then making the decision alone. The final decision-making style (GII) involves making the decision by group consensus.

According to the model, in order to determine which decision-making style is most appropriate leaders must analyze a situation for the presence or absence of the following attributes: (1) the need for a quality decision; (2) whether the leader has sufficient information to make the decision alone; (3) the degree to which the problem is structured; (4) whether subordinates' acceptance is needed for implementation; (5) whether subordinates will accept the leader's decision; (6) the degree to which subordinates share the organization's goals; (7) whether there will likely be conflict among subordinates as to the most preferred decision; and (8) whether subordinates have enough relevant information to make a decision on their own.

According to the model, these eight situational attributes will determine a "feasibility set" of decision-making strategies. The feasibility set simply represents those decision-making strategies that may be appropriate for a given situation. Figure 10.5 shows how this process works. Notice that these situational questions are asked in a sequential fashion that resembles a flow-chart. Specifically, the leader's response to each question narrows the feasibility set until eventually one decision-making style is recommended. For a leader to use this theory, he or she would simply answer each of the questions about the decision to be made,

TABLE 10.2

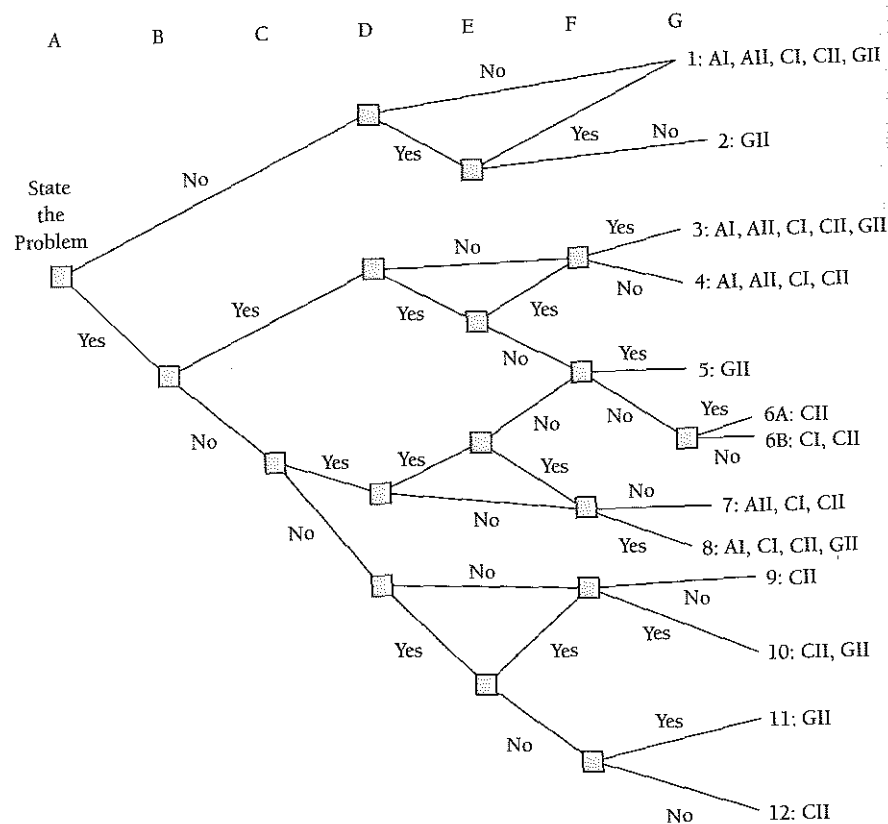
Decision-Making Styles Proposed by the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model of Leadership

- AI—Leader makes the decision alone after considering the relevant information.
- AII—Leader makes the decision alone after obtaining relevant information directly from subordinates.
- CI—Leader shares the problem with each subordinate individually and then makes the decision alone.
- CII—Leader shares the problem with subordinates as a group and then makes the decision alone.
- GII—The decision is made by group consensus.

FIGURE 10.5

The Recommended Decision-Making Sequence Proposed by the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model

- Does the problem possess a quality requirement?
- Do you have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?
- Is the problem structured?
- Is acceptance of decision by subordinates important for effective implementation?
- If you were to make the decision by yourself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by your subordinates?
- Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?
- Is conflict among subordinates over preferred solutions likely?



are competent, when they and the leader perceive some degree of mutual similarity, and when subordinates and leaders like each other.

What are the consequences of the exchange relationship that develops between a subordinate and a leader? Gerstner and Day (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of 79 studies that examined correlates of Leader-Member Exchange. They found that LMX was positively related to job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and negatively related to outcomes such as turnover and role stressors. One of the most perplexing findings in their meta-analysis was the relatively small correlation between leaders' and subordinates' reports on the quality of the exchange relationship (corrected $r = .37$). Thus, although leaders and subordinates tend to agree on the quality of the relationship that exists between them, this level of agreement is not great. At present, it is unclear why agreement on the quality of the exchange relationship is not higher, what factors influence agreement, or the impact of disagreements over the quality of the exchange relationship.

LMX Theory is useful for both theoretical and practical reasons. In terms of theory, it presents leadership in a more realistic light, compared to many previous theories. Subordinates are not simply passive recipients of leaders' influence. In terms of practical implications, LMX Theory suggests that it is desirable for leaders to develop positive exchange relationships with their subordinates. This may not be possible 100% of the time, but organizations may be able to facilitate the development of high-quality exchange relationships by training managers in such skills as communicating with subordinates, providing feedback, and engaging in coaching activities.

LMX Theory faces a number of challenges. One of the most important of these is continued refinement of what actually constitutes the *exchange relationship* itself. To measure the exchange relationship, Liden and Maslyn (1998) developed a scale that consisted of four distinct dimensions: (1) affect, which represents the levels of mutual interpersonal attraction between a leader and subordinate; (2) loyalty, which represents the amount of public support provided by each member of the leader-subordinate dyad; (3) contribution, which represents what each member of the leader-subordinate dyad contributes positively to the goals of the organization; and (4) professional respect, which represents the degree to which each member of the leader-subordinate dyad has built a reputation, within and/or outside of work, because he or she excels in his or her line of work. Previous LMX scales have treated it as a one-dimensional construct.

Another challenge for LMX Theory is expansion of its scope. For most people, the unique relationship they develop with their immediate supervisor is one of the most important dimensions of their work experience. As such, it may influence many work outcomes. For example, Kokotovich, Jex, and Adams (2000) found that a high-quality LMX moderated the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Employees reporting a high-quality LMX actually reacted positively to role ambiguity. One study also found that LMX was related to the organizational citizenship behavior of altruism (Wayne and Green Hown, 1993). Researchers should further investigate these types of relationships. Recent studies have also suggested that LMX may interact with the cognitive ability of employees to also predict creativity (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999). More recent studies have also argued that other forms of leadership

(e.g., transactional, transformational) influence employee performance through LMX. We now turn to a discussion of these areas of leadership.

Charismatic, Transformational, and Transactional Leadership

These last three leadership theories are the newest to be developed. Although less research has been conducted on these approaches overall, the theories represent where the field of leadership is heading and have become quite influential. Because these approaches to leadership are highly related, they will be discussed together.

The idea of *Charismatic* and *Transformational leadership* is that there are certain leader behaviors and traits that not only influence subordinates but may also inspire them to perform well beyond their capabilities. Another defining characteristic of Charismatic and Transformational leadership is that both have the potential to induce meaningful change in organizations. The terms charismatic and transformational leadership are often used interchangeably, and when a distinction is made between the two forms of leadership, it is noted that charismatic leadership is but one component of transformational leadership.

The term that is sometimes used to describe the opposite of Charismatic and Transformational leadership is *Transactional leadership*. A transactional leader is one who makes sure that subordinates get the job done and follow the rules of the organization. Transactional leaders typically use behavioral principles of reward and punishment to make clear the behaviors that are expected of the employee (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Transactional leaders, however, do not inspire subordinates or facilitate meaningful change in organizations.

It is important to note, however, that leaders can be capable of engaging in both transactional and transformational leadership depending on the situation. In fact, Bass (1998) has argued forcefully that transactional leadership often forms the base for transformational leadership. The logic here is that a leader must be able to clearly apply rules and contingencies for employees to follow before embarking on the more motivating behaviors involved in transformational leadership.

Judge and Piccolo (2004) have argued that transformational leadership is composed of four primary dimensions. The first dimension is *idealized influence (charisma)*. This component refers to leaders setting the example of exemplary performance and dedication to the organization through conviction and emotional investment. Those who are charismatic tend to have a number of common traits: a captivating tone of voice, direct eye contact with the listener, animated facial expressions, and a powerful, confident, and dynamic communication style. This type of communication style obviously helps a leader to communicate his or her vision and to generate enthusiasm for it. It also helps more generally by increasing the leader's appeal to his or her followers. Charismatic leaders have great "presence" and make a tremendous impression on those around them.

The second dimension is *inspirational motivation*. One task that is often cited in this regard is providing a vision. According to House (1977), a vision is a very generalized ideal state that typically represents shared values and often has moral overtones. An example of a vision for a university might be to enlighten the students; a vision for a military organization might be to uphold freedom around the world; a vision for an auto manufacturer might be to enhance the mobility of society. A vision

COMMENT 10.2

THE VISION THING

ONE OF THE key components of Charismatic and Transformational leadership is vision. A vision is essentially an ideal or desirable end state that often has moral overtones. A leader with vision "stands for something" and has a sense of purpose that is communicated to his or her followers.

Vision has become particularly important in the political arena. When candidates run for national office, the vision that they are able to communicate to voters can literally make or break their chances of being elected. In 1980, Ronald Reagan defeated Jimmy Carter for the U.S. Presidency largely based on the vision that he communicated to the American public. Reagan's vision, based heavily on conservative principles, struck a chord with voters who wanted lower taxes and a stronger national defense. Whether or not one agreed with Rea-

gan's "vision," there is no denying that he communicated it well and was quite successful at convincing the public to embrace it.

Just as having a vision propelled Ronald Reagan to victory, a lack of vision may have been one of the major reasons George H. Bush lost the presidency to Bill Clinton in 1992. Although Bush showed excellent crisis-management skills during the Gulf War, he was unable to articulate a coherent vision in the way Reagan did many years earlier. For many voters, it was difficult to tell exactly what Bush stood for. Clinton, in contrast, was very successful at communicating a vision based on economic opportunity, and in many instances seemed to connect with voters much better on a personal level. The end result was that Clinton won a convincing victory over Bush and third-party candidate Ross Perot.

applies to all members of the organization and can thus serve as a general "rallying point" for everyone. Many examples of leaders, particularly in the political arena, can be distinguished on the presence or absence of vision (see Comment 10.2).

The third dimension is *intellectual stimulation*. This dimension refers to the transformational leader's ability to challenge subordinates and encourage them to be creative and take appropriate risks. Leaders may encourage subordinates to think outside the box in order to come up with innovative solutions that will instill a competitive advantage to the organization.

The final dimension is *individualized consideration*. This dimension refers to the leader's ability to attend to the needs of employees and make the employees feel understood and appreciated. In many ways

this dimension incorporates aspects of LMX theory into what it means to be a transformational leader. Transformational leaders tend to have a charismatic communication style.

Research over the years has shown that transformational leadership is related to positive outcomes such as employees' performance, satisfaction, and positive perceptions of leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Judge and Piccolo (2004) recently conducted a meta-analysis of over 87 studies examining the correlations between transformational and transactional leadership and various performance outcomes (e.g., follower job satisfaction, follower satisfaction with the leader, leader job performance). The authors found an overall validity coefficient of .44 for transformational leadership and .39 for transactional (contingent reward)

leadership. One interesting finding was the rather strong positive correlation (.80) between transformational and transactional leadership in the meta-analysis. This finding strongly suggests that transformational and transactional leadership are not opposing ends of a single dimension of leadership. Bass and his colleagues have also found that both transformational and transactional leadership predict the performance of light infantry platoons in combat-simulation exercises (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003).

One emerging trend in research on transformational leadership is examining *how* such leadership predicts performance outcomes. Two studies investigating similar determinants were recently conducted by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Purvanova, Bono, and Dzieweczynski (2006). Both papers addressed the idea that transformational leaders cause their employees to be engaged in more meaningful work (e.g., report higher job characteristics such as variety, significance, and autonomy), which then leads their employees to perform better. In support of this hypothesis, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) found that such job characteristics mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and both task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Purvanova et al. (2006) also found that perceived job characteristics mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and a different measure of citizenship performance, even when controlling for objective job characteristics. Taken together, the results indicate that transformational leaders produce employees who perform better because the employees take greater ownership of their work and feel their work is more significant.

Other researchers have argued that transformational leadership is related to follower performance through leader-member ex-

change (LMX; Wang et al., 2005). The logic here is that transformational leaders end up forming a stronger interpersonal bond with their followers, which leads their followers to perform better. Wang et al. examined leader-follower dyads in organizations across the People's Republic of China. They found that the relationship between transformational leadership and the employee's task performance was completely mediated by a measure of LMX focusing on the quality of the relationship between the employee and supervisor.

Authentic Leadership

One of the most recent approaches to leadership coming from the field of organizational psychology is authentic leadership. Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May (2004) define *authentic leaders* as "those individuals who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspective, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and high on moral character" (pp. 802–804). A key aspect of authentic leadership is leaders being "who they are" and harnessing the energy of followers by causing them to connect with the goals of the leader and group.

Avolio et al. (2004) developed a model of authentic leadership illustrating how authentic behavior on the part of the leader results in followers being more likely to personally identify with the leader and collective (i.e., organization), which then leads the followers to experience hope, trust, and positive emotions. These positive emotional states then create the favorable work attitudes of commitment, job satisfaction, meaningfulness, and engagement, which result in the positive

COMMENT 10.3

LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES in leadership have not been heavily researched by organizational psychologists. One of the few extensive treatises of cultures and leadership was recently completed by House and his colleagues (2003), who examined 17,000 leaders from 951 organizations in 62 societies across the globe. The authors were interested in exploring differences between cultures in how they viewed leadership and the practices that leaders used in the different cultures. The authors also explored value differences across the 62 societies. Six global leader behaviors were identified: charismatic/value-based leadership (leader ability to inspire and motivate others), team-oriented leadership (emphasis on team-building and being diplomatic), participative leadership (involving others in leadership decisions), human-oriented leadership (compassion and consideration toward subordinates), autonomous leadership (individualistic decision making and independence/separation from subordinates), and self-protective leadership (focus behaviors on protecting the individual leader and group through behaviors designed to enhance status and save face).

House and his colleagues found that all cultures believed in the importance of leaders

possessing a team orientation and effectively communicating a vision to subordinates. The authors found the most variation in the global leader behaviors of autonomous leadership and self-protective leadership. Autonomous leadership was seen as slightly effective in countries of Eastern Europe (with the exception of Hungary) but was seen as ineffective in most countries of Latin America, the Middle East, and Anglo countries. Self-protective leadership was seen as being slightly effective for the following countries: Albania, Taiwan, Egypt, Iran, and Kuwait. However, this type of leadership was seen as ineffective in other countries, especially in Northern European countries such as France. The book describes the similarities and differences across cultures in perceptions of effective and ineffective leader behaviors, and attempts to link these perceptions to differences in the values of the cultures involved. The research discussed in this book will likely influence future investigations of how leadership differs across cultures.

Source: House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.) (2003). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

outcomes of performance, extra effort, and less withdrawal. The theory of authentic leadership is in its early stages of development, but will likely get much more attention given recent highly publicized incidences of leader corruption and lack of character.

Before ending our discussion of leadership, it is worth noting that, until recently, cross-cultural research on leadership was lacking. However, Comment 10.3 discusses an ambitious project examining conceptions

of leadership across 62 different countries. Future research will be addressing the implications of this project for multiple conceptualizations of leadership.

POWER AND INFLUENCE IN ORGANIZATIONS

Regardless of whether one is a chief executive officer of a Fortune 500 company or the supervisor of a janitorial crew, a big part of

one's job is influencing others to behave in ways that are consistent with the goals of the organization. Furthermore, the extent to which a leader can influence others depends, to a large extent, on his or her social power over others. In addition, employees other than leaders can use power and influence in either adaptive or dysfunctional ways within organizations. In this section, power will be discussed first, followed by influence tactics.

Defining Power

The term *power* is often used in a negative fashion, even though it is not inherently bad or evil. Power simply represents a person's potential or capacity to influence others (French & Raven, 1959). When one attempts to influence another person's behavior, the outcome of that influence attempt generally takes one of three forms (Kelman, 1958): compliance, identification, or private acceptance. *Compliance* refers to an influence attempt where the target of influence does what is requested, but does not necessarily do it willingly. When a child is told by a parent that he or she cannot have a cookie, the child typically complies with this directive but, if given the choice, would certainly eat the cookie (at least that's the way it works in our houses!). An example of compliance in the workplace might be an employee wearing a piece of safety equipment, even though he or she doesn't want to and does not believe it will necessarily be effective.

The second potential outcome of influence is referred to as *identification*. In this case, the employee does what the leader wants, primarily because he or she likes the leader. As with compliance, when behavior is changed on the basis of identification, there is a change in behavior but not in attitudes; that is, the employee still does not really want to do what the leader wants

done. A work-related example of identification would be employees staying late to help their well-liked leader meet an impending deadline, even though they do not inherently believe in the value of the project.

The third result of influence is referred to as *private acceptance* or *internalization*. In this case, the employee does what the leader wants because he or she believes that it is the right thing to do. Compared to compliance and identification, private acceptance is, in the long run, much more efficient for leaders. Therefore, if subordinates believe that what the leader wants them to do is correct, the leader will need to spend much less time either monitoring to ensure compliance, or making sure that subordinates still like him or her. Keep in mind, however, that it is not always necessary for a leader to obtain private acceptance from subordinates. For example, employees often must comply with safety guidelines, even if they don't agree with them.

The fourth and final outcome of influence that might occur is *resistance*. In this case, the employee simply does not do what the leader asks. Resistance may take the form of an overt refusal, but, more typically, an employee will simply be evasive when the leader inquires about whether the subordinate has carried out the request. This can be a very frustrating situation for a leader, and it is obviously the least desirable outcome from a leader's perspective.

Bases of Power

Leaders are not automatically endowed with an unlimited amount of power over subordinates. Leaders also differ in terms of the sources or bases upon which power over subordinates can be exerted. The most widely cited model of power was proposed by French and Raven (1959) over 40 years

ago. According to this model, power rests upon six bases. Some readers may recognize the fact that most treatments of French and Raven's model describe only the first five bases, but the original model did contain six. The first base of power is labeled *coercive power*. The basis of this influence tactic is that one person can punish another. Thus, a subordinate may do what a leader requests because the leader has the power to fire the subordinate. Although the threat of punishment may give a leader considerable power over subordinates, coercive power generally is not a very efficient base of power. If subordinates do what the leader wants only because they are threatened with punishment, the leader's power is diminished considerably if he or she is not around to monitor the ongoing behavior and administer punishment if necessary.

The second power base described by French and Raven is labeled *reward power*. This is essentially the opposite of coercive power. That is, subordinates do what the leader wants because the leader has the ability to reward them in some way. For example, a subordinate may comply with a leader's request that he or she work overtime because the leader has the power to grant this employee a larger pay increase when raises are given out. Unfortunately, as with coercive power, reward power is not a highly efficient power base. It requires the leader to monitor subordinates' behaviors and reward them at the appropriate time. An individual who possesses either coercive or reward power is likely to also possess the corresponding type of power. Leaders differ, however, in the extent to which they ultimately choose to use reward versus coercive power (see Chapter 9).

The third power base is labeled *legitimate power*. This power emanates from the position that one holds in an organization.

In most organizational settings, the fact that one employee is another employee's supervisor means that the supervisor has a legitimate right to make requests of the other person. Note that this legitimate right is independent of the person holding the position. Compared to coercive and reward power, legitimate power is more efficient. It does not require surveillance on the leader's part because, in most organizations, the level of legitimate authority that goes with any given position is typically known. In fact, in many cases, it is even documented in job descriptions and other formal documents. A limitation of legitimate power, however, is that if it is used exclusively, it may elicit only compliance from subordinates and, in the long run, may engender a great deal of resentment among them. People generally do not like to be told to do something simply because "I'm your supervisor."

The fourth power base is *expert power*. This is power based on the fact that an individual is perceived as an expert on something that is important to the target of influence. If the leader of a group of design engineers is also an expert design engineer, this will make subordinates more likely to do what he or she says. One thing that is important to note about expert power is that it is the perception that is important. For this to be a viable power base, subordinates must perceive that the leader is an expert. Regardless of the level of one's true expertise, if this is not perceived, then no expert power exists. It is also possible for nonleaders within a given workgroup or organization to possess expert power. For example, if a certain employee is known as the individual possessing a large amount of knowledge regarding a particular topic or procedure, that employee will have expert power even if he or she is not technically a leader.

The fifth base of power in French and Raven's model is *referent power*. This is power based on subordinates' liking of a leader. Here, as in the identification mode of influence described earlier, subordinates do what the leader wants because they like him or her. Although this form of power does not require surveillance, it is also somewhat more tenuous than expert power because interpersonal attraction is considerably more volatile than expertise. If subordinates no longer have positive feelings toward the leader, then a great deal of his or her power over subordinates is lost.

The sixth and final base of power is referred to as *informational power*. As stated earlier, this is typically not presented as one of the bases of power in the French and Raven model, but it was included in the initial model (Raven, 1993). A leader has informational power to the extent that he or she has high-quality information that will be convincing to subordinates. For example, a person trying to convince someone else to wear a seatbelt would have a great deal of informational power if valid data could be cited showing that the odds of being fatally injured are much lower if a seatbelt is being worn.

After the development of the initial model of power bases, French and Raven made a number of further refinements to the model (Raven, 1993). For example, they differentiated between personal and impersonal forms of reward and coercive power. Rewards and punishments can come in the form of personal approval or disapproval. Conversely, they can also come in more impersonal forms such as a raise or a formal reprimand. French and Raven also refined the concept of legitimate power considerably. They proposed, for example, that legitimate power was based not just on one's formal organizational position, but also on the principle of reciprocity ("I did this for

you, so you should feel obligated to do this for me"), equity ("I have worked hard and suffered, so I have the right to ask you to do something to make up for it"), and responsibility or dependence ("I cannot help myself, so you are responsible for helping me").

Expert and referent power were further distinguished in terms of being positive and negative. As originally conceived, both expert and referent power were positive. French and Raven, however, later pointed out that both could be negative as well. Negative expert power represents situations in which a person is seen as having superior knowledge but, at the same time, is seen as using the superior knowledge only in order to further his or her own interests. Negative referent power occurs when a person is seen as someone who is disliked rather than liked. If this person were a leader, subordinates may be inclined to do the opposite of what this individual wants them to do.

Informational power was distinguished in terms of being direct or indirect. When informational power is direct, this means that the leader presents logical arguments to subordinates directly. When it is indirect, the information does not come from the leader directly, but may instead come from another subordinate or another leader. This distinction is important because social psychological research on influence (e.g., Petty & Cacioppo, 1981) has shown that, in some circumstances, information that is conveyed indirectly is given greater weight by the target of influence than information communicated directly.

No competing models of power bases have been proposed, but there has been at least one effort to add to the power bases originally proposed by French and Raven. Finkelstein (1992) examined bases of power within top management teams and, although some of the power bases he proposed

corresponded to those in French and Raven's model, there were two that were unique. *Ownership power* represents the extent to which the member of a top management team has an ownership stake in the organization, through either stock ownership or family relations. Within a top management team, an executive who is a significant shareholder or is related to the organizational founder often wields tremendous power.

The other unique power base proposed by Finkelstein (1992) was *prestige power*. This represents the extent to which the member of a top management group has acquired prestige and status outside of the organization. Finkelstein measured this by the number of corporate boards a manager serves on, the level of prestige of those organizations, the number of nonprofit boards one serves on, and, finally, the prestige of the university where the executive received his or her education. Generally speaking, an executive has greater prestige power if he or she serves on the corporate boards of a number of successful organizations, also serves on the boards of nonprofit organizations, and graduated from a prestigious university (e.g., Ivy League).

Influence Tactics

To this point, we have discussed the potential of leaders to influence their subordinates. However, to truly understand the dynamics of power and influence, we must go beyond the potential to influence and examine the specific tactics that leaders use to influence subordinates. According to Yukl and Tracey (1992), nine distinct tactics can be used to influence. These are presented in Table 10.3. As can be seen *rational persuasion* simply involves providing employees a logical explanation of why a given request is

being made. For example, a foreman in a factory may advise a subordinate to wear protective earphones because chronic exposure to loud noises can lead to gradual hearing loss.

When *inspirational appeals* are used, the leader or person doing the influencing attempts to appeal to the target's values or ideals, and to persuade that person that he or she will be able to get something done. As an example of inspirational appeals, a military commander might attempt to encourage his or her troops to continue fighting after they are fatigued. The commander could explain the strategic need to carry on, or could appeal to the troops' sense of patriotism or military duty. As indicated earlier in the chapter, this type of appeal is used frequently by transformational leaders.

In using *consultation*, the leader influences subordinates by seeking their assistance on an activity for which their participation is crucial. This tactic is often used when changes are introduced in organizations. For example, if an organization wants to redesign jobs and must persuade employees to accept these changes, a good way to start is to seek the employees' assistance in the job redesign effort.

By using *ingratiation*, a leader attempts to influence subordinates by putting them in a good mood before making a request. This can be done in a variety of ways such as complimenting the subordinate, agreeing with his or her views or opinions, or doing favors for this person. A supervisor who is getting ready to ask a group of subordinates to work on a weekend may bring the group doughnuts before making the request. Ingratiation must be used carefully, however; it may make people less likely to comply with a request if it is seen as insincere. Some readers may be familiar with the situation comedy "The Office," where the leader often engages

TABLE 10.3
A Summary of Nine Common Influence Tactics Used by Leaders

| Tactic | Definition |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1. Rational persuasion | The person uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade you that a proposal or request is viable and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives. |
| 2. Inspirational appeal | The person makes a request or proposal that arouses your enthusiasm by appealing to your values, ideals, or aspirations or by increasing your confidence that you can do it. |
| 3. Consultation | The person seeks your participation in planning a strategy, activity, or change for which your support and assistance are desired, or the person is willing to modify the proposal to deal with your concerns and suggestions. |
| 4. Ingratiation | The person seeks to get you in a good mood or to think favorably of him or her before asking you to do something. |
| 5. Exchange | The person offers you an exchange of favors, indicates a willingness to reciprocate at a later time, or promises you a share of the benefits if you help to accomplish a task. |
| 6. Personal appeal | The person appeals to your feelings of loyalty and friendship toward him or her before asking you to do something. |
| 7. Coalition | The person seeks the aid of others to persuade you to do something or uses the support of others as a reason for you to agree also. |
| 8. Legitimizing | The person seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request by claiming the authority or right to make it or by verifying that it is consistent with organizational policies, rules, practices, or traditions. |
| 9. Pressure | The person uses demands, threats, or persistent reminders to influence you to do what he or she wants. |

Source: G. Yukl and J. B. Tracey. (1992). Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 525-535. Copyright © 1992 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

in blatantly obvious forms of ingratiation that have little effect on employee behavior.

When *exchange* is used as an influence tactic, the leader offers subordinates something in return for complying with a request, or perhaps offers them a share of the benefits that will accrue when a task is accomplished (see Cialdini, 2001). In some companies, forms of exchange are actually mandated by organizational policies. For example, when hourly employees work more than 40 hours per week, they receive overtime pay for doing so. However, this exchange may be strictly between the leader and his or her subordinates. For example, if the manager of a fast-

food restaurant wants employees to come for an early morning crew meeting, one way of getting employees to be there is to provide another incentive, such as an extra 30-minute break.

When a *personal appeal* is used as an influence attempt, the leader appeals to a subordinate's sense of personal loyalty and friendship before making a request. This influence tactic can only be used if two people do in fact share some degree of loyalty and friendship. Prior to making a request of a subordinate, the leader may first state: "We've been friends for a long time, and have been through some tough times together, so I

know you're someone I can really count on." After hearing that, most people would find it difficult to turn down the subsequent request.

Forming a *coalition* to influence involves seeking the aid of others to directly persuade a subordinate to comply with a request, or using others as examples of why a request should be honored. A good example: Get a subordinate to comply with a requirement to wear safety equipment by having other subordinates, who are wearing the equipment, persuade this individual that safety equipment is needed. This principle of influence is called *social proof* by Cialdini (2001), and capitalizes on the idea that individuals often determine what is correct or right by noting what other people are doing.

When *legitimizing* is used, the leader seeks to establish the legitimacy of his or her request by falling back on his or her authority to make the request or, in some cases, citing organizational policies or rules. In the military, the leader frequently points out that he or she outranks the subordinate; in military organizations, this form of influence tends to work very well because of the emphasis on rank. In other types of organizations, use of legitimating may be less successful and, if used frequently, may ultimately engender animosity among one's subordinates.

The final influence tactic listed in Table 10.3 is *pressure*. This involves the use of demands, threats, or persistent monitoring to make subordinates comply with a request. Suppose a supervisor wants to make sure a subordinate is on time every morning. One way to do this would be to check the person's desk to see if he or she is present by the required time. Although pressure may, at times, get leaders the behavior they desire, this almost always comes in the form of compliance on the part of the employee.

Thus, using pressure typically requires a good deal of energy on the part of the leader because subordinates' behaviors must be frequently monitored.

Although research on influence tactics is still relatively new, there are some reasonably consistent research findings. If a leader wishes to obtain behavior change in the form of *private acceptance*, the most effective way to do so is through inspirational appeals and consultation (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Tactics such as coalition formation, legitimating, and pressure are unlikely to lead to private acceptance, and, in fact, may even lead to resistance. The reason simply may be that people are generally more enthusiastic about doing things when they feel that they have some freedom of choice in the matter. Brehm (1966) has noted how individuals experience resistance when they experience a threat to their personal freedom, which may lead them to do the opposite of what is requested.

Another consistent finding from this literature is that influence tactics may influence others' behaviors in an additive fashion. For example, Falbe and Yukl (1992) found that the use of combinations of some tactics was more effective at facilitating behavior change than using the tactics alone. For example, an inspirational appeal combined with consultation was more effective than using either of these tactics alone or using single "hard" tactics such as pressure or legitimating. This suggests that, in some cases, the influence process takes time, and the leader must be prepared to use multiple tactics to influence subordinates' behaviors.

The research on influence tactics is still relatively new, but it has produced some very important practical insights for leaders. Perhaps the most important of these is that if leaders want their subordinates to do things willingly, in the long run they are much

better off asking them to do it rather than simply relying on their position or using more coercive techniques. Although asking may take longer, it will produce more long-lasting behavioral change than will the use of more coercive tactics.

Politics in Organizations

The term *organizational politics* often conjures up images of very negative forms of behavior; therefore, most people want to avoid the politics of an organization. Nevertheless, political behavior is a fact of life and, in many cases, represents an important form of influence within organizations. Organizational politics has been defined as influence behavior, within organizations, that falls outside of the recognized legitimate power system (Yoffie & Bergenstein, 1985). Political behavior is often aimed at benefiting an individual or group at the expense of the organization as a whole and at acquiring more power.

According to Miles (1980), one of the major factors motivating political behavior is uncertainty. For example, when employees are uncertain about the goals of the organization, political behavior often results. Another factor that strongly contributes to political behavior is scarcity of resources. Although technically everyone in the same organization is "on the same team," obtaining scarce resources is a highly competitive process in many organizations. Thus, the manager of a department may have to engage in considerable political behavior in order to obtain even minimally acceptable resources.

Other conditions that motivate political behavior are technological change, ambiguity in decision making, and organizational change. Often, the introduction of new technologies in organizations creates considerable uncertainty with respect to work roles

and lines of authority; both conditions are ripe for political maneuvering. In many organizations, decisions are made with incomplete information; thus, it is not clear which alternative is "correct." When this is the case, political behavior often results because advocates of different positions may attempt to influence the decision-making process. Finally, political behavior is very common during times of organizational change because things are often "up for grabs" and readily amenable to such forms of influence.

Having defined organizational politics, we now turn to specific tactics that people use when they engage in political behavior. Although many tactics could be used to promote one's political agenda, some tactics are more commonly used, and many of these are similar to the general influence tactics discussed in the previous section. According to Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, and Mayes (1979), six commonly used political tactics include two that were discussed previously (ingratiation and forming coalitions and networks), and four that are somewhat different from more general influence tactics.

1. *Impression management* represents behaviors that are designed to enhance one's visibility or stature within the organization. Bolino and Turnley (1999) developed a questionnaire to assess five different impression-management strategies employees use based on a classification developed by Jones and Pittman (1982). *Self-promotion* refers to employees discussing their accomplishments and abilities with others to come across as competent (e.g., "Talk proudly about your experience or education"). *Ingratiation* refers to employees doing favors or complimenting others to come across as likeable (e.g., "Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likeable").

Exemplification refers to people highlighting their moral worthiness by appearing to do more or be more ethical than other employees (e.g., "Try to appear like a hard-working, dedicated employee"). *Intimidation* is where people advertise their power in order to come across as threatening within an organization (e.g., "Be intimidating with co-workers when it will help you get your job done"). Finally, *supplication* is when an employee comes across as weak and needy so that he or she can be protected by others (e.g., "Act like you know less than you do so people will help you out").

2. Another commonly used political tactic is *information management*. In many organizations, "information is power"; thus, one way to advance one's political agenda is to control others' access to information. This may include simply controlling whether others ever receive information and the timing of the information's release. In political campaigns, for example, candidates often withhold negative information about their opponent until just before the election. By doing so, they leave the opposition little time to engage in any form of "damage control" that might save the election.
3. A political tactic that is somewhat counterintuitive, but often highly effective, is *promotion of the opposition*. This may involve eliminating a political rival by helping the person become so successful that he or she is promoted to a higher position in the organization and no longer poses a threat. Using this tactic has a double advantage: The employee appears to be gracious, and an individual who may be a roadblock en route to the desired political objectives is eliminated.

4. A final political tactic used in organizations is an employee's promotion of his or her own agenda by *pursuing line responsibility*—actively seeking a position within the organization that makes it easier to exert one's influence. In most organizations, some positions are crucial to the main business of the organization, and others are considered peripheral. As a general rule, positions that are close to the core technology of an organization (e.g., production, resources acquisition) carry higher levels of influence than positions in departments designed to support that technology (e.g., research and development, human resources).

The political tactics described to this point are relatively benign, but certain tactics reflect the "dark side" of political behavior in organizations. According to DuBrin (1993), more destructive political tactics include the elimination of one's political rivals, use of a "divide and conquer" strategy, and exclusion of one's political adversaries. Political battles in organizations can be brutal. In some cases when members of organizations are competing with each other, the "winner" is able to facilitate the exit of rivals by getting them fired or making their lives so difficult that they leave voluntarily.

The "divide and conquer" strategy may surface in situations in which one individual is at odds with a group of other employees. It is often difficult for an individual to impose his or her will on such a group because of the numerical difference. Thus, one way to overcome this situation is to induce conflict within the group, making it less likely that these individuals will put up a united front. Managers in many types of organizations often bemoan the lack of interpersonal harmony within work groups. However, the

irony is that the existence of interpersonal conflict often makes it much easier for managers to control their groups and to advance their personal agendas.

Excluding one's political rivals simply involves making sure that they are "out of the loop" and thus less likely to influence one's agenda. As stated earlier, in many organizations, information is power. Thus, one way to undercut one's rivals is to make sure that they do not receive crucial information that would make it easier for them to exert influence. In practice, this form of influence may involve making sure that one's rivals are not invited to important meetings, or perhaps seeing to it that they receive job assignments in remote areas of the organization.

Unfortunately, not a great deal of empirical research has been devoted to the study of organizational politics. The little research that has been done, however, suggests that political behavior has a negative impact on organizations, particularly when employees lack an understanding of the political landscape (e.g., Ferris, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1990). When one considers the tactics previously described, this is not surprising. The atmosphere in an organization with a great deal of political behavior is likely to be characterized by tension, mistrust, and, in extreme cases, downright paranoia.

In addition, Vigoda and Cohen (2002) recently conducted a longitudinal study involving employee influence tactics, met expectations on the job, and perceptions of organizational politics. These authors found that greater use of influence tactics at Time 1 was related to lower met expectations of employees (employees feeling the organization did not live up to what they expected) at Time 2, which was then predictive of perception of organizational politics at Time 2. These results illustrate the link between high

levels of influence and perception of organizational politics.

It is not realistic to think that political behavior can be (or perhaps even should be) eliminated from organizations. However, there may be ways organizations can decrease the behavior. Political behavior is often the by-product of uncertainty and ambiguity, so being clear about organizational goals and individual employees' job assignments is an important step toward reducing destructive political behavior. Organizations can also reduce political behavior by breaking up obvious cliques or coalitions through transfers or through job rotation. If individuals consistently engage in destructive political behaviors, organizations may be able to reduce these behaviors by confronting the offenders. Often, employees in organizations will "get away with" destructive political behaviors simply because they are never confronted about it.

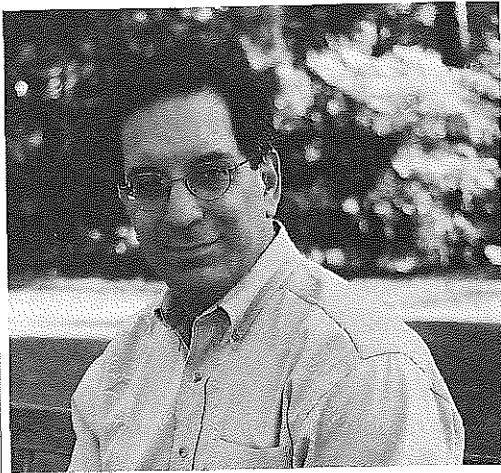
Perhaps the most important way that managers can decrease political behavior is by setting a good example for subordinates. If a manager is honest and above board in his or her dealings with others in the organization, handles conflicts with others in a constructive manner, and conveys to subordinates that highly destructive political behavior will not be tolerated, this sends a powerful message. Although political behavior in organizations may not be eliminated, it may be possible to decrease it to a nondestructive level.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on leadership and the closely related topic of influence processes. The study of leadership has been approached from trait, behavioral, and contingency perspectives. Although most modern theories of leadership can be considered contingency

PEOPLE BEHIND THE RESEARCH

STEPHEN ZACCARO AND THE REEMERGENCE OF RESEARCH ON LEADER ATTRIBUTES



My interest in leader attributes and leadership grew from a term paper I wrote for a group dynamics class while in graduate school. In that paper, I had cited an earlier study by Barnlund (1962) that seemed to provide support for the prevailing notion that the particular occupant of the leader role can vary from situation to situation depending upon the set of skills and attributes needed in each situation. David Kenny was my instructor, and he noted in his grading comments that the results of the Barnlund study could be reanalyzed to partition the variance in leader emergence more precisely to different sources. He developed the appropriate statistics for the reanalysis; we applied them to the original study, and found that a large portion of the variance could be attributed to attributes of the leader rather than the situation.

We published the results of this reanalysis in a paper that emphasized trait-based sources

of leadership variance. This was in the early 1980s when much of the zeitgeist in leadership research was decidedly in a different direction. However, Robert House had already begun to write about charismatic leadership and about personality and leadership. Then, Robert Lord and his colleagues published their meta-analysis in 1986 supporting a stronger link between leader attributes and emergence. These research lines gave some new impetus to trait-based perspectives of leadership.

In our paper, Kenny and I had speculated that attributes that predicted leader emergence would include qualities that promoted a leader's behavioral flexibility to varying situational demands. I conducted some research with Roseanne Foti and Dave Kenny to test this notion. We found support linking self-monitoring to leader emergence across different situations. This study sparked for me an ongoing and continuing program of research to identify leader attributes that promote effectiveness in dynamic and multi-faceted organizational domains. We have learned from this work that leadership can likely be explained by complex integrations of leader attributes, residing in a single person or perhaps shared among team members, which foster responsiveness to varying situational demands. We also learned the value of revisiting old ideas, applying more sophisticated methods and approaches to gain new insights.

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theories, the trait and behavioral approaches are by no means dead; they still offer some insight into leadership processes.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory proposes that the effectiveness of a leader hinges on the match between situational favorability and whether the leader is task or relationship oriented. This theory has received only mixed support, but it has generated a considerable body of leadership research. It also served as the impetus for other contingency-based leadership theories in subsequent years.

Path-Goal Theory also proposes that leader effectiveness depends on the leader-situation match. It differs from Fiedler's theory, however, in the manner in which effectiveness is defined, and in proposing that leaders are able to adapt different forms of leadership behaviors to different situations. Although Path-Goal Theory still awaits more empirical scrutiny, it serves as a useful guide to the understanding of leadership and may have considerable practical benefits as well.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of leadership is focused on one aspect of leadership behavior: decision making. This theory is somewhat different from the others in that it is largely prescriptive in nature; that is, it provides managers with guidelines for decision making. Support for this model has been strong when managers have been asked to recall decisions, but results have been more equivocal when other sources of data are used.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory proposes that leaders develop a unique relationship with each of their subordinates that is largely based on social exchange. This theory represents a vast departure from previous theories that were based on the rather naïve assumption that

leaders treat all subordinates the same. Research on LMX Theory has yielded very interesting findings on both the determinants and the consequences of differences in exchange relationship quality. Further work, however, appears to be needed to define the dimensions of the exchange relationship and to broaden the scope of LMX research. Some recent research has used LMX processes to explain how transformational leaders produce superior performance in their subordinates.

The most recent heavily researched theory of leadership described was Transformational and Transactional Leadership. To some extent, this approach represents a return to the trait approach that dominated leadership research in the early twentieth century. Transformational leaders not only lead others but inspire them as well. These individuals also are capable of facilitating meaningful change in organizations. Research in this area has been largely descriptive. Transactional leaders emphasize the contingencies necessary for employees to receive rewards and keep track of employee behaviors to deliver contingencies. Recent meta-analyses show that both transformational and transactional leaderships are related to employee performance, and that the two forms of leadership are actually positively related. We briefly introduced a recent theory of authentic leadership that emphasizes leaders acting in ways consistent with their self-concept and showing moral character. Future research is necessary to assess this approach.

Power and influence are at the core of leadership; therefore, both topics were covered in conjunction with leadership theories. Research has shown that leaders typically have multiple bases from which to exert power, and, in some cases, these bases may

be situationally specific. Influence tactics represent the various ways in which leaders exert their power in organizations. Research has shown that the most effective tactics are those that give subordinates some freedom of choice, and the least effective tactics are those that involve pressure and appeals to one's formal authority.

Organizational politics represents a distinct form of influence that, in many cases, can be destructive. Political behavior may occur in any organization, but it is typically more prevalent in organizations that have a great deal of uncertainty and scarce resources. Specific political tactics may take a variety of forms—some more negative than others. Although relatively little research on organizational politics exists, there is some evidence that the impact of political behavior is negative. Although political behavior can never be eliminated completely, organizations can reduce it by improving communication and, in some cases, increasing resources. Ultimately, the most effective way for managers to reduce political behavior is to set a positive example in their dealings with subordinates and others in the organization.

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