THE DIMENSIONS OF THE LEADERSHIP

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Summary. *Briefly, the paper proposes a global view about the leadership in enterprise world. It discusses different aspects as the style of leaders, the leadership domains of action, the connection between the leaders and the management and finally a small trip inside the litterature area. We are not proposing new ideas but rather collection important information related to our subject issues. Finally, this article can be considered as starting point of many elements connected to the dimensions of the leadershop.*

Keywords: *Leadership, Style of Leaders, Leadership Domains, Dimensions.*

Research on leadership has been part of organisation behaviour for the last one hundred years and is seen as one of social science's most researched subject (Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg, 2003:5). It is believed that in 1896, the Library of congress in the USA had no book on leadership but in 1981, it had over 5000 entries (Heller, 2001:388). However leadership has interested scholars and the general public for thousand years and leadership as been in the core of research for a very long time, as Bass states: "the study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilisation which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders" (1990a:3). Leadership encompasses many fields as can be seen by the different type of people that are called leaders: From Henry V to George Washington to Lee Iaacocca who produced a dramatic change at Chrysler Corporation to business tycoons such as Robert Maxwell (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987 in Heller, 2001:388). Leaders and consequently leadership exist universally (manifest itself in one form or another across many different national and organisational context, Tirmizi, 2002:269) in every field of study (in both human kind to animal species, Antonakis et al, 2003), is common throughout Western and Easter writing (Bass, 1990) and as such is studied and examined through many different lenses. This is reflected through the large size of the unorganised literature (Smith and Cooper, 1994:3).

Leadership literature quandary. The leadership literature comes in most part from a north american background and as such might not be applicable on a worldwide basis (shahin and wright, 2004:499). While there has been an increase in leadership research across different countries such as house et al (1997), or peterson and hunt (1997) much of the research still focuses leadership effectiveness and leader comparison in two or three countries (deanne et al, 2001:178). Research found that the type of preferred leaders' style by followers changes in different cultures and that specific behaviours which reflect these styles also vary in different cultures (smith and peterson, 1988 in shahin et al, 2004:499). The different leadership theories may not apply to different countries especially those based on a culture deemed extremely different from the north american culture (shahin et al, 2004).

Research on leadership has stumbled upon two main problems. Firstly is the question whether leadership is a useful concept to study. Leadership research is believed by some to have lost its practical and meaningful utility as a concept with every day organisation life as it widen the gap between leadership as studied by researcher and leadership as it is understood by subjects (Meindl, 1995). Meindl (1995) put forward that research on leadership can only be useful if it studied as understood and constructed by subjects (Meindl, 1995). Other researchers believe research on leadership to still be a practical concept when study-

ing organisational behaviour (Heller, 2001:388) and can be regarded as the most important factor in the success or failure of an organisation (Bass, 1990). This is shown by research on the effect of leadership on performance and on organisational success (Smith et al, 1994:3). For example the quality of leadership has been suggested to account for less than ten percent of the variance in performance in local government (Pfeiffer and Salanick, 1978) similarly the characteristic of individual skippers (leaders) have been found to account for thirty-five to forty nine percent of the variation of the catch (Thorlindsson, 1987), also Hogan et al (1990 found that about sixty to seventy-five percent of organisational respondent found that their supervisors are the most stressful aspect of their job (Hollander, 1997) and that executive leadership can help explain up to forty-five percent of an organisation performance (Day and Lord, 1988 in Smith et al, 1994:3). It is clear that leadership is important in studying organisational success (Smith et al, 1994).

The second problem comes from the size of the literature and the lack of a definition. While leadership is easily observable and identifiable a specific and widely accepted definition of leadership is inexistent (Antonakis et al, 2003: 6). Definition of what leadership is varies from the perspective from which it is studied. Each researcher, according to their focus (such as leaders trait, ability, personality, influence relationship, cognitive versus emotional orientation etc (Deanne et al, 2001:166) defines leadership differently. Leadership can also be seen as being different from management (Kotter, 1990) or seen as part of managerial roles (e.g. Mintzberg, 1989). Definitions of leadership also vary whether leadership is seen as been descriptive or normative in nature as well as in its emphasis on behavioural styles (Deanne et al, 2001:166). Fiedler (1971a:1 in Antonakis, 2003:5) states "that they are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership theories – and there are almost as many theories of leadership as there are psychologists working in the field".

• "The process whereby one individual influences others to willingly and enthusiastically direct their effort and abilities towards attaining defined group or organisational goals" (Nel et al, 2004: 332):

• "The reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers" (Burns, 1978:425).

• "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (Rost, 1991:102).

• Leadership is the ability of an individual to motivate others to forego self interest in the interest of a collective vision, and to contribute to the attainment of that vision and to the collective by making significant personal self-sacrifices over and above the call of duty (House and Shamir, 1993).

Leadership domains. Another way to understand the concept of leadership is through the way it is studied and the different model it encompasses. Deanne et al (2001) found that leadership research can be classified into three domains and that each domain comes with its own assumption and consequently its own definition. The first of these domains is the *leader centered approach* where the main area of focus is on the leader behaviour and characteristics and their effects. This has been the most popular domain with the most research done. The second domain is the *follower based approach* (e.g. Hollander, 1992; meindl, 1990) which focuses on issues such as the followers' characteristics, behaviour and perception. And finally the *relationship based approach* (e.g. Bryman, 1992 or graen and scandura, 1987) which emphasize the relationship between the leader and the followers as the main point of focus and is concern with issues such as reciprocal influence and the development and maintenance of effective relationships. The leader centered approach and the relationship based approach have been at the centre of most research however the follower based approach is becoming more and more popular in determining leadership results (chen and meindl, 1991; lord et al, 1984; shamir et al, 1994 in andrews et al, 1998:128). With each change of domains used, leadership is seen as been described

and defined differently (andrews et al, 1998:128). For example the core characteristic (tenets) changes for each domain. The leader centered approach three main tenets are: group, influence and goal (bryman, 1992) while from a more re-lationship based approach, rost (1991:102-103) found that the four characteristic as shown below. Using the domain classification of deanne et al (2001), leadership can be better explained and understood.

The relationship is based on influence	Leaders and followers are the people in this relationship
• The influence is multidirectional • The influence behaviour is non-coercive	• The followers are active • There must be more than one followers • The relationship is inherently unequal because of the influence patterns are unequal.
Leaders and followers intend real changes	Leaders and followers develop mutual purposes
• *Intend* means that the leaders and followers purposefully desire certain changes • *Real* mean that the changes the leaders and followers intend must be substantive and transforming	• The mutuality of these purposes is forged in the non coercive influence relationship • Leaders and followers develop purpose and goals • The mutual purposes become common purpose

Figure 1. Characteristic of leadership (Rost, 1993:102-103)

Leadership, power and management. Further attributes of leadership need to be analysed to better understand the concept and its meaning. this can be accomplished through analysing the difference and similarities of leadership with management and power as these terms are often confuse and mixed together (antonakis et al, 2003:5).

Often the terms manager and leaders are seen as interchangeable. While in certain cases it is true, it is not always the case. Management is described as "the coordination of human, material, technological, and financial resources needed for an organisation to achieve its goals" (Hess and Siciliano, 1995 in Murphy, 2002:6). The difference between the two is quite clear: a manager plans, organises, controls and motivates, while a leader influences others. The most basic differences are shown in Table and Figure 2. Managers

have influence over others because of their different sources of power as highlighted by French and Raven (1959) famous taxonomy: (1) Reward (2) Coercive (3) Legitimate (4) Referent (5) Expert Power. Managers can use these sources of power in isolation and simultaneously. These powers are subjective and what one subordinate sees as a strong source of power might be seen as a weak source by another (Nel *et al*, 2004:334-5). On the other hand, according to Kotter (1996:26) leaders have three roles that it performs: *"Establishing direction* – Developing a vision of the future and the strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision. *Aligning people* – communicating directions in words and deeds to everyone whose cooperation is needed to create the vision. And finally, m*otivating & inspiring* – Energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change

by satisfying basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs" (Kotter in *Leading Change*, 1996:26). Power, for leaders, is the mean to potentially influence others. Power for leaders can come but not limited to in the form of referent power (followers identify with leader), expertise, and ability to reward or punish (Bass 1990 in Antonakis et al, 2003:5).
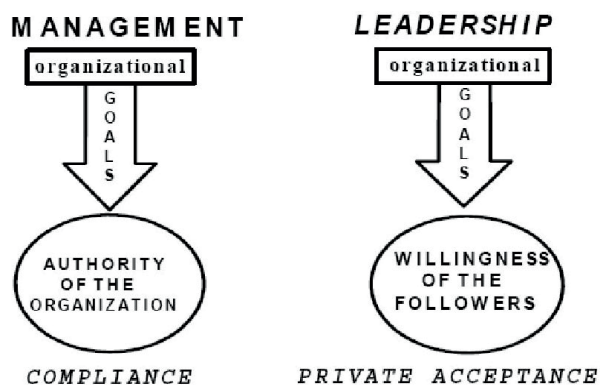

Figure 2. Management vs Leadership
(Murphy, 2002:8)

Both are quite similar as they both aim at achieving goals, but one relies on authority given by the organisation, and the other relies on the willingness and power given by the followers as shown in Table 1. In conclusion: "Managers think incrementally, whilst leaders think radically». *Managers do things right, while leaders do the right thing»*. Managers do things by the book and follow company policy, while leaders follow their own intuition, which may in turn be of more benefit to the company (ME96, 1997:2).

Leader type and role. There are two types of leaders: formal leaders and informal leaders. a formal leader is "a member of an organisation who is given authority by the organisation to influence other organisational members to achieve organisational goals" and an informal leader is "an organisational member with no formal authority to influence others who nevertheless is able to exert considerable influence because of special skills or talents" (george *et al, 2002*:390-391).

Leadership is essential at every level of an organisation. At the supervisory level, leaders complement organisational system (Katz and Kahn, 1978 in Antonakis et al, 2003) and improve their followers' motivation level, effectiveness and overall satisfaction (Bass 1990 in Antonakis et al, 2003). At the strategic level, leaders ensure that the organisation is properly coordinated and works effectively with its external environment (Katz and Kahn, 1978 in Antonakis et al, 2003). On the whole, leaders guide, align and 'lead' the organisation and its people towards the objective and goals of the organisation and make sure that the organisational functions are aligned with the external environment (Antonakis, 2003:5).

Leadership research. Leadership theories have evolved throughout the years in a linear, consistent and predictable fashion studies (tirmizi, 2002:169). Table 2 reveals 24 of the most commonly teach leadership theories and their main researcher (irby, brown, duffy and trautman, 2001:304-305).

Leadership measurement. Leadership has been measured through many different instruments such as questionnaires. Many questionnaire exist which are used to measure the different leadership theories and measures. for example the leader behaviour description questionnaire (lbdq) developed by the ohio state researchers or the multifactor questionnaire (mlq) developed by bass (1985) and his colleagues or the leadership practices inventory (lpi) are some of the most widely used questionnaires (tirmizi, 2002: 271).

Leadership taxonomy. Leadership theories can usually be classified into three categories which like domains can help to define leadership better. the three categories are *trait*, *behaviour* and *contingency*. each category can be seen as reflecting an era which is characterised by a particular focus of interest and a specific research interest (chermers, 1993 in tirmizi, 2002:169). This classification will be used in this chapter in conjunction with a new category called new leadership. however other taxonomy exist such as the one used by heller (2001) which divided the theories into two groups namely *universalist* and *situational*. The former referred to theories such as great person theories, psychoanalytic theories, charismatic, transformational and transactional theories while the later referred to theories such as fielder (1967) contingency theory or vroom (1973) participative leadership model.

the situational approach is more recent and is based on the assumption that different styles of leadership are more appropriate in certain situation than other (heller, 2001). Others frameworks exist (such as jago, 1982) that builds up on the universalist/situational divide and include two more focus namely trait and behaviour leading to the framework shown in Table 3 below:

Table 1

Leadership vs management (Nel et al, 2004:333)

Criteria	Leadership	Management
Change	Provide a vision and initiate change	Implement changes as suggested by leaders
People	Inspire and develop	Control
Power source	Ability to influence others	Authority
Task	Do the right things	Do things right
Commitment goals	Passionate	Impersonal

Table 2

Leadership theories (Irby et al, 2001: 305)

Type of Theory	Name of Theory	Primary writers
Organisational	Fusion process	Bakke (1953)
	Complex learning organisations	Etzioni (1975)
	Structure in fives	Mintzberg (1983)
	Learning organisation	Senge (1990)
	Organisational framework	Bolman and Deal (1991)
Organisational Behaviour	Social system theory	Homans (1950; Getzels and Guba (1955)
	Needs hierarchy theory	Maslow (1955); Porter (1964)
	Function of executive	Barnard (1938)
	3-D theory	Reddin (1970)
Management	Theory Z	Ouchi (1981)
	Total quality management	Deming (1988)
	Strategic managment	Nahavandi (1993)
	Iowa studies	Lewin et al (1939)
	Leadership factors	Stogdill (1948)
	Ohio state studies	Halpin and Winer (1957)
		Hemphill and Coons (1957)
	Theory X & Y	McGregor (1957)
	Peformance-maintenance	Misumi et al (1958)
	Four-factor theory	Bowers and Seashore (1966)
	Michigna studies	Likert (1961)
Leadership	Contingency theory	Fiedler (1967)
	Leadership grid styles	Blake and Mouton (1968)
	Situationl leadershio	Hersey and Blanchard (1969)
	Path-goal theory	Evans (1970)
	Transformational leadership	Burns; Bass and Avd1994)

Table 3

Jago's Framework of Leadership Theories

Focus		Approach	
		Universal	**Contingent**
Focus	**Focus On Traits**	Leader Traits Theory	Fiedler's Contingency Theory
	Focus On Behaviors	Early Behavioral Theory	The Path-Goal Theory

Leadership research has existed for several decades and as mention before, the studies can be classified into trends. Up to the late 1940s, the trait approach was predominant, the focus then shift to a style (or behaviour) approach until the late 1960s, then followed by a contingency approach until the early 1980s and since the 1980s the focus has been on new leadership (Deanne et al, 2001:168). It is important to note, that a change in focus didn't mean that the previous focus was completely abandon from research but simply that most research shifted to their emphasise. Table 4 highlights the different trends in leadership theory and research.

Table 4

Trends in leadership theory and approach (Deanne et al, 2001:168)

Period	Approach	Core theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait	Leaders are born; leadership as an innate ability
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Style	What do they do; effectivness has to do with how the leader behaves
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency	It all depends; effectiveness of leadership is affected by all situations/context
Since early 1980s	New leadership (Including charismatic transformational leadership)	Leaders need vision and insipure loyaltoy and emotional attachment

While leadership is easily observable in action, defining it precisely is much more difficult, this is in part because each researcher sees leadership differently according to the researcher paradigm. As Bennis (1959:260) states in Antonakis (2004:15). There is no question on the effect of leaders in leading the organization to success and higher profit and organizations (Appelbaum et al, 2004; Smith et al, 1984). Therefore organizational success consequently depends on leaders being present at all level to perform the organizational mission. However determining what makes a leader is still unknown. There is no single leadership trait or behaviour that is effective in every situation however the concept is now better understood and leadership remains a prevalent subject in organizational behaviour study. Whilst most research is still North American based, research needs to test the various leadership theories and develop new one if needed for other countries especially those which have a very different culture to the North American's culture.

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Ясір Джамал (Харківський національний університет економіки). **Стилі лідерства.**

Анотація. У статті розглянуто основні теорії лідерства. Проаналізовано стилі лідерства та їх взаємозв'язок з управлінням.

Ключові слова: лідерство, стиль лідерів, лідерство.

Ясир Джамал (Харьковский национальный университет экономики). **Стили лидерства.**

Аннотация. В статье рассмотрены основные теории лидерства. Проанализированы стили лидерства и их взаимосвязь с управлением.

Ключевые слова: лидерство, стиль лидеров, лидерство.