A Review of Traditional and Contemporary Approaches to Leadership

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Introduction

In the 19th-century, Thomas Carlyle began the search to explain how history is written. His research led him to develop the Great Man theory, suggesting that the impact of great men, also described as "heroes," caused a decisive historical impact. Researchers attempted to explain how these great men moved humanity. Early social scientists believed that there were no individual traits that were specifically tied to leadership ability (Carlyle, 1841). Research covering the field has been met with mixed results, particularly because, according to Yukl and Van Fleet (1992), leadership is an extremely difficult construct to define. Some have posited that leadership is not a process but rather a series of behaviors that impact group performance, such as obtaining resources, providing encouragement, and evaluating work products (Guzzo & Shea, 1992). Others have argued that leadership can be viewed as functions that produce group effectiveness. As a result, leadership in this context exists within the groups themselves, not with specific individuals.

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Many different industries have tried to take a behavioral approach and pinpoint the differences between successful and unsuccessful leaders. A review of modern, business-oriented sources results in a variety of defined avenues of success. Over time and extensive empirical research, the discipline of psychology has presented evidence that suggests leadership is tied to personality traits, behaviors, and interactions with others that impact the power and influence one can must further his or her goals. In other words, one's influence and power are indicative of one's leadership. These two products represent core values of leadership and provide a basis for understanding the construct (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 303).

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Leadership theory can be applied in every field of work through the general approaches to leadership, modern leadership theories, and contemporary approaches to emotion-based leadership.

Defining the Construct of Leadership

To accurately define the construct of leadership, one must differentiate it from common associations that exist in current vocational society, which are regularly misleading or misrepresentative. First, leadership has little to do with one's position in a company or level of seniority. Although some aspects of power are inherent to leadership, one's pay or status does not directly relate. Second, leadership is not related to one's title. Leaders are present at many different levels of corporations, from entry-level store greeters to Chief Executive Officers. Leadership is dependent more on one's ability to influence those around him or her than how many subordinates one oversees.

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One of the most common misunderstandings of leadership is that it is synonymous with management. While both terms are associated with supervisory roles, scholarly articles argue that a leader inspires commitment and motivation. That definition contrasts a simpler mandate for managers, strictly of compliance. "Some say," according to Jex and Britt (2008), "a manager doesn't make things worse for his or her work group but doesn't get them too excited either" (p. 304).

Although numerous definitions of the construct exist among scholarly articles, there is a common theme between respected leadership theorists in the I/O concentration. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) define leadership as "a process that includes influencing the task objectives and people in the organization, influencing the strategies and achieve the objectives, identification,

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and influencing the culture of the organization" (p. 149). Vroom and Jago (2007) have recently and more concisely defined leadership as "a process of motivating people to work together collaboratively to accomplish great things" (p. 18). Jex and Britt (2008) have found four noteworthy themes in common among definitions. First, leadership is defined as the impact of behaviors upon others, whether it is focused on the behaviors themselves or the results they yield. Second, leadership is outcome-based rather than process-driven. Third, leadership requires a person to possess a variety of skills to execute the many task objectives, such as analytical, conceptual, interpersonal, and persuasive skills. Lastly, leaders catalyze change within organizations (p. 304-5). Change within an organization is extremely challenging, especially in the context of changing cultures, because it is embedded at a very granular, behavioral level. However, for an organization to thrive within the increasingly competitive, technological marketplace, adaptation is often needed. As a result, leaders are in prime position to facilitate the necessary cultural overhauls. For instance, many modern companies have been doing away with the hierarchical employee structure, moving instead to flatter, team-based models (p. 306). As a result, leaders have a much wider span of control and impact due to the greater number of employees with whom they supervise and interact. Therefore, leadership is crucial to the modern organization's existence.

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Importance of Leadership

A leader carries out several different functions through his or her actions, interactions with others, and positioning within a company. Of these functions, Jex and Britt (2008) identify four main roles for defining leaders themselves. First, leaders are often needed to provide strategic direction and vision. When faced with ambiguity in the future, leaders are often called upon to provide insight into a dilemma that faces a work group and possess the courage to act upon that information. Secondly, those in small groups are regularly needed to provide motivation and coaching behaviors. All levels, including highly skilled personnel, occasionally need support, encouragement, and direction when faced with difficult tasks. They also serve as main sources of enforcement and interpretation of organizational policies. When company interpretation is debatable, leaders often could present a logical, succinct argument, which may provide the necessary guidance and put to rest associated conflicts. Furthermore, leaders are typically responsible for obtaining resources for groups. For example, if a need is acknowledged as being vital to business functioning, leaders are generally relied upon to navigate relational dynamics to acquire them (p. 305-6).

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General Approaches to Leadership

Organizational psychologists have become increasingly interested in the study of leadership over the last fifty years. Three overarching approaches have evolved throughout its examination: the trait approach, the behavioral approach, and the contingency approach (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 306). Each will be detailed throughout this overview to provide a contextual basis of understanding leadership theory.

The Trait Approach

The trait approach is simplistic in nature – effective leaders possess traits that distinguish them from ineffective leaders. This approach was developed early into the research of leadership theory, and the goal was to identify those traits that are exclusive to effective leaders. Unfortunately, however, this approach met limited success, and by the 1940s (Stogdill) and 1950s (Mann), it was deemed insufficient. Decades later, the trait approach was revived and made significant contributions to the field (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 307). Researchers switched focus from leadership effectiveness to leader emergence, which is the assumption of a leadership role by a group member when no leader has been formally designated. Two studies by Foti & Rueb (1990) and Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenney (1991) found that the trait approach was quite useful in predicting leader emergence based on two factors: accurately deciphering the social dynamics of a situation and adapting behavior to address that situation. These factors are derived from the traits of higher intelligence, a higher need for dominance, a high self-monitoring tendency, and social perception. Furthermore, Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) discovered several traits that predict managerial effectiveness and advancement within organizations, including high energy level, stress tolerance, integrity, emotional maturity, and self-confidence. These would indicate that there may be a connection between natural traits and effectiveness, and some longitudinal studies of managerial effectiveness have suggested this is the case (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 307). More recently, Zaccaro (2007) created a model detailing the relationship between leader traits and leader emergence, effectiveness, advancement, and promotion. Zaccaro stressed that a combination of traits will likely be a better predictor of leader effectiveness than using any singular trait in isolation.

There is also evidence to support connections between the Big Five personality traits and leader emergence. Bono and Judge (2004) determined that extraversion was “the most consistent predictor of transformational leadership” (Jex & Britt, p. 308). Transformational leadership is another approach which refers to one’s ability to produce a concise, cooperative vision that motivates followers to aim to achieve, and it will be discussed further in this review.

Despite the many contributions of the trait approach to leadership, it leaves many questions regarding its practical application. For instance, what happens when multiple group members possess these leader-emergent traits? Would the leadership role become divided, or does competition ensue? Regardless, the trait approach has provided an immense benefit to furthering the study of leadership.

Trait Affect

Trait affect can be defined as “affective lens on the world” (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; p. 38), or the way in which one has a disposition to view the world positively (trait positive affect) or negatively (trait negative affect) (Joseph et al. 2015, p. 559). This concept plays a major role in determining how a person acts and reacts to stimuli in the environment, and in the role of leadership, events such as news of downsizing, a complex and critical dilemma, or a sudden change that requires efficient damage control. In essence, trait affect describes a person’s overall temperament and how he or she would generally respond to a new stimulus. For instance, a person who is generally cheery and optimistic and experiences positive moods across a wide variety of circumstances would be described as having a positive trait affect. In contrast, someone who is consistently pessimistic, has a negative view of him or herself over many different situations, and frequently exhibits negative emotions would be described as having a negative trait affect. While trait affect illustrates overall dispositional tendencies for people, state affect is the term used to depict short-term emotions or moods. The emotion subset of state affect pertains to fleeting feelings, consisting of very intense behaviors for only moments, while moods persist for a slightly longer period. Moods are typically less intense and less related to a particular stimulus, but they are short-lived compared to an individual’s overall temperament (Joseph et al. 2015, p. 559). In the context of leadership styles and managerial effectiveness, trait affect is of greatest concern because it has the longest lasting implications. Furthermore, it has had sufficient research to draw conclusions, while state affect requires further empirical studies to determine substantive relationships.

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In addition to trait affect, more recent literature has offered an even more magnified approach to the classification of affect based on regulatory focus (Baas, De Dreu & Nijstad, 2008). Regulatory focus theory proposes that emotional states are based on two bipolar aspects of behavior, promotion-focused and prevention-focused (Joseph et al. 2015, p. 558). Promotion-focused affect is defined as moving toward a desired outcome, while prevention-focused entails avoiding a negative consequence. Each of these can be further broken down into promotion- and prevention-focused trait positive affect, such as joy or excitement and tranquil or peaceful respectively, and trait negative affect, such as frustration or anger and anxiety and apprehension, respectively (Baas et al., 2008).

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The Behavioral Approach

When early trait research was deemed inadequate, the focal point shifted toward the behaviors that seemed most impactful to subordinates. In the 1950s, Stogdill, Fleishman, and colleagues created what is still considered the best-known taxonomy of leader behavior. It categorizes behavior into two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. Behaviors that initiate structure target task performance, such as organization of work, communication of expectations, and maintaining focus on tasks (p. 308). Consideration is represented by behaviors that demonstrate a leader's respect of a subordinate and signify a leader's respect for that subordinate as a person outside the scope of the working relationship. Examples of this dimension could be showing concern for a subordinate's wellbeing and that of his/her family members, checking in to determine the status of work and/or family life, and maintaining an empathetic attitude when issues arise.

Two significant distinctions were developed from this approach. First, Likert (1961) made the differentiation between job-centered leadership behavior and employee-centered leadership behavior. Similarly, Blake and Mouton (1964) showed the delineation between concern for production and concern for people. Both reflect the dichotomy between behaviors that assist task completion and behaviors that provide relational development and group synchronization. While these distinctions were helpful in providing another view of leadership and its various facets, many were unconvinced that this approach would provide the necessary clarification; researchers of the time (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Likert, 1961) felt that some behaviors could not be strictly classified as solely initiating structure or consideration. Despite the benefit of providing another analysis of leadership, this two-dimensional methodology left researchers doubting its breadth of demarcation for the construct. Additionally, the behavioral approach still wrestled with a lack of discriminatory behaviors that identify effectiveness across a variety of circumstances. As a result, the consensus was that there was no universal set of behaviors for a leader to engage in consistently; on the contrary, the necessary behaviors will vary. This conclusion set the stage for the development of the contingency approach.

The Contingency Approach

The Contingency Approach states that the leader's behaviors, traits, and effectiveness will be dictated by the situational characteristics and must vary accordingly. The main objective for this approach is for a leader to survey the situation, determine the most effective strategy, and adjust behavior to fit the circumstances. For example, leadership of a highly skilled, highly autonomous team would look vastly different than an unskilled team or one that needs continuous guidance. Though simplistic in concept, most leadership theories developed within the last few decades have been built upon this approach, thus validating the general principle behind this approach. There is evidence to support that leaders adapt behavior to fit situational demands, though what that looks like within specific situations is still unclear (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 310).

Modern Leadership Theories

Over the last 30 years, there are several leadership theories that have been extremely influential. These include Fiedler's Contingency Theory, Path-Goal Theory, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model, and the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Model.

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Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler's Contingency Theory is built upon situation favorability, which is a combination of three factors: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. The leader-member relations aspect is the level of interpersonal harmony between a leader and subordinates. Warmer relations provide a more favorable situation, and vice versa. Task structure, meanwhile, reflects the nature of the assignment itself with which subordinates are tasked. For example, is the task straightforward and concrete, allowing for immediate, actionable goals? On the other hand, is it abstract and complex, needing further explanation and direction? An example of a high degree of structure would be, "Create 30 cogs an hour to maintain quotas," whereas as a low degree of task structure would be, "Maintain high levels of customer service." The third factor, position power, is simply the amount of designated authority a leader has over his or her respective subordinates. High position power is more desirable for a more favorable situation because employees will accommodate requests much more quickly. Since all three factors have two levels, there are a total of eight possible combinations that can be created using Fiedler's model, aptly named octants. They range from high position power and task structure along with good leader-member relations to low position power and task structure with poor relations, with six additional combinations highlighted in the graph below.

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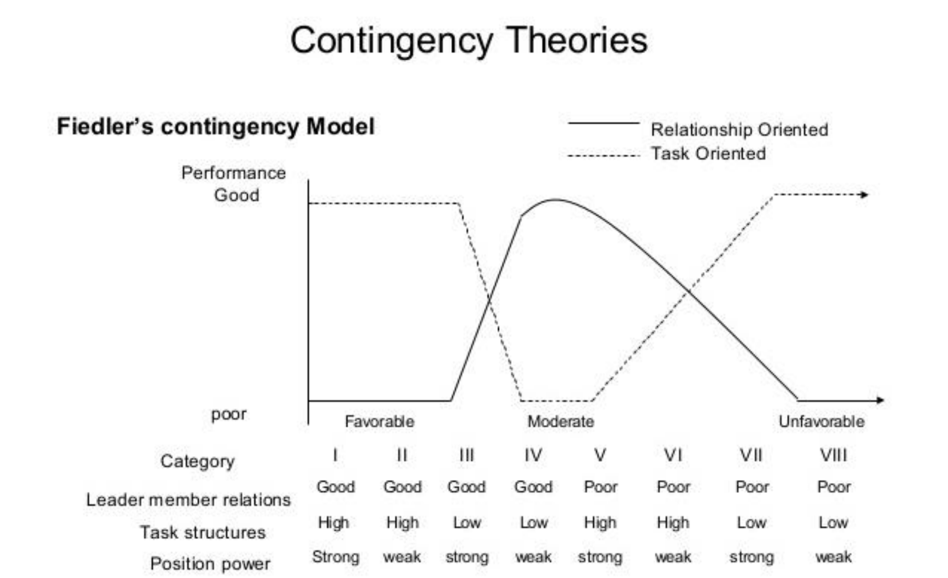

The high situational favorability circumstance allows the leader to focus efforts on additional tasks, such as strategy and planning, seeking necessary resources, and helping employees with skill development. In contrast, the low situational favorability circumstance will likely be unpleasant working relations with little power and a nebulous task, resulting in time spent influencing or negotiating with subordinates and defining a vague task, both of which may or may not be successful. This is the equivalent of trudging through the mud uphill as all variables are less than optimal. The six situations in between are defined as moderate favorability and require focus on improving favorability in addition to all the other important, supplementary tasks.

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The idea behind these different levels of situational favorability is that one can analyze how much control he or she has over a given situation as a whole and better determine how to allocate time. For instance, if a leader is in a situation with high favorability, that leader can focus on higher-level tasks such as employee development, resource acquisition, and strategic planning (Jex & Britt, p. 313). In contrast, if one or more of these situational attributes is unfavorable, that leader will have to spend time, energy, resources, etc. to increase working conditions. As an example, a manager of a retail store who has great relationships with his employees; has set clear expectations on necessary tasks as well as the employees who will complete them; and is solely responsible for auditing employee performance would be categorized as a situation with high favorability. This manager could focus his time purely on growth and development among his team members, marketing to increase revenues, and the continual transformation of his business to drive in customers. Juxtapose that manager with another in a sales' lead role whose goals are to "sell insurance," and this individual does not get along with her coworkers. Typically, positions defined as "lead" provide little power over coworkers beyond recommendations. Additionally, this person does not have adequate structure to her responsibilities, and she will have little success cooperating with colleagues she does not get along. Therefore, she is in a position of low favorability and will spend most of her time and resources focusing on achieving the most basic results rather than providing an

Commented [BK15]: Needs better readability enhanced environment in her workplace. Between these two disparate illustrations one can easily draw the conclusion of which environment would be more stressful, frustrating, and challenging to realize satisfaction with an average day's work. Although it is rare to find workplaces with extremely well-defined tasks, amicable team members, and prominent position-power, Fiedler's Contingency Theory shows just how crucial these considerations are to successful work conditions.

Fiedler's theory contains another important aspect in theoretical development – whether leaders are task-oriented or relationship-oriented. Through a scale called the *Least Preferred Coworker* (LPC), Fiedler lays out the method for analyzing how a respondent viewed a coworker he or she had difficulty working with, either favorably or unfavorably. A favorable rating determined that the respondent was relationship-oriented, and unfavorable tied to task-oriented. Fiedler's proposition stated that relationship-oriented individuals performed best in situations with moderate favorability, or the middle six octants, whereas task-oriented individuals performed best in high or low favorability situations. His explanation was built upon the skill of relationship-oriented leaders to augment the missing component(s), while task-oriented individuals succeeded best in high or low situations due to the lesser need of interacting with team members to improve relations.

Although Fiedler's Contingency Theory has fallen from favor by researchers because supportive evidence was inconclusive, this theory stimulated a surge of additional leadership research. It also laid the foundation for Cognitive Resource Theory, which asserts that groups pull on the available cognitive resources of their leaders depending on what is most beneficial for the situation. Furthermore, Fiedler refocused researchers' attention toward the role that

Commented [BK16]: Brian - Start proofing here the situation plays in determining leadership behaviors that support subordinates' successful performance. In that regard, a follow-up study carried out by Yun, Faraj and Sims (2005) discovered that the style of leadership direction changes based on the pertinent factors. They found the style of direction was most effective depending on the severity of the problem the team faced. On low severity problems, leaders were perceived to be more successful empowering their teams through the delegation of responsibility, whereas high severity problems called for more directive leadership, expecting members to follow a prescribed set of guidelines. Consequently, Yun et al. validated that leadership effectiveness is moderated by situational relevance (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 316).

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Path-Goal Theory

In the 1970s, Robert House theorized another modern approach, known as Path-Goal Theory. Simply put, this theory's premise is that a leader is tasked to help subordinates achieve success by showing them the "path to the goal." This theory revolves around adapting to four different leadership styles: directive, supportive, achievement-oriented, and participative leadership. Directive is characterized by providing the appropriate course of action for conquering tasks and responsibilities, such as a leader maintaining regular check-ins to provide feedback and guidance on overarching objectives. Supportive leadership has a very different aim, as leaders focus on caring about their employees' wellbeing, such as asking about a sick family member or current predicament. Achievement-oriented leadership is intended to bolster employees' performance, exhibited by coaching, the creation of challenging targets, providing relevant training and development opportunities, and sourcing the tools of success. Lastly, participative leadership behaviors are meant to present subordinates with opportunities to contribute on significant work problems. Leadership behaviors can fit into any of these styles, which prompts the major decision within this theory – when to use which style. While the approaches themselves are relatively straightforward, the decision-making process has an array of steps that together provide the formula to understanding how to lead personnel.

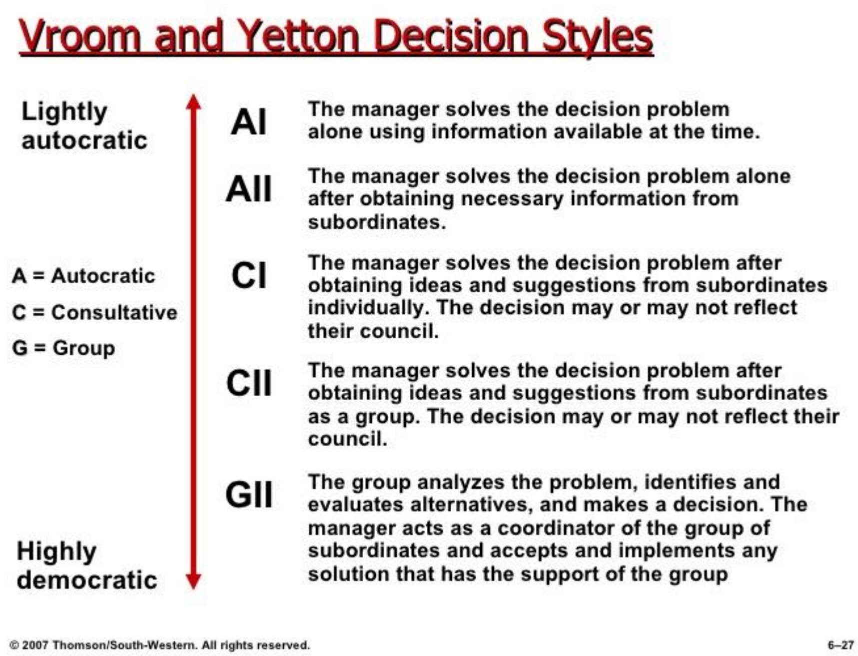
The author offers two significant criteria when deciding between these tactics. These are the characteristics of the subordinates, and the characteristics of the work environment. The employees' characteristics are further subdivided into perceived ability and personality. For staff who perceive their job-relevant abilities to be limited, the most beneficial approach would likely need to be directive, as this group would want to know the exact methods to tackle their tasks. For those that perceive themselves with strong ability, on the contrary, they require a hybrid approach between achievement-oriented and participative. This is because these individuals typically want to expound upon and improve those abilities, so driving them toward a goal that sequentially pushes their boundaries should provide the impetus to continue to succeed and grow. Furthermore, this group has the potential to have an incredible impact, so it would be wise to tap into these personnel regularly. The other criterion, personality, is broad, but it can be subdivided based one's locus of control. Rotter (1966) described locus of control as one's perception of personal control over reinforcements. He asserted that if a person believes that they have little control over those reinforcements, he or she would be described as having an external locus of control (externals), while the inverse would be described as an internal locus (internals). Internals would be best matched with an achievement-oriented and participative style, with less directive and supportive needed. For externals, on the other hand, an approach with comparatively more directive and supportive leadership would be most complementary. Moreover, externals have been associated with negative mental health outcomes, so they may be more irritable, anxious, and displeased than internals.

In addition to understanding the variety of subordinates' characteristics that factor into choosing a leadership style, leaders must also focus on the context of the work environment. There are three important characteristics to consider when evaluating it, which are cultural norms surrounding leadership and authority, task structure, and the group's overall nature. Inclusive cultural norms, such as employee involvement, encouraging subordinates to take initiative, and sharing details of personal lives outside of work all factor into a participative leadership. Similarly, if an organization promotes self-reliance, achievement-oriented styles will be effective. Regarding task structure, highly structured tasks require little directive or participative leadership because the expectations and process are clear, whereas unstructured tasks require more leadership intervention to facilitate effective problem-solving. Finally, if the work group is seasoned and has experienced teammates performing the task, they will be able to work autonomously, allowing the leader to seek out additional resources and add value in other areas instead of providing directive leadership.

In 1996, Path-Goal Leadership Theory was modified by its author to provide guidelines for the application of specific strategies. Although House expounded on his theory, the premise stays the same: leaders should have a wide array of approaches to offer depending on the above circumstances. Because of the overarching nature of the theory, it has proved difficult to test, though several parts have seen success. However, the theory has many practical implications in managerial training and development due to its mandate to analyze aspects of each situation and react accordingly.

Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model

The authors Vroom, Yetton, and Jago contributed to the field of leadership theory in the



late 20th and early 21st century, focusing on decision-making as the one specific aspect of concern (Jex & Britt, p. 319). Compared to previously discussed theories, this one takes a more active role, providing recommendations and guidelines to align decision-making styles with situations leaders face. As a result, they can be more aptly prepared to face the pressures of difficult decisions and explain their rationale. The process contains a series of yes-no checks which steer the leader toward different consultative resources depending on the needs of the situation. The resources for the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model are indicated below.

These different styles primarily highlight how much input the leader or manager will gather prior to deciding. In some cases, such as group decision-making, the leader may even relinquish responsibility to make that important decision on his or her own, allowing the onus to fall to the group. With that in mind, the model's yes-no checks go through a series of steps, effectively determining the presence or absence of the following eight important elements:

> (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. (Jex & Britt, p. 319).

Using the yes-no checks that analyze the above criteria, the model offers a "feasibility set" of potentially viable decision-making strategies. Although this may appear overly complex for understanding which parties to include in the decision-making process, it ensures that the relevant parties will be consulted to provide the highest level of successful implementation. Early research has supported this model, showing that managers have greater efficacy when adopting these styles. A major limitation of the research, however, is that it relies primarily on recollections from managers for analysis; more recent research has provided limited support. Because of its practical application using the guidelines above, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model provides a greater level of usefulness than many other leadership theories. Nevertheless, it does still suffer from the issue of oversimplification, especially when questions cannot be easily answered yes or no (Jex & Britt, p. 320-21).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Model

The Leader-Member Exchange Model hinges on the idea that managerial relationships each possess unique characteristics with individual subordinates. Originally titled the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model of leadership by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), it became known as the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Model. This title change occurred as it became apparent that the theory was founded on the basis social exchanges. Early on, these exchanges were seen in two contrasting categories: the in-group and the out-group. While out-group subordinates maintain formal, work-related relationships with a given leader, in-group members experience better performance, more responsibility, and a deeper connection with a leader. To become a member of the in-group, a subordinate must become a trusted confidant. That element of trust is extremely vital to creating a connection through which additional contextual details can be shared. In-group members are typically more knowledgeable about upcoming changes, hold more power over the means to complete their tasks, and enjoy a generally greater level of privilege. In other words, being a member of the in-group is advantageous. Eventually the focus on in-group and out-group became less emphatic as the focus shifted to how leader-employee relationships develop over time (Graen, 1976). Based on Graen's research, the early stages of leader-subordinate relationships are characterized by a series of tests of increasing responsibility to determine the subordinate's capabilities. When the subordinate is successful in completing assignments, the relationship is impacted positively and vice versa. Though this exchange produces most of the impact, other factors that influence relationship's development are perceived similarity between the two members, and the level of interpersonal attraction (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).

LMX was analyzed by Gerstner and Day (1997) to examine the correlations present in the model. They found that the model is positively related to job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and negatively related to outcomes turnover and role stressors (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 322). The analysis also found, surprisingly, that there was a small correlation between the leaders' and subordinates' reports on the quality of the relationship. This correlation is under additional investigation, but despite that, the theory provides a great deal of value based on the factors listed above in both the theoretical and practical arenas. This theory offers a more realistic view of leadership, unlike many previous theories where subordinates were seen as purely passive beneficiaries of leader influence. As for practical use, LMX recommends developing positive exchange relationships with employees. Going one step further, the LMX Model suggests that organizations should actively facilitate the development of managers through high-quality training programs focused on communication, feedback, and coaching activities (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 322). However, LMX Theory also faces several challenges to eliminate abstraction of the theory, such as refining the meaning of the exchange relationship itself and expanding its scope. Its conception, study, and application in leadership practices has provided an abundance of worth.

Contemporary Approaches to Emotion-Based Leadership

At the inception of Industrial Psychology, the focus was almost entirely on maintaining productivity and efficiency in a military setting. Over the many years, a shift in focus emerged along with a wave of organizational development from productivity-driven results to long-term mental health, stress management, work-life balance, and many more human-oriented components of Organizational Psychology. With this shift, several researchers recently began analyzing the application of these modern leadership theories in a more emotion-based capacity. Contemporary research shows there are many components that make up the leadership spectrum, such as transformational and transactional, charismatic, and authentic leadership; the leader-member exchange; leader emergence and effectiveness; and consideration and initiating structure (Joseph et al. 2015, p. 559). These aspects offer a fresh look on leadership approaches, blending their respective applications to results-driven approaches. Although not every aspect has seen adequate research at this time, they introduce a broad, new perspective on the concentration of leadership and the function of its principles.

Transactional/Transformational

Current studies have examined the contrast between transactional and transformational leadership styles in detail, and the purposes of the two are quite distinct. Transactional leadership styles are mostly concerned with maintaining business as usual and current operations. This style exchanges rewards for production and is a simple construct for motivating subordinates. Its focus is mainly on the present, addressing any dilemmas to return to the ebb and flow of the typical workday. This style is extremely useful for short-term operations management, though it lacks vision for the future. Aspects of this management style include contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Contingent reward simply means providing incentives for performance, although it can also include punishment for poor performance and/or counterproductive behaviors. For example, if an individual meets or exceeds his sales quota, he

Commented [BAK18]: Citation from Joseph article would receive a commission bonus as defined in his contract. Active management by exception requires leaders to engage and handle followers' errors. For instance, if an employee's responsibility is to create advertisements for an upcoming business expo, addressing the mistake would be the key to maintaining typical operations, and transactional leadership would focus purely on how to move past the mistake. Passive management by exception, on the other hand, is the act of ignoring minute errors until they become problematic (Joseph et al. 2015). Say, for instance, a person does not follow the prescribed procedure for data entry and performs manual calculations on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet instead of using macros. He completes the task satisfactorily, and his manager simply ignores the error. Passive management is acceptable in this case. However, if those procedural changes were to inhibit another person's additional calculations because the cells do not have the appropriate formulas in them, active management by exception would prove much more useful. The point of interest in this situation, as far as transactional leadership is concerned, is measuring the significance of the blunder – if negligible, passive is optimal, because it is not worth the time to address it. But if the error creates backlash or stalls productivity, active management is much more appropriate.

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, goes beyond basic day-to-day operations and focuses instead on strategies to improve performance and build upon the present-day model, paving the way for the future of the company. It includes facets such as collaboration through multiple organizational levels, team-building activities to increase synergy, and using goals and incentives to stimulate productivity.

Aspects of transformational leadership include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence concerns the leader providing a quality role model for the followers to emulate, such as an upstanding ethical code and convictions, a willingness to take calculated risks, and creating an environment of trust (Schieltz, 2016). Through this archetype, followers can maintain a high level of confidence in their leader and their projects. Inspirational motivation refers to a leader's ability to articulate expectations, demonstrate commitment to projects and teams, and illustrate a clear direction for the goals of the future. It involves enthusiasm, excitement, and optimism. The key to this aspect is the ability to remain consistently positive despite whatever adversity approaches. Intellectual stimulation entails rousing followers and involving them in the important decision-making opportunities. This not only allows the likelihood of growth and development, but it provides a safe space for risk taking. By creating an environment that encourages autonomy and ownership, this aspect provides ample room for framing relevant details in such a way that is understandable for subordinates, allowing the big picture to be tangible.

Individualized consideration, meanwhile, provides customized development for members. This part of transformational leadership requires an intricate understanding of employees, by either having a direct relationship with them or through motivational surveys. By tailoring programs specifically to the strongest desires of each person, leaders can optimize time spent on employee growth and secure the greatest return on investment in production. It is typically seen in one-on-one coaching, training sessions, and establishing strategies that will encourage engagement. For instance, if a person is strongly motivated by money, this leadership style speaks to creating bonus and/or commission structures or other perks that would have a deep connection to the individual's desire. Meanwhile, if another person's major motivating factor is recognition, individualized consideration would be best seen in constructing an employee of the month award, hand-written thank you cards, an extra-long lunch break, an employee suggestion program, or some sort of visual progress board to showcase contributions ("University of Washington Human Resources", 2016). Further still, if an individual gains satisfaction from having more responsibility and growth at work, options could include experimenting with additional job tasks, doing performance analyses to set up a path for promotion, working with him or her to increase challenges at work, or setting up a mentorship program where that person can learn and gain valuable skills. Through these customization efforts, leaders can easily appeal to the strongest motivating factors of individuals and create an environment that fosters engagement and job satisfaction. Since this aspect of transformational leadership requires getting to know one's employees at a fundamental level to understand what motivates them, there is no shortage of ways to obtain that information. Some ways to access these motivational factors could include partaking in break room chats, performance assessments, getting feedback from team members, and even direct consultations. The greatest error in this category is to assume that all employees will be motivated by money or promotions (Gallo, 2015), or other such sweeping generalizations. Treating each employee individually will foster growth and development for each employee to feel valued while the company grows and develops as well.

In my personal experience, managers that rely on transactional approaches are common in middle management roles. In sales-heavy corporations, managers are often concerned with meeting the standards that are set up daily. Upper management uses optimal daily metrics to drive growth and increase business. This has become the standard operating procedure for businesses to see year over year improvement. However, optimal metrics are just that – they are numbers that reflect the best-case scenario. In a sales environment, salesmen must rely on customer interaction, and closing is not always possible. These metrics can manufacture competitive environments, but they can also increase stress because the overall focus relies so heavily on having that optimal day, every day. On the other hand, the managers that maintain transactional goals but more heavily adopt transformational styles, such as inspiring motivation and applying sales goals to individual employees, foster growth, development, and passion within the team. This model fails to produce the hard data that drive managers' personal objectives such as bonuses or commission payouts. Sales roles require positive emotional interactions with customers and consistently upbeat spirits to face potential rejection and overcome obstacles, and managers that establish environments that encourage passion, camaraderie, and friendly competition provide the tools for support and job satisfaction.

Commented [BAK19]: From Ed:
Ok, but…there are obviously others who might disagree with your interpretations above—you need to provide the flip side—positive aspect of optimal metric or numbers driven managers. Need balance AND THEN you can advocate for one or the other or for the times under which both are positive or negative.

Conclusion

Many of the contemporary approaches to emotion-based leadership are emerging and require significant data to support their assertions. But Joseph and colleagues (2015) beg the question "Is a happy leader a good leader?" Recent studies seem to suggest leadership possesses an emotion-based component. Using the foundation of traditional leadership research along with the integration of modern and contemporary studies provides a more holistic view of leadership and its application. One example of this approach would be using the foundation provided by the leader-member exchange model along with the application of transformational leadership to affect how a subordinate develops and encourage meaningful change beyond a professional capacity. In doing so, a leader could induce long-term change for the individual and, provided the subordinate maintains an active employment status with the company, could impact the long-term company growth and development as well. More importantly, the application of leadership principles provides an inspiring, motivating, and stimulating environment for employees. Providing a supportive, enjoyable place to work is vital, but applying these leadership practices will also inspire the next generation of leaders, which is what being a leader is truly all about.

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