A Handbook of Leadership Styles
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Illustrations ............................................................................................... viii

List of Tables .......................................................................................................... ix

Preface ..................................................................................................................... x

Chapter One .............................................................................................................. 1
Leadership Theories
*D. Mehmet Bickes and Celal Yilmaz*

Chapter Two .......................................................................................................... 35
Leadership versus Management
*Deniz Dirik*

Chapter Three ...................................................................................................... 60
Ethical Leadership
*Ozgur Demirtas, Mustafa Karaca and O. Faruk Derindag*

Chapter Four ....................................................................................................... 84
Transformational Leadership
*O. Faruk Derindag*

Chapter Five ...................................................................................................... 102
Transactional Leadership
*Ufuk Basar, Unsal Sigri and Nejat Basim*

Chapter Six ........................................................................................................... 126
Participative Leadership
*Serdar Yener*

Chapter Seven ..................................................................................................... 149
Servant Leadership
*Ali Bayram and Asli Geylan*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eight</td>
<td>Charismatic Leadership</td>
<td>Coskun Akca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine</td>
<td>Authentic Leadership</td>
<td>E. Gamze Ciftci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten</td>
<td>Spiritual Leadership</td>
<td>Sema Polatci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven</td>
<td>Implicit And Explicit Leadership</td>
<td>Mihriban Cindiloglu Demirer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twelve</td>
<td>Autocratic Leadership</td>
<td>K. Emrah Yildirim, Caner Caki and Yasemin Harmanci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirteen</td>
<td>Democratic Leadership</td>
<td>Inan Eryilmaz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourteen</td>
<td>Resonant Leadership</td>
<td>Erdem Erciyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifteen</td>
<td>Digital Leadership</td>
<td>Bulent Cizmeci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixteen</td>
<td>Cross-Cultural Leadership</td>
<td>Mehmet Canakci and O. Faruk Derindag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventeen</td>
<td>Paternalistic Leadership</td>
<td>Pinar Acar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Eighteen ..................................................................................... 396
Complexity Leadership
Zeynep Eren

Chapter Nineteen ..................................................................................... 429
Coaching Leadership
Gokmen Kara and Ozgur Demirtas

List of Contributors ................................................................................. 453
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1-1 ........................................................................................................... 9
Figure 1-2 ........................................................................................................ 11
Figure 1-3 .................................................................................................... 12
Figure 1-4 .................................................................................................... 15
Figure 1-5 .................................................................................................... 17
Figure 1-6 .................................................................................................... 24
Figure 1-7 .................................................................................................... 25
Figure 2-1 .................................................................................................... 40
Figure 2-2 .................................................................................................... 41
Figure 2-3 .................................................................................................... 54
Figure 6-1 .................................................................................................... 129
Figure 9-1 .................................................................................................. 207
Figure 9-2 .................................................................................................. 212
Figure 9-3 .................................................................................................. 217
Figure 10-1 ............................................................................................... 243
Figure 10-2 ............................................................................................... 244
Figure 10-3 ............................................................................................... 245
Figure 11-1 ............................................................................................... 270
Figure 11-2 ............................................................................................... 281
Figure 13-1 ............................................................................................... 323
Figure 14-1 ............................................................................................... 343
Figure 14-2 ............................................................................................... 344
Figure 14-3 ............................................................................................... 345
Figure 14-4 ............................................................................................... 346
Figure 15-1 ............................................................................................... 356
Figure 15-2 ............................................................................................... 356
Figure 15-3 ............................................................................................... 358
Figure 18-1 ............................................................................................... 417
Figure 18-2 ............................................................................................... 421
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1 ..................................................................................................................... 20
Table 1-2 ..................................................................................................................... 21
Table 2-1 ..................................................................................................................... 42
Table 2-2 ..................................................................................................................... 49
Table 3-1 ..................................................................................................................... 64
Table 3-2 ..................................................................................................................... 68
Table 3-3 ..................................................................................................................... 71
Table 8-1 ..................................................................................................................... 180
Table 8-2 ..................................................................................................................... 181
Table 10-1 ................................................................................................................... 248
Table 11-1 .................................................................................................................. 271
Table 15-1 .................................................................................................................. 358
Table 17-1 .................................................................................................................. 387
Table 18-1 .................................................................................................................. 403
Table 18-2 .................................................................................................................. 410
Table 18-3 .................................................................................................................. 420
One of the main reasons we wrote this book, *Handbook of Leadership Styles*, was to highlight leadership styles in detail. Another reason is that a lot of explanations of leadership styles exist, but there are few books that have gathered these styles together in a detailed manner.

The authors work mostly in the field of organizational behavior and they mostly deal with leadership theory in their courses. Therefore, the book has a strong academic background and it gives extensive suggestions for future research. In addition, the book explains some items for practitioners.

As we discuss in this book, the leadership phenomenon, which embraces the economy, business community, and academia, has always been a popular topic. This vigorous interest led to leadership being one of the most written about and discussed fields in academic and practitioner circles. Unlike other academic fields, everyone has a few words to say about leadership and management, which is a clear indication of how deep the leadership concept is. This broad participation has actually revealed a wealth of leadership, but it also has an impact that makes it difficult to develop more refined and robust theories about leadership.

The leadership capacities of managers play a key role in the success of companies and even countries. Those who will serve as managers must have certain leadership characteristics. Some of these features can be learned, while others are related to one’s character.

In fact, one of the most important elements of leadership is the value and authority of the position in the eyes of the followers. The transformation of the economy, our habits, and our mindsets make the transformation of the leaders inevitable. New challenges and emerging needs require new leadership approaches. These leadership approaches can work for a certain time depending on the specific situation and the social climate. However, irresistible factors such as competition, technology, and digital transformation require new leadership approaches and make the transition between existing leadership styles more apparent than ever.

We now live in a world where one or a few leadership approaches cannot be presented as a recipe to organizations. This multi-layered ecosystem surrounding us increases the need for multidimensional leadership styles but also emphasizes the need for new leadership styles.
Therefore, it is not difficult to predict that leaders in charge of managing organizations and teams today will have to acquire new capabilities in the near future. The change in the classical business and workplace model, the fact that information becomes more valuable than the power of production and that it is more difficult to capture consumers in multi-layered channels shape the expectations of the leaders more sharply.

In order to better comprehend the organic link between styles of leadership, this book deals with almost all the leadership models to date and thus demonstrates how dynamic the leadership actually is. This book is an essential and extensive one-point reference for academics and practitioners that combines all classical and contemporary types of leadership styles in the same source.

Ozgur DEMIRTAS
CHAPTER ONE
LEADERSHIP THEORIES

D. MEHMET BICKES¹ AND CELAL YILMAZ²

Abstract
Organizations need a leader who has the required characteristics and skills to sustain their existence, to grow and develop and to achieve their goals. Leadership is the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts and influencing others to achieve common goals. Leadership represents a process, while the leader refers to an individual. A leader can be defined as an individual who changes the paradigms of people, creates a vision, motivates followers with internal resources, engrains the idea that everyone has something to contribute to the shared goal, leads them and directly affects the flow of events and results. When the literature is examined, many studies on leaders and leadership exist, and the common purpose of these studies is to reveal facts and models about effective leaders and leadership. Many models have been developed on a theoretical basis to find an answer to the question of what makes leadership effective. In this section, within this scope, the nature, philosophy and terms of leadership are discussed. Thereafter, the basic theories of leadership, the theory of traits, behavioral leadership theories and situational leadership theories are examined. Finally, several implications and some suggestions for future research are provided for scientists, practitioners and others who are interested in leadership.

Introduction
Leadership a subject that has attracted the attention of people for centuries [1]. The term “leadership” refers to images of powerful and dynamic

¹ Assoc. Prof., Nevsehir Hacı Bektas University, dmbickes@nevsehir.edu.tr
² Ph.D., Nevsehir Hacı Bektas University, cyilmaz@nevsehir.edu.tr
individuals who command victorious armies, manage corporate empires from the top of glittering skyscrapers or shape the future of nations. The outstanding achievements of brave and intelligent leaders are the essence of many legends and myths. Historical descriptions are full of stories of military, political, social and religious leaders who are acclaimed for or accused of important historical events, although it is unclear what effects the leaders have on the emergence and development of those events [2]. Comments about leaders and leadership are first seen in the books of Confucius (Analects), Lao-Tzu (Tao Te Ching) and Sun Tzu (The Art of War), dating back to the sixth century BC [3].

Leadership, in parallel with developments, has become the most critical factor of organizational success or failure in every period of history [4]. Recent developments in the factors affecting business life have transformed basic dynamics such as competition. In this process, social, human, and psychological capital types built on the human elements have come to the fore, whereas the physical capital types, traditional competition tools, though insufficient, are necessary for competition [5].

Lucas [6] clarifies that the types of capital focusing on the human elements have a two-way effect on productivity—internal influence, which refers to an increase in an individual’s own business performance, and external influence, which points to the increase of productivity in other production factors shaped and managed by humans. In an organization, it is possible to divide the human elements into two groups as leaders and followers. Leaders stand out of the two groups as they have a decisive power on employees’ perceptions, attitudes and behaviors [7] and implicitly on organizational success. This fact is emphasized by Mihalcea [8] as “the basic condition for the effective management of social, political, economic and national structures or to achieve organizational aims, is to have a leader with a high ability to adapt to environmental conditions.” Otherwise, various problems can arise, such as avoiding goals and facing vital risks when non-merit leaders are effective in the decision-making mechanisms of organizations.

The leadership phenomenon has been of intense interest to humankind in every period of history. Bass [4] attributes this interest to the fact that leadership is a universal activity for humanity and animals and vital for effective organizational and social functioning. On the other hand, Wice [9] attributes this common interest in and admiration for leadership to the fact that it is a mysterious process, that nonetheless has a role in everyone’s life. Systematic social scientific studies on leadership only began in the 1900s; however, the phenomenon of leadership has long existed and has attracted considerable attention [10]. When the literature is
viewed, many studies on leaders and leadership can be found, and the common purpose of these studies is to determine how a leader could be more effective and successful. Many models have been developed to find an answer to this question on a theoretical basis. Ladkin [11] compares each theory to “a piece of the leadership puzzle.” Therefore, it is possible to argue that each developed theory and leadership style is a kind of light that reveals an unknown part of the subject. The literature shows that the development of leadership theories follows a chronological development parallel to the evolution of management approaches [12]. When the idea of classical management was developed in the early 1900s, the theory of traits, suggesting that leaders with certain individual traits are more effective than others, emerged. In the 1940s, when the neoclassical approach dominated managerial philosophy, behavioral leadership theories linking the effectiveness of a leader to particular behaviors during the leadership process appeared. After the 1960s, when modern approaches dominated managerial philosophy, situational leadership theories—that assert that leadership depends on a combination of circumstances—gained importance.

These theories are the main theme of this chapter. The aim is to provide information about leadership terms and leadership theories to students and academicians in this field and to practitioners or people interested in theology, politics, civil society, military, sports and social life in terms of leadership.

Within this framework, first, the terms “leader” and “leadership” are particularly discussed. Then the basic theories, traits, and behavioral and situational leadership theories are scrutinized.

1. Leadership Terms

The complex nature of leadership makes it impossible to achieve a specific and common definition [12]. Fiedler [13] and Stogdill [14] state that the existing number of leadership definitions is as many as the number of psychologists working in the field. The reason for this abundance lies in the individual perspectives of researchers and the characteristics of the phenomena they are interested in [2]. In addition, although it has been studied for many years, this area has not yet been fully formed [15]. Most of the hundreds of leadership definitions [4] to date deal with one or more of the following: goal achievement, the group or organization, its structure, and interpersonal relationships [16]. This situation, which stands out in the definitions, shows a strong relationship between leadership and organization. Briefly, leadership exists in all organizations [17].
The word “leadership” is divided into three sections: “lead,” “-er” and “-ship.” The first part, “lead,” means being a pioneer or taking the first place. The second part, “-er,” refers to a person who performs a role or function or undertakes a responsibility. The last part, “-ship,” as in “scholarship,” refers to a skill, ability or art [18]. Based on this interpretation, leadership can be defined as determining a path that a group will follow, leading a group to reach a goal and owning the required skill set to mobilize followers with intrinsic motivation.

Some theorists consider leadership as the role expertise of individuals, while others consider it a shared process among members [19]. Groon [20] identifies the first group of theorists’ conceptualizations as “focused leadership” and the second group of theorists’ definitions as “distributed leadership.” Northouse [21] and Waters [22], two of the theorists in the first group, define leadership as a process in which an individual affects a group of people to achieve a common goal. Similarly, Rue and Byars [23] define leadership as pursuing leader guidance willingly or an ability to persuade others to take over the decisions. Leadership in another source is considered to be the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to achieve common goals and influencing others [24]. Gibb defines the leader as the person in the group who has a higher ability to influence others more effectively. However, the results of his empirical research on leadership in groups disprove this definition. The results reveal that the influence, which is accepted as leadership in the realization of any work, is not limited to one person but moves within the group, depending on various task stages [11]. Groon [20–25] uses the “socially distributed activity theory” to explain how leadership is conceptualized. This theory argues that it is possible to monitor the movement of leadership among individuals who focus on the ideal of realizing shared goals, focusing on how networks of interaction serve for it and what is done to achieve tasks. This perspective reveals the following three facts about leadership [11]:

- Leadership emerges as a process from the experience of individuals working together.
- Leadership is not fixed for a single individual or an appointed “leader.” It moves predictably within groups of people.
- Leaders perform their duties invisibly and guide the conduct of activities without instructions and without specifying the source.

Leadership is a phenomenon that exists with the approval of the followers, not the individual’s own claim. In this sense, Day [26] considers leadership as a socio-perceptual phenomenon and states that it is “in the eyes of beholders.” Lord and Maher [27] express leadership as the process
Leadership Theories

5

It is clear that leadership is defined using various aspects such as traits, leader behavior, interaction models, role relationships, follower perceptions, impact on followers, impact on task objectives and impact on organizational culture in the literature [28]. The concept is built on an influence process no matter what perspective it is dealt with. However, it is a fact that the leaders differ significantly from one another in terms of the purpose of impact initiatives, implementation and process. In this sense, Yukl [19] argues that varieties in the definitions emerge not only from academic rigor but also from deep divisions in defining leadership and explaining its process among the scientists studying this area.

Although various definitions of leadership exist, they have several common elements, such as influence, follower and vision [29–30]. One of the most important elements is influence, a key component of being a leader. Thus, Hogan et al. [31] describe leadership as persuading and do not see leadership as dominating with power and commanding others. The second common element is followers. Leadership that creates trust, integrity and synergy for the group, as well as organizational and social success, is plural because the meaningful existence of the leader depends on the existence of the followers [32]. Blake and Mouton [33] define leadership as the process of achieving goals through the contributions of others. In this definition, it is emphasized that it is possible to reach the aim only by the joint efforts of related people within and outside the organization. In other words, no leader can achieve the goals set on their own. The third common element is vision. Leaders have a vision of how the organization will establish a better future and inspire their followers to pursue the vision. Meticulously prepared visions are future-oriented, attractive, powerful, success-oriented, inspiring, convincing and accessible [34]. Vroom and Joga [29] list the common features of leadership definitions as follows:

- Leadership is not a property owned by a person but a process.
- The process involves a special form of influence called motivation.
- The nature of intrinsic or extrinsic incentives is not part of the definition.
- The ultimate goal of the influence is to create collaboration to pursue a common goal.
- “Great things” occur in the minds of the leader and followers. They do not have to be desirable to all other parties.

As mentioned above, leadership refers to a process, while the leader is a person. Allio [3] lists the main functions of leaders as clarifying goals and
values, determining directions, creating communities and managing change. In other words, leaders should develop a well-organized vision, a viable strategy, a focused plan and a measurable implementation process within the framework of a strategic management approach, and they should continuously monitor the environment and ensure compliance when doing all these activities and tasks. The term “leader,” within the framework of explanations, refers to the person who changes the paradigms of people, creates a vision, motivates followers with internal resources, engrains the idea that everyone has something to contribute to the shared goal, leads them and directly affects the flow of events and results.

2. Leadership Theories

When the literature is examined, it is seen that many studies have been conducted to determine the basic dynamics of effective and successful leadership, and many models have been developed on the theoretical basis [35]. Leadership theories follow a chronological development parallel to the evolution of management approaches [12]. These theories are listed and explained below in chronological order:

- Trait theory
- Behavioral leadership theories
- Situational leadership theories

2.1. Trait Theory

The theory of traits states that there are some characteristics that distinguish the leader from the followers [36]. Basically, there are four types of research to determine what these characteristics are [2]. The first type of research attempts to explore the characteristics and skills that a person needs who will pursue a leadership career or as an informal leader in a group. In some studies, the leader is compared with the non-leaders in terms of characteristics and skills. Other studies focus on determining the characteristics and skills of those who emerge as leaders in problem-solving processes. The second type of research aims to determine the role of talents and characteristics in the success of a leader in his current position. The third type of research is a long-term study that takes several years to determine the talents and characteristics of leading candidates who deserve to rise to a higher position. The fourth type of research aims to compare successful leaders. In these studies, the differences and similarities between managers who reach the top and the talents and
characteristics of managers who could not progress in their careers because of early retirement or plateauing (lack of chance for further development) are investigated.

When considering the early studies in this theory, it is seen that characteristics such as intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, energy, task knowledge and diligence are among the characteristics of a successful leader [37]. In later studies, the characteristics traditionally associated with a leader include intelligence, endurance, stability and vision [38]. However, when the studies conducted within the scope of the Trait Theory are examined, it is obvious that the list of leader characteristics is gradually increasing [36, 37]. While some studies focus on characteristics, ranging from physical properties (height, weight, etc.) to personalities, some studies have expanded the range of traits to include handwriting styles. Thus, it is clear that no consensus exists about effective leader traits in the literature [12–36] and that the traits of a successful leader may vary according to the position [39]. Nevertheless, also observed in the literature are several efforts to identify the major characteristics that distinguish a successful leader from the followers and to shorten the increasingly lengthy trait list. In one of these studies, the leading characteristics are listed in eight topics: intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, wisdom/insight, initiative, responsibility, consistency of problem solving, self-confidence and sociability [40]. In another study, it is reduced to five, namely, intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociality [18]. Although no clear consensus exists on the characteristics of a successful leader, many scientists, but not all, agree on these four traits: intelligence, maturity and breadth, success motivation and integrity [39].

Leaders with significant and distinctive characteristics and talents can be successful in one case and may not be in another. Therefore, success cannot be guaranteed by the characteristics [2]. For this reason, interest in this approach had disappeared for a long period. However, it has recently been replaced by a renewed “interest” [37]. In these studies, researchers aim to add a limited number of characteristics to the leadership literature. Among these characteristics, emotional intelligence, drive, motivation, honesty, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, business knowledge and charisma are discussed [37]. According to Yukl [2], specific characteristics related to effective leadership are “high energy level and stress tolerance, internal locus of control orientation, emotional maturity, personal integrity, socialized motivation power, moderately high achievement orientation, moderately high self-confidence and moderately low need for affiliation.” In addition, the author states that five major personality traits (extroversion, responsibility, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience)
and managerial competences (emotional intelligence, social intelligence and learning ability) play a role in leadership achievement. Similarly, according to Goleman [38] and Goffee and Jones [41], emotional intelligence plays a critical role in effective leadership among these attributes. A leader with a high level of emotional intelligence will become a more effective leader. In other words, the most effective leaders are those with emotional intelligence, along with other traits. This is because emotionally intelligent leaders are equipped with self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

2.2. Behavioral Leadership Theories

Trait theory studies that had lasted for more than twenty years from the 1940s to the mid-1960s were not able to explain fully the reasons behind a successful leader and led to the behavioral leadership approach [12–36]. Studies on this approach aim at determining the most appropriate leadership type and their typical behaviors [12, 36, 37]. Within the scope of the behavioral leadership approach, the three most well-known studies in this section—Ohio State University leadership research, Michigan State leadership research and Blake and Mouton’s management style matrix [40-42]—are discussed.

2.2.1. Ohio State University Leadership Research

This study was conducted through a survey in both military organizations and enterprises [37]. The research focused on how a leader acts when he or she starts to lead a group of employees [36]. Although several behaviors have been identified in the process of this research, two types of leader behaviors—consideration behavior and initiating-structure behavior—came into prominence [37]. This model is depicted in Fig. 1-1.
Leadership Theories

Consideration behavior. Leaders demonstrating consideration behavior have a human-centered sense of leadership [34]. They understand the ideas and feelings of their followers and exhibit behaviors showing that they are interested in them. They strive for mutual trust [36, 37]. Leaders with a high level of consideration behavior take care to establish a warm, empathic relationship with their followers and mutual trust in their interpersonal relations [34]. They actively listen to their followers, investigate what their capacities are and make suggestions to their followers in dealing with important issues and problems [50]. Leaders who adopt this behavior to a high level create high job satisfaction and reduce the intention to leave.

Initiating-structure behavior. Leaders who exhibit this type of behavior at a high level define the roles and tasks of the followers, make clear what they expect from them and exhibit task-oriented behaviors [37]. These leaders develop and monitor schedules that indicate when work should be completed. They make clear what needs to be done without caring about the followers’ suggestions and ideas [34]. They criticize inadequate work and sometimes exhibit harsh attitudes and behavior. They often emphasize the importance of completing the work on time and make new suggestions for solving problems [36]. In cases where there is uncertainty, a moderate
display of initiating-structure behavior results in good business performance. On the other hand, leaders with a low-level initiating-structure behavior leave their followers to determine the tasks and the completion time of the work. An excessive display of such leadership behavior leads to the intention to leave, increasing complaints and decreasing job satisfaction [34].

As depicted in Fig. 1-1, the Ohio State University leadership studies suggest that two behavioral dimensions will lead to four different leadership styles in terms of behavior. These styles are as follows: i-leaders, who exhibit a low initiating structure and high consideration behavior; ii-leaders, who build a high initiating structure and show low consideration behavior; iii-leaders, who have both low levels of initiating structure and consideration behavior; and iv-leaders, who have both high levels of initiating structure and consideration behavior [36, 37]. According to the research, leaders who have both high levels of initiating structure and consideration behavior, rather than other combinations, have more positive business outcomes [34–36]. However, the results of a study conducted by International Harvester (Navistar Corporation) show that followers can exhibit high performance but low job satisfaction under the management of leaders with high initiating-structure behavior. Followers display lower performance but have fewer absences from work under the management of leaders with high consideration behavior [37].

2.2.2. Michigan State Leadership Research

These studies aimed to determine leadership behaviors behind successful group performance [37]. The Michigan State surveys were conducted through interviews with managers and followers who had high and low effectiveness in various enterprises. The leadership behaviors of successful leaders and less successful leaders were analyzed, and what behaviors made leaders more effective than others were investigated [37]. The research shows two types of leadership behaviors: job-oriented and employee-oriented [34, 36, 37]. The related leadership model is depicted in Fig. 1-2. The Michigan State studies suggest that a successful leader cannot display both leadership behaviors at the same time [37].
Leadership Theories

Figure 1-2 Michigan State leadership studies [37].

Job-oriented leadership behavior. This type of leader prefers to spend a lot of time on work and tasks rather than their followers’ needs [36]. These leaders set targets based on reasonable performance and focus on work rather than employees. As they ignore the workplace social system, they prioritize the work being done on time and put time pressure on their followers. They also monitor their followers closely, explain their work procedures and pay more attention to performance [34–37].

In the Michigan State leadership studies, it was found that productivity was high in organizations where job-oriented leadership was adopted. On the other hand, negative results such as poor follower attitudes were observed, leading to high turnover or absence from work, less group commitment and low levels of trust between the parties [34].

Employee-oriented leadership behavior. This type of leader prioritizes the needs of their followers and provides more support to them. These leaders consider their workplace as a social system and focus more on their followers and their personal accomplishments. They determine performance expectations by taking the views of the followers and then set targets requiring high performance. In organizations where employee-oriented leadership is adopted, it is seen that group performance is higher [34].

2.2.3. Blake and Mouton’s Management Grid

Blake and Mouton, as with the Ohio State and Michigan State studies, categorize leadership behavior with two main dimensions: concern for people (consideration behavior, job-oriented) and concern for production (initiating-structure behavior, employee-oriented) [35–44]. Blake and Mouton [45], using both dimensions, formed a $9 \times 9$ matrix to explain leadership behavior (Fig. 1-3).
Concern for output (production), on the horizontal axis, and concern for people, on the vertical axis, serve as the two main leadership behaviors. In the matrix, the first position means that the focus is at the minimum level, and the ninth position shows that the focus is at the maximum level. Five leadership styles have been identified according to where they are located in the $9 \times 9$ matrix, between the highest people-oriented and output-oriented (production) positions [18, 24, 40].
Leadership Theories

Impoverished leadership. The leader with this style, expressed in position (1,1), exhibits low levels of concern for people and for output. In other words, this leader is not interested in establishing a relationship network or in the completion of works. The insensitive nature of the leader causes the followers to be indifferent to success and not to make any effort.

Country club leadership. The leader displaying this style, expressed in matrix position (1,9), has a low level of concern for output and a high level of concern for people. Such leaders focus on building a friendly business environment by focusing on people’s attitudes, feelings and social needs rather than completing the task. Therefore, tasks are in the second plan.

Authority-obedience leadership. The leader expressed in position (9,1) exhibits a high level of concern for output and a low level of concern for people. Such leaders dictate tasks and duties to their followers almost without emotion. According to such leaders, the completion of tasks is always in the first plan.

Middle-of-the-road leadership/organizational leadership. The leader expressed in (5,5) exhibits moderate concern for people and output. Such leaders attempt to balance concern for people and concern for output. However, the results are not optimal because it is argued that group capacity may be much higher, although they are working for success.

Team leadership. In this style, expressed in matrix position (9,9), the leader exhibits a high level of concern for both output and people. In addition, they focus not only on the achievement of organizational goals but also on having a good working environment and good relations among all employees. It is considered to be the most effective leadership style in the matrix.

2.3. Situational Leadership Theories

In the theory of traits, the particular characteristics that define successful leadership are determined. In behavioral leadership studies, ideal leadership behavior is determined, which will be effective in every situation [36]. However, the literature states that neither the theory of traits nor behavioral leadership theories provide satisfactory explanations for leadership effectiveness in organizations [34]. Solely focusing on traits and behaviors to determine the best leadership style means ignoring the situation of the followers and the organization [24, 40, 46]. As a result, studies conducted within the framework of a behavioral approach for more than twenty years have failed to provide a single ideal type of leadership effectiveness for each situation and condition. This results in new
approaches focusing on situational factors in leadership effectiveness, and situational leadership theory began to emerge in the 1960s [12, 35, 36]. The situational leadership approach argues that leadership characteristics and behaviors should act together with situational varieties to assume results. According to this approach, the acquired characteristics are significant with leaders’ interests in their situational circumstances.

Numerous situational leadership models have been developed by various scientists. Some main models are explained in this chapter.

2.3.1. Fiedler’s Contingency Theory of Leadership

Fiedler [47] has performed many studies on leadership and group performance for many years and combined the results into a theoretical formulation. This formulation is also known as Fiedler’s Situational Leadership Model. This model argues that the contribution of the leader to group performance depends on the form of leadership and the level of compliance with situational circumstances [24]. Thus, the theory suggests that a leader is effective in one case or organization and not in another. In addition, the theory explains the reasons for this difference and defines the leader–situation matches that result in effective performance [37]. Namely, it is possible to view the model in three stages: identification of leadership styles, the definition of situations and match between leader and situation.

Identification of leadership style. Fiedler has developed “the least-preferred coworker (LPC) scale,” which measures whether the leader is business-oriented or relationship-oriented [48]. Through this scale, the participant is asked to identify the person with whom she/he has found it the most difficult to work [49]. A set of eighteen short bipolar items, which are composed of opposite adjectives scaled from one to eight (friendly to unfriendly, pleasant to unpleasant) to determine the style of any leaders, is presented [50]. Two of the bipolar scale items are given as examples below (Fig. 1-4). As seen from the examples of the scale items, a leader with a high LPC score is defined as a person with relatively positive attributes, whereas a leader with a low LPC score refers to a person with more negative attributes. Thus, the former is called relationship oriented, and the latter is called task oriented [50].
Leadership Theories

Fiedler’s theory assumes that the individual’s leadership style is stable. A leader has either task-oriented or relationship-oriented behavior [34]. Relationship-oriented leaders pay attention to the harmony and bilateral relations among the group members and care about the emotions of others. They also expect active participation of group members in decision making processes and a contribution to development with their ideas and suggestions. Task-oriented leaders care about task completion and are satisfied with tangible achievements. They direct the group members with orders to complete the work, and they care little about their personal needs and problems. These leaders prefer to work in jobs where tasks are standard and clearly defined [34, 51, 52].

**Defining the situation.** After determining the basic leadership style of the individual depending on the LPC scale, an assessment of the match between the leader and the situation is performed. Fiedler [50] argues that situational favorableness is characterized by leader-member relations, task structure and position power.

**Leader-member relations.** The relationship between the leader and the member means the degree of trust and commitment of the followers to the leader. If the followers respect, trust and favor their leaders, the leaders will have more power and influence in their relationship with their followers [51]. A leader perceived as attractive and respected by the members of the group will have significant power and need less official authorization [47].

**Task structure.** Task structure expresses the level of a clear definition of policies, regulations, rules and job descriptions [53]. Highly structured, clearly defined and programmed tasks give the leader much more influence and power than unclear, undefined and unstructured tasks [51]. In an environment where unstructured tasks exist, leaders must rely on their own resources to inspire and motivate their followers [47].

**Position power.** Position power officially or traditionally refers to the leader’s rewards and punishments, the group’s rules and regulations and

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpleasant</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1-4 Fiedler’s least-preferred coworker scale [48].**

---

Unfriendly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpleasant</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the followers’ organizational support, which are specified according to the leader’s authority [47]. In short, position power reflects the official authority of leaders [34]. Leaders will have more power and influence if their position authorizes them to reward, recruit and dismiss an employee or a follower. Therefore, position power will increase as the leader reaches higher positions in the hierarchy [51]. Fiedler, using this set of classification factors, has developed a taxonomy for the interaction of task groups (Fig. 1-5). The theoretical assumption is that these groups require different leadership behaviors to exhibit effective leadership [53].

**Match between situation and leader.** Each of the elements characterizes an appropriate situation and are classified as positive or negative. This leads to an eight-cell classification on the horizontal axis of Fig. 1-5. The vertical axis represents the correlation between the leader LPC score and the group performance score [51]. The model argues that the individual’s LPC score should be matched to eight proper situations to achieve maximum leadership effectiveness [48]. As a result, the leaders who exhibit task-oriented behavior are more successful in the situations in cells I, II, III and VIII, and the leaders who show relationship-oriented behavior are more successful in the situations in cells IV, V, VI and VII [47]. Later, Fiedler [54] reduced these eight cells to three. The positive median correlation shows that relationship-oriented leaders with high LPC perform better than task-oriented leaders with low LPC scores. On the other hand, the negative median correlation means that task-oriented leaders are better than relationship-oriented leaders. While both task- and relationship-oriented leaders perform well under some situations, they cannot perform well under others. Thus, leadership effectiveness depends on the appropriate match between task structure and situational control [50].
Leadership Theories

Figure 1-5 Findings from Fiedler’s model [48].

Fiedler’s model assumes that a leader cannot be effective in all situations. Instead, he argues that people with appropriate styles for each situation should lead [40]. Fiedler points out that organizations cannot easily and reliably find leaders who are in line with their own situation and that leadership training designed to change leaders is ineffective since individuals have stable leadership styles. According to him, what should be done is to change the situation to suit the leader’s leadership behavior. Finally, he states that a leader could be trained to understand his own leadership style and learn how to successfully change the situation to fit with his own style [34].

2.3.2. House’s Path-Goal Theory

This theory was first submitted in 1971 and is based on the path-goal hypothesis proposed by Georgopolous et al. [55] and Vroom’s [56] expectancy theory of motivation [57]. House revised his path-goal theory in 1996 [58]. This theory focuses on the situation and leader behavior.
rather than on the stable traits of leaders. In contrast to Fiedler’s contingency theory, the path-goal theory suggests that leaders could easily adapt to different situations [37]. The theory attaches great importance to the day to day interactions between the leader and the follower and strengthens the responsibility of helping leaders find the appropriate path to achieve their organizational goals efficiently and effectively [58]. The path-goal theory argues that followers will be motivated to the extent that leader behavior affects their expectations. As is understood from the explanations, the path-goal theory suggests two assumptions about leadership behavior [59]:

- Leader behavior is acceptable to the extent that it is regarded as a direct source of satisfaction for followers or as a tool for satisfaction in a future period.
- Leader behaviors are motivated to the extent that they meet the needs of their followers in relation to their effective performance and provide the support, guidance, coaching and rewards they need for effective performance and create a suitable atmosphere.

House identified four leadership behaviors as directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented [58].

*Directive leader behavior*. Directive leader behavior assures the followers know the expectations from them by planning and coordinating work, providing specific guidance and psychological structure and clarifying policies, procedures and rules [59]. Directive leaders set out strict performance standards for their followers [37].

*Supportive leader behavior*. Supportive leader behavior focuses on sub-needs and preferences such as showing concern for the well-being of the followers and creating a friendly and psychologically supportive work environment. Supportive leader behavior refers to a source of self-confidence and social satisfaction as well as a source of stress reduction and frustration alleviation for followers [59]. In addition, supportive leaders attach great importance to the needs and well-being of followers [60].

*Participative leader behavior*. In this leadership behavior, the leader asks for and uses the followers’ suggestions; however, the leader makes the decisions. It is stated that participative leader behavior has four effects [59]. The first of these effects is to clarify “the path-goal relationship concerning effort and work-goal attainment and work-goal attainment and extrinsic rewards.” The second is to increase the harmony between the individual goals of the followers and organizational goals. The third is to increase the ability and autonomy of the subordinates to achieve their