

Examining Leadership as a Psychological Process: Can Effective Leadership Be Predicted?

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APPROVAL

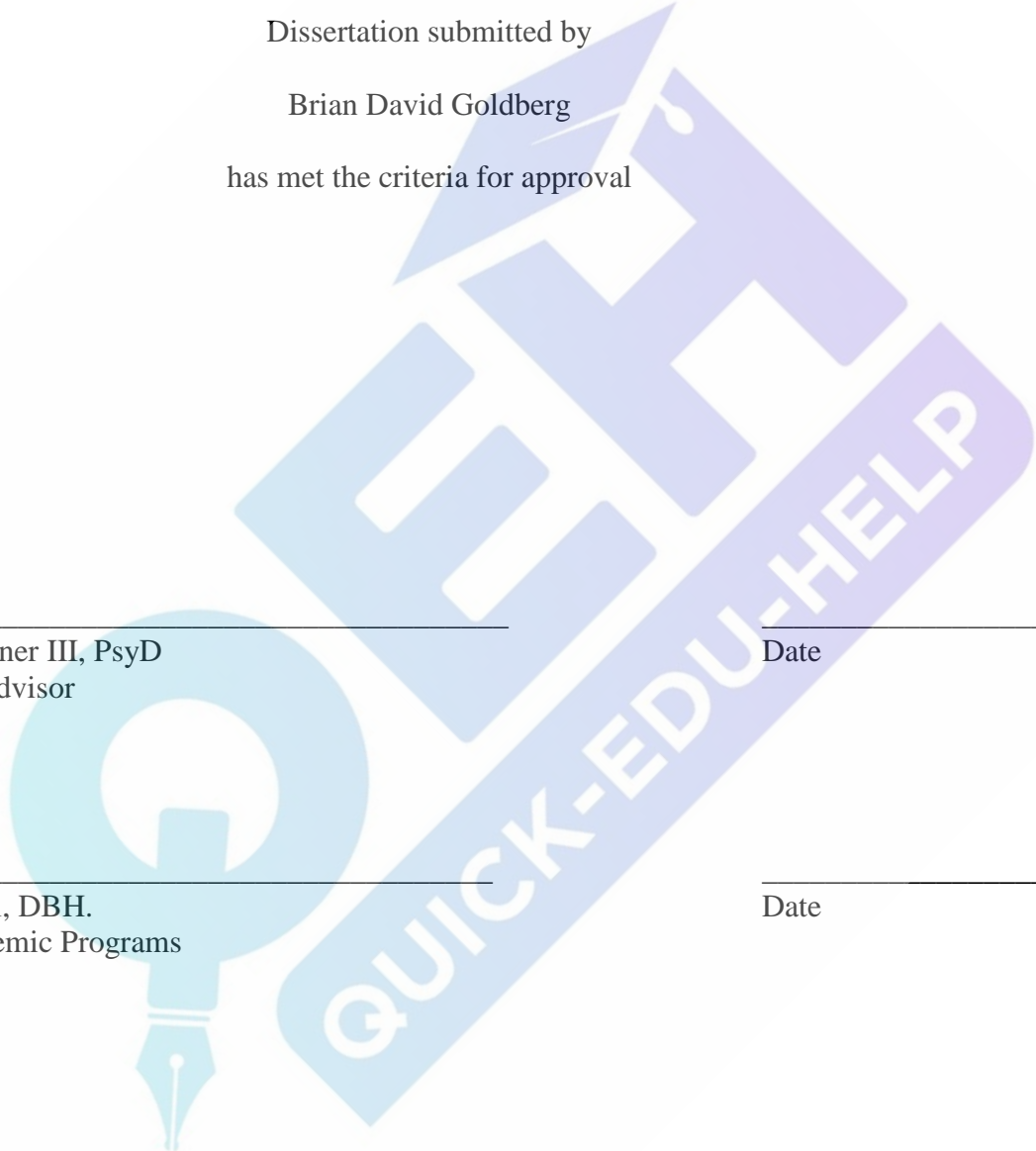
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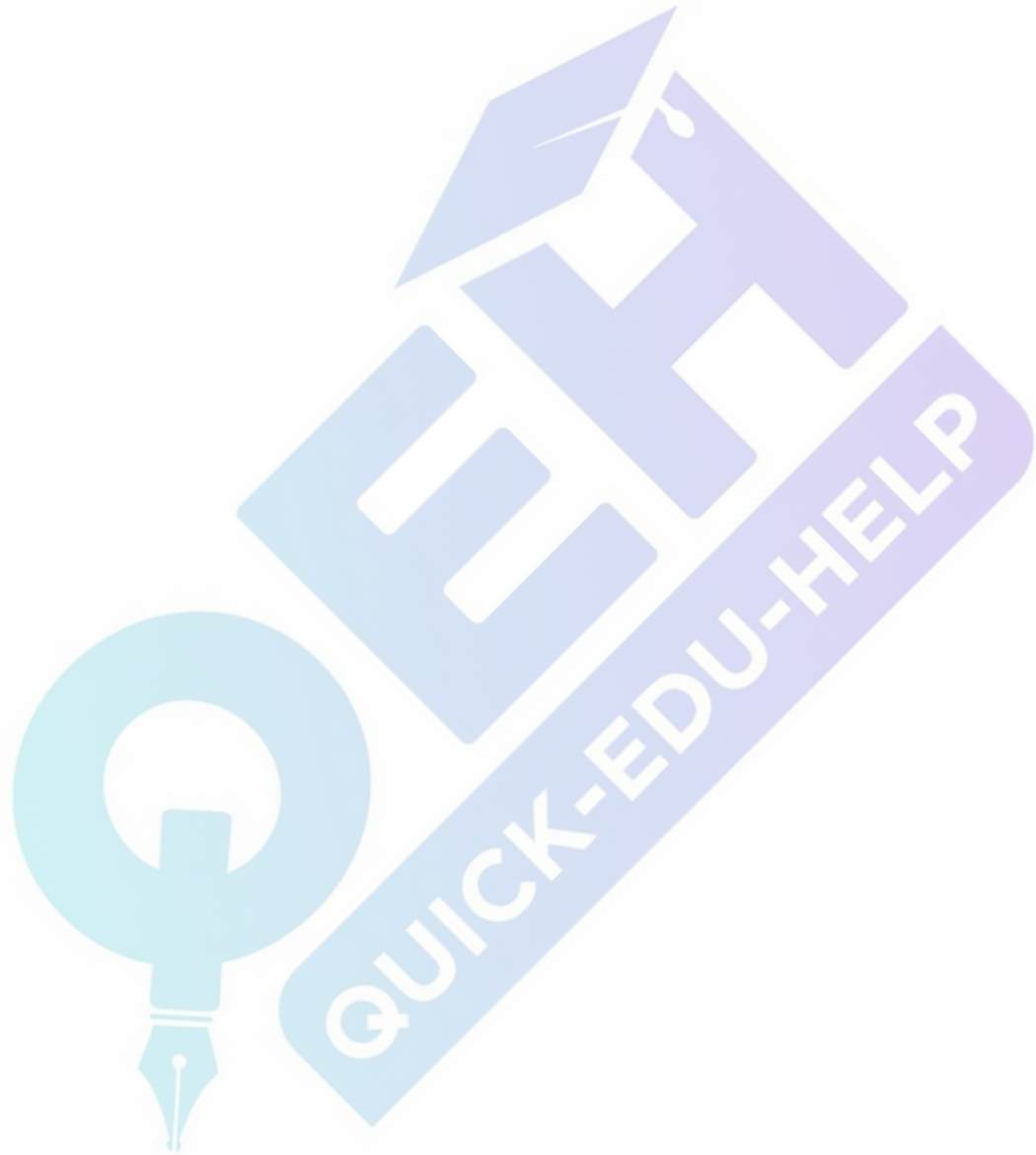
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DEDICATION

To my wife, Eleonora Kawka Goldberg, PhD and my children Sophia, Esther and Ariel. Without your support and encouragement, I would not be where I am today.



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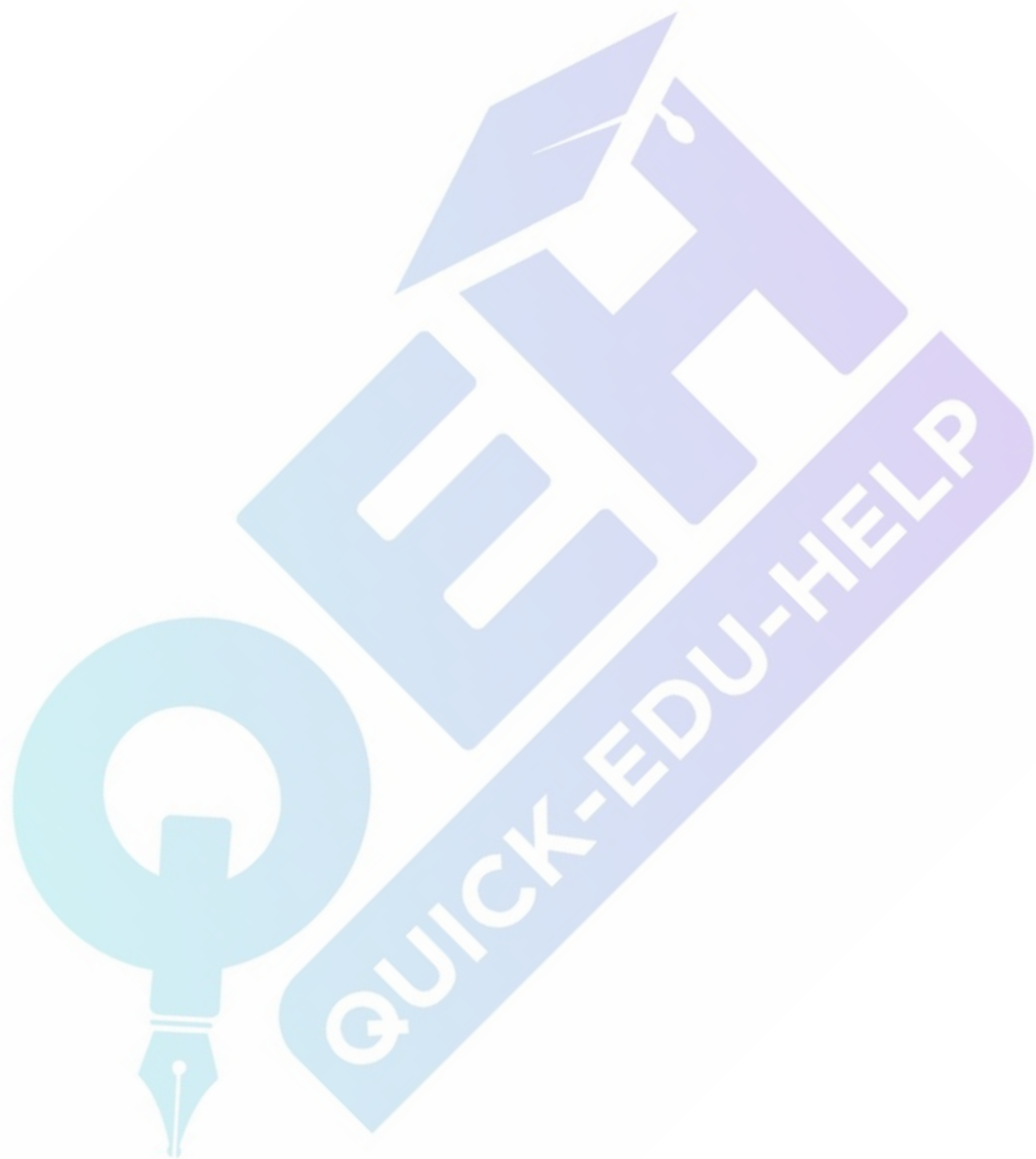
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine major leadership theories as psychological processes to determine whether such analyses can contribute to a prediction of effective leadership (Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2016). The concept of leadership has been widely covered across diverse social science fields of study (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Initial leadership studies focused on exploring the heritable attributes that can be used to differentiate effective leaders from non-leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Blake & Mouton, 1964). These studies were based on the use of trait paradigms to explain leadership effectiveness. The trait paradigm looks at factors such as gender, personality, and intelligence and how these traits influence leadership effectiveness (Hartnell, Yi Ou, & Kinicki, 2011). However, prior studies of leadership effectiveness based on trait paradigms received significant criticism, thereby prompting scholars to explore beyond leader traits and investigate how leaders' behavioral patterns can predict effectiveness (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003; Cavazotte, Moreno, & Hickmann, 2012). Consequently, examining the role of behavior in predicting leadership effectiveness led to the development of a behavior paradigm, which characterizes several leadership theories and provides a basis for conducting such inquiries in leadership research (Dabke, 2016). Recently researchers started to look at leadership within the psychological context that paved the way to a new stream of research studies.

Leadership studies within the psychological context have indicated that personal characteristics, including abilities, skills, demographics, and personality traits may have potential impact in predicting leadership effectiveness (Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015; Bolden et al., 2003). An exploration of leadership as a psychological process can play a significant role in determining

how organizational psychology and different theoretical perspectives can be used to predict effective leadership (Odoardi, Montani, Boudrias, & Battistelli, 2015; Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, & Wu, 2014). In a study of leadership within the psychological perspective, leadership effectiveness is based on three levels: content, analysis level, and evaluation target (Judge, Bono, Iliel, & Gerhardt, 2002). The leadership content is associated with task performance, including group and individual performance. Within this realm, content can also encompass relational and affective criteria as well, which include satisfaction with leadership and overall leadership judgment (Colbert, Barrick, & Bradley, 2014). Leadership judgment integrates the relational and task components of leadership effectiveness (Davenport & Manville, 2012). Lastly, the evaluation target involves examining leadership effectiveness based on the leader as a target. For example, the leader is evaluated for competence or any other important outcome within the leadership effectiveness domain, such as group performance (Judge et al., 2002). As such, this dissertation was guided by parameters laid out by research related to the behavioral paradigm and sought to synthesize trait theories and theories based on personal characteristics as a tool to explore leadership as a psychological process that can predict effective leadership.

In this dissertation, I will explore how behavioral paradigms, trait theories and personality characteristics based theories can be synthesized to explore the psychology of effective leadership. In Chapter 1, I introduced the topic of whether psychological factors will impact effective leadership. In chapter 2, I will describe the methodology used for the study. In chapter 3, I will provide a literature review of relevant findings. In chapter 4, I will discuss the findings, followed by conclusions and recommendations for future research in chapter 5.

Chapter 2: Methodology

Rationale for Research Method

The appropriate methodology for this dissertation was a qualitative research methodology. A qualitative methodology is used when there is need to make sense of a worldview or how individuals perceive culture, history, personal experiences, socioeconomic status, and community or organizational dynamics in a different manner (Leedy & Ormond, 2010; Polit & Beck, 2010). In connection to this study, the objective was geared towards understanding the concept of leadership as a psychological process and its effectiveness for predicting leadership effectiveness.

Qualitative methodology is also appropriate when the researcher seeks to understand a phenomenon, such as the phenomenon of leadership itself and leadership effectiveness (Moretti et al., 2011). Furthermore, qualitative research seeks to produce exhaustive and detailed accounts that present the natural reality where the concerned population interacts (Urquart, Lehman, & Myers, 2010). This can be accomplished through personal interviews, examination of documents, and thorough observations of the participants' actions and behavior in the concerned setting. For this study, examination of documents was conducted.

Qualitative research provides a means to investigate groups or individuals with respect to an identified social problem (Hodges, 2011). According to Horrocks and King (2010), qualitative approaches have two things in common. First, they include phenomena that occur within a participant's natural setting (Horrocks, & King, 2010). Then, there is the study of the phenomena that provides all aspects of the phenomena, including the difficulties and pleasant perspectives (Horrocks, & King, 2010). Generally, a qualitative approach most appropriately studies human events, interpersonal relationships, and social structures that advance the mission,

vision, and goals of organizations in social settings (Nielsen, 2011). Qualitative research questions begin with how and what, allowing researchers to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Leedy & Ormond, 2010).

Qualitative studies often are not generalized; however, such studies have redeeming qualities that set them above other forms of research designs (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). The research value of qualitative studies is based on the participant's responses in context to the research questions (Parker, 2014). Considering the abovementioned qualities and aims of qualitative studies, a qualitative study was appropriate for the current study with the purpose of understanding the concept of leadership as a psychological process and its effectiveness for predicting leadership effectiveness.

Study Design

The design of this qualitative study was a systematic review design of the concept of leadership as a psychological process and its effectiveness for predicting leadership effectiveness. The systematic review study design used the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) guidelines and critical appraisal skills programme (CASP) checklist (Panic, Leoncini, de Belvis, Ricciardi, & Boccia, 2013). The PRISMA guidelines were used in the selection of the studies to be included in the systematic review while the CASP Checklist were used to appraise the quality of the included studies (Joshi, Jatrana, Paradies, & Priest, 2014). Both were used to have a better cohort of studies included in the systematic review.

Unit of Analysis and Comparisons

The study examined existing leadership theories and paradigms developed, used, and applied in the relevant literature. The primary focus for this study was the studies itself

involving leaders and the application of leadership theories. Thus, the unit of analysis was the different leadership theories. The comparison of different leadership theories and paradigms was intrinsic to this systematic review. Studies that have compared the performance of leaders in their respective organizations using statistical analysis or qualitative analysis were included in the study. To answer the central research question (Can major leadership theories be seen as psychological processes to determine whether it can predict effective leadership?), I compared major leadership theories and paradigms and extract information that helped in identifying whether specific leadership styles can predict effective leadership.

Strategies for Searching the Literature

The search strategy for studies included in the systematic review involved the use of three multidisciplinary databases and these were ProQuest, Web of Science, and EBSCO host. These multidisciplinary databases contain journals from different fields such as education, healthcare, economics, social science, and economics among others. The search for studies included in this systematic review did not have any timeline, thus all studies that meet the inclusion criteria were included. Furthermore, only peer-reviewed studies or studies included in established and recognized databases such as the Institute of Education Sciences (IES) and What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) were included in the search; thus, conference papers, technical papers, editorials, unpublished manuscripts, and book chapters were excluded.

Keywords are important words or concepts used to identify prior work of scholarship in a particular field. Keywords can have an impact on search results. Using the right words can focus the research process in the right direction; the wrong word search can result in gaps in the literature review. Keywords were used to extract these relevant studies, including, but were not limited to: *leadership* or *leaders*; *effective* or *high-performing*; and *leadership styles*, *leadership*

traits, or leadership skills. Data collection started by searching research studies that were eligible for the systematic review. Three main multidisciplinary databases were used for searching and these were ProQuest, Web of Science, and EBSCO host. These databases were primarily chosen because of its wide variety of included journals and topics. The retrieved research studies were then appraised to ensure its eligibility and quality for the systematic review.

Data Collection Process

The screening process was mainly focused on reviewing the abstracts first, and afterwards, the full-text of the research studies in the different databases. Once all research studies had been reviewed and appraised for eligibility and quality, the researcher then finalized the list of included research studies for the systematic review. The final lists of research studies were then subjected to a thorough full-text analysis, and information related to the objective of the study was retrieved individually for each of the research studies.

Study Selection

The selection of studies to be included in the systematic review was done in accordance to the inclusion and exclusion set for the study using CASP checklist and the guidelines set forth by PRISMA. The PRISMA flow diagram was used to show the results of the evaluation and analysis of individual pieces of scientific literature of the systematic review. The diagram was used to report the number of studies that were screened and kept or omitted from the review based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The first part of the search selection process was to identify sources for potential studies related to the study. The second part was to screen abstracts of the potential studies using the inclusion and exclusion criteria established. The third part, which was the eligibility process, included thoroughly screening the studies reviewed using the

full text of the study. The last part of the inclusion process was to finalize which of the studies that were included for further analysis. The inclusion and exclusion criteria discussed below were used to determine which of the studies were to be included or excluded.

Inclusion-Exclusion Criteria

The inclusion-exclusion criteria were essential to the process of screening and analyzing studies to see if they should be reviewed in depth to answer the research questions (Maxwell, 2012). In order to determine if the studies met the inclusion-eligibility criteria and to provide information about the study in relation to key elements needed to answer the research questions specific data extraction forms and instruments were used. The following were the criteria used to determine whether a study would be included in the systematic review or not: (a) must have either quantitative or qualitative analysis conducted on the gathered data; (b) the participants in the study were leaders of any organization in any location; (c) the focus of the study was to determine whether certain leadership style affect the performance of employees or how it was related to leadership effectiveness; (d) the study involves other factors that may contribute to leadership effectiveness; and (e) study must be written in English.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations for this study. First was the limited access of the researcher to all full text articles that may have been considered relevant for the study. A second limitation was that although the study followed a qualitative design, the findings of this study would be limited from outputs of systematic review of existing literatures about leadership theories. No live participants were included, so there was no opportunity to interview or survey participants to gain insight into the literature findings of the research included in the study. This type of research is different and was not applicable for the current study. Next, this study was

limited to bias in self-reporting. The researcher's knowledge of different leadership theories was limited, which may have narrowed the search criteria, prohibiting the selection of applicable research that could have provided more comprehensive the study results. In addition, the search and evaluation of the studies included in the systematic review was limited to the comprehensiveness of the PRISMA guidelines and CASP Checklist. Also, the depth of analysis conducted and insights gathered were limited to the final number of studies included for further analysis. The findings may not be generalizable to the general population of leaders or to the general idea of effective leadership.

Risk of Bias

One of the potential biases for systematic reviews was the publication bias. Publication bias is a bias with regard to what is likely to be published among what is available to be published (Peters, Sulton, Jones, Abrams, & Rushton, 2008). A funnel plot was conducted in order to determine if publication bias does exist in the cohort of studies that were included for the systematic review. The analysis for the publication bias was conducted in both the outcome and study level to determine the sources of biases. In order to limit researcher bias, the researcher used critical self-reflection about his potential biases and predispositions, and purposely searched for studies that disconfirmed preconceived expectations about what makes an effective leader (Collier & Mahoney, 1996).

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are a critical aspect of every research. As a type of qualitative research, inductive research indicates the need to uphold research ethical conduct throughout the research process, including study planning, implementation, and evaluation (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). Considering that the current research did directly involve human respondents,

there were no risks involved in data collection (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). However, ethical issues relating to plagiarism were avoided by ensuring that the research was based on an original idea. Any data or information obtained from other sources, including prior studies, was appropriately credited using accurate citations (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). Therefore, with the inductive theory approach, relevant information and data were obtained and used to derive conclusions that can be used to generate hypothesis in the study that is supported by existing literature. Such hypothesis was relevant toward addressing the topic on leadership as a psychological function for predicting leadership effectiveness (Charmaz, 2014).

Summary

The chapter starts with a discussion of the rationale for the research method and moves to a review of the study design which is critical to understanding how the dissertation develops. An equally important discussion takes place while discussing the strategies for searching the literature which will become the basis for the literature review in chapter 3. This chapter also addresses the limitations of the study and the possible risk of bias inherent in this level of work. The chapter concludes with a review of any ethical concerns associated with this dissertation.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

Organization, Strategy, and Justification of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore how behavioral paradigms, trait theories and personality characteristics based theories can be synthesized to explore the psychology of effective leadership. This dissertation expects to identify a model for explaining relationships between psychological theories and effective leadership. The first two chapters provided an introduction to the topic and laid the foundation for the research methodology that will be used throughout this dissertation. This chapter will provide an in-depth analysis of the literature and studies regarding behavioral paradigms, trait theories, and personality characteristics-based theories.

Leadership

The first concept to be discussed is leadership, which is widely covered across diverse social science studies. Initial leadership studies focused on exploring the heritable attributes that can be used to differentiate effective leaders from non-leader leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Blake & Mouton, 1964). Such studies were based on the use of the trait paradigm to explain leadership effectiveness. However, subsequent leadership studies within the psychological field have indicated that personal characteristics, including abilities, skills, demographics, and personality traits serve a central purpose in predicting leadership effectiveness (Bolden et al., 2003; Cavazotte et al., 2012). An exploration of leadership as a psychological process plays a significant role in determining how organizational psychology and different theoretical perspectives can be used to predict effective leadership (Odoardi et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014).

Trait Paradigm

Prior research of leadership effectiveness based on the trait paradigm received significant criticism because of how limiting the paradigm can be if one focuses on traits alone (Derue et al., 2011). If researchers focus on the trait paradigm exclusively, they discount leadership as a behavioral process. This criticism prompted scholars to explore beyond leader traits and investigate how leaders' behavioral patterns predict effectiveness (Bolden et al., 2003; Cavazotte et al., 2012). Consequently, examining the role of behavior in predicting leadership effectiveness led to the development of a behavior paradigm, which characterizes several leadership theories. For instance, the contingency model by Fiedler and the managerial grid by Blake and Mouton have covered the behavior paradigm (Datta, 2015). Besides providing an essential foundation for developing new leadership theories, the behavior paradigm and meta-analytic evidence support the viewpoint that a leader's behaviors are critical predictors of effective leadership capacity (Datta, 2015). In fact, the behavior paradigm has been incorporated into the transactional and transformational leadership theories to help determine leadership competence (Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014).

Psychological Perspective

For the purposes of this dissertation, the psychological perspective of leadership effectiveness is defined by three levels: content, analysis level, and evaluation target. The leadership content is associated with task performance, including group and individual performance. Conversely, content encompasses relational and affective criteria, which include satisfaction with leadership and overall leadership judgment (Datta, 2015). Leadership judgment integrates the relational and task components of leadership effectiveness. In contrast, the analysis level covers the issues relating the conceptualization of leadership at different levels,

such as individual, group, dyadic, or organizational levels (Judge et al., 2002). For instance, whereas some studies explore leadership effectiveness at the individual leadership level (Kunze, de Jong, & Bruch, 2016; Quinteiro, Passos, & Curral, 2016), other studies have focused on the relationships characterizing the dyadic leadership level or group-based performance (Mühlberger & Traut-Mattausch, 2015; Walumbwa, Morrison, & Christensen, 2012). Lastly, the evaluation target involves examining leadership effectiveness based on the leader as a target (Judge et al., 2002). For example, the leader is evaluated for competence or any other important outcome within the leadership effectiveness domain, such as group performance (Judge et al., 2002).

Leadership Styles

Within the discussion of leadership, the topic of leadership styles plays an important role and is reviewed in the following section. The significant amounts of studies that have explored the topic of leadership are useful in providing diverse ways of defining or classifying leadership styles (Walumbwa et al., 2011). However, it is important to note that effective leadership does not necessarily fall under one distinct leadership style (Colbert et al., 2014; Wagstaff et al., 2012). On the contrary, effective leaders usually adapt their approaches and style based on the situational and relational context (Hassan et al., 2013; Walumbwa et al., 2011). As such, the following discussion will lay out the diverse leadership styles that are present in the literature.

Group Leadership

Group leadership covers the leadership activities aimed at providing direction and focus to a specific group of individuals, such as the organizational employees. In the group leadership context, the leader plays a central role in guiding and facilitating the participants' task performance (Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011). Additionally, the leader takes responsibility for the group's outcomes. As an important element of group communication, leadership within

groups has been covered extensively across various fields, such as psychology, business, and communication (Grundig & Ward, 2015; Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015). The areas of leadership that have been explored include the leadership theories, the qualities of effective leaders, and the strategies for building leadership competence. Although one official leader may be involved in directing and guiding a group, the participating members have diverse leadership roles that they must play to ensure the success of the group (Datta, 2015).

Group leadership is a responsibility that is linked to a high-level status position within the group. Such forms of leadership may informally or formally be recognized by the members of the group (Datta, 2015). In addition, group leadership is characterized by complex communication patterns, beliefs, and behaviors that affect the group's operations and capacity to accomplish specific tasks (Helms, 2012; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Pless, Maak, & Waldman, 2012). However, an individual assuming the position of group leadership may offer poor leadership or no leadership at all. Conversely, an individual who has not been recognized among the group members as being a leader may demonstrate the capacity to offer outstanding leadership (Pless et al., 2012). Nonetheless, to understand the concept of leadership effectiveness within the group context, it is important to explore how individuals become leaders (Derue et al., 2011).

In historical contexts, some people became leaders by inheriting or receiving leadership positions. In such contexts, a majority of leaders were considered to be divine in particular ways (Derue et al., 2011). For instance, in some cultures, shamans were believed to be leaders because of their role in linking the physical and spiritual worlds (Judge et al., 2002). Additionally, military leaders, queens, and kings were normally considered to have been chosen and approved by a divine being to lead a community. Unlike the historical context of leadership

development, today's leaders are usually appointed or elected to assume specific positions of power. Some leaders are highly respected, while some may be hated or feared. The followers' reactions toward the leader depend on the latter's qualities and leadership style (Voon, 2011).

Designated and emergent leaders are explored in the study of group leadership to determine the diverse leadership roles and effectiveness. Designated leaders are usually appointed or elected by the members of their specific groups. Such leaders are formally recognized for their leadership roles (Voon, 2011). Designated leaders are considered successful especially when they are chosen by other individuals to fulfill group leadership responsibilities (Goleman & McKee, 2013; Voon, 2011). In contrast, some individuals decide to pursue leadership positions in groups and organizational settings because of their drive to acquire and exercise power (Grant et al., 2011). Some individuals may not necessarily have successful leadership experiences in the past. Nonetheless, most leaderless groups must decide on whether to elect a leader or to allow one to emerge (Grant et al., 2011).

Directive Leadership

Directive leaders play the primary role of providing their followers with a psychological structure for task performance. Such leaders usually communicate clear expectations, besides developing and maintaining a specific agenda and schedule for the group. They also provide a specific direction and guidance that allows members to work effectively as a group in order to complete their tasks (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011). In addition, directive leaders are charged with the key responsibility of setting and presenting the procedures and rules for group operations (Avey, Avolio, & Luthans, 2011).

Although directive leadership is closely related to autocratic leadership, it is highly flexible and

nuanced. As a result, the proponents of the directive leadership style indicate that leaders can be directive without necessarily behaving authoritarian (Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011).

Directive leadership is considered an effective style for groups that need adequate direction in order to start the implementation of the shared tasks (Hassan et al., 2013). In addition, directive leadership can be useful within situations characterized by significant time constraints and pressures, thereby indicating the need for timely decision-making. However, in-group situations that have extensive histories and members with diverse expertise and skills, the directive leadership style is considered as a form of group micro managing (Jing & Avery, 2011; Landis et al., 2014). In such situations, participative leadership emerges as the most suitable approach (Lian et al., 2012).

Participative Leadership

Participative leaders perform their roles by engaging the group members in the decision-making processes (Lian et al., 2012). Member participation in decision-making processes through the soliciting and consideration of their suggestions and opinions. The involvement of the group members in crucial decision-making activities helps in aligning their specific individual goals to the organizational or group goals, thereby contributing to increased productivity (Bortoluzzi, Caporale, & Palese, 2014; Ferraris, 2015). In addition, participative leadership is essential in facilitating socialization among the group members, as they feel they are being pivotal in developing the rules and norms for group-based task performance (Lam, Huang, & Chan, 2015). As a result, participative leadership is necessary for a group to attain a cohesive working environment (Ferraris, 2015; Lam et al., 2015). Therefore, a participative leader strengthens the view that leadership is a psychological process that can be used to predict effective leadership through diverse processes, and member socialization.

Supportive Leadership

Supportive leaders demonstrate concern for the needs and emotional aspects of their group members. Such leaders normally support their members' wellbeing by providing a positive, friendly climate within the group (Oostlander, Güntert, & Wehner, 2014; Schaubroeck et al., 2011). Supportive leaders tend to demonstrate effective leadership qualities, including the capacity to reduce frustrations and stress within the group (McGurk et al., 2014; Shin, Oh, Sim, & Lee, 2016). This helps in enhancing the members' positive feelings toward their tasks and other members, hence leading to shared group success (Oostlander et al., 2014). Additionally, the supportive leader serves as the group members' role model in the creation and maintenance of a favorable relational climate for task performance (McGurk et al., 2014). In this situation, the group members are allowed to perform the relational role behaviors based on the guidance of the supportive leader (McGurk et al., 2014; Oostlander et al., 2014). Relational roles in the group context are an integral component of social cohesion, where the members are able to engage with one another based on the established group norms (Wang et al., 2014).

A supportive leadership approach is particularly essential across groups that are fundamentally relational oriented instead of task-based (Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011). However, although the maintenance of favorable group relationships is critical toward achieving a functional group, many task-based groups usually need more time to be spent on tasks instead of social relations to perform optimally (Oostlander et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014). As a result, competent participative or directive leaders of the task-based groups must use the supportive leadership style to address the emotional stress that may emerge among the members. This helps in preventing the relational stress from causing a negative effect on the group cohesion and climate (McGurk et al., 2014; Shin et al., 2016).

Achievement-oriented Leadership

Achievement-oriented leaders normally indicate a strong emphasis for excellence in setting and pursuing challenging group goals (Shoss et al., 2015). This type of leadership is characterized by persistent monitoring of the group progress with the view of attaining maximum improvement (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Additionally, achievement-oriented leaders tend to demonstrate confidence in the capacity of their members to meet high expectations in task performance. The leader normally uses a systematic approach to social comparison, while remaining updated about the success of other similar high-performing groups (Stentz et al., 2012; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 2013). As a result, achievement-oriented leadership is considered as a type of visionary or transformational leadership theory that is linked to increased levels of organizational success (Ulrich et al., 2013).

The success of the achievement-oriented leadership depends on the group dynamics. For instance, achievement-oriented leadership is usually preferred for groups that are deliberately developed to attain particular objectives (Ulrich et al., 2013). The members of such groups normally have specific skills and competencies relating to the group tasks (Colbert et al., 2012). As a result, in most case, the group leader is chosen based on the required expertise and reputation. Moreover, although the group members may be individuals who have not worked with the leader in the past, mutual respect is expected between the leader and the members (Shoss et al., 2015; Ulrich et al., 2013).

Servant Leadership

Greenleaf introduced servant leadership for the first time in 1970 (Doraiswamy, 2012). Servant leadership entails serving first, then leading (Zhang & Lin, 2012). The servant leader is distinguishable through the care taken to ensure that the highest priority is serving the needs of

others (Doraiswamy, 2012). The characteristics of a servant leader are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of others, and building community (Jones, 2012).

This style of leadership is supportive. The leaders are friendly and show concern for the needs of staff members (Zhang & Lin, 2012). Servant leaders demonstrate their traits and characteristics through interaction with followers and other leaders within the organization. The traits and characteristics of servant leaders include the commitment to growth of people, stewardship, and building community. Servant leadership is more effective because it reflects a better use of a leaders' power (Zhang & Lin, 2012). A distinguishing feature of servant leadership is the natural feeling that to serve is more important than occupying a formal leadership position (Doraiswamy, 2012). Servant leaders place followers' success ahead of their own personal motivations. In servant leadership, the leader meets the desires of the followers instead of the followers serving the desires of the leader (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Great examples of servant leadership are Mother Theresa, Mohandas Gandhi, Moses, and Jesus Christ (Parris & Peachy, 2012). Servant leadership can be very effective at inspiring followers to reach the goals of the organization (Boone & Makhani, 2012).

Emotional Intelligence for Effective Leadership

The first concepts reviewed in this chapter are leadership and styles of leadership; now we turn to the topic of emotional intelligence. Effective leaders must demonstrate emotional intelligence in their leadership practice. Emotional intelligence refers to the leaders' capacity to understand and manage their emotions and those of their followers (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). In the study of the role of emotional intelligence in leadership effectiveness, several competency areas such as social intelligence are assessed to understand the importance of

interpersonal behaviors in enhancing effective leadership adaptability (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). Emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by allowing leaders to perceive, evaluate, and express emotions appropriately across different situations. As a result, with emotional intelligence, leaders are able to generate feelings and develop emotional knowledge characterized by intellectual growth (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013).

The need for emotional intelligence in leadership is attributed to the new demands that contemporary leaders are expected to meet. Currently, leaders are expected to lead and manage empowered groups of followers (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). This indicates the need for the leaders to engage in leadership practices that go beyond the regular cooperative, consultative, and democratic leadership styles (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). For instance, the new leadership demands include the need to involve and consult followers based on an effective communication of a compelling purpose and vision. Additionally, leaders are expected to foster follower freedom and autonomy. However, the leaders have to take responsibility for all outcomes, including failures (Cavazotte et al., 2012).

Moreover, new leadership demands indicate the need for leaders to create adequate opportunities for growth, glory, and challenge, thereby demonstrating the critical need for leaders to mentor and coach their followers to develop optimal potential (Cavazotte et al., 2012). Leaders are also expected to foster team spirit and inclusion, despite being required to enhance individual acknowledgement and recognition for higher performance. These diverse leadership demands indicate the centrality of emotional intelligence in the leaders' day-to-day work to guarantee effectiveness (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). With emotional intelligence, the leaders are expected to demonstrate competency in five critical areas including self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills.

Self-awareness

The first competency area of emotional intelligence involves self-awareness. Leaders with self-awareness usually have a clear understanding of how they feel and the effects of their feelings and actions on the followers (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). Self-awareness is an important aspect of effective leadership as it allows leaders to define their strengths and limitations. An appropriate knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses contributes to leaders' ability to demonstrate humility. Leadership humility is important for leaders to accept their shortcomings with the view of enhancing self-improvement (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014).

Self-regulation

The second competency area of emotional intelligence involves self-regulation. Effective leaders have the capacity to regulate their emotions and actions accurately. Through self-regulation, leaders can avoid making emotional, rushed decisions (Cavazotte et al., 2012; Goleman et al., 2013; Sadri, 2012). Additionally, self-regulation allows leaders to avoid stereotyping and verbal attacks against their followers. Such leaders demonstrate the capacity to stand with their values, thereby exercising optimal control of the situation. Moreover, self-regulation is exhibited through leadership flexibility and capacity to remain committed to individual accountability (Goleman et al., 2013; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Sadri, 2012).

Self-motivation

The third competency area of emotional intelligence for effective leadership involves self-motivation (Goleman et al., 2013). Effective leaders are usually self-motivated toward attaining their goals and objectives. Self-motivated leaders tend to set high standards for attaining quality in their work. As a result, self-motivated leaders contribute to improved

follower productivity, thereby leading to better success levels (Sadri, 2012). To improve the self-motivation aspect of emotional intelligence, effective leaders must undertake three steps (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). The first step involves re-examining the reasons for doing a particular job. Although it is easier for leaders to forget the elements they love about their jobs, effective leaders must understand why they wanted the job in the first place. For instance, leaders should explore their goal statements when struggling to remember the decision for selecting the job (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

Empathy

Empathy is the fourth competency area of emotional intelligence that effective leaders must demonstrate in their daily practice (Cavazotte et al., 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). Empathy contributes to leadership effectiveness as it allows leaders to lead and manage their teams and organizations effectively. Additionally, empathy allows leaders to develop their followers or team members, while challenging others to engage in fair activities. With empathic approach to leadership, leaders can develop the capacity to listen to their followers and provide constructive feedback (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). Empathic leaders have the capacity to inspire their followers into becoming loyal members, besides demonstrating respect to their leaders (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014).

Social skills

The last competence area of emotional intelligence for leadership effectiveness involves the leaders' social skills (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Sadri, 2012). Effective leaders are usually competent in the area of social skills, thereby leading to their efficient communication. For instance, with better social skills, effective leaders are prepared to receive both good and bad news with the intention of making relevant decisions. The leaders have the ability to use their

expertise to obtain the support of their followers (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Sadri, 2012). Moreover, based on their social skills, effective leaders tend to be efficient at change management and conflict resolution (Sadri, 2012).

Essential Qualities of Leaders

After reviewing leadership, leadership styles and emotional intelligence, the review focuses on what are the essential qualities of leaders. Effective leaders must possess a specific set of criteria. These include honesty and integrity, delegation, accountability, creativity, communication, listening, relational skills, and motivational traits. Without these traits, their efficacy may be hindered. This section also looks at inherent attributes and demographic factors impact on effective leadership.

Honesty and Integrity

An effective leader is one who demonstrates exemplary character. This is necessary in order to foster trustworthiness when leading others (Boies et al., 2015; Goleman et al., 2013). The leader needs to understand that honesty and ethical behaviors are critical toward assuming responsibility for the team's progress, fostering goodwill and trust, thereby inspiring their followers to achieve their greatest potential (Hassan et al., 2013; Mahsud et al., 2010).

In addition, instead of assuming a superiority and entitlement position, effective leaders lead by example (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Dabke, 2016; Ewan et al., 2013). For instance, if leaders need their followers to demonstrate integrity, the leaders themselves must have integrity and focus on the accomplishment of the shared strategic initiatives (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Ewan et al., 2013). Based on their capacity to maintain the values of integrity and honesty, effective leaders are able to serve as role models for emerging leaders (Vito et al., 2014). Integrity and honesty are critical aspects of the psychological aspects, such as character, which

allow leaders to remain effective in their duties (Hassan et al., 2013). Additionally, such aspects are linked to political science as they indicate the need for leaders who can be trusted by the populace to provide trustworthy and reliable representation (Cho & Dansereau, 2010).

Delegation

Leaders should be able to trust their team members with the organizational vision (Van Knippenberg, 2011). The capacity to trust the team with an organizational vision demonstrates leadership strength rather than weakness. As a result, an effective leader must delegate tasks to suitable teams or departments to ensure organizational growth (Houghton et al., 2015; Jayakody & Gamage, 2015). Delegation contributes to leadership effectiveness as the tasks completion processes are distributed to avoid delays linked to task accumulation (Van Knippenberg, 2011).

The core aspect of delegation involves recognizing and capitalizing on the team's strengths to achieve the desired goal (Choy, McCormack, & Djurkovic, 2016). This indicates the need for the leader to identify the tasks enjoyed most by each of the team members and assigning such tasks according to the members' interests and abilities (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 2013). When members are allowed to accomplish enjoyable tasks, they tend to put their utmost effort, thereby leading to increased efficiency and success rates (Choy et al., 2016). Moreover, through delegation, the leader can obtain extra time to focus on other important, higher level tasks that cannot be delegated (Ulrich et al., 2013; Van Knippenberg, 2011). Finally, effective leaders have a culture of delegating duties with the aim of encouraging improved organizational productivity (Choy et al., 2016; Ulrich et al., 2013).

Accountability

Accountability indicates the need for leaders to accept and take responsibility for their own actions and those of their followers (Andrews & Boyne, 2010; Giessner, van Knippenberg,

van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013). Accountability helps in determining effective leadership by requiring leaders to avoid making excuses for the outcomes of their teams or organizations (Andrews & Boyne, 2010; Cranston, 2013; Giessner et al., 2013). For instance, effective leaders should accept liability when the outcomes are unfavorable and praise the individuals involved in performing tasks effectively (Andrews & Boyne, 2010). By accepting liability of the undesirable outcomes, the leaders are able to undertake corrective measures to address the main problem, rather than the signs. As a result, accountability is accompanied by effective problem-solving strategies aimed at restoring the organizational or team capacity work toward achieving the designed goals (Grant et al., 2011; Grundig & Ward, 2015). From a political science perspective, leaders in different fields, including government and business leaders, must remain accountable for their actions, especially in relation to the use of public and natural resources (Andrews & Boyne, 2010; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014).

Creativity

Effective leaders have the capacity to explore diverse means of making relevant decisions when facing major challenges relating to task performance (Nixon et al., 2012; Wilson, 2012). Such leaders must recognize their critical role in providing guidance to the team to avoid delays and barriers in accomplishing common goals. For instance, when required to direct the team's actions in the presence of major challenges, the leader should examine the available alternatives and make quick decisions to ensure efficiency (Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2012; Nixon et al., 2012). However, such creative decisions must be made with thoughtfulness to avoid further errors. This indicates the importance of asking for assistance among the team members in order to arrive at a suitable conclusion (Nixon et al., 2012; Oliver & Ashley, 2012; Wilson, 2012).

Communication

Effective leaders have the capacity to communicate regularly about their vision and mission in order maintain focus among the followers (Mahsud et al., 2010; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Although the written form of communication is commonly used, an effective leader recognizes the importance of face-to-face communication with the team members. With such communication, the leaders can ensure that their followers are adequately informed about the organizational activities and desired levels of success (Men, 2014; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). Additionally, effective leaders use suitable communication approaches to separate truth from fiction, thereby improving team efficiency. By communicating effectively, leaders are able to provide career counseling and mentorship to their followers based on the recognition for leadership replacements (Mahsud et al., 2010; Men, 2014; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016).

Listening

The leadership quality of effective communication is closely related with listening as an aspect of effective leadership. Leaders must have the ability to listen to diverse ideas and strive to explain to their followers why some ideas cannot be accepted (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Colwell, 2013). By demonstrating the capacity to listen to others' viewpoints, leaders are able to encourage and sustain the generation of new ideas, thereby indicating the potential for exceptional leadership (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). As a result, listening helps in enhancing effective leadership that is characterized by clear and open communication lines (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Listening is an important personal trait that demonstrates the role of psychological factors in the development of effective leaders.

Leaders must also demonstrate sincerity in their interpersonal relations with others. Sincerity is characterized by a deep concern for other people. This indicates that a leader's

actions and words must communicate sincerity (Andrews & Boyne, 2010; Jones, 2012). For instance, when the members are experiencing problems in their areas of work, an effective leader must conduct an extensive research to obtain information on the magnitude of the existing problem. Such information is central to identifying the appropriate solutions to problems that may hinder the followers from remaining productive (Andrews & Boyne, 2010).

Moreover, effective leaders need to possess the capability to resolve any emerging conflicts that may hinder optimal delivery on the shared objectives. Leaders must be aware of the different conflicts that characterize teams of diverse members (Avey et al., 2011). Such conflicts must be addressed comprehensively to enhance the cohesion and coordination necessary to sustain high productivity (Datta, 2015; Grundig & Ward, 2015). Therefore, by adopting effective interpersonal skills that are responsive to the diverse needs of the followers, leaders are able to perform their roles effectively, thereby leading to the attainment of better levels of performance and success (Avey et al., 2011).

Motivational Traits

Motivational traits were also observed as critical attributes of highly committed and motivated leaders in the study. Motivated leaders have the capacity to control their actions in different situations, while focusing on maintaining self-efficacy, energy, and self-regulation (Colbert et al., 2014). Energy is an essential predictor of leadership effectiveness, which allows leaders to develop passion and persistence in their tasks (Colbert et al., 2014). Such form of energy contributes to organizational commitment among team and group members, thereby improving productivity. For instance, without such energy, leaders cannot develop the capacity to serve as role models for their followers. In contrast, self-efficacy was identified as an important attribute that allows leaders to remain prepared toward facing emerging challenges

(Datta, 2015; Grundig & Ward, 2015). Although some leadership challenges are difficult to address, self-efficacy allows leaders to demonstrate the determination, confidence, and character needed to take risks and address uncertainties.

Relational Skills

Relational skills are essential predictors of leadership effectiveness as they allow leaders to address the issues of organizational conflict, unpredictable change, and unexpected opportunities (Colbert et al., 2014). For instance, with personality traits that enhance relational skills, leaders are able to use emotional appeal among their followers with the aim of promoting the followers' capacity to attain a particular vision (Colbert et al., 2014). Additionally, according to the study findings, leaders must develop elaborate relational skills, such as social astuteness, empathy, and capacity to create (Andrews & Boyne, 2010; Cranston, 2013; Giessner et al., 2013). Nonetheless, leaders must possess adequate motivational skills, such as self-efficacy, to ensure their capacity to apply relational skills in attaining leadership effectiveness (Giessner et al., 2013).

Inherent Attributes of Effective Leaders

Inherent attributes are a critical psychological aspect used to explain leadership effectiveness (Hassan et al., 2013; Kunze et al., 2016; López-Domínguez et al., 2013). For instance, leaders such as U.S.'s President Dwight D. Eisenhower are considered to have distinctive leadership qualities that were optimal when the leader took a position of power. As a result, the inherent leadership abilities are shaped mainly by the presence of a number of characteristics, such as charisma, compassion, and steadiness in stressful situations (Hansbrough et al., 2015). Whereas charisma allows leaders to inspire others, compassion allows them to understand the needs of other individuals, including followers and opponents (Hansbrough et al.,

2015). Similarly, steadiness, which also refers to level-headedness, allows leaders to avoid emotional influence on decision-making (Hansbrough et al., 2015).

Besides the innate qualities that influence leadership practice, learned qualities have a significant role to play in defining leadership effectiveness. Learned leadership qualities are acquired through experiences and conventional learning processes (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017; Piccolo et al., 2012). Learned qualities include the ability for effective communication, capacity to motivate followers, and confidence (Piccolo et al., 2012). With effective communication, motivation, and confidence, leaders are able to influence their followers effectively toward attaining specific, shared goals (Yukl, 2012). Therefore, based on the exploration of the innate and learned leadership qualities, some researchers say leaders are born with particular inherent qualities, which are then nurtured through learning for use in leadership roles (Yukl, 2012).

Inherent leadership qualities are crucial components of effective leadership across diverse sectors of the society, including governmental, educational, professional, business, and military organizations (Yukl, 2012). Based on diverse studies, it is clear that not all leaders exercise effective leadership in their practice. Nonetheless, effective leaders normally have a particular set of skills and qualities that allow them to direct the activities of their followers to attain goals or obtain solutions to existing problems (Yukl, 2012). Some of the qualities evidenced among effective leaders include self-confidence, intelligence, ability to motivate, achievement-oriented, social acuity, inspiration, flexibility, and adequate knowledge of the risks associated with present tasks (Derue et al., 2011). Six core theories are therefore explored and compared to identify the elements that can be used to predict effective leadership.

Demographic Factors

Demographic factors conclude the review of non-theoretical factors identified for effective leadership. Demographic factors are used to identify the characteristics of a person or a population. Common demographic factors include race, gender, age, income, marital status, and educational achievement. Thinking about these factors as a set of characteristics to identify traits or behaviors that can contribute to an understanding of effective leadership is why they were included in this literature review. Unfortunately, among demographic factors, a limited number of studies were found. Those studies focused on the relationship between gender and emotional intelligence and how they apply in leadership studies (ElKhouly et al., 2014). Previous studies found that men and women tend to demonstrate equal levels of leadership effectiveness, despite the presence of some variations in their leadership styles (Singh et al., 2012). Such research finding has raised concerns relating to the use of gender as an accurate predictor of effective leadership (Grant et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2014; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Even though the amount of research on demographic factors is limited in this field, it is important to consider the role gender, as a characteristic, plays in identifying effective leadership. The review will now look at the major theoretical approaches in the field of psychology of leadership.

Trait Leadership Theoretical Approach

The first concept from a theoretical perspective is trait leadership. The integration of leadership traits and behaviors is necessary for predicting leadership effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011). However, prior research has not clearly indicated whether leadership traits and behaviors are supplementary or complementary to each other (Smith & Chenoweth, 2015; Yukl, 2012). This has led to a major research gap as to how the integration of traits and behaviors can be used to develop an efficient model to determine leadership effectiveness. Nonetheless, based on

broad literature reviews, leadership related traits are categorized into three groups: demographics, task performance traits, and interpersonal attributes (Nichols, 2016). Similarly, leadership behaviors are covered in the context of task processes, change, and relational dynamics (Derue et al., 2011).

The demographics aspect of leadership traits covers important elements of gender, education, experience, and physical attributes of leaders. These demographics have been investigated in studies to determine whether they have any measurable effect on leadership effectiveness (Grant, Francesca, & Hofmann, 2011; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker & Woehr, 2014). However, compared to other demographic attributes, gender has received a much wider coverage in leadership studies (ElKhouly, Sedfy, & Marwan, 2014; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Singh, Nadim, & Ezzedeen, 2012). For instance, based on Borgmann, Rowold, & Bormann's (2016) extensive meta-analysis, the authors found out that men and women tend to demonstrate equal levels of leadership effectiveness, despite the presence of some variations in their leadership styles. Such research finding has raised concerns relating to the use of gender as an accurate predictor of effective leadership (Grant et al., 2011; Jackson, Alberti, & Snipes, 2014).

Task performance is the second important element of leadership traits used to determine leadership effectiveness (Datta, 2015). In task performance, the leader's approach to the performance of different tasks is assessed as a predictor of effective leadership. In the study of the diverse personality traits associated with task performance, leadership scholars usually explain task performance based on four core traits: intelligence, conscientiousness, readiness for new leadership experience, and leader's emotional stability (Datta, 2015). Intelligence as a task performance-related trait has been explored in leadership studies to ascertain its influence on

leadership effectiveness (Cavazotte et al., 2012; Jayakody & Gamage, 2015). As an important aspect of the psychological process, intelligence can be used to predict effective leadership by indicating the general cognitive capabilities linked to a leader's spatial, verbal, and numerical reasoning abilities. Intelligence is characterized by a leader's ability to recall, memorize, and analyze information for decision-making (Antonakis & House, 2014). With creativity, leaders are able to identify problems and the relevant resources and procedures necessary to solve such problems (Antonakis & House, 2014). The sub-skills needed for creativity include problem analysis abilities, problem redefinition, creation of a stimulating environment, willingness to engage in intellectual growth, risk-taking capabilities, and tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity (Antonakis & House, 2014). Besides the intelligence attribute, conscientiousness, a leader's emotional stability, and readiness for new leadership experience are considered as vital elements that can be used to describe a leader's approaches and reactions to organizational work (Datta, 2015). Conscientiousness entails a measure of the degree of a leader's dependability and dutifulness (Shoss, Callison, & Witt, 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2012). It also indicates whether the leader is achievement-oriented (Hartnell et al., 2011). As a result, thoughtful planning and structure characterize conscientious leadership. In contrast, the leader's level of preparedness to new experience is characterized by several attributes such as curiosity, creativity, and open mindedness to new ways and methods of task performance (Hartnell et al., 2011; Hassan et al., 2013). Lastly, emotional stability is a critical leadership trait that indicates the leader's capacity to maintain calmness and avoid emotional distress when facing challenging issues and tasks (Datta, 2015; Hartnell et al., 2011). This task performance related traits are pivotal for predicting effective leadership.

In contrast, interpersonal attributes are a major category of leadership traits that determine leadership effectiveness by influencing how leaders approach different social and interactive situations (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Mencl et al., 2016). For instance, interpersonal attributes cover the element of personality, where skills such as agreeableness and extraversion are explored. Furthermore, interpersonal attributes cover the social functioning skills, including the communication skills necessary to ensure effective leadership (Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011). Agreeableness and extraversion are some of the widely covered interpersonal attributes in meta-analytic studies. Such attributes have been found to be positively correlated to effective leadership (Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011).

Cognitive Theoretical Approaches to Leadership Effectiveness

The second theoretical approach discussed in this chapter is cognitive approaches to leadership. Cognitive theoretical approaches are a major component of psychology that has been explored broadly in contemporary leadership research (Mumford, Todd, Higgs, & McIntosh, 2017; Neck, Houghton, Sardeshmukh, Goldsby, & Godwin, 2013). Cognitive theories indicate the importance of cognitive mediation and thought processes in predicting effective leadership (Kerwin & Bopp, 2014; Schaubroeck, Simon, & Peng, 2011). For instance, such theories indicate the importance of cognitive approaches in developing and regulating functional relations among leaders and their followers (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). According to cognitive theories, individuals obtain different conscious experiences that are based on biases associated with their assumptions, perceptions, and beliefs about the world (Mumford et al., 2017; Neck et al., 2013). For instance, interpersonal practices and judgments accompanying the interactions of employees and leaders in organizations are significantly influenced by the thought processes and emotional

attributes of employees and leaders (Bhansing, Leenders, & Wijnberg, 2012; Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

The cognitive psychology perspective has remained central in recent studies of managerial skills and task performance (Yukl, 2012). For instance, based on cognitive psychology, several terms have emerged to explain the fundamental factors influencing the leaders' capacity to interpret and adapt to external and internal stimuli. Such terms include the knowledge structures, schemata, and scripts, which are crucial for interpreting leadership approaches, thereby predicting effective leadership (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Tu, Lu, & Yu, 2017). For instance, knowledge structures and schemata usually play a major role in determining the capacity of organizational leaders to transform information into the action necessary for improved task performance (Mumford et al., 2017; Neck et al., 2013).

Based on the cognitive psychology perspective, leadership practices, including the reality-oriented and constructive approaches to problem solving are considered critical predictors of leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). Additionally, cognitive-based adaptive responses are considered important competencies that underlie effective and successful leadership and management practices. With the adaptive coping responses, leaders are able to regulate their diverse areas of functioning, including cognitive expectations, beliefs, intentions, and emotional reactions, which have a major potential of affecting leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Neck et al., 2013; Yukl, 2012). Therefore, with the development of the cognitive theories, the concept of leadership is evaluated as a psychological process, thereby leading to the recognition of the different psychological attributes that influence the effectiveness of a leader in different organizational settings (Bhansing et al., 2012; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Yukl, 2012).

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Another theoretical approach included in this review is Fiedler's contingency theory (1967), which holds that no specific leadership style can be considered as being the best for all leaders and across all situations. The theory indicates that situations usually prompt leaders to adopt particular approaches and solutions that can address the factors characterizing each specific situation (Walumbwa et al., 2011). For instance, in organizational situations characterized by routine task performance, the directive leadership approach may be adopted as the most effective approach toward attaining the best levels of employee performance (Meirovich & Gu, 2015). Nonetheless, in dynamic organizational settings, the most suitable leadership style involves the participative approach, which is characterized by maximum interactions between leaders and employees (Walumbwa et al., 2011; Waters, 2013).

In the contingency theory, three situations that have significant potential shaping leadership practices are examined. Such situations present leadership as a component of the psychological process necessary to predict effective leadership (Voon, 2011). The first situation covers the leader-member relations, which indicate the extent to which leaders and managers relate and interact positively to enhance task performance (Voon, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Waters, 2013). The second situation involves the task structure in which task performance depends on the level of job structure (Voon, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Waters, 2013). As a result, organizational jobs may be highly structured, moderately structured, or minimally structured. Lastly, the situation of position power influences performance and leadership effectiveness by indicating the amount of authority exercised by the leader (Voon, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Waters, 2013).

Based on the contingency-situational theory, managers tend to demonstrate high levels of leadership effectiveness when working in situations characterized by better leader-follower relationships, strong or weak position power, and structured jobs (Walumbwa et al., 2011; Yukl, 2012). Similarly, the organizational leaders tend to achieve considerable effectiveness when working in situations with unstructured jobs but with strong position power (Yukl, 2012). Situations marked by moderate relations with the group members and unstructured tasks allow leaders to perform their work effectively (Van Knippenberg, 2011). Therefore, evaluating the leadership activities as components of psychological processes in different organizational situations helps to predict leadership effectiveness based on each different situation.

An important aspect of the contingency theory, task structure, leader-follower relations, and position power predict effective leadership by influencing a leader's capacity to exercise effective control over organizational or workplace situations (Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo & Sutton, 2011). Leader-follower relations encompass the elements of dependability, loyalty, and the support that leaders receive from their followers (Mencl, Wefald, & van Ittersum, 2016; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010). The leader-follower relations cover the perception of the leaders on how they are moving along with the employees. Favorable leader-follower relations allow leaders to structure their organizational tasks, thereby developing the mechanisms with which to punish or reward the followers based on their performance (Müller & Turner, 2010; Nixon, Harrington, & Parker, 2012). However, unfavorable leader-follower relations are accompanied by unstructured tasks in which the leader's authority is undermined, thereby hindering effective leadership (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn & Lyons, 2011).

Task-motivated leaders usually experience a sense of satisfaction and pride once the organizational tasks have been accomplished successfully (Piccolo et al., 2012; Popper, 2013).

In contrast, the relationship-motivated leaders normally prefer building strong interpersonal relations, while extending effective team development for the entire organization (Hassan Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013). As a result, the theory indicates that organizational leadership styles cannot be classified as being either bad or good, as specific leaders tend to prefer their particular leadership styles (Hassan et al., 2013; Sadeghi & Zaidatol, 2012). For example, task-motivated leaders are considered as being the most effective based on their capacity to attain major success in task performance, such as attaining a competitive organizational advantage or successful sales promotion. In contrast, relationship-motivated leaders are considered to have realized their highest level of effectiveness after gaining increased levels of customer satisfaction and a positive organizational image across the market (Stentz, Clark, & Matkin, 2012). Therefore, applying the contingency theory to describe leadership as a psychological process provides information indicating the diverse personality attributes that help in shaping leadership effectiveness for organizations and groups (Hassan et al., 2013).

The Five-Factor Model of Personality

A personality model also included in this review is the five-factor model of personality (FFM) (Weiss, Davis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). FFM, also known as ‘the Big Five’, represents five broad and relatively independent dimensions of personality: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Personality theorists have taken two approaches – the lexical approach and the personality questionnaires approach – in studying personality (Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). In the lexical approach, personality theorists used the ordinary language trait terms to arrive to the agreement on the five factors. For instance, Cattell (1946) systematically categorized the personality terms, previously developed by Allport and Odbert (1936), into synonym groups and constructed rating scales

narrowing groups of adjectives. Subsequently, using Cattell's rating scales, Tupes and Christal (1961) discovered five recurrent factors, in which they named urgency, agreeableness, dependability, emotional stability, and culture. This finding intrigued a serious interest in the five-factor model in some researchers at the time (Digman, 1990).

In the personality questionnaires approach, which had a much larger role in the history of personality research, personality was measured based on questionnaires with scales that were created for specific practical applications or evaluating constructs derived from personality theory (Goldberg, 1971). Initially, the two factors of neuroticism and extraversion were proposed as focal dimensions of personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964; 1976). Then, openness to experience and conscientiousness were proposed in the later years (Costa & McCrae, 1976; 1980; Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974). The fifth dimension, agreeableness, appeared to be found in Leary's (1957) analyses. In essence, the questionnaire approach examined the characteristics of theoretical interest to personality psychologists. Despite the emerging consensus on the five factors, the significance of the five factors was not revisited until in the 1980s.

In a comprehensive review, Digman (1990) examined the theoretical structure of personality and found a convergence of views for the five identified factors underlying the multitude of personality scales. His work revealed how the five-factor model explained Cattell's extensively studied trait variables. For example, Norman (1963) reported that these five major factors were adequate to account for a large number of personality traits, or Digman and Takemoto-Chock (1981) concluded that the five factors represented an impressive theoretical structure. In the same year, Goldberg (1990) conducted three studies examining the generality of the five-factor structure. College students were asked to describe themselves or their peers using on anywhere from 339 to 1,431 trait adjectives. The results provided sufficient evidence that the

five-factor structure was consistently recovered whether self or peer descriptions were used. In general, the results of both Digman and Goldberg's studies suggested that the five-factor model has offered a valuable set of very broad dimensions that represent individual differences, and these five factors could be measured with high reliability and remarkable validity.

In summary, personality theorists have used both ordinary language adjectives and personality questionnaires to identify essential factors of personality. Whereas the lexical approach was limited to an analysis of personality traits, the questionnaires approach confirmed, enhanced, or qualified the personality structure. The FFM represents five broad dimensions with each dimension consisting of specific traits. It is important to note that the model does not imply that individual differences can be reduced to five dimensions, but rather provides a general set of personality traits.

Extraversion

As described by Depue and Collins (1999), one of the central characteristics of extraversion is interpersonal engagement, which includes traits such as sociability and agency. Specifically, sociability refers to appreciating close interpersonal relationships and being warm and affectionate, while agency portrays social dominance, assertiveness, and a desire to accomplishing goals. Empirical evidence suggested that extraversion traits significantly correlated with positive affectivity, such as rewards (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Moreover, extraverts emphasize the importance of intrinsic factors of the work environment, while also recognizing some value of certain extrinsic factors (Furnham, Petrides, Jackson, & Cotter, 2002).

Neuroticism

Whereas extraversion is related to positive affectivity, neuroticism is associated with negative affectivity. As defined by Costa and McCrae (1992), neuroticism is a major aspect of

personality that contrasts adjustment of emotional stability with maladjustment of negative emotionality. With regards to job satisfaction, neuroticism was found to be the strongest and most consistent predictor with a negative relationship (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). This finding is consistent with Moyle (1995), suggesting that individuals who score high on negative affectivity tend to perceive work as negative, which will lead to low job satisfaction (Moyle, 1995). The negative relationship means that an increase in job satisfaction will result to a decrease in neuroticism.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to the tendency of an individual to be achievement-oriented and responsible. Conscientiousness includes traits such as competence, self-discipline, deliberation, and following rules (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). Therefore, individuals who are high on conscientiousness tend to set goals and are committed to goals. Research revealed that conscientiousness is not only the best predictor of job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991), but is also significantly related to both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction factors (Furnham et al., 2002).

Agreeableness

Agreeableness describes how individuals differ in their orientations toward interpersonal relationships. Unlike the extraversion trait, which reflects social influence, agreeableness aims at maintaining positive interpersonal bonds with others. Moreover, whereas agreeableness displayed a strongest linkage to not only overall job satisfaction but also across the job satisfaction facets, extraversion and conscientiousness correlated only to some aspects of satisfaction (Franek & Vecera, 2008). In essence, individuals with agreeableness traits tend to be cooperative, unselfish, straightforward, and modest (Costa et al., 1991). As a result, these

individuals are more likely to experience greater levels of satisfaction for getting along well with others.

Openness to Experience

Openness to experience refers to the willingness of individuals to adjust their attitudes and behaviors as they have been exposed to new ideas of situations (Digman, 1990). Compared to other four personality traits, openness has the weakest relationship with job satisfaction. Also, when controlling for other traits, openness is negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Zimmerman, 2008). This implies individuals with high openness tend to be less satisfied with their job. This observation can be explained by Maertz and Griffeth's (2004) theory, which suggested that individuals with high openness might lose interest in their current job and start looking for new positions.

Wisdom, Intelligence & Creativity Synthesized

The five-factor model provided the first framework for leadership studies this discussion explored; the Wisdom, Intelligence & Creativity Synthesized (WISC) framework explores diverse leadership aspects, such as problem-solving, generation of ideas, and accurate judgment and their importance toward predicting effective leadership. Additionally, the big five personality framework serves an essential role in predicting leadership effectiveness by indicating the diverse personality traits and their effects on leadership behavior (Eberly et al., 2013; Endres & Weibler, 2017). Moreover, findings from the leadership effectiveness study demonstrate the importance of the cluster of skills framework in defining the important types of leadership styles required at diverse organizational contexts. These leadership styles are identified based on the leader's specific skill sets, thereby indicating the predictability of leadership effectiveness based on psychological attributes (Eberly et al., 2013). The last

leadership effectiveness prediction framework explored in the study involves the strataplex framework, which elaborates the cluster of skills framework with the aim of specifying the abilities required by leaders at different levels to ensure their effectiveness in meeting daily obligations (Eberly et al., 2013).

The four identified leadership frameworks were explored in line with leadership theories to determine their centrality in the prediction of leadership effectiveness. From the results obtained from the study, the WICS framework presented diverse components indicating the importance of psychological attributes in leadership effectiveness prediction (Eberly et al., 2013). Such components include the leaders' factual knowledge developed through studying, the experiential knowledge attributed to the leader's lifespan, and the procedural knowledge with which to address life events (Eberly et al., 2013). Other components include the relativistic knowledge linked to goals, values, life priorities, and the capacity to manage uncertainty in leadership.

The study findings indicate that intelligence is an important factor in the prediction of leadership effectiveness as it allows leaders to identify and implement creative solutions to diverse problems (Antonakis & House, 2014). Conversely, creativity covers the leader's capacity to develop quality and new ideas relating to specific situations. As a result, creativity attributed to leaders' traits predicts leadership effectiveness by allowing leaders to develop important skills necessary to manage ideas aimed at influencing followers to perform their duties effectively (Antonakis & House, 2014). The sub-skills needed for creativity include problem analysis abilities, problem redefinition, creation of a stimulating environment, willingness to engage in intellectual growth, risk-taking capabilities, and tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity are attributed to the personality qualities necessary to predict leadership effectiveness.

The Behavioral School to Leadership Effectiveness

Now the literature review discusses two major schools of the psychology of leadership, beginning with the behavioral school. In relation to the study of leadership behaviors, as psychological process components of predicting leadership effectiveness, four groups of leader's behaviors are used. The groups are the task-oriented, relational-oriented, change-based, and passive leadership behaviors (Hu & Liden, 2011). Besides examining the role of each of these leader behaviors, the manner in which they overlap to influence leadership has also been evaluated continuously to determine their predictors of effective leadership (Dabke, 2016; Hu & Liden, 2011; Park, Miao, & Kim, 2015).

A task-oriented behavior is the first group of leadership behaviors that covers the initiation of leadership structure and the selection of transactional leader behaviors, which encompass contingent reward and the management by exception-active (MBEA) (Derue et al., 2011). Initiating leadership structure involves identifying and describing the behaviors associated with managing relationships across group members, coordination of group members' actions, creating the standards for task performance, and encouraging the group members to perform their tasks to the created standards (Jing & Avery, 2011). The ability of a leader to initiate both the leadership structure and the necessary contingent rewards contribute to leadership understanding task performance expectations and standards. The set performance standards and expectations are then used to influence the followers' motivation, commitment, and behavior. Furthermore, the leadership structure and MBEA allow leaders to address deviations from the performance expectations using developed routines (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

Relational-oriented behaviors constitute the second group of leadership behaviors covering the leader's consideration behaviors and their influence leadership effectiveness in dealing with the followers (Houghton, Pearce, Manz, Courtright, & Stewart, 2015; Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011). Leaders with a higher level of consideration tend to demonstrate respect and concern for the group or organizational members. Such leaders are usually approachable and friendly to followers (Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011; Mahsud et al., 2010). They are also open-minded resulting in receiving new ideas from others and they treat every member fairly and equally. Moreover, relational-oriented leadership behaviors are covered in studies on participative, empowering, and democratic leadership styles (Endres & Weibler, 2017; Gilbert, Myrtle, & Sohi, 2015; Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011). The core theme that is prevalent across the relational-oriented behaviors involves the leadership actions that contribute to the growth of followers' respect, besides encouraging them to focus on the common wellbeing of their group (Bolden et al., 2003). As a result, relational leadership orientation is characterized by the elements of transformational leadership behaviors found in transformational theory, including the individualized consideration of followers. Nonetheless, generally, transformational leadership theory entails the set of leadership behaviors geared toward developing and enhancing organizational change (Jayakody & Gamage, 2015; Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011; Bolden et al., 2003).

Change-oriented leadership behaviors are the third group of leaders' behaviors that serve a central purpose in the initiation and execution of change across groups and organizations. Change-oriented behaviors include the leadership capacity to create and communicate a clear vision for attaining organizational change (Sirén, Patel, & Wincent, 2016; López-Domínguez, Enache, Sallan, & Simo, 2013). In addition, such behaviors include empowering the followers to

engage in innovative task performance and risk taking (Judge et al., 2002). In relation to predicting effective leadership, change-oriented leadership behaviors allowed in transformational theory, leaders use inspirational motivation when communicating the organizational vision for future success (López-Domínguez et al., 2013; Judge et al., 2002). In addition, change-oriented behaviors are critical for enhancing intellectual stimulation among transformational leaders and their followers as part of transformational theory thereby contributing to effective leadership. Intellectual stimulation strengthens the leader's capacity to search for diverse perspectives, take risks, and challenge the assumptions existing in the group or organizational context (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2012; Bolden et al., 2003).

Lastly, passive leadership is explored among the leadership behaviors to determine its centrality in predicting leadership effectiveness. Passive leadership refers to the leaders' inaction, which influences task performance among the followers (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). For instance, as a component of the transactional leadership theory, passive leaders tend to engage their group members only when addressing the challenges and problems that emerge in the context of task performance (Chênevert, Vandenberghe, & Trembla, 2015; Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013). As a result, in the absence of apparent problems, the leaders do not engage actively with their followers. Passive leadership behaviors are comparable to the laissez-faire leadership style, which indicates the absence of specific leadership related behaviors (Chênevert et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2012).

The Situational-Contingency School

The second school reviewed in this chapter is the situational-contingency school. According to Hanson (1979), contingency theory is one of the most important trends in the study of public and private management. One key to this theory is understanding the "situational"

characteristics of the organizational make up that influence relationships between environmental, management, and performance variables is key to understanding management processes (Hanson, 1979). Although the trait and behavioral approaches to leadership effectiveness are essential for the development of suitable leadership behaviors, they provide minimal information relating to the components of effective leadership in diverse situations (Van Knippenberg, 2011). A majority of contemporary studies of leadership indicate that no single leadership style is suitable for leaders across all circumstances (Dinh et al., 2014; Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014). As a result, the contingency-situational theories serve a fundamental purpose in the evaluation of leadership as psychological process for effective leadership prediction across different organizational situations (Van Knippenberg, 2011). According to the contingency-situational perspective, effective leadership style depends on several situational factors, including the tasks to be performed, the people involved, the organizational context, and other various environmental factors (Northouse, 2016). Several contingency-situational theories are examined to determine their relevance in predicting leadership effectiveness.

Organizational Psychology

Besides the several theoretical approaches used to examine leadership as a psychological process for the prediction of effective leadership, organizational psychology is explored to determine its role as a predictor of leadership effectiveness (Colbert et al., 2014; Kunze et al., 2016). Organizational psychology covers the scientific study of behavior within organizational and workplace settings (Wagstaff, Fletcher, & Hanton, 2012). One of the leadership theories that compliments the field of organizational psychology is transactional leadership. The theory of transactional leadership was initially described in 1947 by Max Weber and later expanded in 1981 by Bernard Bass. In transactional leadership theory, leaders usually emphasize supervision

and group performance (Derue et al., 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2015). Follower compliance is achieved through a system of rewards and penalties or punishments to ensure that the status quo is maintained (Derue et al., 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2015). Organizational psychology is geared toward developing the principles of organizational, individual, and group behaviors with the intent of using the knowledge gained to solve diverse organizational problems (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014).

The use of an organizational psychology approach to determining leadership effectiveness requires an in-depth exploration of organizational development and change, attitudes, employee development, decision-making models, and task performance elements (Pierro, Raven, Amato, & Bélanger, 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Organizational psychology also covers the areas on performance, consumer behavior, job analysis, decision-making, employee assessment, and organizational development, and employees' training and development. It also indicates the need for leaders to acquire and apply knowledge on the ethical considerations affecting relations and task performance across the organization (Colbert et al., 2014).

Summary

This chapter provided a survey of books, scholarly articles, and research in the field of leadership studies. In order to provide a comprehensive literature review, a description, summary, and evaluation of the major research was included. The review began with a look at various leadership styles including emotional intelligence, essential qualities of leaders and demographic factors. The review continued with several theoretical approaches to leadership, using trait and cognitive theories as examples. The literature review concluded with a discussion and comparison of The Behavioral School of Leadership, The Situational-Contingency School

and The Organizational Psychology School. The material outlined in this chapter will be the basis for the discussion of effective leadership in chapter 4.



Chapter 4: Discussion of Effective Leadership

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine major leadership theories as psychological processes to determine whether such analyses can contribute to an understanding of effective leadership (Dinh et al., 2014; Northouse, 2016). In the literature review, leadership as a psychological process was explored with the view of developing an appreciation of the diverse attributes and factors that can predict effective leadership. Several theoretical perspectives, were also evaluated, including the trait and behavioral schools which have been used to describe effective leadership. Additionally, the area on organizational psychology has been covered to identify the issues that leaders must address to create a favorable workplace climate for all employees. Furthermore, other areas that have been covered include the contingency, situational, group leadership, and servant leadership theoretical perspectives. As a result, leaders across different group and organizational contexts must explore and understand the diverse qualities and attributes necessary to attain and implement effective leadership. Effective leadership serves an important role in promoting optimal productivity among the followers. As such, this dissertation was guided by parameters laid out by research related to the behavioral paradigm and seek to synthesize trait theories and theories based on personal characteristics as a tool to explore leadership as a psychological process that can predict effective leadership.

Effective leadership is central to attaining success across organizations, teams, and groups (Andrews & Boyne, 2010). Researchers (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010; Boehm, Dwertmann, Bruch, & Shamir, 2015; Brouer, Douglas, Treadway, & Ferris, 2013; Burns, 2010; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011; Michaelis et al., 2010; Oreg & Berson, 2015; Piccolo et al., 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, &

Carsten, 2014) noted that there are several identifying attributes of effective leaders. Effective leaders must have the capacity to manage the interpersonal dynamics affecting their followers' capacity to perform tasks efficiently (Avolio et al., 2010; Boehm, Dwertmann, Bruch, & Shamir, 2015). An effective leader must have the ability to bring together diverse individuals with the intention of influencing them positively to accomplish purposeful, shared tasks (Brouer et al., 2013; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Effective leaders can empower their followers to perform tasks without manipulation or coercion (Burns, 2010; Michaelis et al., 2010). This indicates that effective leadership serves the primary purpose of allowing individuals to capitalize on their potential to accomplish collective goals (Colbert et al., 2014). Effective leaders develop plans, obtain resources, and allocate them effectively to serve the intended purpose (Michaelis et al., 2010; Oreg & Berson, 2015). For instance, effective leaders design credible plans based on the existing circumstances, thereby leading to the collection of suitable resources, which are then used effectively and efficiently for appropriate functions (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Such leaders normally consider their followers as an essential asset required for the execution of the developed plans (Oreg & Berson, 2015; Piccolo et al., 2012). As a result, the leaders tend to inspire action among their followers while supporting them to work efficiently. In addition, while allocating resources, effective leaders explore and address any potential deficiencies to avoid problems that may hinder their teams from achieving the desired success levels (Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). In this chapter, the discussion begins with an analysis of the criteria identified for effective leaders.

Criteria for Leadership Effectiveness

The criteria for assessing leadership effectiveness include the elements of planning, organization, directing, and monitoring. Firstly, planning includes the leadership roles necessary

to ascertain the organizational needs and the specific actions required attaining them (Aladwan & Forrester; 2016; Borgmann et al. 2016). Based on efficient planning, the leader is expected to design a course of action to guide task performance (Decuyper, Dochy, & Bossche, 2010). Efficient planning is characterized by a better understanding of the capabilities needed to accomplish the set goals at minimal time, financial cost, labor, and resources. The leader must achieve such goals without compromising on the principles relating to ethical and legal standards (Decuyper et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2013).

Secondly, effective leadership is characterized by efficient organizational capabilities, which are necessary for developing the suitable behavioral patterns required for the efficient use of acquired resources (Borgmann et al., 2016; Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011). For instance, an effective leader must develop strategies for proper use of resources such as human labor, cash, and equipment. In such situations, leadership effectiveness plays a pivotal role in selecting the right resources, including the required personnel resources, and creating processes for the efficient and effective use of such resources (Hoffman, Woehr, et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2015).

Directing is the third criterion for determining effective leadership. Directing is considered as the most recognizable and visible leadership role as it helps in determining the requirements necessary toward realizing an organization's aims (Piccolo et al., 2012; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). In addition, based on effective directing capabilities, the leader can organize resources to execute organizational tasks efficiently (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Shin et al., 2016; Shoss et al., 2015). Effective leadership is important in understanding the existing organizational circumstances with minimal errors. Such understanding is then accompanied by a clear definition of the actions that should be executed to further the organizational goals and aims (Piccolo et al., 2012). Moreover, to attain effective directing of organizational processes

and tasks, effective leaders must motivate their teams to enhance performance (Shin et al., 2016; Shoss et al., 2015).

The ability for efficient monitoring of organizational and team performance is another important criterion for determining leadership effectiveness (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). Monitoring allows leaders to design relevant measures with which to evaluate organizational performance. Such evaluations include identifying and remedying errors that are likely to hinder the organization's capacity to attain success (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Mahsud et al., 2010; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). Therefore, effective leaders are proactive in relation to searching out deficiencies in their teams and testing of organizational processes to address issues that may contribute to errors and problems (Gilbert et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2011; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). With proper monitoring strategies, effective leaders can coordinate the activities of their teams to guarantee organizational efficiency (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

Qualities of Effective Leaders

Besides the identified criteria for determining effective leadership, leaders must possess a number of qualities that can lead to higher levels of organizational efficiency. The literature points to some essential leadership qualities in order to be considered as effective leaders. These include the following honesty and integrity, delegation, accountability, creativity, communication, listening, relational skills, and motivational traits and were discussed in great detail in the literature review section of this study.

Several qualities are used to predict leadership effectiveness in diverse situations. Leadership qualities such as integrity and honesty help in predicting leadership effectiveness by fostering trustworthiness (Zhang et al., 2015). Additionally, the capacity of leaders to lead by example is crucial in ensuring effectiveness in their leadership roles. With ethical conduct,

leaders can emerge as suitable role models for their followers, thereby ensuring leadership effectiveness (Houghton et al., 2015).

Effective leaders are ready to delegate some of their leadership roles to their followers. Delegating leadership roles to some team members is a sign of trust, which inspires the team to attain the set objectives (Boehm et al., 2015). When delegating, the leader must identify and capitalize on the strengths of the team, thereby influencing higher levels of task performance (Boehm et al., 2015). Effective leaders must also demonstrate accountability in which leaders accept responsibilities for their conduct and that of the team. Accountability helps leaders and their followers to undertake corrective measures toward remedying situations rather than passing the blame to others (Boehm et al., 2015).

Creativity is also used to predict leadership effectiveness. For instance, effective leaders must recognize different approaches to addressing challenges and making decisions (Houghton et al., 2015). Similarly, possessing effective interpersonal skills, such as communication, sincerity, listening, and efficient dispute resolution is necessary toward influencing effective leadership. With such qualities, leaders can maintain focus in their teams of followers, thereby fostering success (Houghton et al., 2015). Additionally, the interpersonal skills are essential in enhancing leadership effectiveness characterized by effective problem solving with the aim of maintaining team cohesion and coordination (Houghton et al., 2015). In the discussion of effective leadership, the political science perspective indicates that leadership effectiveness is characterized by the leadership strategies that leaders use to collect and allocate resources toward obtaining important goals and objectives (Zhang, Li, Ullrich, & van Dick, 2015). This approach can be very creative in design and implementation.

Flexibility is another essential component of leadership effectiveness for political leaders. Flexible leaders use the give-and-take strategy to address diverse problems. In addition, a positive mental attitude is an important component of determining leadership effectiveness. A positive mental attitude allows leaders and their followers to approach and address demanding issues effectively with focus toward realizing the desired levels of achievement (Yukl, 2012). Effective leadership practices in the political context must also be characterized by commitment toward realizing the common goals and aims (Yukl, 2012).

Moreover, with ethical conduct, leaders are able to uphold ethical standards when performing their responsibilities, thereby ensuring that the team follows a work ethic to maintain moral values, such as diligence (Oreg & Berson, 2015). Ethical conduct also enhances fairness and justice for the followers. The capacity to develop followers' potential talent is also a crucial leadership effectiveness skill that fosters productivity and success (Oreg & Berson, 2015). For instance, leaders must identify appropriate opportunities for promoting the followers' optimal growth necessary for assuming different leadership roles (Oreg & Berson, 2015). While these skills are important in ascertaining effective leadership, this dissertation also focuses on frameworks that help explain the types of personalities best suited for leadership effectiveness.

Personality Framework

The results obtained from the study demonstrate the importance of the big five personality framework in indicating the important psychological attributes needed to predict leadership effectiveness (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). For instance, the findings identify individual traits as important of interpersonal attributes that are used to determine approaches that leaders use in fostering social interactions. As a result, the big five personality framework serves an important role in the study of the relationship between leadership behavior and leader traits (Uhl-

Bien et al., 2014). The five components of the framework involve conscientiousness, openness, agreeableness, extraversion, and neuroticism (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Leaders' capacity to manage these identified five components is critical to predicting leadership effectiveness.

The leaders' capacity to display effective control of these different personality traits served an important role in determining leadership effectiveness (Grundig & Ward, 2015). Motivational characteristics were identified in the study as being crucial to leadership effectiveness prediction (Derue et al., 2011; Hartnell et al., 2011). In this study, such motivational characteristics were identified based on personality assessment and standard measurement of individual traits (Derue et al., 2011). From such personality assessment, achievement emerged as a key attribute for leadership effectiveness as it indicated the leaders' desire to attain optimal success in meeting their goals (Hoffman, Bynum et al., 2011). Similarly, dominance was identified as being a critical component indicating the potential of the leader to exercise power in influencing the followers effectively (Derue et al., 2011). Furthermore, cognitive skills were identified in the study as being important predictors of leadership effectiveness. Such cognitive predictors include critical thinking, effective planning skills, openness to new information and ideas, creation of new ideas, and potential to revise such ideas (Kunze et al., 2016; Lam et al., 2015). In addition, the study findings provided important information indicating how critical writing skills and verbal reasoning in the prediction of leadership effectiveness. The clusters of skills identified as being critical to predicting leadership effectiveness include thoughtful innovators in which highly motivated thinkers usually emerge as effective leaders (Ewen et al., 2013). In such thoughtful innovator skills, the leaders who scored highly in the achievement, intuition, thinking, openness, dominance, planning, verbal reasoning, and creation of ideas emerged as being effective (Houghton et al., 2015; Jing & Avery, 2011).

Leaders who are motivated communicators are said to be effective in dominating and influencing their followers (Ewen et al., 2013). Although such leaders scored highly in extroversion, achievement, and responsibility, they scored lowly in perception and intuition. The results indicate that social adaptor skills are other important aspects used to predict leadership effectiveness (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; López-Domínguez et al., 2012). For instance, leaders who score highly in relational skills, extroversion, openness, and perception are likely to influence their followers positively. Such leaders usually occupy senior leadership positions in organizations (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Other leadership skills identified as being predictors of effective leaders include concrete achiever skills, disengaged introverts, and limited defensives. The leaders' capacity to control these skills is important in indicating their effectiveness (Ewen et al., 2013). In order to address the psychological component of leadership effectiveness, it is important to revisit the six major leadership theories.

Six Leadership Theories

Within the field of psychology, six major leadership theories are identified. Those theories include trait, behavioral, contingency, transformational, transactional, and integrated. Beginning with the literature review, these six theories have been defined as key to providing a framework to explore what is effective leadership. In the analysis of leadership as a psychological process for predicting effective leadership, several major leadership theories have been explored to determine the psychological aspects that define effective leaders. Examining the effects of psychological attributes on leadership practice is crucial toward predicting leadership effectiveness. An accurate definition of leadership covers diverse elements, including skills, qualities, traits, and characteristics that influence leadership behavior (Derue et al., 2011). Additionally, the role of inherent and learned attributes in leadership practice has also been

examined to determine if leaders are made or born. Nonetheless, leaders are defined as individuals with particular innate attributes that predispose them to fulfill particular leadership duties (Derue et al., 2011). However, such leaders must acquire adequate experiences and obtain lessons that can enhance their capacity to perform leadership responsibilities more effectively. Throughout the literature review several key theories of leadership were determined to be important for identifying a psychological process for leadership. In the next section those key theories are discussed in greater detail beginning with trait theory.

Trait Theory

The first theory involves the trait theory. The trait theory was derived from the Great Man theory in the nineteenth century (Oreg & Berson, 2015). The theory was initially applied in the study of leadership traits among social and military leaders whose common traits and attributes were considered to serve an important purpose as a source of leadership. Based on the earlier studies, the trait theory covered the personal, physical, and social attributes that influence leadership. Additionally, effective leaders demonstrated a number of shared traits, such as honesty, integrity, desire to lead, intelligence, confidence, and knowledge (Oreg & Berson, 2015). However, with the continued exploration of the effective leadership traits, the attributes have increased in number to include extroversion, insight, tolerance, and dominance (Oreg & Berson, 2015). These diverse leadership traits and attributes play a central role in determining leadership success, hence predicting effective leadership.

Behavioral Theory of Leadership

The second core theory used to predict leadership effectiveness is the behavioral theory of leadership. Behavioral theory differs from the trait theory in that it focuses on the actions of the leaders rather than their traits (Bolden et al., 2003; Cavazotte et al., 2012; Houghton et al.,

2015). As a result, the behavioral theory emphasizes the important leadership behaviors necessary to determine and predict leadership effectiveness. Based on the behavioral theory, leaders are described as being either task-oriented or people-oriented (Datta, 2015; Houghton et al., 2015). Whereas task-oriented leaders are focused on promoting followers' task performance, people-oriented leaders usually focus on followers and their behaviors with the objective of fostering good relationships and trust (Datta, 2015; Houghton et al., 2015).

Based on leadership behaviors, three leadership styles have been identified: leaders can be autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire. Autocratic leaders do not involve or consult with their followers when making decisions (Boehm et al., 2015; Hoffman, Woehr et al., 2011). Conversely, democratic leaders involve the input of their followers in decision-making, while the laissez-faire leader allows followers to exercise responsibility in making their own decisions without interference (Chênevert et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2012).

Contingency Leadership Theory

The third core theory used to explain leadership entails the contingency leadership theory. This theory indicates the need for leaders to recognize the clues within their leadership environment and adapt their behaviors and actions to address the needs of followers and the specific situation (Fiedler, 2015). The theory holds that the effects of a single variable, such as behavior, trait, or situation, depend on other variables. The sub theories of contingency theory include the Robert House's Path-Goal Contingency theory, Fred Fiedler Contingency theory, and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational theory (Fiedler, 2015).

Robert House's theory emphasizes on the relationship between followers, mutual goals, and the leader. Conversely, Fiedler indicates that leadership effectiveness depends on the favorableness of the situation. Lastly, Hersey-Blanchard's situational perspective indicates the

need for leadership to be adapted to the maturity of followers (Oreg & Berson, 2015). A single leadership style cannot be practiced across all situations, but rather it should be aligned to the followers' needs (Oreg & Berson, 2015).

Transformational Theory

The fourth core leadership theory explored to predict leadership effectiveness entails the transformational theory. According to this theory, transformational leaders normally focus on their followers, thereby providing them with the desired intellectual stimulation, inspiring vision, and motivation to attain the shared vision (Vito et al., 2014; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

Transformational leadership theory emphasizes on positive relationships between leaders and their followers, with the leaders focusing on allowing followers to achieve their potential (Bass & Riggs, 2006). Besides fostering follower growth, transformative leaders allows their followers to develop a sense of collective identity, while serving as the role model and challenging followers to assume ownership of their task performance (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

Transactional Theory

The fifth core theory of explaining leadership practice involves the transactional leadership theory. This form of leadership is appropriate in emergency and crisis situations, where tasks must be performed in specific designs. Effective task performance is rewarded while poor performance is punished (Oreg & Berson, 2015).

Integrated Psychological Theory

The last core theory used to explore leadership effectiveness involves the integrated psychological theory, which is also referred to as the integrated leadership theory (Boehm et al., 2015). The integrated leadership theory addresses the limitations of prior theories and adds a new element requiring leaders to nurture their leadership attitude, presence, and behavioral

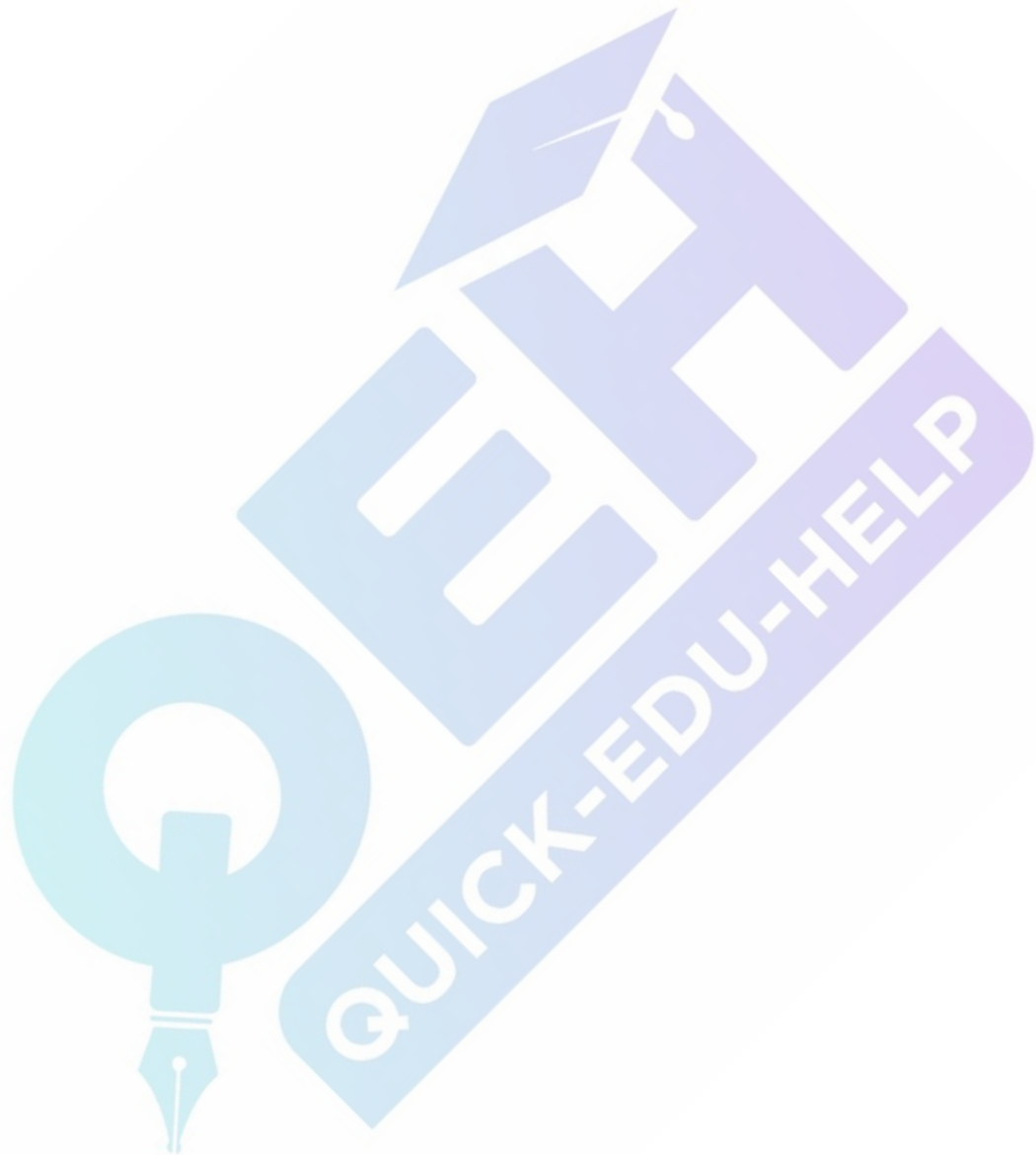
flexibility based on psychological mastery (Boehm et al., 2015). Leaders are expected to exercise effective leadership practice on three parallel levels: private, public, and personal. Private and public leaderships focus on influencing people at both the collective and individual levels (Boehm et al., 2015). Conversely, personal leadership emphasizes on developing significant leadership presence, skill, and knowledge, which are critical toward enhancing trust based relationships (Boehm et al., 2015).

While behavioral theories are crucial in explaining the actions that indicate leadership effectiveness, trait theories help in identifying the specific personality characteristics that can define effective leaders (Boies et al., 2015). Behavioral theory also indicates that leadership can be learned while trait theory explains leadership as being based on a leader's innate attributes, thereby lacking the flexibility associated with determining the role of environmental factors (Boies et al., 2015). The contingency theory builds on both the behavioral and trait theories, thereby indicating the need for situational leadership approach. In contrast, the transformative, transactional, and the integrated leadership theories indicate the importance of leader-follower relationships (Boies et al., 2015). The six theories explored are examined closely for their similarities and differences, which can be used to describe leadership effectiveness (Boies et al., 2015).

Summary

This chapter integrated the literature review and the thesis for this dissertation by examining the major leadership theories as psychological processes to determine whether such analyses can contribute to a prediction of effective leadership. The chapter began with a review of the criteria and qualities of being an effective leader. The discussion continued with an examination of the personality framework and expanded on the literature review discussion from

chapter 3 of trait, behavioral, contingency, transformational and integrated psychology theories of leadership. The final chapter will integrate the work from the literature review and this discussion chapter with conclusions and recommendations from this dissertation.



Chapter 5: Conclusion

In this dissertation, I examined the major leadership theories as psychological processes to determine whether such analyses can contribute to a prediction of effective leadership. I synthesized both trait theories and theories based on personal characteristics to explore leadership as a psychological process and showed that they can be used to predict effective leadership. An exploration of leadership as a psychological process demonstrated a significant role in determining how organizational psychology and different theoretical perspectives can be used to predict effective leadership. The study of major leadership theories and psychological concepts that can be used to predict leadership effectiveness has led researchers to realize several important findings. The core results obtained indicate that leadership effectiveness is dependent on an individual's capacity to demonstrate specific behaviors, traits, and attributes (Bolden et al., 2003; Brouer et al., 2013; Cavazotte et al., 2012; Derue et al., 2011). Such behaviors serve an important role in determining the leadership styles used to improve performance, thereby emerging as predictors of leadership effectiveness (Datta, 2015; Mühlberger & Traut-Mattausch, 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2012). Some of these valuable and important traits that effective leaders must possess include: capacity to manage the interpersonal dynamics (Avolio et al., 2010; Boehm et al., 2015), ability to bring together diverse individuals tasks (Brouer et al., 2013; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012), empower followers to perform tasks without manipulation or coercion (Burns, 2010; Michaelis et al., 2010), and consider their followers as an essential asset required for the execution of the developed plans (Oreg & Berson, 2015; Piccolo et al., 2012) among others. Furthermore, there are several skills that are linked to effective leader development. Such skills include self-awareness skills, such as emotional awareness abilities;

self-regulation capabilities, such as self-control; and the capacity for self-motivation, including optimism (Brouer et al., 2013; Colbert et al., 2012).

Other than skills and attributes, previous research indicated that demographics of leaders also influence their effectiveness as leaders. The trait paradigm posited that factors such as gender, personality, education, experience, and intelligence may influence leadership effectiveness (Hartnell et al., 2011). These demographics have been investigated in studies to determine whether they have any measurable effect on leadership effectiveness (Grant et al., 2011; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Meanwhile, emotional intelligence emerged as being twice as essential as technical and cognitive skills in predicting leadership performance (Dinh et al., 2014; Goleman et al., 2013). Emotional intelligence components explored in the study include self-awareness, motivation, and self-regulation (Dabke, 2016; Goleman & McKee, 2013). These three components form the self-management capabilities necessary to ensure effective leadership (Jayakody & Gamage, 2015; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014).

Besides the several qualities of leadership explored above, leadership effectiveness can be predicted using emotional intelligence (Houghton et al., 2015). Emotional intelligence is an important aspect of leadership practice as it allows leaders to manage and control their own emotions and their followers' emotions (Houghton et al., 2015). In line with emotional intelligence, social intelligence is considered an important aspect that indicates the role of interpersonal behaviors in fostering effective leadership. With emotional intelligence, effective leaders can perceive, assess, and demonstrate appropriate emotions depending on situations (Houghton et al., 2015).

Leaders require emotional intelligence to address the emerging demands in their leadership practices. For instance, leaders need emotional intelligence to manage and foster change (Houghton et al., 2015). To demonstrate emotional intelligence, leaders need to develop competencies in five important areas. The first area entails self-awareness, which allows them to understand the influence of their emotions on their followers' actions (Houghton et al., 2015). With self-awareness, leaders can avoid emotional instabilities related to anger, thereby ensuring positive relationships with followers (Houghton et al., 2015).

Effective leaders must also demonstrate the second competency of self-regulation. Self-regulation allows leaders to maintain objectivity by avoiding rushed decision-making processes (Yukl, 2012). Thirdly, leaders must demonstrate knowledge in the competency area relating to self-motivation (Yukl, 2012). Self-motivation allows leaders to focus toward realizing their goals based on quality task performance (Yukl, 2012).

The fourth competency area that leaders must demonstrate involves empathy. Empathy allows leaders to ensure effective practice by listening and helping their followers to perform their roles effectively (Yukl, 2012). Lastly, leaders must demonstrate appropriate social skills for effective leadership practice (Yukl, 2012). For instance, social skills such as communication and conflict resolution are essential aspects of predicting leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the exploration of leadership as a psychological process has led to the analysis of several core leadership theories, qualities, and attributes that can be used to predict effective leadership.

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