Organizational Leaders, Conventional Leadership Philosophies Backed by Academic Research and Unconventional Leadership Philosophies

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Abstract:- The article's goal was to identify the elements that led organizational leaders and traditional leadership practices supported by academic theories to nontraditional leadership practices. In the age of extreme complexity, attention to leadership is crucial. The third millennium, with its unique traits like hyperindustrialization, communication and information technology period, and digital world, demands leaders who can keep up with societal developments.

The construction and development of organization involves many different aspects, among which leadership is of great importance and occupies 45 percent of organizational work (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Leadership works greatly on the realization of visions and goals; a leader lacking in leadership, like the front of a train short of a driver, prevents the realization of these goals. Value of the study: Leaders are moving away from the conventional leadership theories that have been taught in schools and toward their non-conventional leadership techniques. There is a paucity of knowledge regarding the causes of this new phenomenon, and leaders are still being educated using theories that may no longer be suitable in light of the constantly shifting organizational environment.In contrast, a strong leader may effectively guide his followers to go in a particular direction, much like a front with a forceful driving force. A leader in an organization is like the front of a locomotive. According to system theory, organization's harmony appears and its goals are realized as long as its organizational leadership is at its finest.

Keyword:- Leadership, Autocratic leadership, Transformational Leadership, Transactional leadership, Authentic Leadership, Ethical Leadership, inspirational motivation, idealised influence, individual consideration.

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the dawn of time, leadership has changed throughout history. Despite the extensive leadership research that has been done and the numerous theories that have been developed over the past century, neither researchers nor leaders have come up with a universally accepted theory of leadership that encompasses all situations (Allio, 2013; Bennis, 2013).

Although the systematic study of leadership dates back to the 1930s and has given rise to numerous theories, including James MacGregor's concept of transformational leadership in the 1970s, no single theory has been accepted by academics (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009). Bennis (2013) and Latham (2014), argue that traditional leadership approaches are failing to meet the demands and expectations of modern corporate environments, and current leadership theories might be out of date.

Allio (2013) and Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) argue that each leadership style should be employed separately, despite the fact that there is a lot of overlap and similarity between them. Recent approaches to leadership, such as transactional or transformational, also support this idea. Despite this, a lot of scholars still view each as distinct and unique. A transactional leader inspires through a goal-oriented system of leadership, whereas a transformational leader inspires through the use of long-term goals and performance. However, if one were to apply theory, a leader cannot use both styles concurrently (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Safferstone, 2005).

According to several scholars, leaders should only use one type of leadership, which restricts how desired leadership attributes can be used in reality (Derue & Wellman, 2009; Torres & Reeves, 2011). Northouse (2013) listed intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability as the five key leadership traits sought by leaders engaged in any leadership capacity or style. Leadership traits are behaviors shown by people. Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) and McCleskey (2014) argued that characteristics like intelligence, creative problem-solving, and integrity are only a few of the qualities a transformational leader should possess; yet, these same qualities are also coveted by leaders who follow transactional and other leadership philosophies.

Warren Bennis, a prominent pioneer in the study of leadership, argued that globalization, technology, and digitization had profoundly altered leadership before his passing in 2014 (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; George & Sims, 2007). Other researchers, such as Latham (2014) and Dew, Enriquez, McFarlane, and Schroeder (2011), have identified the phenomenon of an evolving and constant progression within society that affects all facets of international interaction, economics, business, and organizational environments, have concurred with Bennis' advice.

There are leadership gaps and a need for new leadership abilities and skill sets as a result of expanding organizational efficiency measurements, economic integration, increased stakeholder involvement in organizational affairs, and changes to traditional company

procedures (Latham, 2014). No widely accepted approach or leadership style is thought to be the best for influencing, according to Hershey and Blanchard (1969) and McCleskey (2014), because various situations necessitate taking different actions. Future leaders across all sectors will need to be more aware, involved, and interactive with their businesses and workforces. To do this, they will need to adopt new leadership strategies and develop stronger negotiating abilities in the face of the organizational landscape's ongoing change (Ling, Simsek, Lubatkin, & Veiga, 2008; Rietsema & Watkins, 2012).

In-depth research has continued on formal leadership studies, which started in the 1930s (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009). The best leadership theory has not been decided upon by researchers, even though many different leadership theories are currently in use (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009). Otte (2015) argued that conventional leadership theory was created for an industrial era without having a vision for a future in which networks of companies are collaborative. global, and interconnected. As stated by Bennis (2014), present leadership theories are unable to meet the needs of today's organizational requirements because of the development of a technologically digital world, transparency, and the need for leaders to lead across various dimensions.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The ongoing application of outmoded leadership ideas has become problematic due to the shifting organizational contexts of the twenty-first century (Bennis, 2013; Latham, 2014). In contrast to academic theory, many leaders today no longer use conventional leadership philosophies and have shifted to more effective methods, including using multiple philosophies at once (Derue & Wellman, 2009; Kaigh, Driscoll, Tucker, & Lam, 2014; Srinivasan, 2010).

Leaders who continue to practice traditional leadership are less effective, according to Torres and Reeves (2014) and Sarros and Sarros (2011), because of a lack of confidence, and a lack of abilities related to adaptive ability, among other things. According to several studies (Bennis, 2013; Latham, 2014; Rietsema & Watkins, 2012), conventional management concepts and methods that were not designed to meet the organizational difficulties of the twenty-first century connected to advancements in technology, globalization, and openness generally resulted in less successful leaders. This led to the emergence of constantly changing 21st-century organizational environments. According to McCleskey (2014) and Silva (2014), there is no one effective leadership style, and academics, academic researchers, and organizations that practice leadership all hold divergent opinions about what constitutes effective leadership.

The specific problem was the absence of understanding of why organizational leaders changed from their non-traditional behaviors, which are not yet tied to a theory or model of leadership, to those that are supported by academic theories of leadership (Derue & Wellman, 2009; Fibuch, 2011; Kaigh, et al., 2014). Participants in this study who are utilizing new non-traditional leadership styles and have

acknowledged the problems that traditional leadership models have in 21st-century enterprises provided the data for this study. It will be possible to establish new theories and better understand why many of the current ones are out-of-date by analyzing the participants' replies, views, and decision-making processes (Bennis, 2013; Fibuch, 2011; Latham, 2014).

III. THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The original research on James MacGregor Burns' transformational leadership theory conducted in the 1970s, as well as subsequent studies by Bernard M. Bass and a large number of other researchers, served as the foundation for the theoretical framework chosen to support this study (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bennett, 2009; Burns, Northouse, 2013). Bass created the transformational leadership theory based on Burns' research on transformational leadership, which identified four key components of transformational leadership: intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass 2008). By promoting independence and looking for new opportunities to achieve objectives, leaders give their followers intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2008).

By concentrating on needs and acting as a mentor, teacher, and motivator, individualized consideration is given (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2008). To inspire groups and give them a sense of purpose and meaning for work, a leader might use qualities like charisma (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2008). Leaders that act as role models and exhibit qualities like honesty, dependability, and zeal provide idealized influence (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2008).

The five practices of the exceptional leadership model were created by Kouses and Posner (2012) in response to the increased demand for values-centered leadership and leadership development (Naicker, Chikoko, & Mthiyane, 2014; Otte, 2015). The leadership model developed by Kouses and Posner highlighted five crucial traits and behaviors for effective leaders: setting an example, inspiring a common vision, challenging the status quo, empowering people to take action, and encouraging the heart. To "model the way," one must lead by example, serve as an inspiration to others, create opportunities for change, and take the initiative while building relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). A leader who can inspire others to share an organization's vision and create confidence that the purpose can be realized is said to be practicing inspiring a shared vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2017).

In conclusion, challenging the process means questioning the current quo, acknowledging the possibility of failure, seeking for creative ways to find change leaders, as well as exploring challenging options. Leaders may inspire others to take action by creating an environment that is encouraging and where they demonstrate their belief in and willingness to work with others while also allowing them to use their creativity and make contributions to the company (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). Encourage the heart, according to Kouzes and Posner (2017), is the practice of

leaders recognizing their staff members' achievements and sharing their success with other leaders.

Northouse (2013) identifies intelligence, self-assurance, persistence, honesty, and sociability as the essential qualities of a leader. Northouse (2013) claims that self-confidence is the capacity of a leader to have faith in their skills and abilities, whereas intellect is viewed as the capacity for cognition. Northouse (2013) defines determination as demonstrating persistence and a personal will to accomplish a goal. Integrity is the attribute of dependability and honesty, whereas sociability is the ability of a leader to forge connections with others by projecting an approachable demeanor and the aptitude for social and personal interactions.

According to Avolio (2009) and Ling (2008), transformational leadership and the characteristics that go along with it have become the preeminent leadership style. The five practices of excellent leadership proposed by Kouzes and Posner, along with those proposed by Burns (2012), Bennett (2009), Latham (2014), Northouse (2013), and Thompson (2012), have all been proposed as qualities of leadership that can be applied to a number of leadership philosophies. According to Kouzes and Posner (2012), the adoption of features that are common to many different leadership styles shows that leaders have evolved and use various leadership stances concurrently.

IV. HISTORY OF LEADERSHIP EVOLUTION

While leadership is seen as an essential field of study, there isn't a lot of consensus in this area (Northouse, 2013). Interest in formal leadership education has been growing since the turn of the 20th century (Allio, 2013). Over the past century, the study of leadership has changed as interest in the field has risen steadily. For instance, Bernard Bass launched the leadership quarterly, an academic publication that has published over 800 manuscripts on the subject of leadership (Dionne et al., 2014). Over the past fifty years, leadership has been one of the areas that business schools throughout the world and in the United States have taught the most (Collinson & Tourish, 2015).

Since the earliest family unit, clan, village, and other structured organizations came into existence, leadership, even in its most basic form, has existed within civilizations (Allio, 2013; Celarent, 2014). The globe has benefited from the contributions of early civilizations like the Phoenicians, who invented the phonetic alphabet, and improved glassmaking skills, and navigational methods (Gore, 2004). According to Chase, Jacob, Jacob, Perry, and Von Laue (2013), the Greeks and Romans are also responsible for the introduction of democracy, architecture, aqueducts, the calendar, the arts, the census, and a host of other innovations. These and other civilizations' entrepreneurial spirit and successes provide proof of the existence of structured leadership in some capacity as well as the ongoing development of leadership over time (Anderson, Curley, & Formica, 2010).

Leadership has changed over the past century from being a practice or something that individuals performed to being a well-defined research process that has resulted in a variety of leadership theories and styles (Dionne, et al., 2014). The University of Iowa undertook leadership research in the 1930s to determine the optimum leadership technique (Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, & Shaikh, 2012).Laissez-faire, democracy, and autocracy were shown to be the three primary leadership styles in Kurt Lewin's research (Bhatti et al., 2012). While the laissez-faire leader gave power and responsibility to others, the autocratic leader maintained a controlled environment, prioritized decisionmaking, imposed a dictatorial system of work for followers, and limited the participation of followers (Bhatti et al., 2012). The democratic leadership style was found to be more effective in fostering positive employee attitudes and morale through involvement, delegation, and working with followers (Omilion-Hodges & Wieland, 2016; Smothers, 2011).

The Ohio State Leadership Studies conducted a leadership study in the 1940s and 1950s and discovered issues with groups, organizations, and the function of followers about leadership (Stogdill, 1950). Observations about a progressive shift away from authoritarian leadership methods and toward a transactional style approach were made during the Ohio research period (Omilion-Hodges & Wieland, 2016). Two key components linked to leadership behaviors were discovered by the Ohio State experiments done by Stogdill: beginning structure and thoughtfulness (Rowold, 2011). The effectiveness of a leader's capacity to organizational establish follower structure and responsibilities had an impact on task-related goals as well as profitability and performance (Rowold, 2011). Consideration influenced addressing the relationships with the needs of followers, promoting positive traits including open dialogue, respect, and trust between followers and leaders (Rowold, 2011). According to Ayman and Korabik (2010), consideration was found to be the factor that had the greatest impact on follower commitment and performance satisfaction.

Studies from the University of Michigan that were similar to those from Ohio State from the late 1940s and early 1950s were carried out in the 1960s. To determine leadership effectiveness, Likert conducted studies in Michigan (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014; Northouse, 2013). The study resulted in behavior-oriented leadership styles that are employee- and production-focused (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Northouse, 2013). Leaders who prioritized production concentrated on technical issues whereas employee-centered leaders concentrated on relationships. Leaders that put their people first performed better as a team and were more satisfied with their work.

Low satisfaction and output were the results of leaders that prioritized production (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014; Yukl, 2012). However, during the past century, a movement has evolved that also focuses on followers and the impact they have on organizational leadership and success (Allio, 2013). The study of leadership has produced and will continue to create valuable research. Within their corporate

surroundings, modern followers today have more authority, control, information, and empowerment (Allio, 2013; Carter, 2013).

In the opinion of Allio (2013) and Carter (2013), the modern follower is tech aware, current, and involved in every facet of their sector specialty. Today's leaders must help followers develop and maintain the skills necessary to implement and sustain market performance and connections with customers, counterparts, and alliances in addition to their traditional leadership responsibilities (Allio, 2013; Carter, 2013). Leadership Theories since the 1930s, when the official study of leadership began, scholars have developed a wide range of leadership theories and styles (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009).

Warren Bennis, a 20th-century pioneer in the study of leadership, discussed how leaders change from traditional leadership and focused on acquiring control to a more nontraditional manner of motivating followers in his 1985 book On Becoming a Leader (Bennis, 2009). In contrast to conventional thinking, the Bennis method of leadership showed the way toward a more trait-based approach where leaders gave vision, passion, integrity, and trust (Bennis, 2009). The Leadership Challenge series of books by Kouzes and Posner that emphasized credibility, morals, values, ethics, and engagement were influenced by or improved upon by Bennis' approach to leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). One crucial element that successful leaders must possess is the capacity to create teams, acknowledge the efforts of others, and celebrate the accomplishments of both individuals and teams (Kouzes & Posner, 2017).

V. LEADERSHIP DEFINED

Bass (1990: 11) states that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept." As a result, it is impossible to adequately characterize leadership in two or three sentences. Despite different definitions, the process by which one person may persuade a group of others to pursue a single objective is the theoretical basis for leadership. According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), it is an encounter between two or more persons that results in an activity that produces an outcome that satisfies a predetermined agreement or set of conditions.

Burns (1978) first defined leadership as someone persuading others to perform in a way that represents their values and motives as well as the needs and wants, aspirations, and expectations of their followers. Leadership is described by Bass (1990: 11) as "the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of including compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviors, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as the initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions." Nelson (quoted in De Lacy, 2009) described it as the process of controlling and shaping people's behavior in the workplace.

According to Yukl (2002), successful leadership is the act of persuading people to understand and agree on what needs to be done, how to do it effectively, and how to facilitate both individual and group efforts to achieve common goals. According to Gregoire and Arendt (2004), leadership is the behavior of a person who guides a group's actions toward a common objective. Giving the organization a vision is one of a leader's main responsibilities (Beato, 2020). The leader inspires and motivates teams to work toward a common objective by outlining the vision and what has to be done to attain it. People will naturally follow a leader in search of guidance, direction, and clarity.

Individuals can reach higher levels of achievement and performance with the support of a leader's direction and mentoring. A capable team leader also contributes significantly to ensuring productivity in addition to providing guidance. The team leader fosters an environment that encourages high performance by aggressively recognizing and minimizing potential dangers or impediments that could obstruct progress. The team leader takes proactive steps to reduce disruptions and maintain productivity levels, whether it's disagreements, addressing resource limitations, or adjusting to unforeseen problems. In addition to leading the team, their duties also include actively guarding it against hazards that can compromise its performance. What Is the Importance of Leadership? Editorial Team, 2022).

According to Flynn (2009), leadership is the process by which a person motivates others to work toward similar objectives. It entails swaying team members' participation and offering direction on a predetermined course to be taken. An effective leadership style promotes change and provides the push for transformation, claim Naidu and Van Der Walt (2005). A leader's function could be seen as that of a powerful change agent. According to Banerji and Krishnan (2000), leadership is a process whereby leaders create a common vision, set the tone, and affect everyone in the organization's behavior to advance shared ideals. By helping workers adopt a common mental model, the shared vision fosters alignment.

In the view of Jones and Rudd (2007), leadership is the interaction of leaders and followers within a social group. It involves giving people a vision, developing power, and using this power to help others fulfill the vision. This study defines leadership, which is the capacity to persuade people to participate in transformation interventions, as the ability to match personal goals with those of the leader and, organization. eventually, the One transformation is the capacity to act in a novel way in comparison to the past. Additionally, rather than enhancing something that already exists, it might be seen as the development of a new entity. As a result, interventions that modify people's behavior will be referred to as transformational interventions, according to Naidu and Van Der Walt (2005). A review of the literature on leadership, there are three major leadership styles in the current environment: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, with

transformational leadership and transactional leadership being the most prevalent (Mester et al., 2003).

A. The Great Man Theory

The Great Man theory served as a forerunner to the formal study of leadership. The Great Man theory was more based on views and individual viewpoints of the time than it was on actual study. Thomas Carlyle, a Scottish author, first proposed the idea that leaders were born, not manufactured, in the 1840s. This idea later became a theory and was upheld as a general principle throughout the 20th century (Hoffman, Lyons, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Woehr, 2011).

According to the Great Man Theory, leaders are created, not trained or developed, which is why the phrase "a born leader" is used (Allio, 2013; Cawthon, 1996). An 1869 study by Galton that suggested some leadership qualities are genetically passed down from generation to generation supported the Great Man theory (Lee, 2011). Thomas Carlyle thought that people's character traits, innate abilities, and predetermined traits created heroes who excelled in trials and assumed leadership responsibilities (Hoffman et al., 2011). The underlying premise of the Great Man thesis was that only a select group of people have the necessary qualities and abilities to enable them to be leaders (Bass & Bass, 2008). Due in part to its exclusion of women from leadership positions, the Great Man Theory remained popular through the 1940s (Cawthon, 1996).

B. Trait Theories

According to the Great Man theory and trait theorists, people are born with specific leadership qualities and cannot acquire these qualities through education or training (Northouse, 2013). The Great Man hypothesis saw a split in the 1930s and 1940s, and trait theory underwent a shift in perspective (Northouse, 2013). The trait approach to leadership studies emphasized individual features and argued that each person's capacity to lead was shaped by a unique combination of personality traits and characteristics (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012).

The idea that people might be either born or formed if they could learn the traits to be good leaders was offered by the new perspectives of trait theory, which marked a substantial distinction (Fleenor, 2011). According to Northouse (2013), some of the most important leadership qualities were recognized in Stogdill's 1948 study as alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, selfconfidence, and sociability. Adjustment, dominance, extroversion, conservatism, and masculinity were added to the list of characteristics in 1959 by Mann's study (Northouse, 2013). Achievement, tolerance, influence, and cooperativeness were introduced as new qualities in a 1974 study by Stogdill (Northouse, 2013). Further research, as shown in Figure 1, expanded the list of leadership qualities to include masculinity, dominance, drive, motivation, confidence, cognitive capacity, and task expertise.

Table 1: Trait Theories

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)	Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader (2004)
intelligence	intelligence	achievement	intelligence	drive	cognitive abilities
alertness	masculinity	persistence	masculinity	motivation	extraversion
insight	adjustment	insight	dominance	integrity	conscientiousness
responsibility	dominance	initiative		confidence	emotional stability
initiative	extraversion	self-confidence		cognitive ability	openness
persistence	conservatism	responsibility		task knowledge	agreeableness
self-confidence		cooperativeness			motivation
sociability		tolerance			social intelligence
		influence			self-monitoring
		sociability			emotional intelligence
					problem solving
Sources: Adopted from "Leadership: Theory and Practice" by Northouse (2013), Sixth Edition (pp. 23)					

One of the key objectives of trait theorists was to identify the distinguishing traits of leaders (Cruz, Nunes, & Pinheiro, 2011). The leader-follower component and the interactions between leaders and followers were not considered, but (Cruz et al., 2011). The essential ideas for leadership study were formed by trait theory. The development of trait theory and the gaps it had served as the foundation for research on behavior theories, which began in the 1940s, and other leadership theories that would follow (Cruz et al., 2011).

C. Behavioral Theories

One of the ways that behavior theory differs from trait theory is that it focuses on an individual's behavior rather than on certain traits they may or may not possess (Gupta & Singh, 2013). The shift from trait theory to behavior-based leadership styles occurred in the late 1940s (Cruz et al., 2011). Laissez-faire, democratic, and authoritarian were the three styles of leadership behavior discovered in leadership research done by the University of Iowa in the 1930s (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013).

Many people considered laissez-faire conduct to be a poor kind of leadership that employed a hands-off attitude (Northouse, 2013). Laissez-faire behavior aimed to empower individuals, delegate responsibility, and foster the peer-to-peer communication necessary to achieve an organization's objectives (Bass & Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2013). Democratic behavior was a strategy for interacting with followers and including them in decision-making (Northouse, 2013). According to Northouse (2013) and Schuh et al. (2013), authoritarian behavior refers to the practice of giving followers specific instructions and expecting them to obey them.

D. Contingency Theory

Fiedler created the contingency theory in 1967, which proposed that certain circumstances would determine the kind of leadership and response that would be necessary to deal with the situation successfully (Fiedler, 1967; Prindle, 2012). In contrast to behavioral and characteristic models of leadership, contingency theory proposed that leaders should employ various leadership philosophies and techniques depending on the needs of their organizations (Andibo, 2012). One of the more widely studied leadership theories, the contingency theory, claimed that organizations should match a leader's abilities with their personal preferences in terms of style and mindset (Northouse, 2013). To identify organizational scenarios and assign leaders predetermined leadership attributes in certain leadership positions, contingency theory was applied (Gray, 2013; Northouse, 2013).

E. Situational Theories

Blanchard created the situational leadership theory in the 1960s on the premise that various circumstances call for various responses (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996). According to this notion, leaders should modify their style of leadership dependent on the degree of follower development (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996). The idea also said that the leader should match the proper decision-making approach, such as delegation, participation, telling, or selling, to the followers' specific skill level depending on the maturity level of the followers (Northouse, 2013).

The beginning of the transition from the trait approach to leadership toward situational leadership was made possible by Stogdill's 1948 study (Northouse, 2013). In a follow-up study published in 1974, Stogdill said that characteristics were not a factor in a leader's performance. According to the study, although leaders may have had some similar characteristics, it was their capacity for situational adaptation and the deployment of relevant and unique leadership philosophies in response to those events that led to the intended outcomes (Northouse, 2013).

F. Path-Goal Theory

According to the theory behind path-goal leadership (Hughes, Curphy, & Ginnett, 2015), followers are given goals through value rewards, and the leaders then show them the best way to get there. In the early 1970s, House worked with Evans, Dessler, and Mitchell to establish path-goal leadership (House, 1996; Phillips & Phillips, 2016). The idea that leaders should boost followers' motivation,

contentment, and performance by communicating with them, rewarding them appropriately, and removing any barriers to goal accomplishment is a key component of pathgoal theory (Hollenbeck, DeRue & Nahrgang, 2015; House, 1996). The use of path-goal leadership was designed to achieve corporate goals in addition to leader and follower goals (Yukl, 2012).

By Hollenbeck, DeRue, and Nahrgang (2015), Path-Goal is a behavioral or situational theory that combines aspects of a leader's actions, follower qualities, and circumstances. Path-Goal is an alternate method to existing leadership theory that addressed the idea that there isn't a single leadership style that can be used in every circumstance and did not allow for diverse ways to situational change (MacDonald & Luque, 2013).

To study, forecast, and affect the behavior of followers, the path-goal theory was established (MacDonald & Luque, 2013). Achievement-oriented, directive, supporting, and participative are the four leadership characteristics or styles that House defined as being appropriate to leadership settings (Phillips & Phillips, 2016). According to House (MacDonald & Luque, 2013), leaders should be adaptable and willing to change their behavior and leadership style depending on the circumstances. In addition to adapting their behavior to the circumstances, leaders should also take into account the unique qualities of their followers and the work at hand (Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011).

The goal-oriented leader can create difficult, demanding objectives that motivate people to give their best efforts. The leader displays faith in the abilities, performance, and outcomes of the followers. When results can be assessed and measured, achievement-oriented behavior is most beneficial (Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011; House, 1996). In cases where allocated tasks are ambiguous or uncertain, a leader would approach followers using the directive technique (Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011; House, 1996).

The leaders provide specific tasks to the followers and provide clear instructions on both what has to be done and how to do it (House, 1996; Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011). Clear direction from the leader fosters follower motivation and pleasure (Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011; House, 1996). With followers, the participative leader exudes assurance, respect, and trust (House, 1996; Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011). During the task or project evaluation process, a participative leader elicits follower feedback and expertise (House, 1996; Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011). Followers gain self-assurance and credibility in their performance areas through the participatory process (Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011; House, 1996).

According to Saccomano and Pinto_Zipp (2011), supportive leadership is typically most effective when dealing with stressful or physically taxing tasks. Supportive leadership is characterized by a leader's activities that show concern for the welfare of followers (House, 1996; Saccomano & Pinto_Zipp, 2011). According to research by Saccomano and Pinto_Zipp (2011) and House (1996),

followers are willing to work more to satisfy their leader

when the leader shows concern for their welfare.

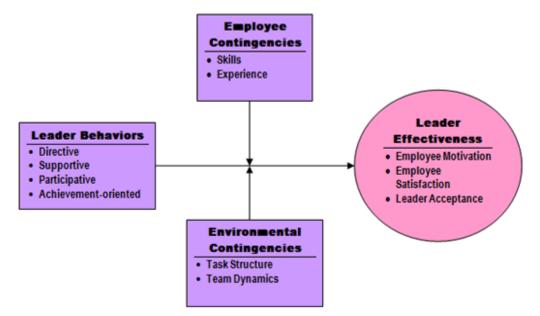


Fig. 1: Path-Goal Leadership. Reprinted from Leadership: Theory and practice

G. Transactional Theory

Max Weber is credited with developing the theory of transactional leadership and introducing it in 1947 (McCleskey, 2014). Goal attainment, management by exception, and dependent rewards are all components of the transactional model (Bass, 1997). One way for leaders and followers to exchange actions that produce incentives is through transactional leadership. Through dependent rewards, a transactional leader can increase followers' performance (Humphrey, 2013). Transactional leadership was described by Northouse (2013) as a straightforward exchange between leaders and followers for achieving objectives, awarding promotions, bonuses, or other transactional exchanges for performance. According to McCleskey (2014) and Rowold (2014), transactional leadership involves a trade process between leaders and followers.

As a leadership style, transactional leadership is focused on establishing authority and credibility inside organizations (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). According to Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, and Eagly (2017), the transactional leadership style is focused on tasks, performance, and task-oriented goals in addition to basic day-to-day operations within businesses. According to Holmberg, Fridell, Arnesson, and Bäckvall (2008), transactional leadership is a strategy for solving problems by acting or responding to them, as well as for rewarding those who go above and or accomplish goals.

According to Ardichvili and Manderscheid (2008), transactional leadership, which involves transfers of values and advantages for both parties, is the most common managerial style between followers and their leaders. According to Bass (1999), transactional leaders help followers pursue their interests by satisfying their expectations and outlining their goals and responsibilities.

Before transformational leadership gained popularity, followers were typically encouraged to perform well by dependent rewards, claim Bass and Bass (2008). Increasing follower work performance is one of transactional leadership's goals, according to Bass (1985) and Burns (1978). This is done by using contingent rewards to meet the requirements and expectations of the followers. According research by Epitropaki and Martin (2013), transformational leaders and their followers tended to have positive relationships when uncertain and unpredictable events were present, whereas transactional leaders and their followers benefited from stable and predictable environments (Humphrey, 2013). According to Humphrey (2013), transactional leadership sets clear expectations for performance and rewards it when it is successful.

Martnez-Córcoles and Stephanou's (2017) research on transactional leadership and its effects on military parachute operations safety. The analysis of 161 military parachutists revealed that transactionally driven activities met high standards for performance and safety. According to the study, participants accepted the use of transactional tasks and prizes when applied to safety measures.

The theories of behavior, contingency, and traits are related to transactional leadership. Transactional leader's help followers achieve their own goals and interests by focusing on rewards and tasks (Rowold, 2011). The transactional leader supports the status quo, steers clear of risks, and encourages followers through a system of agreements and rewards (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

H. Transformational Theory

According to Dionne et al. (2014), transformational leadership is the leadership paradigm that has been examined, researched, and maybe most frequently applied during the past forty years. According to Deschamps, Rinfret, Lagacé & Privé (2016) and Lord et al. (2017), James MacGregor Burns is credited with developing the first

version of transformational leadership in the 1970s, followed by Bass in 1985.

Lord et al. (2017), state that' transformational leadership is a style of leadership in which the leaders, in a sense, transform themselves to connect and interact with their followers and foster higher levels of motivation, morality, and ultimately performance outcomes. According to Alsaeedi and Male (2013), the definition of transformational leadership also includes the use of a dual dynamic between leaders and followers to achieve organizational goals.

In the view of Northouse (2013), the fundamental tenet of transformational leadership is the part that leadership plays in the development of organizations. Successful performance and results depend on leaders' capacity to recognize the need for, and implement, change within the organizational structure. 2013 (Northouse).

In contrast to previous leadership theories like transactional theory, which places a narrow focus on individual exchanges or concepts, leadership development has adopted a shared vision approach to transformational leadership (Balyer, 2012). According to Hargis, Watt, and Piotrowski (2011), the legitimacy and authority established within companies are consistent with the transformative leadership style. Contrarily, transactional leadership is more concerned with tasks, performance, and task-oriented goals, and generally is more concerned with the ongoing business of organizations (Aga, 2016). Ejene and Abasilim (2013) investigated how transactional and transformative leadership practices affected firms.

Their analysis of a study conducted in Chile in 2006 revealed that the actions of transformational leaders have a strong and significant impact on the development of organizations. The study concentrated on how employee performance was affected by leadership style in small firms. According to the findings, transactional and laissez-faire leadership had a detrimental impact on employee performance within organizations, but transformational leadership produced favorable employee performance (Ejene & Abasilim, 2013).

Unlike other leadership theories, transformational leaders have a unique quality that sets them apart. According to Schuh, Zhang, and Tian (2013), traditional and hierarchical power structures are most suited for the working environments of transformational leaders. Self-focused ideas like self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy are practiced by transformational leaders (Calik, Sezgin, Kavgaci, & Cagatay, 2012). A culture of ongoing learning is fostered transformational leaders by (Balyer, 2012). According Chism and to Pang transformational leaders foster conditions that encourage a common vision among their followers and actively engage in the hiring and development of followers. Strategic applications of human resource management have an impact on organizational effectiveness (Pongpearchan, 2016). To engage followers in the organization's vision and goalsetting, the transformational leader uses intellectual stimulation (Pongpearchan, 2016).

Leaders that exhibit transformational traits build networks of devoted followers who share a common goal and work together to achieve corporate success (Drago-Severson, 2012). An understanding of how to inspire followers by meeting their needs is a trait of a transformational leader (Drago-Severson, Transformational leaders can soothe their followers' anxiety and fear (Ishikawa, 2012). The ability to inspire and engage followers to go beyond their perceptions of their capabilities is a trait of transformational leaders (Hauserman, Ivankova, & Stick, 2013; Whitenack & Swanson, 2013). These leaders also have greater expectations for themselves and their followers.Based on Deschamps, Rinfret, Lagacé, and Privé (2016), idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and customized consideration are the four elements or sub-components of transformational leadership. Idealized influence refers to charismatic transformational leaders who are looked up to by their followers (Deinert et al., 2015). Idealized leadership enables followers to establish trust in the leader by exhibiting core beliefs, principles, convictions, and willingness to take risks (Deinert et al., 2015).

Idealized influence is a strategy for dealing with challenging work environments where a leader's upbeat attitude motivates subordinates (Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015). The ability of a leader to motivate and instill confidence in followers is addressed by inspirational motivation (Deinert et al., 2015). According to Deinert et al. (2015), a transformational leader should be adept at conveying energy and hope. A transformational leader must be able to inspire and motivate followers to attain goals by exhibiting vision, expectations, and communication skills (Deinert et al., 2015). By incorporating followers in the planning and decision-making process, the transformational leader demonstrates intellectual stimulation (Deinert et al., 2015). The leader gives followers direction and involves them in the mission and objectives of the organization (Deinert et al., 2015). To identify and address issues, the leader encourages followers to use their individuality and creativity (Deinert et al., 2015).

Individualized consideration is the demonstrated efforts by the leader to address followers' concerns (Deinert et al., 2015). The concerns of followers can be financial, job satisfaction, work environment, or any number of concerns about the follower's well-being (Deinert et al., 2015). The skill required of a leader is the ability to recognize followers' concerns, both real and perceived by the followers, and the ability to communicate on a personal level with followers (Deinert et al., 2015).

Five practices were evolved into a transformative leadership concept by Kouses and Posner in 1987. According to Posner, Crawford, and Denniston-Stewart (2015), the five practices in the Kouses and Posner model are: modeling the path, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. According to Kouses and Posner (Kouzes & Posner, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2016), leaders should establish and use these five practices to ensure success.

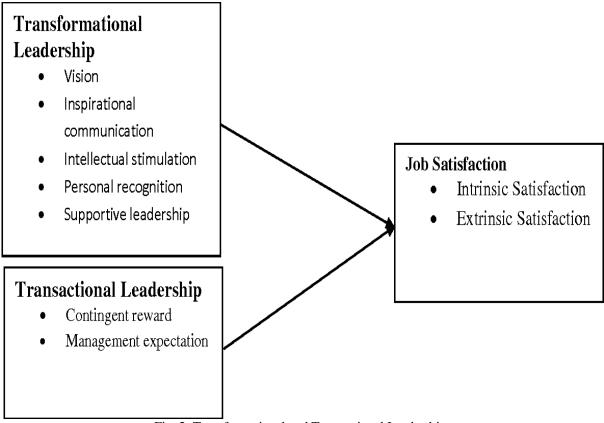


Fig. 2: Transformational and Transactional Leadership.

VI. THE FIVE PRACTICES OF EXEMPLARY LEADERSHIP MODEL

Leaders set standards for how people (including constituents, peers, employees, and customers) should be treated and how objectives should be achieved. The leaders then set an example for others to follow by upholding the defined standards of excellence. They construct interim goals so that people can gain little victories while working toward greater objectives because the thought of significant change can overwhelm people and inhibit engagement. They remove red tape when it gets in the way of getting things done, they set up signs when people don't know where to go or how to get there, and they open doors for success (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 16).

• Create a Common Vision:Leaders have a strong conviction that they can change things. They project a perfect and distinctive vision of what the corporation might turn into in the future. Leaders draw people into their vision through their charisma and subtle persuasion. They give their ideas life and let others see the exciting future possibilities (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 17).

- Challenge the Process:Leaders look for chances to alter the current situation. They search for novel approaches to enhance the company. They experiment and take chances in the process. Leaders welcome the inevitable disappointments as teaching opportunities because they understand that taking risks entails failures and mistakes (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 18).
- Enable Others to Act:Leaders build spirited teams and promote cooperation. They engage others combatively. Because they understand that respect for one another is what sustains outstanding achievements, leaders endeavor to promote a culture of trust and human dignity. Each person feels strengthened and competent as a result of their mutual support (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 20)
- Encourage the Heart. It takes effort to achieve amazing things in companies. Leaders value the contributions that people make to maintain optimism and tenacity. Leaders recognize success because members of a winning team must benefit from their teammates' labor. They inspire a sense of heroism in others (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 22).

Table 2: Five Practices and Ten Commitments of Exemplary Leadership

The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership®	Ten Commitments
Model the Way	Clarify values by finding your voice and affirming shared ideals. Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
Inspire a Shared Vision	Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities. Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.
Challenge the Process	Search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and by looking outward for innovative ways to improve. Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience.
Enable Others to Act	Foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships. Strengthen others by increasing self determination and developing competence.
Encourage the Heart	Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

A. Charismatic Leadership

The history of the globe has been shaped by charismatic leaders. As charismatic leaders during the previous century, John F. Kennedy, Theodore Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Fidel Castro, and Barack Obama have all demonstrated both good and bad charisma (Grabo & Van Vugt, 2016; Welch, 2013). It has been difficult for researchers to identify any resonant characteristics that could anticipate or detect future charismatic leadership because charismatic leaders differ substantially from one another (Grabo & Van Vugt, 2016).

In contrast to other conventional theories, charismatic leadership theory is more of a trait of leadership theory than an actual theory of leadership. According to Grabo and Van Vugt (2016), St. Paul, who thought that charisma was a heavenly gift, is credited with coining the term charisma 2000 years ago. In 1947, Max Weber is credited with introducing transactional leadership formally for the first time. He also proposed the use of the charismatic quality inside the transactional leadership framework (Bass, 1997; Winkler, 2010).

House (1977) maintained an interest in Weber's charismatic study and hypothesized a relationship between a leader's traits and behaviors. A charismatic leader possesses self-assurance, power, a firm sense of morality, and a drive to persuade others (House, 1977). Empathy, gratitude, and setting an example for followers were among the demonstrated behaviors (Meuser et al., 2016). Although many people view charm as a positive trait, historical figures like Adolf Hitler demonstrate how easily followers can be swayed. In emergency scenarios where followers are motivated by the leader's vision, focus, and direction, a leader's charisma would be a determining factor in their success (Meuser et al., 2016). For a charismatic leader to succeed, followers play a crucial role (Meuser et al., 2016).

B. Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is similar to charismatic leadership in that it places more emphasis on personality qualities and characteristics than on a well-defined and widely accepted leadership theory (Focht & Ponton, 2015). No uniform definition of servant leadership has been established, and it is not commonly acknowledged (Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016). Robert Greenleaf developed and popularized servant leadership in the 1970s. According to Greenleaf, servant leadership is characterized by leaders who want to help others, a conviction that "the servantleader is servant first," and the idea that the leader should serve in a way that allows followers to be freer, wiser, healthier, and more autonomous while also attracting them to be servants (Greenleaf, 1970; Liden, Wayne, Chenwei & Meuser, 2014). According to Greenleaf, servant leaders should be concerned with the following 10 traits: (1) listening; (2) empathy; (3) healing; (4) awareness; (5) persuasion; (6) conceptualization; (7) foresight; (8) stewardship; (9) dedication to people's progress; and (10) fostering community.

The century-long social transformation has led to a shift in the predominant beliefs about autocratic and transactional leadership styles (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). According to Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, and Meuser (2014), Greenleaf's approach to servant leadership was centered on what was regarded as a humanistic and interpersonal approach to followers. According to Gregoire and Arendt (2014), the servant leadership paradigm is based on a moral stance that prioritizes the well-being of others and the interests of followers. Aspects of Greenleaf's servant leadership included fostering followers' personal and professional growth, removing any sense of intimidation, and creating a secure and supportive atmosphere (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014). The desire to assist others is what motivates servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1970).

Executives of American firms and numerous corporations have recently lost the trust of the American public (Porter, 2012). The consensus now holds that the company's executives are dishonest, immoral, and crooked (Porter, 2012). Although servant leadership has not yet gained widespread acceptance, Hesse (2013) discovered that several executive-level executives of organizations like Starbucks, the San Antonio Spurs, Southwest Airlines, Whole Foods, and Best Buy exhibited servant leadership

traits. These leaders were discovered to have strong principles, be unselfish and humble, and be people- and service-driven (Hesse, 2013). According to Huang et al. (2016), CEOs in the hospitality sector had a significant positive impact on both organizational performance and public perception through their servant leadership techniques.

C. Authoritarian - Autocratic Leadership

The autocratic leader's authoritarian style of leadership can be said to be one of the first recognized leadership philosophies, if not the first (Flynn, 2015). The University of Iowa carried out a study in the 1930s to determine the preferred leadership style (Smothers, 2011). Kurt Lewin's study found that the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles were the three that were most frequently used. According to definitions given by Bass (2008) and Giltinane (2013), transactional leadership is characterized as being closed-minded, power-focused, and domineering. Since ancient times, leaders of nations have ruled in an authoritarian manner through monarchs, religions, dictatures, and communism (Gandhi & Przeworski, 2013).

Autocratic leaders continue to operate in a variety of organizations and are not just found in oppressive regimes. According to Elqadri, Priyono, Suci, and Chandra (2015), the autocratic leadership style is more of a tactic used by leaders to instruct, demand, or prescribe what their subordinates should do. According to Flynn (2015), an authoritarian or autocratic leader is seen as being pushy and domineering and using rules, demands, threats, and punishment to achieve control over their followers.

Followers must obey orders without question and refrain from contributing to or participating in operational responsibilities (Flynn, 2015). This method disregards other people's opinions and gives an organization a clear focus, but it can also foster an environment where the autocratic leader is despised by followers (Bass 2008; Elqadri et al., 2015). Autocratic leadership styles frequently result in high turnover, absenteeism, and dissatisfaction among followers (Flynn, 2015).

According to Bush, Erlich, Prather, and Zeira (2016), the success of the authoritarian leader has been partly linked to the individual's icon or image status, in which case followers have developed a sense of respect for and fear of the leader. Another trait of autocratic leaders is their refusal to give any weight to the thoughts, judgments, or actions of their subordinates that affect their organization (Bhatti, Murta Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi & Shaikh, 2012). According to Lewin's research at the University of Iowa, situations under autocratic leadership are hostile, aggressive, and demotivating (Bhatti et al., 2012).

Subordinates perform well despite the autocratic leader's potential for dislike, which supports the idea that liked leaders are less effective than hated autocratic leaders (Bass, 2008; Schoel, Bluemke, Mueller & Stahlberg, 2011). Although they can instill fear and be harsh (Bass, 2008; Schoel et al., 2011), authoritarian leaders can also provide direction, structure, and rewards. According to research by Al- Khasawneh and Futa (2013), the use of authoritarian

leadership does not always have a detrimental effect on relationships, although other leadership styles, such as democratic leadership, do have a favorable impact on followers.

D. Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is often characterized as a non-transactional and passive avoidant style of leadership, in contrast to what is thought of as traditional leadership techniques (Bass, 1985, 2014; Avolio & Bass, 1991). Due to the lack of conventional leadership characteristics, laissez-faire is arguably the least researched leadership style (Sudha, Shahnawaz, & Farhat, 2016; Yang, 2015). According to Yang (2015) and Bass (1985), laisse-faire leaders typically abdicate their duties and are absent-minded.

Laissez-faire leaders often don't exert power over their subordinates or give orders, and they don't make decisions that affect day-to-day operations, which frees up their followers to take care of themselves and deal with problems as they arise (Bhatti et al., 2012). According to Sudha, Shahnawaz, and Farhat (2016), laissez-faire leadership results in poorer operational efficiency than transformational and transactional leadership outcomes.

In organizational settings where followers lack the aptitude or skills to handle problems, manage, or function autonomously, laissez-faire leadership is typically not advised (Goodnight, 2011). Some researchers advocate for something different, even though most researchers do not (Goodnight, 2011). When leaders want to encourage empowerment, teamwork, and self-sufficiency, they may purposefully exclude themselves, avoid direct supervision, and present the image of laissez-faire leadership (Bhatti et al., 2012; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). In situations when specializations call for autonomous thought and the ability to handle several jobs, laissez-faire may be deemed an effective strategy (Goodnight, 2012).

New approaches to organizational operations have been developed in the new century as a result of technological and globalization breakthroughs. A new type of follower has been created in remote locations and multiple places, including both home and the office (Wang, 2012). Autonomous workers at remote work locations must be able to work without supervision (Sudha, Shahnawaz, & Farhat, 2016; Wang, 2012). These independent workers' leaders may give the impression to be laissez-faire practitioners in some ways, but in reality, they are in charge of a brand-new class of followers who can function effectively without following conventional leadership techniques (Sudha, Shahnawaz, & Farhat, 2016; Wang, 2012).

E. Full-Range Leadership

The aforementioned leadership theories all share the trait of being independently applied in practice as a single leadership style. Even though most studies agree that leaders display multiple aspects of leadership, most studies from the past and present still concentrate on a particular leadership style or set of behaviors (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2012). Further

research will be needed to compare the many behavioral components involved in leadership practices (Yukl, 2012).

The transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership components are all combined into one model by the full-range leadership theory, which makes it distinctive (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). The most frequently mentioned source on leadership is full-range leadership, which has seen an increase in attention over the years (Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed, & Nawaz, 2011). Because it incorporates a variety of behavioral characteristics linked to transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership theories, full-range leadership has gained popularity (Zaech & Baldegger, 2017).

According to Anderson and Sun (2017), established leadership theories have begun to show overlaps and gaps during the past ten years, indicating the necessity to create a new, all-encompassing style of leadership. The adoption and use of numerous components of several leadership theories, including transactional, transformational, charismatic, and others, have become increasingly popular among leaders as a result of advancements in technology, society, and attitudes (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

- Laissez-faire.Laissez-faire, often referred to as passive avoidance, is the first type of behavior and is seen as both a leadership style and a broad behavioral category. According to Sudha, Shahnawaz, and Farhat (2016), laisse-faire behavior involves avoiding and being uninvolved with followers and exhibiting no leadership. Laissez-faire behavior is a strategy used by leaders to give their staff little to no attention and let them work independently without monitoring (Sudha, Shahnawaz, & Farhat, 2016). According to some academics, this approach also falls within the category of management except passive conduct, which is a subset of the transactional leadership style (Kamisan & King, 2013).
- Management by exception (active). According to Meyer (2013), the active form of management by exception is a type of transactional leadership that is used to punish, penalize, or take other action against subordinates who don't complete assignments or adhere to other organizational rules. With subordinates, this style is recognized for taking a direct approach, addressing them, and setting expectations for development (Meyer, 2013).
- Management-by-exception (passive). Another transactional category is management by exception with a passive approach. While using this strategy, the leader does not confront or directly oversee but does address concerns that are similar to active conduct. The passive leader stays out of the way and waits for situations and mistakes to happen before acting appropriately (Northouse, 2013).
- Contingent reward. One of the core traits of transactional leadership is a contingent reward (Northouse, 2013). A leader can establish control and influence over followers while also providing them with clear objectives by using contingent rewards (Northouse, 2013; Robinson & Boies, 2016). Expectations are clear and accomplishments are rewarded and acknowledged for subordinates (Robinson & Boies, 2016).

- Individual consideration. Individual consideration is a key trait of transformational leaders. By being approachable, intimate, and invested in the needs of the followers, transformational leaders engage and develop followers (Chism & Pang, 2014; Gandolfi, 2012). The transformative behavior promotes acceptance of followers' acceptance and engagement while enabling acceptance of individual differences (Kamisan & King, 2013). According to Calik et al. (2012), transformational behavior involves people and acts as a mentor, enabling them to develop self-confidence, self-esteem, and a focus on their own goals.
- Intellectual stimulation. Innovative, creative, and motivating leaders have these qualities (Boateng, 2012). By motivating followers to seek possibilities, identify and solve challenges, and employ their imagination and vision, the transformational leader stimulates their minds (Mazurkiewicz, 2012). The transformative leader fosters and supports an environment of ongoing learning inside the company (Balyer, 2012).
- Inspirational motivation. The ability of a leader to use inspiring motivating behaviors to create and retain teams, optimism, excitement, and positive corporate cultures has a favorable impact on goal achievement and follower attitudes (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Inspirational leaders inspire others to pursue their goals with energy, eagerness to succeed, and a drive to meet organizational standards (Krishnan, 2012). According to Bass and Avolio (2004), inspiring leaders encourage their supporters to participate actively in the creation and execution of company strategy.
- Idealized influence (behavioral). Organizational environments and follower attitudes are established by leaders' actions and examples (Kouzes & Posner, 2016). Followers are given favorable influences and role models to emulate when ethical behavior is consistently displayed together with proper personal and professional conduct and unambiguous principles.
- Idealized influence (attributed). There is a clear distinction between behavioral influence and idealized influence that is assigned (Ravazadeh & Ravazadeh, 2013). The term "behavioral" can refer to both a leader's exampled behavior and the expectations of followers. A leader's referent power, charismatic impact, and feelings of confidence, respect, and trust are all included in the term "attributed." To gain the leader's approval, followers may imitate the leader who exhibits idealized influence (Ravazadeh & Ravazadeh, 2013).

The transformational leadership model, which is thought to be the most widely used leadership theory, has not surpassed the full-range leadership paradigm. According to Sadeghi and Pihie (2012), full-range leadership refers to the practice of leaders fusing many components of several leadership theories. Full-range leadership, as defined by Garcia, Duncan, Carmody-Bubb & Ree (2014) and Yukl (2012), includes a variety of behavioral characteristics connected to transactional, transformational, and laissezfaire leadership theories. It also points out the need for more research to contrast behavioral components and conflicting results.

F. Adaptive Leadership

The adaptive leadership theory, which is still in its infancy, is seen by many academics as contradicting the fundamental tenets of traditional leadership theories (Allio, 2013; Latham, 2014). According to Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh (2013) and Robert Heifetz (1994), who developed adaptive leadership, it was first described in his book "Leadership without Easy Answers" published in 1994. The adaptive leadership approach differs from transactional, transformational, and other traditional leadership theories created over time in that it acknowledges a need for needs that go beyond the limitations imposed for specific traditional leadership theories (Heifetz, 1994). There is no way out of the inflexible actions that traditional ideas impose. As an illustration, the great man theory held that only certain males could be leaders, hence the term "A born leader," but adaptive leadership argued that anyone from any background might be a leader (Allio, 2013; Heifeetz, 1994).

Traditional leadership ideas and adaptive leadership are fundamentally unlike. According to traditional leadership theory, individuals should use particular actions, character traits, and other characteristics that are related to a single theory (Allio, 2013). According to adaptive leadership (Allio, 2013; Heifeetz, 1994), a leader should be flexible in response to shifting circumstances and events. This necessitates adopting a variety of behaviors and traits that are components of various classic leadership theories.

It is possible to argue that adaptive leadership is equivalent to full-range leadership. Full-range leadership theory applies an adaptive idea where leaders use a variety of features from the three theories by combining elements of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership into a single model (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). The full range is only compatible with three theories, whereas adaptable argued that a leader might make use of components from any or all theories (Allio, 2013; Heifeetz, 1994). According to Anderson and Sun (2017), the current full-range theory is out of date and there is a need for more study to broaden full-range leadership to better meet the changing needs of society and organizations.

Technology and organizational operations have advanced more quickly as a result of the constantly shifting global organizational environments (Gu, 2014). Traditional transactional leadership, which was previously practiced, is giving way to the need for leaders who are not only adaptive but also can accept the participation of customers in corporate activities and changes in circumstances (Bligh, 2012). Although adaptable leaders need to be able to change with the times, they also need to be able to focus on getting their followers to develop similar abilities to respond to changing circumstances (Bligh, 2012).

Traditional adherents, often referred to as workers, laborers, or subordinates, have left their positions of authority is one of the numerous difficulties that all leaders, particularly adaptive leaders, must overcome (Bligh, 2012; Gu, 2014). Today's followers need leaders who see them as collaborators in corporate strategy and outcomes because the

transactional follower type is a thing of the past (Bligh, 2012; Gu, 2014). According to Torres and Reeves (2014), conventional leaders are less successful because they fail to anticipate the opinions and demands of their followers, lack self-assurance, and lack the aptitude or willingness to change. Adaptive leaders must be aware of and able to meet the various needs, perspectives, abilities, and approachabilities of their followers (Bligh, 2012).

Traditional leadership techniques are no longer successful due to the complexity of ongoing change, transparency, and a more knowledgeable and engaged network of followers (Apenko & Chernobaeva, 2016). Instead of adhering to a typical schedule, adaptive leadership practitioners create their routines and behaviors that allow them to swiftly change to sustain operational effectiveness and follower connection (Brothers & Schnurman-Crook, 2015; Zimmerly, 2016).

The sophisticated talents and qualities needed of the modern leader have become more widely recognized as a result of globalization and ongoing improvements (Partida, 2015). Leaders have had to adapt and adjust as a result of constant change (Partida, 2015). An era of transparency and follower and stakeholder responsiveness to the requirements for adaptive leadership has been ushered in as a result of leaders who, by their arrogance, evasion, and lack of understanding, have failed and brought about constant change (Kellerman, 2013). According to Kaigh et al. (2014), the absence of abilities like emotional intelligence, listening, and vision also contributes to leadership failure.

G. Future of Leadership

The literature review up to this point addressed a range of theories of leadership, each of which had merit and was meant to be used in leadership. From the traditional "great man" theory to the more contemporary "full range" and "adaptive" theories, each theory has served or continues to serve the objective of providing leaders with a preset set of certain abilities, attributes, and guidelines to lead successfully (Allio, 2013; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

Research on the future of leadership theories, their intended uses, their real-world applications, and how they will either be used in place of or in place of theories that are changing will likely continue (Bennis, 2013; Latham, 2014). Generational differences between the older and younger generations present several issues for organizational leadership as the world develops in the twenty-first century (Anderson, Baur, Griffith, & Buckley, 2016). The younger generation, often known as millennials, is constantly expanding, which creates exceptional circumstances, attitudes, and personality variations that have an impact on leadership styles (Anderson et al., 2016). The ability to adapt to ongoing technological developments gives millennials a distinct advantage over older generations and their leaders, who frequently struggle with it (Kaifi, Nafei, Khanfar, & Kaifi, 2012). The challenge for leadership to adapt is made more difficult by the diverse perspectives held by millennials in the areas of leadership, teamwork, expectations, and communication (Kaifi et al., 2012).

The various business practices, technology advancements, stakeholder expectations, and adaptation to millennials' personality traits are all impacted by the shifting organizational contexts (Hartman & McCambridge, 2011). History demonstrates that values and attitudes change as generations pass from one to the next (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). Although they may work well in teams and are strong workers, millennials are also more likely to lead balanced lives and avoid working irregular hours or on the weekends (Ferri-Reed, 2012).

Organizational memos, paper-based processes, and authoritarian leadership styles are mostly no longer used in daily life (Anderson et al., 2016). The millennial generation offers an organization its technological advantages. Millennials grow up with email, texting, and other technologies as a routine part of their lives, unlike many of their older generational peers. Millennials do not need to adjust to technological change (Hartman & McCambridge, 2011; Piper, 2012).

According to Stewart, Oliver, Cravens, and Oishi (2016), millennials' social and technical exposure has contributed to their natural ability to adapt to change. According to Stewart et al. (2016), it can be challenging for older generational followers and leaders to adjust to and embrace organizational improvements. Future leaders may find the millennial age to be less independent, have shorter attention spans, and have a propensity for rapid gratification (Clark, 2017).

The desired characteristic of emotional intelligence has been developed in both older and younger generations of leaders and followers as a result of shifting societal perspectives on organizational success or failure (Doe, Ndinguri, & Phipps, 2015). Emotional intelligence has been the subject of discussion on whether it can be acquired through training or is an innate quality (Tyler, 2015). Whatever its origins, emotional intelligence has emerged as a desirable trait for contemporary leaders (Tyler, 2015). The capacity to emotionally gauge the human dimension of organizational success has grown in importance as a leadership quality (Dabke, 2016). Positive and productive work environments are frequently the result of emotional intelligence practices within organizations, and the success and public perception of an organization are thought to be attributed to the emotional intelligence qualities of both the leader and followers (Dabke, 2016). Another difficulty for organizational leaders is transparency. Stakeholders and the general public now expect openness about organizational matters as a result of social media, technical advancement, and corporate responsibility (Bennis, 2013). The need for greater openness has grown over the past few decades as a result of bank scandals, Wiki Leaks, and other ethically related controversies (Press & Arnould, 2014).

The performance of followers is positively impacted by transparency (Farrell, 2016). According to Farrell (2016), a transparent organizational environment boosts followers' motivation, sense of involvement, and knowledge of recognition. As a result of greater organizational efficiency

brought about by transparency, followers, the organization, and stakeholders all benefit more (Farrell, 2016).

In previous decades, all businesses, government agencies, and organizations across all industries have been concerned about the issue of financial reporting. Organizations historically had a reputation for either fabricating information or just disclosing favorable financial data (Kundeliene & Leitoniene, 2015). Technology advancement, communication speed, and social media have all contributed to a climate where operations and any critical issues are timely known (Kundeliene & Leitoniene, 2015). According to Kundeliene & Leitoniene (2015) and Press & Arnould (2014), these shifts led to contexts of forced openness within organizations and the need for leaders to adapt to work in these settings.

Just over a decade after its debut, the term "E-Leadership" has gained popularity (Avolio, Sosik, Kahai, & Baker, 2014). Technology development, ongoing change in communications, and numerous other corporate processes have added to the need for leaders to be flexible in their leadership styles (Avolio et al., 2014). Today's leaders must take into account globalization, time, distance, and other factors in addition to the traditional leadership problems linked with historical traditions (Lilian, 2014). The introduction of virtual teams has enhanced team member engagement and communication while giving leaders more freedom to assign tasks and empower subordinates (Cowan, 2014).

The effectiveness of virtual teams can be increased by using tried-and-true communication techniques and review procedures that take into account team members' contributions and include the leader's oversight and review (Morgan, Paucar-Caceres, & Wright, 2014). Leaders now face new difficulties as a result of globalization and improvements in numerous corporate operating systems (Lilian, 2014). Restructuring and the implementation of new business practices have helped organizations change (Lilian, 2014).

Virtual teams have grown as a result of the evolution of distant and geographically dispersed workforces (Avolio et al., 2014). The virtual team concept makes it difficult for leaders to coordinate activities across several time zones without face-to-face engagement or contact (Lilian, 2014). These leaders must adjust to delegating authority to followers and trusting them to provide the desired results, as well as trusting in their security and confidence (Savolainen, 2014).

An additional difficulty for leaders is information security. Theft of intellectual property, as well as employee and consumer personal data, has increased as a result of technical security advancements (Sabnis & Charles, 2012). Constant preventive actions for information security are necessary due to changes in governmental regulations and policies as well as ongoing technological improvements (Harvey & Harvey, 2014). Organizational leaders must keep up with technological and security improvements as well as prevention measures while preserving their information awareness (Harvey & Harvey, 2014).

The presence of women in leadership positions presents two problems for the future of leadership. Two obstacles prevent women from moving up to higher-level leadership positions: a history of male culture dominating leadership in society and prejudicial stereotype attitudes against women (Moreno & McLean, 2016; Sindell & Shamberger, 2016). The great man theory of leadership and the phrase "great man" itself were reflections of the societal attitude and impression that leadership was a role exclusively for men (Cawthon, 1996). Although the number of women in senior leadership positions has increased recently, there are still disparities in terms of equality and negative stereotypes about women (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). The notion that "women take care" and "men take charge" are stereotypes about women in leadership is one such example (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016).

According to estimates from Sindell & Shamberger (2016), women held only 24 percent of positions equivalent to executive vice presidents as of 2015. According to DeFrank-Cole, Latimer, Neidermeyer, and Wheatly (2016), there are approximately 26% female university presidents. According to DeFrank-Cole, Latimer, Neidermeyer, and Wheatly (2016), millennial attitudes toward gender equality and generational bias have helped women advance in society and achieve equal status. Women's advancement into leadership positions may be further hampered by global perceptions of women as leaders (McLean & Beigi, 2016). The acceptance of women in leadership positions is constrained by the diversity of national, ethnic, and regional cultures, as well as by religious beliefs and traditions (McLean & Beigi, 2016).

The millennial workforce, emotional intelligence, security, e-leadership, virtual work settings, globalization, and the position of women provide numerous problems for future leaders (Avolio et al., 2009). The use of antiquated ideas that were created before the current social changes, technological improvements, and globalization presents a challenge for leaders who are applying current leadership theory (Bennis, 2013; Latham, 2014). The application of current leadership theories restricts a leader's options for action by not allowing for adaptation to change (Torres & Reeves, 2014).

Although the full-range leadership theory was developed by combining transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire theories, it is only a partial adaptation of all three theories (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). Full range theory was not originally developed for today's problems and developments; rather, it is the result of a simple fusion of earlier theories (Latham, 2014; Yukl, 2012). Table 1 below provides a summary of the preceding discussions of leadership theories.

Table 3: Leadership Theories

THE OPT	Table 3: Leadership Theories			
THEORY	DESCRIPTION			
Great Man	Introduced in the 1840s by Thomas Carlyle. Belief that leaders were born and not made and that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead (Bass & Bass, 2008; Hoffman et al., 2011).			
Authoritarian	Also known as autocratic, was introduced in the Iowa studied by Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1938.			
1 additive feat fall	Autocratic is characterized by individual control over all situations and is a method utilized by leaders to			
	dictate, tell, or demand their subordinates to perform tasks (Elqadri et al., 2015; Flynn, 2015).			
Path-Goal	Path-Goal leadership is based on House (1996) theory that followers are provided goals through value			
50	rewards, and the leaders provide the best method, or path, to accomplish the goals. An element of path-goal			
	theory is the premise that leaders should increase the motivation, satisfaction, and performance of followers			
	through communicating, rewarding, and eliminating obstacles that could interfere with accomplishing the			
	goals (Hollenbeck, De Rue & Nahrgang, 2015; House, 1996).			
Trait	Belief that personal traits determine, in part, a leader's ability to lead. Trait theorist believed that individuals			
	were born with certain leadership traits and that these traits could not be learned nor gained through			
	education or training (Northouse, 2013).			
Behavioral	Belief that behavior drives the leaders' performance. Refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on			
	identifying the situational variables that can predict appropriate response to situations (Gupta & Singh,			
G 4	2013).			
Contingency	Developed in 1967 by Fiedler and theorized that specific situations would dictate which type of response			
C!4 4 * *	and leadership was required to address the situation with a successful reaction (Fiedler, 1967; Prindle, 2012).			
Situational	Developed in the 1960s by Blanchard based on a concept that different situations would require varying			
	responses. The theory suggested that leaders had to adapt their leadership approach based on the level of individual follower development (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996; Northouse, 2013).			
Transactional	Developed in 1947 by Max Weber and based on management by exception, contingent reward, and goal			
1 1 ansacuvilai	achievement. Transactional is a method of exchanging behaviors by leaders and followers that generate			
	rewards. A transactional leader gains performance of followers through contingent rewarding (Bass, 1997;			
	Humphrey, 2013).			
Transformational	Developed by James MacGregor in the 1970s Transformational leadership is defined as a method where			
	leaders in a sense transformed themselves, and through changes in their behaviors and actions connected and			
	interacted with their followers creating higher levels of motivation, morality and ultimately performance			
	outcomes (Allio, 2013; Northouse, 2013).			
Charismatic	1948 Max Weber introduced the application of the characteristic of charisma within the practice of			
	transactional leadership. Self-security, dominance, strong moral conviction, and desire to influence are			
a .	characteristics of a charismatic leader (House, 1977; Winkler, 2010).			
Servant	Developed in the 1970s by Robert Greenleaf. Servant leadership concept is to have a moral position that			
Leisse E-'	ensures well-being of followers and leaders should lead with best interest for followers (Greenleaf, (1977).			
Laissez-Faire	The concept was introduced in the Iowa studied by Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1938. Laissez-faire is a non-transactional and passive avoidant style of leadership. Laisse-faire leaders are normally absent,			
	detached, and relinquish their responsibilities to subordinates (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1985).			
Full Range	Developed in the 1980s and 1990s by Bass and Avolio. Full range leadership combines elements of			
I un Kangt	transactional, transformation, and laissez-faire leadership theories into in single model (Sadeghi & Pihie,			
	2012).			
Adaptive	Developed by Robert Heifetz in the 1990s. Adaptive leadership suggested that a leader should be adaptable			
_	based on changing situations and events, and requires utilizing multiple behaviors and attributes that are			
	elements of more than one traditional leadership theory (Allio, 2013; Heifetz, 1994).			

VII. THEORY DESCRIPTION

A. Great Man

Thomas Carlyle first mentioned it in the 1840s. According to this theory, leaders are extraordinary people who are born with natural abilities and are predestined to lead (Bass & Bass, 2008; Hoffman et al., 2011).

B. Authoritarian

Lewin, Lippitt, and White conducted research on the autocratic, a term that was first used in Iowa in 1938. According to Elqadri et al. (2015) and Flynn (2015), autocracy is characterized by individual control over all circumstances and is a strategy used by leaders to order, tell, or demand that their subordinates do duties.

C. Path-Goal

According to House's (1996) theory, followers are given goals through value incentives, and leaders then show them the optimal way—or path—to reach those goals. The idea that leaders should boost followers' motivation, contentment, and performance by communicating with them, rewarding them appropriately, and removing any barriers to goal-accomplishing is a key component of the path-goal theory (Hollenbeck, De Rue, and Nahrgang, 2015; House, 1996).

D. Trait

The idea is that a leader's capacity to lead is partly influenced by personal characteristics. According to trait theorists, many leadership attributes are innate in people and cannot be acquired through formal education or training (Northouse, 2013).

E. Behavioral

The idea is that a leader's behavior determines how well they perform. The situational viewpoint is being refined, with an emphasis on finding the situational factors that can anticipate the right responses to circumstances (Gupta & Singh, 2013).

F. Contingency

Formulated in 1967 by Fiedler, who postulated that certain circumstances would determine the style of response and leadership needed to successfully manage the crisis (Fiedler, 1967; Prindle, 2012).

G. Situational

Predicated on the idea that various circumstances would call for diverse answers, and created by Blanchard in the 1960s. According to the notion, leaders should modify their style of leadership dependent on the degree of follower development (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996; Northouse, 2013).

H. Transactional

Founded on achieving goals, managing by exception, and contingent rewards, goal-oriented management was developed by Max Weber in 1947. In a transactional model, leaders and followers trade rewards-producing activities. A transactional leader can improve followers' performance by offering contingent pay (Bass, 1997; Humphrey, 2013).

I. Transformational

Transformational leadership, which was developed by James MacGregor in the 1970s, is described as a strategy whereby leaders, in a sense, transformed themselves and connected and interacted with their followers to raise levels of motivation, morality, and ultimately performance outcomes (Allio, 2013; Northouse, 2013).

J. Charismatic

Max Weber first advocated the use of the charismatic quality in the context of transactional leadership in 1948. A charismatic leader has traits including self-assurance, dominance, a firm sense of morality, and a drive to persuade others (House, 1977; Winkler, 2010).

K. Servant

Developed by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s. According to Greenleaf (1977), servant leadership is about having a moral stance that assures the welfare of followers and that leaders should act in their best interests.

L. Laissez-Faire

Lewin, Lippitt, and White introduced the idea in the Iowa research in 1938. A laissez-faire leadership style is non-transactional and passively avoidant. Laisse-faire leaders typically abdicate their duties to staff members and act in a distant, absent manner (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1985).

M. Full Range

Bass and Avolio developed it in the 1980s and 1990s. According to Sadeghi and Pihie (2012), full-range leadership is a model that includes aspects of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership theories.

N. Adaptive

Developed by Robert Heifetz in the 1990s. Adaptive leadership suggested that a leader should be adaptable based on changing situations and events, and requires utilizing multiple behaviors and attributes that are elements of more than one traditional leadership theory (Allio, 2013; Heifetz, 1994).

O. Conflicting and Outdated Theories

Regarding the use of transformational, transactional, and other leadership philosophies as well as the general study of leadership, there are divergent points of view (Latham, 2014). Qu's (2015) research found that transformational leadership is meant to promote improved follower performance, the study's contradictory findings revealed that it reduced follower engagement and innovation (Qu, Janssen, & Shi, 2015). According to DeRue (2011), the study of leadership is ingrained with constrained and contradictory practices that conflate supervision with leadership while ignoring the constantly expanding demands and complexities of leadership at the organizational level. DeRue (2011) made the additional claim that while researchers in leadership theory have concentrated on more obvious and scientific achievements, they have neglected collective and other aspects outside of the individual leader and the evolving demands for contemporary leaders. According to Kaigh et al. (2014), organizational operations are changing, and leaders are shifting to what is referred to as a dynamic style of leadership.

So-called "hard skills" like budgeting, rivalry, and critical thinking have historically been the fuel for traditional leadership. But according to Kaigh et al. (2014), today's successful organizations depend on soft skills like listening, teamwork, information sharing, and other interpersonal behaviors. There isn't a single effective leadership style, according to McCleskey (2014), who said that it has been challenging to pinpoint certain behavioral theories or a specific leadership style that is 100 percent effective. According to Silva (2014), there are divergent perceptions and points of view about leadership held by academics, academic researchers, and organizations that practice leadership. Van Dierendonck (2011) argued that while there is significant overlap and resemblance among leadership styles, many academics still treat them independently.

The complexity of the various environmental conditions within contemporary businesses has made it harder for leaders to exercise effective leadership (Latham, 2014). According to Latham (2014), transformational leadership does not offer a comprehensive answer to leadership problems and promotes the use of the so-called "ends justifies the means" principle. According to Ling et al. (2008), CEOs that exhibit higher degrees of transformational attributes than their peers are more likely to increase

organizational performance in terms of stakeholder involvement and productivity. The advent of servant leadership and spiritual leadership theories, which place a greater emphasis on the interaction between leaders and followers, also clash with aspects of transformational and transactional theories and have sparked a wider debate over what constitutes an effective leadership style (Latham, 2014).

The critiques of transactional, transformational, and situational leadership styles were covered by McCleskey (2014). While transformational leadership lacks significant research that provides specific outcomes on situational responses and a capacity for change, transactional leadership lacks the qualities to establish long-term relationships and is resistant to adaptability or reaction to situational changes (McCleskey, 2014). Since situational leadership is criticized for lacking consistency and is thought to be open to misunderstanding and contradictions, it is challenging to identify specific elements that make it up (McCleskey, 2014).

According to Ling et al.'s (2008) investigation into the impact that transformational CEOs have on organizational performance, subordinates observe and emulate the qualities and behaviors that transformational leaders exhibit, which raises organizational performance. Adapting to and overcoming changing conditions that impede organizational performance are also abilities and attributes that transformational leaders have (Ling et al., 2008).

Silva (2014) argued that effective leaders must have particular qualities, such as virtue, charisma, or style, over subordinates to influence them. However, contradictory data and the viewpoints of the leaders themselves argue that this is not necessarily the case. Latham (2014) analyzed the historical research on leadership and made the case that the prevailing quantitative technique should be abandoned in favor of qualitative or collaborative research to determine the most effective approaches, characteristics, or leadership philosophies.

P. Trait Approach to Leadership

The debate between a style approach and a trait approach to leadership has existed (Northouse, 2013). The features of a leader, according to proponents of the trait approach like Northouse (2013), distinguish the style a leader employs and define the efficacy of a leader. In a study comparing transactional and transformational leadership, Bennett (2009) discovered that transformational leaders had a higher impact on the performance of their subordinates. Further research on transformational leadership was conducted by Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Quaquebeke, and Dick (2012), who proposed that the characteristics of transformational leaders had an impact on follower satisfaction and leadership success. According to a study by Sadeghi and Pilhie (2012), the effectiveness of transformational leaders is predicted by their use of qualities including inspiration, influence, and consideration for their followers.

Ardichvili and Manderscheid (2008) explored both sides of the debate and the idea that while attributes do influence leadership style, they do so in a relatively minor

way. Northouse (2013) identified intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability as the five primary leadership traits, while Bennis (2013) argued these traits define a leader's capacity to lead. According to Northouse (2013), self-confidence is the capacity of a leader to have faith in their abilities and competencies, while intelligence is the capacity for reasoning. According to Northouse (2013), determination is exhibiting perseverance and a personal desire to complete a goal. Integrity is the quality of being dependable and honest, while sociability is the capacity of a leader to build relationships by coming across as approachable and able to engage in social and personal interactions with people (Northouse, 2013).

According to Rietsema and Watkins (2012), a lack of confidence is a common characteristic among CEOs and is an essential leadership quality. According to Rietsema and Watkins (2012), CEOs lacked the confidence to manage the changing business efficiently and had doubts about their capacity to handle the complexity of changing operational settings. Interviews with C-suite executives and groups of consultants from three different industries were done by Rietsema and Watkins (2012), who discovered that everyone had comparable concerns about their capacity to manage and lead in their particular roles.

An additional understanding of trait performance is provided by the trait of experience (Sarros & Sarros, 2011). Mixed method research was used to examine the differences between experienced and novice leadership regarding leadership and initiatives (Sarros & Sarros, 2011). When mission-centered, performance-centered, and culture-centered leadership performances were analyzed, it was found that leaders would create better results as they gained experience and more intellectual stimulation (Sarros & Sarros, 2011). Experience helps a leader gain confidence and contributes to their overall effectiveness and achievement of results (Sarros & Sarros, 2011).

Rietsema and Watkins (2012) contended that current leaders are portrayed as being unable to operate in rapidly advancing organizational environments and lacking the characteristics necessary to function effectively. They suggested that leaders fail to understand and recognize the depth and intricacies of their respective industries. Another quality that is directly influenced by leaders is ethics (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). In their 2011 analysis of the connection between leadership effectiveness and stakeholder values and expectations, Groves and LaRocca found a connection between stakeholder values, expectations, and implicit leadership demands. Data from 122 leaders and 458 of their subordinates were tested using mixed-method research and split-sample methods, yielding many results relevant to each of their studies. The findings demonstrated relationship between followers' assessments of transformational leadership and leaders' ethical beliefs (Kantian principles). There is a direct correlation between leadership and ethics, and ethical expectations have an impact on both leadership and follower performance, according to Groves and LaRocca's (2011) research on utilitarian leaders with teleological ethical ideals.

Leaders' inability to adjust to trends and improvements in organizational contexts may also be a result of shifting organizational structures and pre-established expectations (Rietsema & Watkins, 2012). According to Andressen, Konradt, and Neck (2012), transformational leadership has four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized considerations. Self-leadership is defined as a process to enhance motivation and influence self-direction. According to Andressen et al. (2012), transformational leadership is a technique for persuading followers to support the leader's vision as a group and inspiring people to put aside their interests and work as a team.

VIII. SUMMARY

The literature review addressed a brief history of leadership, leadership theory, the future of leadership, the subthemes of continual change and transparency, conflicting and antiquated theories, and trait-based approaches to leadership. The literature examined the development of leadership theory and research over a century, starting with the great man theory and moving on to path-goal, transactional, transformational, and several other theories (Bennis, 2013; Allio, 2013). Following a review of the phenomenon of continuously changing settings in businesses and society, contradicting and out-of-date studies about leadership theory and style were examined (Dew et al., 2011; Torres & Reeves, 2011). A review of the trait approach to leadership and qualities associated with leadership (Northouse, 2013; Sadeghi, 2012) was done last. The material gathered for this review lends credence to the notions of a dynamic organizational environment, competing leadership theories, and a trait-based leadership approach.

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