Integrative Approach

An integrative approach involves more than one type of leadership variable. In recent years it has become more common for researchers to include two or more types of leadership variables in the same study, but it is still rare to find a theory that includes all of them (i.e., traits, behavior, influence processes, situational variables, and outcomes). A good example of the integrative approach is the self-concept theory of charismatic leadership (see Chapter 9), which attempts to explain why the followers of some leaders are willing to exert exceptional effort and make personal sacrifices to accomplish the group objective or mission.

Level of Conceptualization for Leadership

Leadership can be conceptualized as (1) an intra-individual process, (2) a dyadic process, (3) a group process, or (4) an organizational process. The levels can be viewed as a hierarchy, as depicted in Figure 1-3. Most leadership theories are focused on processes at only one of these levels, because it is difficult to develop a multilevel theory that is also parsimonious and easy to apply. What level is emphasized will determine the type of criterion variables used to evaluate leadership and the type of mediating processes used to explain effective leadership. Level of conceptualization also has implications for the methods of analysis used in research on a theory (see Chapter 15).

Intra-Individual Processes

Leadership theories that focus on processes within a single individual are rare, because most definitions of leadership involve influence processes between individuals. Nevertheless, a number of researchers used psychological theories of decision making, motivation, and cognition to explain the behavior of an individual leader. This approach can be found in some of the theories about cognitive decision processes within

FIGURE 1-3   Levels of Conceptualization for Leadership Processes

Organization

Group

Dyadic

Individual
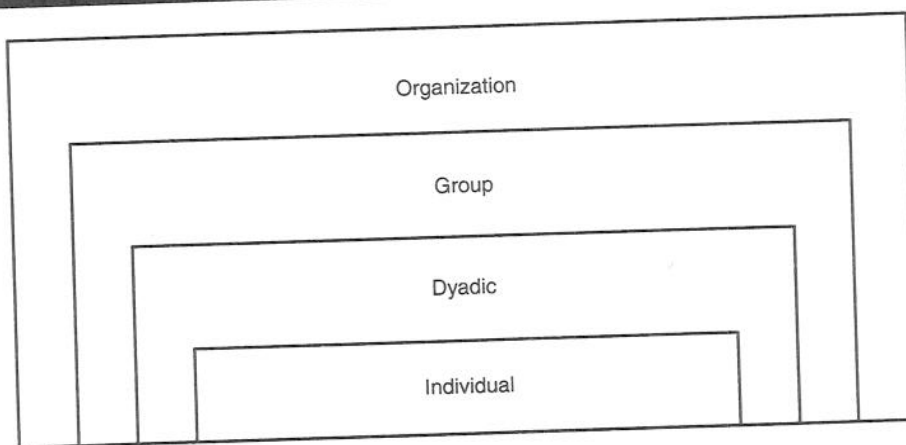
examined the correlation between leadership behavior and various indicators of l
ership effectiveness. A much smaller number of studies used laboratory experim
field experiments, or critical incidents to determine how effective leaders differ ir
havior from ineffective leaders.

Power-Influence Approach

Power-influence research examines influence processes between leaders and o
people. Like most research on traits and behavior, some of the power-influence
search takes a leader-centered perspective with an implicit assumption that causali
unidirectional (leaders act and followers react). This research seeks to explain lea
ship effectiveness in terms of the amount and type of power possessed by a leader
how power is exercised. Power is viewed as important not only for influencing subc
nates, but also for influencing peers, superiors, and people outside the organizat
such as clients and suppliers. The favorite methodology has been the use of sui
questionnaires to relate leader power to various measures of leadership effectiver

Other power-influence research has used questionnaires and descriptive incid
to determine how leaders influence the attitudes and behavior of followers. The st
of influence tactics can be viewed as a bridge linking the power-influence apprc
and the behavior approach. The use of different influence tactics is compared in te
of their relative effectiveness for getting people to do what the leader wants.

Participative leadership is concerned with power sharing and empowerment of
lowers, but it is firmly rooted in the tradition of behavior research as well. Many st
ies have used questionnaires to correlate subordinate perceptions of participa
leadership with criteria of leadership effectiveness such as subordinate satisfaction
fort, and performance. Laboratory and field experiments compared autocratic and
ticipative leadership styles. Finally, descriptive case studies of effective manag
examined how they use consultation and delegation to give people a sense of owi
ship for decisions.

Situational Approach

The situational approach emphasizes the importance of contextual factors that
fluence leadership processes. Major situational variables include the characteristic:
followers, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the type of organi
tion, and the nature of the external environment. This approach has two major sub
egories. One line of research is an attempt to discover the extent to which leaders
processes are the same or unique across different types of organizations, levels of m
agement, and cultures. The primary research method is a comparative study of twc
more situations. The dependent variables may be managerial perceptions and a
tudes, managerial activities and behavior patterns, or influence processes.

The other subcategory of situational research attempts to identify aspects of
situation that "moderate" the relationship of leader attributes (e.g., traits, skills, beh
ior) to leadership effectiveness. The assumption is that different attributes will be
fective in different situations, and that the same attribute is not optimal in all situatic
Theories describing this relationship are sometimes called contingency theories
leadership. A more extreme form of situational theory (leadership substitute) ider
fies the conditions that can make hierarchical leadership redundant and unnecess.
(see Chapter 8).

TABLE 2-2   Mintzberg's Managerial Roles
Interpersonal Roles
• Leader
• Liaison
• Figurehead
Information Processing Roles
• Monitor
• Disseminator
• Spokesperson
Decision-Making Roles
• Entrepreneur
• Disturbance Handler
• Resource Allocator
• Negotiator

terms of at least one role, although many activities involve more than one role. T
managerial roles apply to any manager, but their relative importance may vary fr
one kind of manager to another. The roles are largely predetermined by the nature
the managerial position, but each manager has some flexibility in how to interpret a
enact each role. Three roles deal with the interpersonal behavior of managers (lead
liaison, figurehead), three roles deal with information processing behavior (monit
disseminator, spokesperson), and four roles deal with decision-making behavi
(entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator). Each type of r
will be described in more detail.

Leader Role.   Managers are responsible for making their organizational subur
function as an integrated whole in the pursuit of its basic purpose. Consequently, th
manager must provide guidance to subordinates, ensure that they are motivated, ar
create favorable conditions for doing the work. A number of managerial activities ar
expressly concerned with the leader role, including hiring, training, directing, praisir
criticizing, promoting, and dismissing. However, the leader role pervades all manageri
activities, even those with some other basic purpose.

Liaison Role.   The liaison role includes behavior intended to establish and maintain
web of relationships with individuals and groups outside of a manager's organization
unit. These relationships are vital as a source of information and favors. The essence of th
liaison role is making new contacts, keeping in touch, and doing favors that will allo
the manager to ask for favors in return.

Figurehead Role.   As a consequence of their formal authority as the head of ar
organization or one of its subunits, managers are obliged to perform certain symboli
duties of a legal and social nature. These duties include signing documents (e.g.
contracts, expense authorizations), presiding at certain meetings and ceremonia
events (e.g., retirement dinner for a subordinate), participating in other rituals or
ceremonies, and receiving official visitors. The manager must participate in these
activities even though they are usually of marginal relevance to the job of managing.

Monitor Role.   Managers continually seek information from a variety of sources, such as reading reports and memos, attending meetings and briefings, and conducting observational tours. Some of the information is passed on to subordinates (disseminator role) or to outsiders (spokesperson role). Most of the information is analyzed to discover problems and opportunities, and to develop an understanding of outside events and internal processes within the manager's organizational subunit.

Disseminator Role.   Managers have special access to sources of information not available to subordinates. Some of this information is factual, and some of it concerns the stated preferences of individuals desiring to influence the manager, including people at high levels of authority. Some of the information must be passed on to subordinates, either in its original form or after interpretation and editing by the manager.

Spokesperson Role.   Managers are also obliged to transmit information and express value statements to people outside their organizational subunit. Middle managers and lower-level managers must report to their superiors; a chief executive must report to the board of directors or owners. Each of these managers is also expected to serve as a lobbyist and public relations representative for the organizational subunit when dealing with superiors and outsiders. As Mintzberg (1973, p. 76) points out, "To speak effectively for his organization and to gain the respect of outsiders, the manager must demonstrate an up-to-the-minute knowledge of his organization and its environment."

Entrepreneur Role.   The manager of an organization or one of its subunits acts as an initiator and designer of controlled change to exploit opportunities for improving the existing situation. Planned change takes place in the form of improvement projects such as development of a new product, purchase of new equipment, or reorganization of formal structure. Some of the improvement projects are supervised directly by the manager, and some are delegated to subordinates. Mintzberg (1973, p. 81) offers the following description of the way a manager deals with improvement projects:

> The manager as a supervisor of improvement projects may be likened to a juggler. At any one point in time he has a number of balls in the air. Periodically, one comes down, receives a short burst of energy, and goes up again. Meanwhile, new balls wait on the sidelines and, at random intervals, old balls are discarded and new ones added.

Disturbance Handler Role.   In the disturbance handler role, a manager deals with sudden crises that cannot be ignored, as distinguished from problems that are voluntarily solved by the manager to exploit opportunities (entrepreneur role). The crises are caused by unforeseen events, such as conflict among subordinates, the loss of a key subordinate, a fire or accident, a strike, and so on. A manager typically gives this role priority over all of the others.

Resource Allocator Role.   Managers exercise their authority to allocate resources such as money, personnel, material, equipment, facilities, and services. Resource allocation is involved in managerial decisions about what is to be done, in the manager's authorization of subordinates' decisions, in the preparation of budgets, and in the

TABLE 8-2 Substitutes and Neutralizers for Supportive and Instrumental Le

Substitute or Neutralizer	Supportive Leadership	Instrume
A. Subordinate Characteristics		
1. Experience, ability, training		Su
2. Professional orientation	Substitute	Su
3. Indifference toward rewards	Neutralizer	Ne
B. Task Characteristics		
1. Structured, routine task		Su
2. Feedback provided by task		Su
3. Intrinsically satisfying task	Substitute	
C. Organization Characteristics		
1. Cohesive work group	Substitute	Su
2. Low position power	Neutralizer	Ne
3. Formalization (roles, procedures)		Su
4. Inflexibility (rules, policies)		Ne
5. Dispersed subordinate work sites	Neutralizer	Ne

Source: Based on S. Kerr and J. M. Jermier, "Substitutes for Leadership: Their Meaning a
ment," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22 (1978), pp. 375–403

Subordinate Characteristics

Little direction is necessary when subordinates have extensive prior
training, because they already possess the skills and knowledge to know w
how to do it. For example, medical doctors, airline pilots, accountants, el
other professionals do not require much supervision and often do not
wise, professionals who are internally motivated by their values, needs,
not need to be encouraged by the leader to do high-quality work.

The attractiveness of various organizational rewards depends i
needs and personality of subordinates. Indifference toward rewards
the manager serves as a neutralizer of both supportive and instrumental b
manager. For example, subordinates who desire more time off with their l
be motivated by the offer of more money for working extra hours.

Task Characteristics

Another substitute for instrumental leadership is a simple, repetitiv
dinates can quickly learn the appropriate skills for this type of task with
training and direction by the leader. When the task provides automatic
how well the work is being performed, the leader does not need to provi
back. For example, one study found that workers in a company with ne
puter systems and computer integrated manufacturing did not need muc
because they were able to obtain feedback about productivity and qu
from the information system, and they could get help in solving proble
other people in the network (Lawler, 1981).

If the task is interesting and enjoyable, subordinates may be sufficien
by the work itself without any need for the leader to encourage and ins

addition, a task that is interesting and enjoyable may serve as a substitute for supportive leadership with regard to ensuring a high level of job satisfaction.

Group and Organization Characteristics

In organizations with detailed written rules, regulations, and policies, little direction is necessary once the rules and policies have been learned by subordinates. Rules and policies can serve as a neutralizer as well as a substitute if they are so inflexible that they prevent a leader from making changes in job assignments or work procedures to facilitate subordinate effort. Supportive and instrumental leader behaviors are neutralized when subordinates are geographically dispersed and have only infrequent contact with their leader, as in the cases of many sales representatives. An automatic reward system such as commissions or gain sharing can substitute for a leader's use of rewards and punishments to motivate subordinates. Limited position power or a strong labor union tends to neutralize a manager's use of rewards and punishments to motivate subordinates.

Another substitute for supportive leadership is a highly cohesive work group in which subordinates obtain psychological support from each other when needed. Group cohesiveness may substitute for leadership efforts to motivate subordinates if social pressure exists for each member to make a significant contribution to the group task. On the other hand, cohesiveness may serve as a neutralizer if relations with management are poor, and social pressure is exerted to restrict production.

Implications for Improving Leadership

Howell and colleagues (1990) contend that some situations have so many neutralizers that it is difficult or impossible for any leader to succeed. In this event, the remedy is not to replace the leader or provide more training, but rather to change the situation. One approach is to make the situation more favorable for the leader by removing neutralizers. Another approach is to make leadership less important by increasing substitutes.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggest the interesting possibility that substitutes may be increased to the point where leaders are altogether superfluous. However, it is important to remember that their model was designed to deal only with substitutes for leadership behavior by a formal leader. For many substitutes, behavior by the formal leader is merely replaced by similar leadership behavior carried out by peers or other informal leaders. Early behavior research demonstrated that leadership functions may be shared among members of a group, rather than being performed entirely by a single formal leader (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Slater, 1955). Research on self-managed teams has verified that members can assume responsibility for many of the leadership functions formerly performed by an appointed manager. However, even self-managed teams usually have an internal coordinator, and for most of these teams it is also desirable to have an external leader to perform leadership functions that involve relationships with the larger organization (see Chapter 11).

Research on the Theory

The empirical research has found support for some aspects of the theory, but other aspects have not been tested or supported (e.g., Howell & Dorfman, 1981, 1986; Pitner, 1986; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993). One comprehensive review (Podsakoff et al., 1995) found little evidence that situational variables moderate the