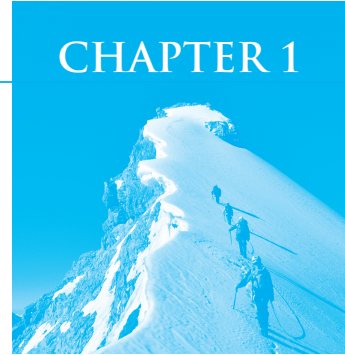


LEADERSHIP THEORIES

CHAPTER 1



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CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- Develop an appreciation for the breadth and depth of leadership theory.
- Develop a foundational understanding of leadership.
- Identify and understand the several sources of power in the context of sport.
- Understand the ways in which would-be leaders assume the role of leader.

CASE STUDY



Yvon Chouinard, Founder of Patagonia

Established in 1973 by Yvon Chouinard, Patagonia is one of the most successful and environmentally conscious sporting goods suppliers in the world. The company posts more than \$500 million in annual revenue while spending little on marketing, donating 1% of its total sales to the environment, and actively telling its customers not to buy its products unless they really need its products (Welch, 2013). The company's brand remains strong and respected, as does customer loyalty to its products. In recent years, Patagonia has outsold its targeted customer base—not its intention—by creating high-quality, highly functional products that have wide appeal.

Chouinard developed Patagonia out of a love for outdoor adventure and performance. The company was built from a small rock climbing manufacturing operation out of the back of his car into the company it is today. Central to Chouinard's philosophy is the idea that products need to make sense, and thus need to be tested; creativity is encouraged at Patagonia. He does this by

(continues)

implementing a unique leadership style that perpetuates throughout the entire company. Thus, he sees himself as one who initiates and facilitates change (Chouinard, 2005).

One way Chouinard fosters change is by bringing in ideas from outside the company. “Most people hate change—it’s threatening. I thrive on it,” he says. “I do that by holding all-company forums. We wire in our Reno, Nevada, warehouse and offices in Europe and Japan. I encourage people to ask questions then and there or to come see me in my office whenever” (Welch, 2013, para. 9). Furthermore, Chouinard developed the *5-15 Report*, which requires employees to spend 15 minutes a week writing a report to their managers on their challenges, ideas, and work. Managers then spend 5 minutes reviewing these, create a summary, and communicate this feedback to the executives and CEO. Employees are encouraged to communicate their feelings and suggestions, creating an internal culture of transparency. This vision has transformed the company (Buchanan, 2013).

Another way Chouinard develops creativity and sets the tone for his company’s culture is by developing a nurturing workplace environment. One way he does this is by subsidizing daily lunches, which allow for more social connection. “Not only are we feeding our employees good food, but we are building a community, too. Socializing is important” (Welch, 2013, para. 25). Furthermore, in 1981 Chouinard developed an onsite childcare facility to relieve some of the pressures of work–family conflict. Employees can pop in to see their children throughout the day, freeing themselves from pressures felt by distance from their children, and thus allowing employees to be free to create (Chouinard, 2005).

Chouinard’s style of leadership is evident in his philosophy of how to find the right employees. “I purposely try to hire people who are really self-motivated and good at what they do, and then I just leave them alone” (Welch, 2013, para. 1). In addition to finding the right people, Chouinard has tried to provide the right organizational culture—beyond lunches and day care for employees’ children—for those ideal employees. In his autobiography, *Let My People Go Surfing*, Chouinard notes that he strives to put more joy into the workplace. He wants work to be enjoyable on a daily basis for his employees. He has encouraged a relaxed dress code and promotes flex time so employees have the freedom to enjoy personal pursuits or stay at home to care for a sick child. Ultimately, he has said he wants to blur the demarcation line between work and play and family (Chouinard, 2006).

Questions for Discussion

1. Can you describe the types of leadership behavior that Patagonia’s founder Chouinard displays? You will have to review this chapter for assistance.
2. What traits does Chouinard possess that allow him to be an effective leader? Use examples from the case study to support your answer.
3. How does Chouinard use his power as a leader to maintain success at Patagonia? How would Chouinard define success for his company?
4. In your view, can Chouinard’s style of leadership sustain Patagonia in the future? Explain why or why not.
5. If Chouinard were to step down as the leader of the company, do you think Patagonia would continue to be the same type of company and sustain the success it has had under Chouinard’s leadership?

INTRODUCTION

Thoughts on leadership and the qualities of a leader have existed for thousands of years, and many of these ideas have passed the test of time. Ancient Chinese philosopher and military tactician Sun Tzu is credited with several written works on leadership, most notably *The Art of War*, and after more than 2,000 years his leadership philosophy and tactics are still employed by military leaders. Tzu's teachings are also finding an audience among contemporary business managers. In 2000, *Sun Tzu and the Art of Business* was published, connecting Tzu's thinking to modern business strategy. Like Tzu, today's leaders need to be adept at sizing up their competition and looking for perceived weaknesses they can exploit to gain a marketplace advantage—if, indeed, this is one of their organization's goals. Emanating from ancient Greece, Plato's *Republic* discussed the qualities of a just man and how these are needed for idealistic leadership in a just city-state (Brickhouse & Smith, 2009). Some leaders in sport are revered and respected because of their sense of fairness and impact on their organizations. Dan Rooney, chairman of the Pittsburgh Steelers, who is credited with suggesting the NFL's Rooney Rule that has attempted to pave the way for more diversity in hiring head coaches, comes to mind when considering Plato's sense of fairness. Although this text is predominantly focused on leadership in contemporary times—the 21st century—and equipping future leaders of sport with the skills and perspectives needed to lead both for-profit and not-for-profit sport organizations, it is crucial and instructive to glimpse the evolution of leadership and its theoretical development. Today's leaders have much to learn from past leaders and past theories of leadership because organizational challenges encountered today are often variations on situations encountered in the past.

Theories of leadership are a useful way for students learning about leadership to compare different perspectives at different points in history

in different contexts. Furthermore, theories offer frameworks of analysis by providing explanations as to why certain relationships exist between units (e.g., leader and follower) in the empirical—or observed—world. *Leadership* is a prolific area of study with several theories, many reaching back decades. For students who may have little formal education in leadership concepts, this chapter serves as an introduction. It is certain that you have observed leaders in society and sport, on your campus, or even at your places of work; it is quite possible that you, as a sport management student, have already engaged in leadership opportunities on campus, in your community, in a group project in class, or at a sporting event where you have volunteered or worked. This chapter serves as a primer as to what is going on between leaders and followers with regard to leadership styles and sources of power. The mechanisms for leadership ascendancy are also discussed. Finally, some of the prominent leadership theories of the 19th and 20th centuries are briefly explained. The theories included in this chapter are likely to reappear again in your further study of leadership and were carefully selected for their contribution to the development of leadership thinking for the 21st century.

LEADER AND LEADERSHIP DEFINED

In his seminal work, *Handbook of Leadership* (1974), Ralph Stogdill writes a brief account of the origins of the words “*leader*” and “*leadership*.” This account is repeated in Bass's (1981) revision of Stogdill's original work. It appears as though “*lead*” and “*leader*” have been part of European languages since about 1300. The notable exception is French, in which the word “*leader*” had no clear translation even into the late 20th century (Blondel, 1987). It is not until Webster's *An American Dictionary of the English Language* from 1828 that a definition of “*leadership*” appears.

Likewise, in Europe, the word “leadership” did not appear until the first half of the 19th century in writings about political influence and control of the British Parliament (Bass, 1981). Curiously, *Webster’s* omitted any definition of “leadership” from subsequent dictionaries until 1965, when several definitions are listed in the third edition of the *New International Dictionary of the English Language*.

The foundational starting point in the study of leadership is an understanding of the parts that make up the word. The word “leadership” can be broken down into three parts: *lead*, *-er*, and *-ship*. The first part, *lead*, is likely derived from the Middle English *lede*, which means to come first or go first (Dictionary.com, n.d.a). The use of *-er* denotes one who performs a task or is employed in a role, such as baker—one who bakes (Dictionary.com, n.d.b). Therefore, a leader is someone who is employed in a role in which they are at the forefront of a group; thus, the one who defines the path. The use of *-ship* denotes a skill or craft, as in the word “scholarship” (Dictionary.com, n.d.c). Based on this interpretation, leadership is the skill set needed in the craft of defining the path for a group by one who is in employed in such a position.

A more modern interpretation of leadership is less concrete. Similar to the idea that there is no single model of the perfect leader, there is no perfect definition of leadership. However, there are some common elements to oft-quoted leadership definitions. Northouse (2012) defines leadership as a “process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5). Russell (2005) suggests leadership is the “interpersonal influence exercised by a person or persons, through the process of communication, toward the attainment of an organization’s goals” (p. 16). Furthermore, Rue and Byars (2009) define leadership as “the ability to influence people to willingly follow one’s guidance or adhere to one’s decisions” (p. 465).

There appears to be some similarities among these definitions. Influence is a common element in all the definitions; goal setting and a relationship between the leader and the group being led are also alluded to in the definitions. The operational definition for this leadership text must then consider these important elements agreed upon by leadership scholars. The definition this text will use throughout, developed through a closer examination of the differences between leadership and management and aligned well with the three definitions presented in the previous paragraph, is:

Leadership is an influence relationship aimed at moving organizations or groups of people toward an imagined future that depends upon alignment of values and establishment of mutual purposes.

This definition builds on the works of others and includes several important ideas. First, leadership is more than just a role. It is the behaviors one exhibits in this role. Some scholars have referred to leadership as a process; however, this loses the human element, the person-centered approach at investigating leadership. Leadership is interactive and dynamic, calling upon both actions and mannerisms to influence followers or subordinates. Second, power is an essential component of leadership in that it will alter the type of influence one has with one’s followers (i.e., the group). Finally, alignment between leaders and followers on values and mutual purposes—or outcomes that benefit both the organization and the people involved—is necessary for leadership to be successful. Followers need to understand why a certain action is required.

POWER

An appreciation of power enables an effective leader to influence a group to achieve common goals. Thus, *power* is a condition that allows for

influence over a group or individual and provides the ability to change another person's behavior, actions, or attitude (Raven, 2008). Therefore, a leader is in a state (power) to offer guidance, direction, incentive, or punishment to his or her subordinates. ("Subordinates" and "followers" are used interchangeably throughout this chapter.) Drawing upon this power allows the leader to obtain the desired goals by motivating the group.

In their seminal work, French and Raven (1959) discuss the five sources of leader power—reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert—and how they relate to social systems. These provide a framework for this discussion of power and leadership in sport. A sixth source of power—informational power—was identified after the French and Raven work (Raven, 1992; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998).

Reward

Reward power is the state or condition in which a leader has the ability or authority to provide rewards to subordinates. In this instance, the leader is able to motivate the group to perform based on the promise of some type of reward. This would be the carrot that motivates the mule to move forward in the famous carrot-or-stick approach to motivation. The reward provides an incentive for production. In sport, this is a common tactic for motivating a team or group. For example, a marketing/sales director may reward an employee with a bonus based on going above and beyond a quota for group ticket sales. This power is especially effective if the employees themselves are motivated extrinsically (i.e., motivated by salary, vacations, pay bonuses, or promotions). The National Hockey League (NHL) instituted a performance-based pay system in 2009 that largely avoided guaranteed salary increases in favor of bonuses based on a league employee's fulfillment of annual goals. The system works this way: Before the start of a season, each

league employee compiles a list of goals they hope to accomplish for the year, and the employee's ability to meet those goals determines the size of the pay bonus he or she can receive at the end of the season (Mickle, 2009).

Coercive

Similar to reward power in that a leader has the ability to give something, with **coercive power** the leader distributes punishments. This would be the stick in the carrot-or-stick approach. Coercive power is the condition in which a leader has the ability to distribute negative consequence as the result of failing to meet expectations. In the previous NHL example, not fulfilling the goals a league employee sets forth means not receiving a salary bonus at the end of the season. This power is often used in sport. Given the competitive marketplace in sport, failure to reach revenue quotas or organizational goals tends to mean longer work hours or, if profits are not achieved over several quarters, a company staff "restructuring" plan that leads to layoffs can occur. The threat of punishment becomes the motivating factor to obtaining goals.

Legitimate

Legitimate power is rooted in the rights, responsibilities, and values of cultural groups. Social structure and learned hierarchy establish an order in which those at the top are awarded privileges and duties that those at the bottom follow. By now in your sport management studies you have likely encountered an organizational chart, which shows the progression of power from the top (e.g., an athletic director) to the bottom (intern). This implicit respect and acknowledgment of different levels of job titles provides an opportunity for power to influence interactions among members of the organization. Legitimate power is present when social and cultural norms exist that provide one with the right to influence others. Put another

way, legitimate power is the power of a formal position or title. A general manager, an athletic director, or a league commissioner has implicit power that is associated with his or her position in the organization. Those within the group recognize that these people have a leadership role because of the title/role they possess.

Referent

Often compared to charisma, with *referent power* the relationship between a leader and a subordinate is based on the personal qualities and characteristics exhibited by the leader. In this instance, the leader commands such a presence of personality that group members are compelled to follow. The late Bill Veeck, who owned three baseball teams and created many of the tenets on which modern-day sport marketing and customer service are based, had a commanding presence of personality. Veeck's propensity for needling baseball's conservative governance between the 1940s and 1980s with his off-the-wall promotions provided him many loyal supporters. It was Veeck's enthusiasm and ingenuity that compelled his employees to line up behind him (Dickson, 2012). Furthermore, with referent power, the subordinate receives satisfaction by avoiding "discomfort" by complying with the wishes of the leader. The notion of avoiding discomfort applies less to Veeck, who welcomed new ideas, and more to the late George Steinbrenner, who owned the New York Yankees from 1973 to 2010. He maintained a large presence in the Yankees organization through his authoritarian leadership. His referent power was apparent by his nickname, "The Boss."

Expert Power

Power that is derived from having great knowledge, skill, or expertise is said to be *expert power*. This power materializes when a subordinate is in a position of need, and the leader has desired

information. A relationship is created in which the needs of the subordinate are satisfied while the leader provides some type of service. For example, a sport information director has desired knowledge that an intern or an assistant sport information director desires. Thus, a relationship is created that satisfies the needs of both leader and subordinate. It is not necessary for this relationship to be a formal one; rather, this association may be created when a situation arises in which expertise or knowledge is needed. One sees a doctor for his or her expertise, visits a personal trainer to learn his or her skills, or enrolls in a course to seek the professor's knowledge.

Informational Power

Finally, *informational power* refers to a leader explaining to a subordinate how a job or task should be done differently. The leader puts forth persuasive reasons why the suggested change would be a more effective way of doing things (Raven, 2008). The subordinate agrees that the way described by the leader is better and changes his or her behavior accordingly. The information provided by the leader seems to be congruent in addressing the issue, thus influencing the supervisee's attitude or behavior (Gabel, 2011). Informational power may seem similar to expert power, but expert power refers more to a leader's accumulated knowledge, skills, and expertise whereas informational power is isolated to a single situation. A new baseball scout may seek to create a mentee/mentor relationship with the team's general manager (GM) so he can take advantage of the GM's expertise honed through 20 years of work (expert power). In contrast, that same GM can suggest to his scouts new ways of doing work through new sources of information. Oakland Athletics General Manager Billy Beane recommended that his scouts use different information to look for undervalued players who had a knack for getting on base and scoring runs (informational power) (Lewis, 2004) rather than the old-school way of scouting that places value

on possession of the five tools of baseball: hitting for average, hitting for power, fielding, throwing, and base running.

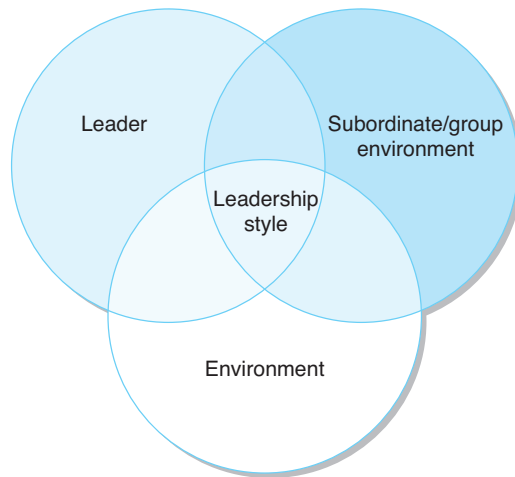
It must be noted that although the six sources of power have been identified in different contexts, they can exist simultaneously within an individual. An athletic director can exhibit more than one source of power: (1) having the ability to reward coaches with contract renewals, (2) being able to punish with termination, (3) having the power that is embedded within the group from their title, (4) having charisma, (5) having expertise in coaching and administration, and (6) going to conferences and talking to fellow athletic directors to acquire new information on how to change job functions. The sources of power need not be mutually exclusive; rather, they enable a leader to draw upon power to meet a particular circumstance. The effective leader uses these sources of power dynamically as the need changes for different leadership styles.

THE DYNAMICS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES

The leader, whether they are leading one or many, amateurs or pros, children, teens, or adults, will find that no two situations are the same. As such, the leadership style must also change to fit the needs of the situation. Imagine the coaching style of Division I basketball coaches and how that style must change if they are coaching their son's or daughter's youth basketball team. Likewise, administrators of a top flight, highly competitive Division I program may lead their program differently than a competitive Division III program that emphasizes student-athlete development over competition. What elements might alter leadership styles? When might a leader consider changing leadership style?

There are three elements to weigh when considering a leadership style: the leader, the subordinates, and the situation [environment] (Mondy,

FIGURE 1.1 Interaction between leader, subordinate/group, and environment impact leadership style.



Source: Mondy, R. W., Holmes, E. B., & Flippo, E. B. (1980). *Management: Concepts and practices*. Newton, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Holmes, & Flippo, 1980), as depicted in **Figure 1.1**. The interaction between the leader, the subordinate/group, and the environment will impact the resulting leadership style. Thus, leadership styles are dynamic and depend upon the characteristics of these three variables.

Up until this point we have discussed power as part of the leader's role. The leader is also a person with experiences, skills, and needs that are unique to that individual. Therefore, individual leadership styles can change as the leader's experiences change, as they gain skills, or as their personal needs change. Using Billy Beane of the Oakland A's again as an example, his leadership style changed as rival American League teams' payrolls ballooned and his team's payroll stayed relatively low in comparison. He sought more information about player assessment and asked

his scouts to adjust their thinking to the Athletics' financial realities (Lewis, 2004). Thus, leadership styles need not be static; they can change as the leader matures, takes on new responsibilities, or self-evaluates and deems change as being necessary.

The subordinates or followers will contribute to the leadership style. The ages, abilities, skill levels, and knowledge of the subordinates will necessitate an alteration in one's leadership style. A GM for a Minor League Baseball team will lead his executive staff differently than a group of interns. Although the GM's knowledge does not change, the followers are altered. The leadership style must adapt to this changing subordinate group. The language that a leader uses will change, the emphasis on development of followers may change, and the skill-directed activities may change. Effective leaders evaluate and adjust their leadership to meet the needs of subordinates.

Likewise, the situation in which the leader is attempting to lead will exert an influence on the leadership style. Factors like the type of organization (e.g., not-for-profit or for-profit), the group's goals, and the actions of the group will influence the leadership style; for example, a difference in leadership style is needed for leading a recreational sport league versus a Division I athletic department, and each group of participants are not the only consideration. Leadership styles, in this situation, must reflect differences in levels of organization, commitment to competition, and drive for success.

PATHS TO LEADERSHIP

The savvy individual who seeks a leadership role will be aware of the ways in which they can rise to this position. Understanding the route to achieving leadership status empowers an individual with a plan for action. Thus, having a firm understanding of the ways one might assume the role of leader becomes important. According to Shivers

(1980), four paths exist: appointment, election, emergence, and charisma. Taking on leadership roles early on—particularly while you are still in school—can help put you in a position to take advantage of one of these four paths later in your career.

Appointment

In sport contexts, individuals are often appointed to positions of leadership. As in the case where a marketing director may appoint a team leader on an account, appointment to the leadership position is a common occurrence. Interestingly, there are unique relationships that exist with this method of leadership attainment. A person is selected because he or she is thought to possess some qualities that align with those who are making the appointment. For instance, a marketing director may appoint a team leader because they have proven themselves in the past. Appointment suggests a relationship, responsibility, and perhaps shared values between the person who is selected and those who appointed him or her.

Election

The elected leader assumes a leadership role as the result of a process, formal or otherwise, that identifies an individual by popular decision. In this case, the elected leader has appealed to the electorate, those people who are designated as having the right to vote, and received a majority of votes. This can exist in a formal environment such as the election of a new league commissioner by a vote of team owners. As in the appointment situation, a relationship is then developed with the electorate, in this case the team owners. Popularity existed and so a responsibility to those who elected the leader may be present. Often, this relationship between the owners and commissioner causes a rift between the commissioner and players union during times of labor strife (i.e., lockouts and player strikes). This is a time when a leader has

many followers and has to rely on different leadership styles to work with opposing sides.

Emergence

The *emergent leader* is said to spontaneously rise from a group that is in need of leadership. For example, imagine a pick-up basketball game in which there are no captains. No captains are appointed; none is elected from the group. Yet, teams need to be balanced, the informal rules need to be agreed upon, and the game needs to be initiated. What follows is the process of emergent leadership. Someone possesses certain qualities, in this case perhaps experience, communication, problem-solving abilities, and the ability to take control of the situation. Thus, they have become the emergent leader. Children in informal play environments naturally engage in this type of leadership role process often, with the two best players emerging as the leaders. Not to be confused with dictatorships, where leaders use force to achieve their leadership goals, emergent leadership matches a person's abilities, skills, and knowledge to the needs of the situation. Emergent leadership is sometimes seen in group projects in sport management classes. Nobody is elected leader, but often a person with high standards for the quality of work to be submitted emerges as a guiding force.

Charisma

Charisma is the metaphysical force of one's personality that compels others to follow. Some people possess characteristics that are likable and entertaining, and have a belief that they are infallible, thus making them attractive to others. This attraction provides for an avenue to leadership. The relationship that is developed is complacency (i.e., self-satisfaction), based on both the avoidance of displeasing the charismatic leader and the potential of pleasing the leader. Although this form of assuming the role of the leader is well-established and commonly observed, it should be noted that

this form of leadership depends on the strength of the leader's personality, not their knowledge, experience, or skill. This form of leadership can be dangerous to wield and even more dangerous to follow (Raelin, 2003). Simply having charisma is not enough; leaders must also possess substance in the form of knowledge and skills and the ability to form meaningful relationships with subordinates. Charismatic leaders cannot do it all on their own. The values shared between leaders and followers must be mutually beneficial.

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

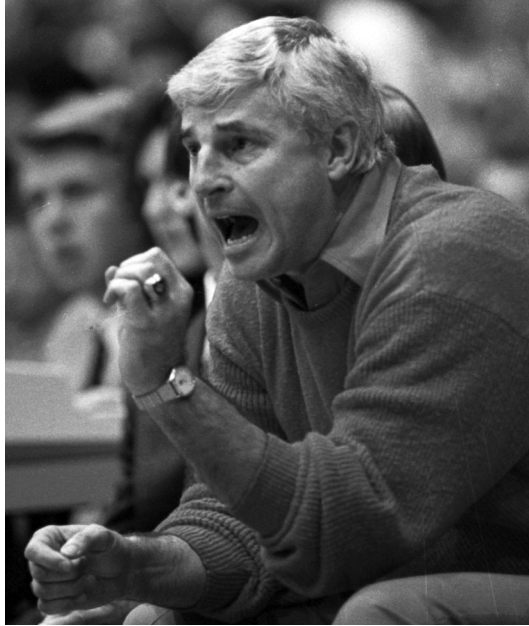
The theoretical underpinnings of leadership have had a distinctive history. Sun Tzu, Socrates, Plato, Lao Tzu, St. Thomas Aquinas, Niccolo Machiavelli, and Mahatma Gandhi are some of the classical names in the literature. Throughout the ages, leadership theories and philosophies moved from a focus on religious, military, and political matters, to behavioral, optimal performance, and capitalist-like movements. The following are selected theories, and their brief histories and philosophies.

Great Man Theory

The *great man theory* of leadership was a popular 19th-century belief that leaders are born, not made. According to this theory, popularized by Scottish writer Thomas Carlyle in the 1840s, leaders are both born with leader characteristics and born out of social, political, or economic circumstance. Thus, it was the innate qualities of the individual that allowed for their rise to leadership positions. The middle of the 20th century saw this theory fall from favor as behavioral theories began to take over. However, some held onto this belief. In 1980, Indiana basketball coach Bobby Knight (now a basketball analyst on ESPN) said, "The first thing you people need to know about leadership is that most of you simply don't have it in you" (Organ, 1996, p. 1). Contrary to the great man

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theory is the idea that individuals can develop knowledge, skills, and behaviors of leadership.



Bobby Knight coached college basketball from 1965 to 2000, amassing 902 victories.

© John Swart/AP Images

Trait Theory

In the 20th century, a systematic approach to studying leadership abilities emerged. Studies identified certain characteristics that might predispose someone as a great leader. These “traits” or factors were identified by comparing leaders and followers, and by identifying the characteristics an effective leader possesses. In his meta-analysis of 124 leadership studies, Stogdill (1948) identified five factors that predispose leadership effectiveness: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. Over the passing decades others have contributed to the literature by offering their own meta-analyses (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1974). Northouse (2012) reduced many of these

analyses into five major leadership traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Leadership studies at two Midwest universities also laid some of the groundwork to ascertain leader traits.

THE OHIO STATE STUDIES

The Ohio State Studies, initiated in 1945 and continuing into the 1950s, represented a turning point in the investigation of leadership behaviors (Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Despite early pressure to simply look at case studies of successful leadership, the Ohio State Studies took a quantitative approach to investigating leadership (Shartle, 1979). Although criticized for their lack of theory development, the Ohio State Studies were successful in developing a multidimensional approach to leadership. Central to these studies were two dimensions of leadership behavior: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to developing goals, outlining tasks, and setting expectations; consideration refers to leader-subordinate relations and fellowship. This extensive body of research led to leadership measurements such as the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-Form XII) (Stogdill, 1963) and, later, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

Ohio State’s gridiron rival to the north, the University of Michigan, also took a behavioral approach to identifying leadership qualities in the 1950s. However, unlike the Ohio State Studies, greater theory-based explanations of leader behavior were developed. Most importantly, the studies created a continuum of employee orientation/production orientation leadership behaviors. Whereas one end of the continuum was anchored by employee orientation—the leader’s focus on creating a strong relationship with subordinates—the other end was anchored by production orientation—the leader’s focus on the specific tasks

and skills needed to complete the job (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

LIKERT'S SYSTEM OF MANAGEMENT

Perhaps outshined by the scale that bears his name (Likert Scale), Rensis Likert's system of management was an important contribution to the research and application of leadership theory and motivation. Like the foundational University of Michigan Studies, a continuum was developed from *autocratic* to *participative* (Likert, 1961). The four classifications follow:

1. *Exploitive authoritative*: This type of leadership is exemplified by the leader who has little trust in his or her subordinates, and thus makes all the decisions for the group. The group in this environment is motivated by threats and coercion.
2. *Benevolent authoritative*: Again, the leader has relatively low trust in his or her subordinates and makes decisions for the group. However, in this situation the leader uses a system of rewards to motivate the subordinates.
3. *Consultative*: The leader has an enhanced level of trust in the subordinates and thus calls upon them to aid in decision making. The group is motivated in their ability to be involved with decision making.
4. *Participative team*: The leader displays a high degree of trust in the subordinates. Responsibility for success rests throughout the organization and motivation rests with achievement.

Situational Theory

Based on the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1969), situational leadership theory, later called *situational leadership*, suggested that leadership styles were dependent upon the environment or "situation" in which a leader needs to act. This theory implies that leadership styles need to change as the situation

and needs of the subordinates change. Essential to this is the idea that there are two dimensions that coexist to change the leader's behavior: supportive behavior and directive behavior (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). Supportive behavior refers to showing socio-emotional concern for subordinates whereas directive behavior refers to the need for leaders to delegate tasks and watch over subordinates. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) note that these behaviors change depending on the skills and maturity of the workforce. If subordinates are mature and responsible, a large amount of supportive and directive behaviors may not be needed. The leader plays more of a background role, only providing socio-emotional support when necessary. But for a group of subordinates that is insecure, immature, or lacks experience, more supportive and directive behaviors are needed until they grow and gain experience.

LEWIN, LIPPITT, AND WHITE STUDIES

In 1939, Lewin, Lippitt, and White created their highly regarded foundational work on "social climate" (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). This groundbreaking social science investigation focused on leadership behaviors in boys' hobby clubs (Edginton, Hudson, Scholl, & Lauzon, 2011). The authors developed an interesting experimental stimulus that the boys would be exposed to during their 3-month investigation. Three leadership styles exposed the children to a variety of situational circumstances that resulted in behavior changes in the boys. The three leadership styles were *authoritarian*, *democratic*, and *laissez-faire* (Lewin et al., 1939).

Authoritarian leadership was exemplified by a dictator-like style. All the boys' activities were organized and directed by the leader. Praise and criticism were given to each individual, and the leader did not openly engage the group. This style of leadership led to enhanced levels of aggression, boys seeking approval and attention from the leader, and domination within the peer group. This reaction was significant enough that a "scapegoat"

role resulted within the group, and boys opted out of the investigation (Lewin et al., 1939, p. 278).

Democratic leadership was characterized by the leader facilitating the group's activities in consultation with the group. Thus, the activities of the group were discussed and decided upon by full group input. The leader was "objective" and frequently participated in the activities of the group. Group members could choose whom they worked with and what tasks each would do. This leadership style resulted in interactions between the boys that were "friendly" and more "spontaneous" (Lewin et al., 1939, p. 277). Furthermore, boys under this type of leadership style developed and exercised collective planning and individual decision making.

The laissez-faire style of leadership was the last group investigated. This style was characterized by lack of adult participation. Thus, all group decisions were generated by the boys, and they only interacted with the leader when technical questions arose. Furthermore, little to no praise or criticism was offered by the leader. The outcome of this environment was less productive than the other groups. However, in the absence of a leader, the group maintained its productivity, unlike in the authoritarian lead group.

The Lewin, Lippitt, and White studies remain an important and classic contribution to leadership theory. The lasting impact of their research is seen in modern applications of Lewinian theory to economics (Diamond, 1992), mathematics, biology, and social psychology (Scheidlinger, 1994).

BLAKE AND MOUTON'S MANAGERIAL GRID

First developed in the 1960s, the managerial grid has been through many iterations (Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1978, 1985, 1994). It is widely accepted as a critical and important analysis of leadership behavior. It is similar in some respects to the Ohio State Studies, which combined a focus on tasks and a focus on the relationship with the subordinate. However, the managerial grid

develops these concepts further by quantifying the degree to which the focus is on tasks or "concern for production/results," and the focus is on the relationship with the subordinate or "concern for people." The one to nine scale in [Figure 1.2](#) allows for discernment among the various responses regarding concern for production or people, where one represents a low concern and nine represents a high concern. Blake and McCauley (1991) postulated there were five leadership types:

1.1—Impoverished Management:

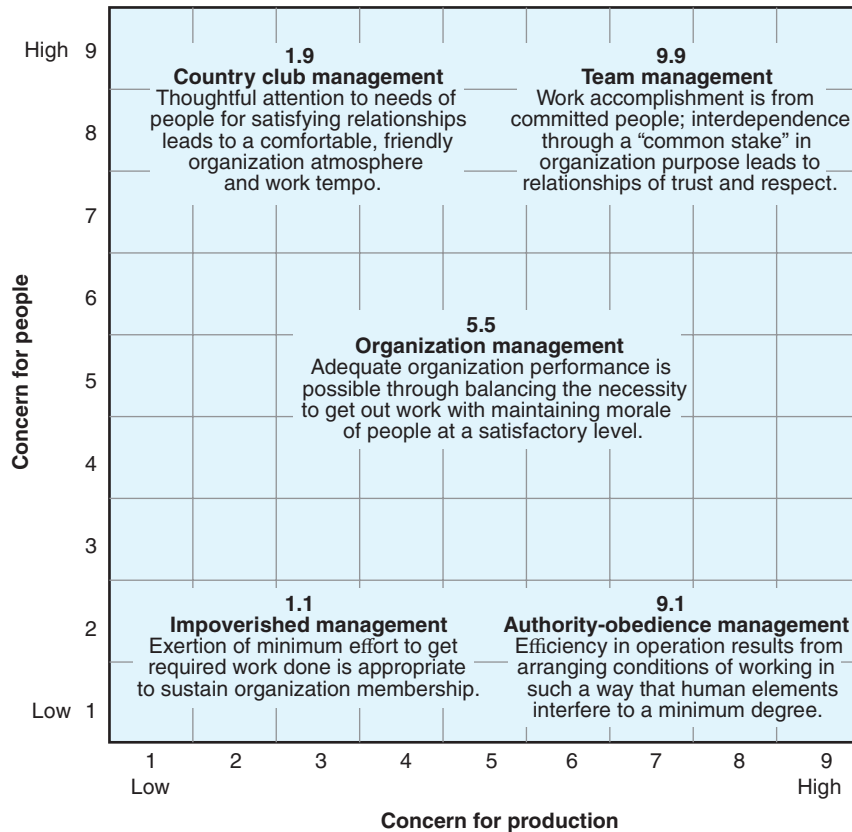
Emphasizes a situation in which there is both low concern for results and low concern about people. The apathetic nature of this leader results in behavior that is withdrawn from subordinates and indifferent to success.

1.9—Country Club Management: This combination of low concern for results with high concern for people results in a leader who is more interested in pleasing people than in the performance of tasks. This leader attempts to create an environment that is friendly and welcoming.

9.1—Authority-Compliance Management: This represents a high concern for results but a low concern for people. This controlling leadership style is characterized by dictating instructions to subordinates in a way that does not show concern or compassion.

5.5—Middle of the Road Management: This style of compromise is evident in leaders who balance concern for results with satisfying relationships. The group is functioning; however, there is potential for greater success.

9.9—Team Management: Great emphasis is placed on production and on people. This optimal balance of developing human relationships and effective results attainment provides for the most satisfying work environment.

FIGURE 1.2 The Managerial Grid.

Source: Reproduced from Blake, R. Moulton, J. (1964). *The Managerial Grid: The Key to Leadership Excellence*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Company.

PATH-GOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Inspired by the work of Georgopoulos, Mahoney, and Jones (1957) and later Evans (1970), House (1971) developed the motivation-rich *path-goal theory*. The theory was later refined into the theory we have come to understand today (House, 1996). According to the theory, leaders will change the path to attaining a goal based on the motivation of their subordinates. Chelladurai and

Saleh (1980) confirm the need for motivational factors similar to path-goal theory for coaching in the Leadership Scale for Sports. House (House & Mitchell, 1974) examined four approaches:

1. *Directive leadership*: Characterized by leaders who set clear expectations and goals for their subordinates. Thus, it is fundamentally satisfying to have clear and obtainable goals in which to achieve.
2. *Supportive leadership*: Exemplified by leaders who show concern for the

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well-being of subordinates. This supportive behavior motivates the subordinates to achieve through mutual respect.

3. *Participative leadership*: Leaders who actively consult with their subordinates and request shared decision making. Buy-in is achieved with this leadership style, as well as satisfaction with the consultation.
4. *Achievement-oriented leadership*: Leaders who set high expectations and goals can motivate subordinates to achieve. Goals need to be realistic yet far reaching to push subordinates to succeed.

SUMMARY

This chapter focused on pre-21st-century leadership perspectives. The information on leadership presented provides sport management students with a theoretical base of support with which to confidently begin their journey into the study of

leadership. Understanding the evolution of leadership theories and ideas from Sun Tzu and Plato up to Blake and McCauley provides future sport professionals with the understanding of how long philosophers and researchers have considered the importance of leadership. Undoubtedly, given the competitive nature of sport business and the difficulties not-for-profit and for-profit organizations face to remain competitive and solvent, leadership has become even more important for organizations in the 21st century. This chapter provides students learning about leadership with the ability to conceptualize leader-follower experiences in sport and understand what it might be like for them as an entry-level employee as they pursue internships and their first jobs. The information presented in this chapter allows the sport management student to begin to reflect on his or her practical sport experiences—as they happen—and provide scope to their exposure to leadership styles. Ultimately, the goal is to develop reflective perspectives on your own leadership abilities, styles, and behaviors as you develop them.

LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE



Frank Russo.
Courtesy of Frank Russo.

Frank Russo is the Senior Vice President of Business Development and Client Relations for Global Spectrum, one of the world's foremost providers of management, marketing, and venue operations.

Q: What is your role in leadership?

My primary role is to develop new business for the company. I lead a team of people to respond to RFPs (requests for proposals) typically issued by city-, county-, or state-owned universities to manage arenas, stadiums, convention centers, multipurpose complexes, fairgrounds, and ice rinks. We manage 117 facilities, which represent 85 different clients. Therefore, we operate multiple venues for a number of clients. The other part of my job is to make sure that we maintain strong client relations, on an ongoing basis, so that they renew our contracts. In addition, I sit on the executive committee of Global Spectrum. But, my primary role for the company is to develop new business and to keep the business that we currently have.

Q: What skills are required to be an effective leader?

They say that knowledge is power, and I believe that you may come in cold but your learning technique must be quick and effective. You must have the ability to earn respect as a leader. The way you treat people will come back to you. I think you need to have a clear and honest recognition of your own skills. By doing so, you can recognize where you are lacking and can hire people to do what you can't do, rather than hire people to be just like you. Communication skills are critical and an openness to listen to people throughout the organization, top and bottom. For me it is much more important to listen and understand what our clients want.

Q: What ways/techniques have you developed that allow you to be most effective?

I was a history major in college and I learned to research, organize, coordinate, and create a battle plan. So whether you are doing a history paper, or you are preparing to respond to an RFP at the Cleveland Convention Center, a lot of it is very similar. You must be connecting the dots, creating the story, and then selling it. Whether you want to get an A in history or a management contract in Cleveland, you should have your resources focused on that objective. So, research, communication, staying updated in the industry, being aware of what your competition is doing, how to improve upon that, and how to offer a better "mousetrap" are all critical skills because you are always competing. Sometimes you are competing against others, but when you have a contract with a client, you can also be competing with yourself, especially when you are dealing with the government. For example, if you are worth \$250,000, then someone comes along and says that they can do the job for \$95,000, you are suddenly worth only \$94,000. So we are constantly working to demonstrate our value to each client in relation to the fees they are paying us. I need to convey to the client why it is in their best interest to have us as their facility manager. This shows the client that sometimes the lowest price isn't always the best price.

Q: Are there any technologies that you find important with respect to leadership? What technologies should undergraduates be aware of or develop proficiency in?

Of course, having basic computer skills is essential. You should use those skills to be quick, efficient, and done in an organized fashion. You should be able to handle the complex nature of a multipurpose event center, through a computerized booking system, and be able to juggle those events, while making sure they are running on schedule, and in a timely fashion, as promised on their contract.

In a way, I think the business should change so that you can back off technology and have more face-to-face time, more conversation, and a little more personal time to recharge yourself. Recharging is important because you could be on duty for 24 hours a day. I think the biggest problem with technology is the inability to turn it off, sit down, be quiet, listen, and concentrate so that you can focus on listening and understanding the problem. A handwritten letter can go a long way in developing a relationship.

Q: What lessons would you give to students to be future leaders?

If I could go back to college, I would love to have the opportunity to take classes where I learned as opposed to simply studying for tests. That is my number one regret and my number one wish. In that context, I encourage our interns to take the tasks assigned with enthusiasm, ask questions, and learn the basics of the business they are interning for. Learning how to contribute, as opposed to getting in a comfort zone and just blending in, is also good advice. You should take a broad view and definition of your job. It may be just an internship, but I want the intern who will show initiative, and constantly ask what can they do, and create an impression that is lasting. Eventually, that will lead to me giving them more to do and then pay more attention to them.

Having awareness and an openness to talk to your boss is important. If I am not doing anything, I want my intern to observe that and come into my office, talk to me, and ask me good questions. You should not be intimidated because you are an intern. Don't be quiet about something that you suggest improving. Make suggestions, ask questions, and insert yourself into the operations of management.

Q: Anything else you would like to add?

I think it is important for students to get involved with their professional organization; for us it is IAVM (International Association of Venue Managers). They have an annual conference, where students work as volunteers. The IAVM offers great internship opportunities and networking opportunities. The IAVM has regional conferences, arena manager conferences, convention center conferences, theater boot camp, and a lot of opportunities for students to work as interns to help the IAVM at those conferences. They also offer student memberships that also provide students with certain publications, which is a very useful way to get more information about future careers.



KEY TERMS

authoritarian
autocratic
charisma
coercive power
democratic
emergent leader
expert power
great man theory
informational power
laissez-faire

leader
leadership
legitimate power
participative
path-goal theory
power
referent power
reward power
situational leadership
theories

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS



1. What role might power play in the leadership of a Major League Baseball team? A Minor League Baseball team? A Division I athletic department? Look at the six sources of power and compare and contrast the different scenarios.
2. Think about the six major professional team sport leagues in the United States (the WNBA, NHL, MLS, MLB, NFL, and NBA). What ways exist in which one might assume the role of a leader (i.e., commissioner, coach, general manager, club president, players' representative)?
3. Pick a leader in sport or business whom you admire and would like to model yourself after. What type of leadership style do they exhibit based on the managerial grid shown in Figure 1.2?
4. What traits do you possess at this moment that you feel will enable you to become an effective leader?
5. What sources of power do you have as a sport management student? Think about your dream leadership job in sport. What sources of power will you need in that job?



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