

CHAPTER 1

Leadership

Past, Present, and Future

John Antonakis

Anna T. Cianciolo

Robert J. Sternberg

“The study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders—what they did and why they did it.”

(Bass, 1990, p. 3)

Leadership is a complex and diverse field of knowledge, and trying to make sense of leadership research can become an intimidating endeavor. After about a century of scientific study, the theoretical foundations of leadership research on which we currently stand are firmly supported. How did we get to this point? What are the major theoretical paradigms of leadership? Where is leadership research heading?

To answer these questions and to better understand the focus of our book and the chapters that constitute it, it is essential that readers have some knowledge of the history of leadership research, the various theoretical streams of which it is composed, and emerging issues that are currently pushing the boundaries of the domain forward.

4 INTRODUCTION

Complicating our task, however, is the fact that 100 years of leadership research has led to several paradigm shifts and a voluminous body of knowledge. Furthermore, on several occasions, scholars of leadership became quite frustrated by the large amount of false starts, incremental theoretical advances, and contradictory findings. As stated more than four decades ago by Bennis (1959), “Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioral sciences” (pp. 259-301).

For those who are not aware of the crises leadership researchers faced, imagine the following task: Take bits and pieces of several sets of jigsaw puzzles, mix them, and then ask a friend to put the pieces together into one cohesive picture. Analogously, leadership researchers have struggled for most of the last century to put together an integrated, theoretically cohesive view of the nature of leadership, invariably leading to disappointment in those who studied it. At times, there was much dissatisfaction and pessimism (e.g., Greene, 1977; McCall & Lombardo, 1978; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977) and even calls for a moratorium on leadership research (e.g., Miner, 1975).

Today, though, a clearer picture is beginning to emerge. Leadership scholars are more optimistic than ever before, and research efforts have been revitalized in areas previously shut down for apparent lack of consistency in findings. Nowadays, our accumulated knowledge allows us to explain, with some degree of confidence, the nature of leadership, its antecedents, and its consequences. This accumulated knowledge is reflected in the present volume, which will provide readers with a thorough overview of leadership and its complexities, the methods employed to study it, and how it is assessed (see Part II). We include four major theoretical perspectives for studying leadership: traits, information-processing, situational-contingency, and transformational (see Part III). We also focus on the factors affecting the success and development of leadership (see Part IV). Furthermore, we present emerging issues relating to leadership, including national culture, gender, and ethics (Part V).

To provide readers with the background necessary to understand the chapters that follow—and their summaries appearing at the end of this chapter—we first acquaint readers with the concept of leadership and why leadership is necessary. Then, we briefly trace the history of leadership research and examine its major schools, most of which are reviewed in this book. Our historical overview is also necessary as an organizing framework because chapter authors frequently refer to elements of the history of leadership research. Next, we discuss emerging issues in leadership research and how findings are being consolidated. Finally, we provide an overview of the book and a summary of each chapter.

The Concept of Leadership

Leadership is one of social science’s most examined phenomena. The scrutiny afforded to leadership is not surprising—leadership is a universal activity evident

in humankind and in animal species (Bass, 1990). Indeed, reference to leadership is evident throughout classical Western and Eastern writings (Bass, 1990), with a common belief that leadership is vital for effective organizational and societal functioning.

Leadership is easy to identify in situ; however, it is difficult to define precisely. Given the complex nature of leadership, a specific and widely accepted definition of leadership does not exist and might never be found. Fiedler (1971a), for example, noted: "There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership theories—and there are almost as many theories of leadership as there are psychologists working in the field" (p. 1). Even in this absence of universal agreement, a broad definition of leadership is necessary before introducing leadership as a domain of scholarly inquiry.

Most leadership scholars probably would agree, in principle, that leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process—and its resultant outcomes—that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader's dispositional characteristics and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. For us, a necessary condition for effective and authentic leadership is the creation of empowered followers in pursuit of a moral purpose, leading to moral outcomes that are guided by moral means.

A definition of leadership also requires that we differentiate it conceptually from power and management, because these concepts are often confused with leadership. *Power* refers to the means leaders have to potentially influence others; for example, referent power (i.e., followers' identification with the leader), expertise, the ability to reward or punish performance, and so forth (Bass, 1990; see also Etzioni, 1964; French & Raven, 1968). Thus, the ability to lead others requires that one has power.

As regards its differentiation from management, *leadership*—as seen from the "new" perspective (i.e., transformational and charismatic leadership theories; see Bryman, 1992)—is purpose driven, resulting in change based on values, ideals, vision, symbols, and emotional exchanges. *Management* is objectives driven, resulting in stability based on rationality, bureaucratic means, and the fulfillment of contractual obligations. Although some view leaders and managers as different sorts of individuals (see Zaleznik, 1989), others argue that successful leadership requires successful management, that leadership and management are complementary, that leadership goes beyond management, and that leadership is necessary for outcomes that exceed expectations (see Bass, 1985, 1998).

Leadership is necessary for a variety of reasons. On a supervisory level, leadership is required to complement organizational systems (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and to enhance subordinate motivation, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Bass, 1990). At the strategic level, leadership is necessary to ensure the coordinated functioning of the organization as it interacts with a dynamic external environment (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Thus, leadership is required to direct and guide organizational and human resources toward the strategic objectives of the organization and ensure that organizational functions are aligned with the external environment (see Zaccaro, 2001).

The Study of Leadership

In this section, we first discuss how the study of leadership evolved. Our description is cursory, because many of the details relating to the various theoretical perspectives of leadership are discussed in the chapters that follow. Our intention here, therefore, is to provide readers with an understanding of how leadership theory evolved into the major paradigms presented in this book. We then discuss emerging issues, which are included throughout the book, relating leadership to context and ethics, among other concepts. Finally, we discuss how leadership findings are being integrated into cohesive frameworks (i.e., hybrid approaches).

A Brief History of Leadership Research

We have divided leadership research into eight major schools (see Figure 1.1) and classified the schools on two dimensions: temporal (i.e., the time period in which the school emerged) and productivity (i.e., the indicative degree to which the school attracted research interest in a *specific* period of time). The derivation of the schools and the research productivity of the schools are based on our professional judgment; however, we have also been guided by a recent review in *Leadership Quarterly* of the literature that appeared in the last decade (Lowe & Gardner, 2000). We also have relied on historical reviews by Bass (1990), House and Aditya (1997), and Van Seters and Field (1990), to which readers should refer for more complete accounts of the history and development of leadership research.

Trait School of Leadership

The scientific study of leadership began at the turn of the 20th century with the “great man” perspective, which saw history as being shaped by exceptional individuals (Bass, 1990). The “great man” school of thought suggested that certain dispositional characteristics (i.e., stable characteristics or traits) differentiated leaders from nonleaders. Thus, leadership researchers focused on identifying individual differences (i.e., traits) associated with leadership. In two influential reviews (see Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948), certain traits (e.g., intelligence, dominance) associated with leadership *were* identified. (A common belief that we wish to help dispel is that traits are not consistently associated with leadership emergence/effectiveness.) However, trait research, for most intents and purposes, was shut down following the rather pessimistic interpretations of these findings by many leadership scholars.

This was the first major crisis that leadership research faced. It took almost 30 years for this line of research to reemerge, following Lord, De Vader, and Alliger’s (1986) reanalysis of Mann’s data, which found intelligence to be strongly correlated with leadership. Studies by Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) and Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991) also were instrumental in kick-starting research that linked stable leader characteristics to leader emergence. McClelland (1975, 1976), in the meantime, led another independent line of inquiry linking leaders’ implicit

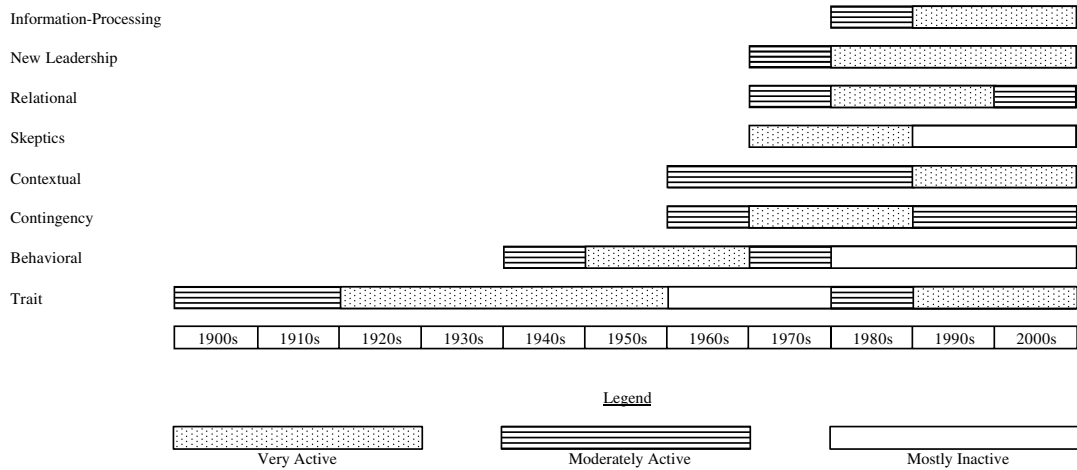


Figure 1.1 A Brief History of Major Schools of Leadership

motives (i.e., subconscious drives or desires) to leader effectiveness (see also House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991). Currently, the trait perspective appears to be enjoying a resurgence of interest (see Lowe & Gardner, 2000).

Behavioral School of Leadership

Given pessimistic reviews of the trait literature, the trait movement gave way to the behavioral styles of leadership in the 1950s. Similar to Lewin and Lippitt's (1938) exposition of democratic versus autocratic leaders, this line of research focused on the behaviors that leaders enacted and how they treated followers. The well-known University of Michigan (see Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951) and Ohio State (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) studies identified two dimensions of leadership generally referred to as consideration (i.e., employee-oriented leadership) and initiating structure (i.e., production-oriented leadership). Others extended this research (e.g., see Blake & Mouton, 1964). Leadership research was again in crisis, however, because of contradictory findings relating to the behavioral approaches. It then became apparent that success of the style of leader behavior enacted was contingent on the situation. As a result, leadership theory in the 1960s began to focus on leadership contingencies. Interest in behavioral theories per se is currently very low (Lowe & Gardner, 2000); however, many of the ideas of the behavioral movement have been incorporated into other perspectives of leadership (e.g., contingency theories, transformational leadership theories).

Contingency School of Leadership

The contingency theory movement of leadership is credited to Fiedler (1967, 1971a), who stated that leader-member relations, the task structure, and the position power of the leader would determine the effectiveness of the type of leadership

8 INTRODUCTION

exercised. Another well-known contingency approach was that of House (1971), who focused on the leader's role in clarifying the paths that would lead to followers' goals. Kerr and Jermier (1978) extended this line of research into the "substitutes-for-leadership" theory by focusing on the conditions under which leadership is unnecessary as a result of follower capabilities, clear organizational systems and procedures, and other factors. Other lines of research that presented theories of leader decision-making style and various contingencies include the work of Vroom and associates (e.g., Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Work on contingency theories continues (see Fiedler, 1993; House, 1996), although interest appears to have tapered off somewhat (Lowe & Gardner, 2000; Schriesheim & Neider, 1996), possibly because parts of this literature have led to contextual approaches (discussed below).

Relational School of Leadership

A little after the contingency movement became popular, another line of research, labeled the relational theory perspective of leadership, generated substantial research. This movement was based on what was termed vertical dyad linkage theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) and has evolved into what is now termed leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). LMX theory describes the nature of the relations between leaders and their followers. High-quality relations between a leader and his or her followers are based on trust and mutual respect (i.e., the in-group) whereas low-quality relations between a leader and his or her followers (i.e., the out-group) are based on the satisfaction of contractual obligations. LMX theory predicts that high-quality relations generate more positive leader outcomes than do lower-quality relations. This line of research has been productive, and interest in this area appears to be moderate (Lowe & Gardner, 2000).

Skeptics of Leadership School

Leadership research faced other series of crises in the 1970s and 1980s. The validity of questionnaire ratings of leadership were severely challenged by those arguing that ratings may be tainted by the implicit leadership theories of those providing the ratings (e.g., Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977). This position would suggest that what leaders do is largely irrelevant and that leader ratings may reflect simply the implicit leadership theories that individuals carry "in their heads" (Eden & Leviatan, 1975, p. 740).

In a related field of research, it was argued that leader evaluations merely reflected attributions that followers make in their quest to understand and assign causes to organizational outcomes (Calder, 1977; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). These researchers suggested that what leaders do might not matter and that leader outcomes (i.e., the performance of the leader's group) affect how leaders are rated (see Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, 1978). Finally, another line of research questioned whether leadership existed or was needed, and whether it actually made any difference to organizational performance (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Pfeffer, 1977).

Many of the above arguments have been tempered or countered by scholars of leadership who could be classed as “realists” (e.g., Antonakis & Cacciato, 2003; Bass, 1990; Day & Lord, 1988; House, Spangler, et al., 1991; Shamir, 1995; J. E. Smith, Carson, & Alexander, 1984; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; R. Weber, Camerer, Rottenstreich, & Knez, 2001; Weiss & Adler, 1981). Interest in the “skeptics” perspective, at least as judged by the work of Meindl and associates, appears to be waning (see Lowe & Gardner, 2000). Although there are still unanswered questions posed by the skeptics of leadership, the study of leadership has benefited from this school by (a) using more rigorous methodologies, (b) differentiating top-level leadership from supervisory leadership, and (c) focusing on followers and how they perceive reality. The study of followership and the resultant information-processing perspective of leadership have generated many theoretical advances from which leadership research has benefited immensely.

Information-Processing School of Leadership

The major impetus for the information-processing perspective is based on the work of Lord, Foti, and De Vader (1984). The focus of the work has been primarily on understanding why a leader is legitimized by virtue of the fact that his or her characteristics match the prototypical expectation that followers have of the leader.

The information-processing perspective also has been extended to better understand how cognition is related to the enactment of various behaviors (e.g., see Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). Also notable are the links that have been made to other areas of leadership—for example, prototypes and their relation to various contextual factors (see D. J. Brown & Lord, 2001; Lord & Emrich, 2000; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Information-processing perspectives of leadership have recently generated much interest (Lowe & Gardner, 2000) and should continue to provide us with novel understandings of leadership.

The New Leadership (Neocharismatic/Transformational/Visionary) School

At a time when leadership research was beginning to appear dull and ready to face another crisis, the work of Bass (1985) and his associates (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1988) and others, promoting visionary or charismatic leadership theories (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Sashkin, 1988a), reignited interest in leadership research in general (Bryman, 1992; J. G. Hunt, 1999) and in related schools of leadership (e.g., trait school).

Bass (1985) built on the work of House (1977), Burns (1978), and others to argue that previous paradigms of leadership were transactionally oriented: that is, focused on the mutual satisfaction of transactional obligations. He believed that a different form of leadership was required to account for follower outcomes centered on a sense of purpose and an idealized mission. He referred to this type of leadership as transformational leadership, in which idealized (i.e., charismatic), visionary, and inspiring leader behaviors induced followers to transcend their

interests for that of the greater good. Interest in this school of leadership has been intense. Indeed, over the last decade more than one third of articles published in the *Leadership Quarterly* emanated from the new school of leadership (Lowe & Gardner, 2000).

Emerging Issues

We currently have a good understanding of leadership, but there are still many areas that require further research. We will briefly discuss some of these areas, which include context, ethics, and alternative dispositional predictors (i.e., traits) of leadership. We also discuss how future leadership research could be consolidated.

Related to the contingency movement is the contextual school of leadership (see Shamir & Howell, 1999; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). From this perspective, contextual factors are seen to give rise to or inhibit certain leadership behaviors or their dispositional antecedents. These contextual factors can include leader hierarchical level, national culture, leader-follower gender, organizational characteristics, among others (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). This perspective, first looking at the role of national culture, goes back several decades (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Meade, 1967). We believe that it is crucial to understand the contextual factors in which leadership is embedded before we can obtain a more general understanding of leadership.

Ethics is another important emerging topic in leadership research. Ethics, however, has not been the mainstay of leadership researchers. Indeed, Bass (1985)—one of the most prominent figures in the field of leadership research—did not make the distinction between authentic (i.e., ethical) transformational and inauthentic (i.e., unethical) transformational leaders until more than a decade after he published his theory (see Bass, 1998; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Nowadays, the ethics of leadership and leaders' degree of moral development are increasingly becoming essential elements of leadership research. Future leadership models should consider the ethics of leader means and outcomes (e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; J. M. Howell, 1988) and ways in which leader moral orientation can be improved.

Another emerging issue relates to leader traits. Although much progress has been made in linking leader traits to leader outcomes, that progress has been slowed by the way in which dispositions have been conceived (Hedlund et al., 2003) and by the conditions under which traits are considered important (see Fiedler, 1993). For example, cognitive ability typically is seen as a unitary construct, mostly relating to academic ability, that may not account for an individual's creativity or ability to solve practical problems (Sternberg, 1988, 1997). Interest in understanding practical problem-solving abilities of leaders is growing (e.g., Marshall-Mies et al., 2000; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000), as is interest in linking tacit knowledge (i.e., implicit knowledge derived from experience that requires practical problem-solving ability) (see Sternberg, 1988, 1997) to leader effectiveness (Hedlund et al., 2003). We anticipate that future research efforts will uncover alternative conceptualizations of intelligence that can be linked to leadership emergence or effectiveness and its development (e.g., see

Cianciolo, Antonakis, & Sternberg, in press) and also determine configurations of traits (e.g., intelligence, dominance, self-efficacy; see J. A. Smith & Foti, 1998) that predict leadership emergence/effectiveness.

Finally, given how much is currently known about the nature of leadership, we believe that researchers are now in a position to integrate overlapping and complementary conceptualizations of leadership. Van Seters and Field (1990) argued that the new era of leadership research will be one of converging evidence and integration. It appears that our accumulated knowledge is such that we can begin to construct hybrid theories of leadership (i.e., integrating diverse perspectives such as cognitive and situational) (see Bass, 1990) or even hybrid-integrative perspectives. An example of an integrative perspective is the work of House and Shamir (1993), who integrated various “new” leadership theories. Zaccaro’s (2001) hybrid framework of executive leadership links cognitive, behavioral, strategic, and visionary leadership theory perspectives. Zaccaro’s work also is a good example of a hybrid-integrative perspective, given that he also integrated overlapping perspectives of leadership. Finally, another example of a hybrid-integrative framework is that of Bass (1985), who integrated transformational and transactional-type theories, as well as discussing possible individual-difference correlates and contextual factors affecting leader emergence.

There are many other ways in which hybrid approaches could be developed. One example is LMX theory, which we introduced in the section on the relational school of leadership. LMX theory has been criticized for not specifying behavioral antecedents of high- or low-quality relations (see House & Aditya, 1997). LMX theory potentially could be integrated with the transformational-transactional leadership theory, because the style of leadership employed is related to the type of leader-follower relations and exchanges (see Deluga, 1990; Gerstner & Day, 1997; J. M. Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999).

It is only through efforts to consolidate findings that leadership research will go to the next level—where we may finally be able to construct and test a general theory of leadership. Previous research has laid the foundations for such a theory. Now, leadership researchers need to begin to conceptualize ways in which many of the diverse findings can be united, examples of which are evident in the chapters of this book.

Organization and Summary of the Book

We have introduced readers to the major paradigms and current issues relating to leadership. In the remainder of this chapter, we provide a summary of the chapters constituting *The Nature of Leadership*.

Part II: The Complexity, Science, and Assessment of Leadership

Chapter 2. Hunt demonstrates that leadership is immersed in a complex, dynamic, and interactive web, which he refers to as a “historical-contextual superstructure.”

12 INTRODUCTION

He asserts that conceptions of leadership are integrally linked to various factors, including among others the nature of reality and ontological issues, stakeholder perspectives, and levels-of-analysis issues. Thus, how leadership is defined and studied will depend on one's conception of leadership. Hunt provides various examples of conceptions of leadership (e.g., leadership as cognition, leadership and culture, leadership development), which provide insightful perspectives and an organizational framework to be related to the remaining chapters of the book.

Chapter 3. Antonakis, Schriesheim, Donovan, Gopalakrishna-Pillai, Pellegrini, and Rossomme, show that knowledge of leadership must be derived from the results of scientific research. The chapter covers important methodological points that are often overlooked, an oversight that could threaten the validity of research findings. Examples of the application of methods are interspersed throughout the chapter and demonstrate typical problems faced by leadership scholars (e.g., ensuring equivalence when conducting cross-cultural comparisons, testing for moderators). Various issues relating to methodology are discussed ranging from the basic (e.g., types of research, study design) to the advanced (e.g., structural-equation modeling, levels of analysis), with a special emphasis on contextual perspectives.

Chapter 4. Kroeck, Lowe, and K. W. Brown argue that to understand and develop leadership we must be able to assess the constructs constituting the theoretical framework and must link the constructs to outcomes that are useful. As realists, they argue that leadership is required and does make a difference to organizational effectiveness. Linking to other leadership paradigms presented in the book, they discuss what is assessed in terms of independent dimensions (e.g., leader traits, behaviors), the methods employed to make these assessments, and units that are surveyed to provide leader ratings. To give readers an idea of the range of instruments that are available to study leadership, Kroeck and his coauthors have compiled a detailed, selective summary list of some of the often-used leadership measures.

Part III: The Major Schools of Leadership

Chapter 5. In this chapter, Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader provide a review of trait theory. They point out the mistakes and misunderstandings of the past and show why trait theories can provide a very useful understanding of leadership. A variety of trait perspectives are covered (including alternative dispositional predictors), and the authors differentiate them into distal or proximal predictors of leader processes. This chapter also serves as an example of integrating and hybridizing leadership research. For example, Zaccaro and colleagues argue that configurations of traits should be linked to leader processes (e.g., behaviors) and the contexts in which they emerge, and by this means be used to predict leadership.

Chapter 6. D. J. Brown, Scott, and Lewis review an area of leadership research that is quite young but that has had a substantial impact on the leadership field. The information-processing perspective of leadership, rooted in social and cognitive

psychology, takes a person-perception approach in attempting to answer how leaders and followers construct their reality and make decisions based on this reality. Perceptions of leaders by followers and of followers by leaders are the focus of this approach, as are the factors that affect how those perceptions are generated. The authors also show how perceptions and implicit theories are rooted in the context in which leadership is observed. Finally, they discuss how information-processing perspectives can be extended by making links to theories based on self-concept so that follower perceptions of leaders can be explained and linked to follower actions and behaviors.

Chapter 7. Ayman reviews situational and contingency theories of leadership, demonstrating that relations between leader characteristics (e.g., traits, behaviors) and leader outcomes depend on the situation in which the influencing processes occur. She shows that the success of leadership is a function of contingencies, which moderate the relations of leader characteristics to leader outcomes. Ayman also clarifies a common misunderstanding—one in which contingency theorists (i.e., those following the Fiedler tradition) supposedly believe that a leader's style is fixed. She argues that leaders are capable of environmental monitoring and of adjusting their style to fit a particular context.

Chapter 8. Sashkin reviews the literature on transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories of leadership—the line of research that currently dominates the leadership field—and focuses on top-level leadership. Sashkin synthesizes various “new” theories of leadership into a set of conceptually overlapping behaviors and also links the emergence and effectiveness of leadership to dispositional antecedents (e.g., cognitive capacity). This chapter therefore is another example of a hybrid-integrative theory. Finally, Sashkin incorporates context into his model and focuses on the roles of leaders as creators and shapers of organizational contexts.

Part IV: Leadership Success and Its Development

Chapter 9. McCauley presents perspectives used for judging whether leadership is successful or unsuccessful and the conditions that are likely to lead to successful or unsuccessful leadership. She shows that leader success can be operationalized in terms of a leader's current effectiveness—judged by various constituents and using a variety of criteria—by a leader's advancement in the organization and by a leader's ability to transform followers and organizations. McCauley links her discussions to many themes covered in this book, including the assessment of leadership, theories of leadership, and leadership development. Finally, organization-level issues relating to leader assessment, selection, and development are linked to successful and unsuccessful leadership.

Chapter 10. London and Maurer extend the previous chapter by focusing on the development of leadership. They use a dynamic model linking organizational

and individual factors to the leader (i.e., individual leader competencies) and to leadership (i.e., organizational-level competencies) development. They cover important elements linked to leader and leadership development, including theories of leadership, learning, and training interventions. London and Maurer use their model to show how needs, processes, and outcomes can be assessed so that interventions are conducted in an appropriate and valid manner. Key to their argument is that congruency must exist between individual and organizational-level developmental goals. They consolidate relevant scientific research and provide guidelines for practitioners, consultants, and researchers.

Part V: Emerging Issues in Leadership—Culture, Gender, and Ethics

Chapter 11. Taking a contextual approach, Den Hartog and Dickson review research regarding the relationship between leadership and the national culture. They draw on literature from cultural anthropology and cross-cultural psychology to show that national culture equips individuals with common ways of perceiving and acting, which systemically affect what followers expect from leaders and how leaders enact their behaviors. They show that certain leader traits and behaviors may be context specific and that others may be universal but differentially enacted according to context.

Chapter 12. Eagly and Carli focus on another contextual perspective: gender-based expectations of leaders and how they constrain the type of leadership that is enacted. They discuss the validity of arguments related to male-female differences from various perspectives, including societal, evolutionary, and prejudicial. Eagly and Carli review literature demonstrating that women may not have the same opportunities to lead and that women are more constrained than are men in the behaviors they can display. Even though female leaders are disadvantaged by stereotypes and restricted role expectations, they are as effective as male leaders, and women actually display certain prototypically effective leader styles more often than do men.

Chapter 13. Ciulla's chapter is focused on another emerging issue: ethics and leader effectiveness. Her chapter is thought provoking, at least for traditional leadership scholars, because she writes from the unique perspective of a philosopher. Ciulla underlines the limitations of traditional leadership theorists' attempts to weave ethics into their theories by simply exhorting that ethical leadership is important. Although inroads have been made by some leadership scholars, Ciulla shows how philosophy can be used to highlight ethical dilemmas of leadership, how to judge the ethics of leader outcomes, and the implications for leader-follower relations. She sees leader ethics and leader outcomes as inextricably intertwined and correctly makes the argument that leaders cannot be considered to be effective unless they are ethical.

Part VI: Conclusions

Chapter 14. The final chapter was written by an omnipresent figure in leadership: Warren Bennis. Using an engaging writing style, Bennis's essay takes the reader into an odyssey of leadership. He provides practical examples, subtly integrating and applying many of the book's themes, and brings to light the nature of authentic leadership. He touches on numerous issues and how they relate to leader emergence and effectiveness, focusing on leader traits and alternative conceptions of intelligence (e.g., "adaptive capacity" or creativity), experiential learning, coalition building, contexts and contingencies, national culture, among other topics. He relates these issues to current events and to the interplay of factors that "make" leaders. These are the "crucibles" of leadership, conditions in which leaders face great tests and crises, from which they emerge molded with a vision and with values to inspire others to do what is morally correct.

Conclusion

This book introduces readers to what we feel is a fascinating body of literature. We hope the complexity and mystique surrounding leadership will slowly yield to understanding as you read the 13 chapters that follow.

In the past century, the often-misunderstood phenomenon of leadership has been tossed and battered while social scientists have tried to make some sense of something they knew existed, but which seemed beyond the reach of scientific inquiry. Remarking about the difficulties leadership researchers have faced, Bennis (1959) noted: "Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity" (p. 260).

Today, the concept is still complex, but it is better understood and much less slippery. We still have much to learn about leadership. We are guided, though, by a spirit of optimism emanating from the findings of those researchers who, before us, went through their own "crucibles." Pummeled but unbowed, they continued to study leadership and to inspire succeeding generations of scientists to continue their exploration. All the while, leaders influenced followers, and they will continue to do so regardless of the nadirs and zeniths of leadership research.

