

AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES

A Paper

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by

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Research Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to compare and contrast and critically analyze the five basic styles of leadership, understand a biblical theology of leadership and survey situational leadership and transformational leadership.

Delimitations of the Study

The study will be delimited to select writings of George Barna, Kenneth Blanchard, John D. W. Black and Neil M. Yeager, Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, Marcus Buckingham and Curt Coffman, James D. Berkley, Ted Engstrom, Hans Finzel, Phillip V. Lewis, and Jerry C. Wofford.

Research Questions

1. What is the Managerial Grid?
2. What are the leadership styles described by Ted Engstrom?
3. What are the four leadership styles described by Beck and Yeager?
4. What leadership style mistakes do leaders make that negatively effect coworkers?
5. What is a biblical view of leadership
6. What is situational leadership?
7. What is transformational leadership?

Terminology

Abdicating: “If team members lack the ability to identify problems or the confidence to take necessary actions, they feel like they are out on a limb or in over their heads....the leader is blamed for dumping responsibilities on them” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 29).

Autocratic-Bureaucratic: “Activities of group totally and arbitrarily structured; participation by group in any context totally discouraged, supervision is authoritarian and autocratic; questioning or orders regarded as insubordinate” (Larson 1988, 257).

Benevolent-Autocratic: “Activities of group largely structured; relatively close supervision; however, employees encouraged to make suggestions concerning their goals, working conditions, etc.” (Larson 1988, 257).

Democratic-Participative: “Provides some structure and framework within which members still largely set own goals and standards; leader and advisor with minimum authority” (Larson 1988, 257).

Delegating: “empowers members of the team to make decisions and take action in areas in which they have expertise and are motivated to follow through. Team members feel trusted, believe that the organization’s success depends on them, and know that they are responsible for their area as well as for coordination with related areas” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 29).

Developing: “By encouraging people to discuss problems openly, the leader is developing them to assume responsibility. People feel supported and gain confidence in their own problem-solving skills” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 28).

Directing: “These leaders provide complete explanations and honest appraisals of consequences. They give people the information they need to do their jobs and structure work carefully when team members are not sure how to get started” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 26).

Dominating: “Taking control when it is unnecessary, interrupting the efforts of team members, and overriding their initiatives” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 26).

Laissez-Faire: “No structure or supervision given; members set own goals and standards of performance; leader is ‘first among equals,’ without authority, a resource man” (Larson 1988, 257).

Leadership Style: “is the way a leader carries out his functions and how he is perceived by those he attempts to lead” (Larson 1988, 253).

Over-Accommodating: “Often leaders are too focused on relationships for their own sake. They try to be liked by everybody and keep everyone happy. They come across as friendly but are not well respected” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 28).

Managerial Grid: “The Grid identifies major theories about how to exercise leadership in the pursuit of production with and through others. Each is presented within a systematic framework that permits the reader to see similarities and differences among them, to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and to develop conclusions regarding sound and unsound ways of leading” (Blake and Mouton 1985, ix).

Manipulative-Inspirational: “Some structure, usually confused and ambiguous; goals set by management with little participation but employees’ acceptance sought by hard sell” (Larson 1988, 257).

Over-Involving: “Team members feel frustrated with the amount of time they spend in meetings or with the leader’s over-involvement in decisions that others could make on their own” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 27).

Problem Solving: “Involves people in this process by listening to their concerns and making them feel like important identifiers of organizational problems and necessary participants in finding solutions” (Beck and Yeager 2001, 27).

Servant Leadership: “Servant leaders still do the things leaders do—direct, organize, envision. But with *servant* qualifying *leadership*, the kingdom of God—not one’s personal fiefdom—becomes our motivation and shapes our style of leadership” (Berkley 1994, 150).

Situational Leadership: “Situational leadership is not something you do to people but something you do with people.” It is “changing your leadership style as a person’s competence and commitment grows” (Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi 1985, 58, 84).

Transformational Leadership: “transformational leaders inspire other to excel, give others individual consideration, and stimulate people to think in new ways” (Lewis 1996, 6).

Transactional Leadership: “promise rewards to followers in exchange for performance. They are reactive not proactive” (Lewis 1996, 7).

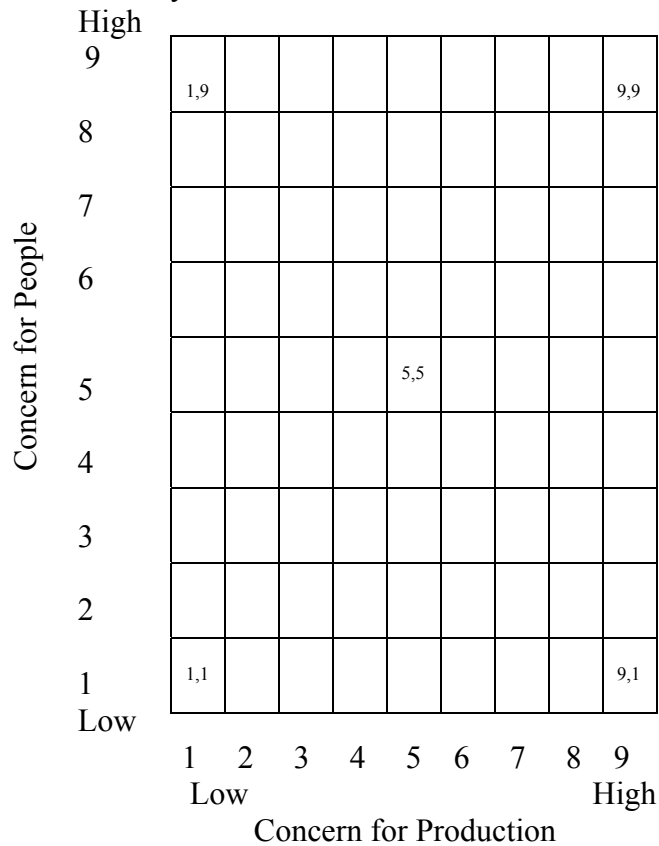
Visionary Leadership: “A vision projects a future condition of uniqueness. It presents a picture of a changed organization and compels action.” It speaks of “transition, not of the status quo...energized by the challenge to reach beyond their current grasp” (Wofford 1999, 53).

What is the managerial grid?

The Managerial Grid by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton analyzes five styles of leadership placing them on a measurement grid that pinpoints the leader’s style as it relates to his or her concern for people and for production. The styles Blake and Mouton list and grid are country club management, team management, organization man management, impoverished management, and authority-obedience. They discuss paternalism, opportunism and facades. They analyze each style looking at how they deal with motivations, managing conflict, behavioral elements, management practices and consequences. The intention is for the reader to ask “Is this me? Do I do this? Is it a sound way to lead or not? Should I do less of it or should I do more?” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 1). Below is a visual description of the Managerial Grid.

The Managerial Grid

by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Moulton



1,1 Impoverished Management

Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.

1,9 Country Club Management

Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

9,9 Team Management

Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a “common sake” in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

9,1 Authority-Obedience

Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

5,5 Organization Man Management

Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level (Blake and Moulton 1985, 12).

How does each style deal with motivations, managing conflict, behavioral elements, management practices and recognizing behavior? The following is a synopsis of The Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton.

Leadership Style: 9,1 Authority-Obedience

Motivations: Exerts personal strength and expects unquestioned subservience from subordinates a “do it or else” mentality. Anger is expressed when personal control is threatened.

Managing Conflict: Views disagreement as insubordination. Primary approach to conflict resolution is suppressing by force views contrary to his own. There is a win/lose mentality, and the leader uses threats and punishment to maintain control and resolve conflict.

Management Practices:

Planning: “I plan by setting production requirements and detailing plans to achieve them.”

Organizing: “I make assignments and tell subordinates what to do, how, when, and with whom.”

Directing: “I keep in close touch with what’s going on to ensure that what I have authorized is followed.”

Controlling: “I ensure that schedules are being met and move people along faster if progress permits. I criticize, assign blame for deviations, and impose corrective actions.”

Staffing: “I choose obedient people and force out malcontents. Management development is probably okay but concentrating on selection is what really counts.”

Management-by-Objectives: I let subordinates know where they stand relative to requirements, clearly and without qualification. Then they know what I expect of them.”

Performance Appraisal: My obligation is to evaluate subordinates and point out ways in which they are not measuring up, concentrating on weaknesses and what to do to correct them. After that it’s the person’s responsibility to shape up.” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 28-29)

Recognizing Behavior: Descriptive words of the 9,1 Authority-Obedience style include: controlling, cutting people off, decides and then tells people what to do, demanding, fault-finding, impatient, pushy, quick to blame, stubborn, tells people what to do but not why.

Leadership Style: 1,9 Country Club Management

Motivations: “The underlying style of managing is the desire for acceptance and approval”

(Blake and Mouton 1985, 36).

Managing Conflict: The country club manager dislikes conflict because it threatens the manager’s position of being liked. The 1,9 person has difficulty distinguishing between an idea being rejected and experiencing personal rejection for expressing an idea. When conflict arises the 1,9 manager is quick to accept or yield to another’s position.

Management Practices:

Planning: “I suggest assignments and convey confidence by saying, ‘I’m sure you know how to do this and that all will go well.’”

Organizing: “Subordinates know what to do and how to coordinate. If they need suggestions, I’m ready to listen and offer whatever help I can.”

Directing: “I see my subordinates frequently and encourage them to visit me. My door is always open.”

Controlling: “I rarely check on subordinates since they try their best.” Communication is about why we did well and how can we keep it running smoothly.

Staffing: “Even though it’s not possible to please everyone all the time, I try to see to it that subordinates are in the jobs they like best and working with others they enjoy being with.”

Management-by-Objectives: The subordinate is to establish goals. The 1,9 is relieved of the need to check and control. The self-directed subordinate is less likely to have hostile feelings toward the boss.

Performance Appraisal: Performance appraisals are geared to help people feel and realize that their past efforts are appreciated.” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 44-45)

Recognizing Behavior: Descriptive words of the 1,9 Country Club Management include:

agreeable, appreciative, avoids negatives, can’t say no, dislikes disagreement, excessively complimentary, over trusting, sensitive, easily hurt, withholds controversial convictions, and yields to gain approval.

Leadership Style: 1,1 Impoverished Management

Motivations: The impoverished manager does the necessary minimum to remain in the organization. The motto of a 1,1 is “see no evil, hear no evil and speak no evil.” This leader leaves no permanent mark on the organization.

Managing Conflict: The 1,1 manager demonstrates differences between observable and unobservable behavior. The observable, behavior, demonstrates conformity to the job requirements. The unobservable or actual behavior is non-committal.

Management Practices:

Planning: “I give broad assignments though I avoid specifics when possible. Subordinates are responsible for themselves.”

Organizing: “Subordinates carry out assignments since they know their own jobs and capabilities better than anyone else. I expect them to coordinate with one another.”

Directing: “I carry the word from those above to those below. I pass the message with as little embellishment of interpretation as possible.”

Controlling: “I make the rounds, but I take little on-the-spot action if I can avoid it. They like it that way; I do, too.”

Staffing: “I take whoever they give me.”

Management-by-Objectives: “My boss decides the goals, and I prefer that subordinates set their own goals; I avoid interfering because they need to learn to think ahead from their own perspectives.”

Performance Appraisal: “I expect people will do whatever is necessary and will learn from their own mistakes. However, I go through a perfunctory performance appraisal if required, rating subordinates more or less the same.” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 57-58)

Recognizing Behavior: Descriptive words of the 1,1 Impoverished Management include: apathetic, hands-offish, inconspicuous, indifferent, neutral, putting in time, resigned, and withdrawn.

Leadership Style: 5,5 Organization Man Management

Motivations: The main motivation is to make progress in the organization, look good and be “in” with colleagues.

Managing Conflict: The 5,5 seeks to avoid conflict by adhering to the established traditions and practices. “Better to be safe than sorry” is approach of the 5,5. The 5,5 manager operates by rules and organizational protocol because “rules reduce the necessity for people to act at their discretion; therefore, disagreements are likely to be diminished when everyone behaves consistently with them” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 67). This person operates by compromise when conflict appears; when subordinates disagree the manager talks separately with them seeking to find a basis for agreement. Another tactic is to physically separate those who disagree.

Management Practices:

Planning: “I make my plans according to what I know my subordinates will accept and what they will resist.”

Organizing: “After explaining goals and schedules, I make individual assignments. I double-check to make sure my subordinates think what I request is all right. I encourage them to come back if they don’t understand.”

Directing: “I keep up with each person’s performance and talk about progress from time to time. If someone is having difficulty, I try to reduce the pressures by rearranging conditions of work whenever possible.

Controlling: “I touch base informally to discuss how things are going. I tend to emphasize good points and avoid appearing critical or negative, though I do encourage subordinates to be aware of their own weak points. My subordinates know I take their thoughts and feelings into account in my decisions.”

Staffing: “I seek people who will fit in.”

Management-by-Objectives: “Objectives are scaled to what people are prepared to accept. I encourage subordinates to offer suggestions either to reduce the effort necessary to get a result or to decrease pressure and thereby reduce stress and frustration.”

Performance Appraisal: I try to bring to my subordinates’ attention ways in which they are doing well. Positive suggestions motivate but criticism turns people off.”

(Blake and Mouton 1985, 75-76)

Recognizing Behavior: Descriptive words of the 5,5 Organization Man Management include: accommodation, cautions, compromises, conformist, evasive when challenged, negotiate, prefer middle ground, stays on the majority side, tests the wind, waits to see where others stand and waffles.

Leadership Style: 9,9 Team Management

Motivations: “The 9,9 theory of managing presumes a necessary connection between organizational needs for production and the needs of people for full and rewarding work experiences. The leader’s desire is to contribute to corporate success by involving others so that they too may contribute” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 82). “A 9,9-oriented manager avoids advancing selfish interests at the expense of others or the corporation” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 83).

Managing Conflict: A 9,9-oriented manager is one who is able to have disagreements that lead to finding solutions to problems without creating animosity. He becomes involved in the problem early on to gain additional information and identify alternatives. In open candid environments the 9,9 manager encourages divergent viewpoints to identify faulty logic and distorted perspectives.

Management Practices:

Planning: “I get the people who have relevant facts and/or stakes in the outcome together to review the whole picture. We formulate a sound model of an entire project from start to completion. I get their reactions and ideas. I establish goals and flexible schedules with them.”

Organizing: “We determine individual responsibilities, procedures, and ground rules.”

Directing: “I keep informed of progress and influence subordinates by identifying problems and revising goals and action steps with them. I assist when needed by helping to remove barriers.”

Controlling: “In addition to critiques to keep projects on schedule, I conduct a wrap-up with those responsible. We evaluate the way things went to see what we learned and how we can apply it to future projects. I give recognition on a team basis as well as for outstanding individual contributions.”

Staffing: “Work requirements are matched with personnel capabilities or needs in deciding who is to do what.”

Management-by-Objectives: “Team and individual objectives are mutually worked out on a timely basis. They provide statements of what needs to be accomplished. These are motivating because each subordinate is willing to strive for and be measured against a model of excellence.”

Performance Appraisal: “Criteria for evaluating performance are worked out at the beginning of a period and the concrete indicators of performance specified in advance.

Once past performance has been appraised, new objectives for future performance, with concrete indicators, are agreed on as the framework for assessing performance and learning from the next cycle” (Blake and Mouton 1985, 94).

Recognizing Behavior: Descriptive words of the 9,9 Team Management include: candid and forthright, confident, decisive, determined, enjoys working, fact-finder, follows through, has a “can do” spirit, high standards, innovative, open minded, positive, clear priorities, spontaneous and unselfish.

What are the leadership styles described by Ted Engstrom?

The Best of Ted Engstrom is a compilation of 11 of Engstrom’s books into nine major sections. Robert C. Larson undertook this compilation. The primary focus will be in Section 8; “Developing Your Leadership Style” and chapter 23 “Styles of Leadership.” Engstrom defines leadership style as “the way a leader carries out his functions and how he is perceived by those he attempts to lead” (Larson 1988, 253).

Engstrom lists five leadership styles. They are:

1. *Laissez-Faire*: No structure or supervision given; members set own goals and standards of performance; leader is “first among equals,” without authority, a resource man;
2. *Democratic-Participative*: Provides some structure and framework within which members still largely set own goals and standards; leader and advisor with minimum authority;
3. *Manipulative-Inspirational*: Some structure, usually confused and ambiguous goals set by management with little participation but employees’ acceptance sought by hard sell;
4. *Benevolent-Autocratic*: Activities of group largely structured; relatively close supervision; however, employees encouraged to make suggestions concerning their goals, working conditions, etc.;
5. *Autocratic-Bureaucratic*: Activities of group totally and arbitrarily structured; participation by group in any context totally discouraged; supervision is authoritarian and autocratic; questioning of orders regarded as insubordinate (Larson 1988, 257).

Laissez-Faire

Ted Engstrom describes the laissez-faire leader as one who gives minimum direction and maximum freedom. This leader remains in the background and is silent unless specifically called on for direction or opinion. Engstrom says “that this style of leadership is practically no leadership at all and allows everything to run its own course. The leader simply performs a maintenance function” (Larson 1988, 258). This corresponds to the 1,1 Impoverished Management.

Democratic-Participative

“This style is used by those who believe the way to motivate others is to involve them in decision making. This hopefully creates goal ownership and a feeling of shared purpose” (Larson 1988, 258). The emphasis is upon group participation and policies become a group decision. The leader is there to assist, make suggestions and allow adequate communication flow so the group is aware of problems and the group is responsible to solve them. “Studies involving thousands of supervisors at all levels have proved that leadership style in any organization is a major determinant of employee productivity” (Larson 1988, 258). This statement is in agreement with the authors of *First, Break all the Rules*, who say, “The talented employee may join a company because of its charismatic leaders, its generous benefits, and its world-class training programs, but how long that employee stays and how productive he is while he is there is determined by his relationship with his immediate supervisor” (Buckingham & Coffman 1999, 11-12).

Buckingham and Coffman’s research demonstrated 13 qualities that contributed to employee productivity and turnover. Included in the list are overall satisfaction, knowing what is expected, having adequate materials to do the job, giving the opportunity for one to do his or

hers best, receiving recognition and praise, demonstrating care for the employee, encouraged further development, employee knowing their opinions count (Buckingham & Coffman 1999, 264). “Studies made at many large corporations conclude that motivation is strongly related to the supervisory style of the immediate boss” (Larson 1988, 259). This style corresponds to with the 9,9 Team Management style.

Benevolent-Autocratic

“This style is characterized by the father-like concern the leader has for his people” (Larson 1988, 260). The desire of this leader is to keep subordinates satisfied and happy because the assumption is made that if people feel good, the organization will function properly. This style corresponds to 1,9 Country Club Management. “This ‘family’ approach appeals because it creates the illusion of security and fellowship, but this is at the expense of efficiency and effectiveness” (Larson 1988, 260). People may feel good, but according to Buckingham and Coffman two of the thirteen qualities that contribute to the longevity of employment are an employee’s understanding of the mission and purpose and their commitment to the quality of what is produced.

Autocratic-Bureaucratic

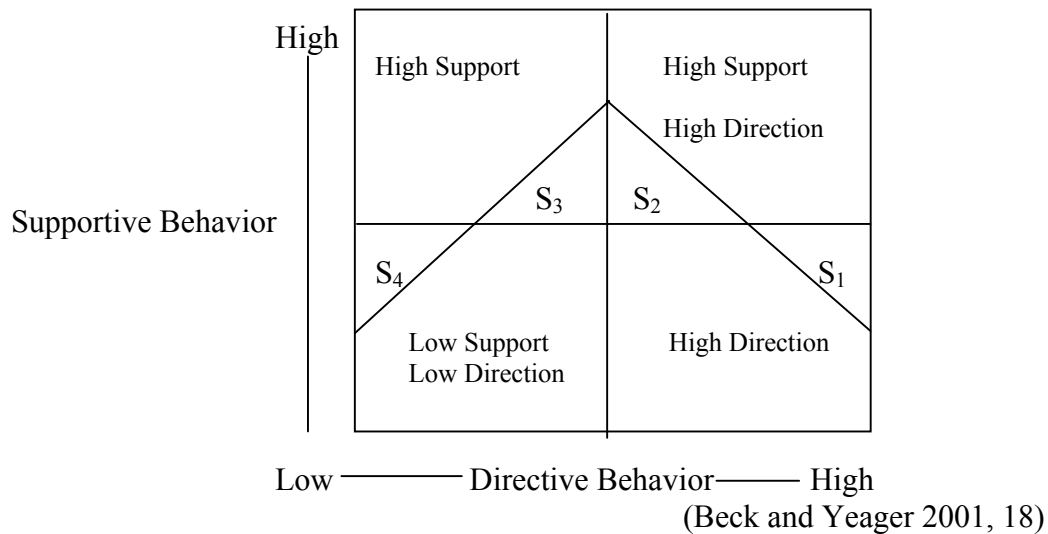
Engstrom calls this style the extreme of the democratic style. He says this style is often found in Christian organizations “because people tend to regard some as being led in this direction by the will of God” (Larson 1988, 261). The assumption of this leadership style is that people will not do anything unless they are told. The leader views himself as indispensable to the organization and is the only one who knows what is going on and what needs to happen. It is an inflexible style with no checks and balances. This style falls into the 9,1 Authority-Obedience

from *The Management Grid*. Hans Finzel lists this leadership style as the number one leadership hang-up. He calls it the top-down attitude and lists five reasons why people fall into its trap:

1. **It's traditional.** Historically, autocratic, top-down leadership has been the most commonly practiced method.
2. **It's the most common.** Even though much has been written about alternative forms of leadership, top-down leadership is the most common kind.
3. **It's the easiest.** It is much easier to simply tell people what to do than to attempt other, much more effective, leadership styles.
4. **It comes natural.** For some reason, the natural self prefers to domineer others, and to try to amass power that can be held over other people. Leadership by nature seems to mean one person "over" another.
5. **It reflects the depravity of man.** Satan began the problem when he wanted to get out from under submission to God the Father. So he rebelled and led his own band of rebels to bring rebellion to the world. (Finzel 1994, 26)

What are the four leadership styles described by Beck and Yeager?

In their book *The Leader's Window*, Beck and Yeager use the model of a four-pane window to describe leadership styles as illustrated below.



“The Leader’s Window” corresponds with “The Managerial Grid.” High Support, S₃ corresponds to 1,9 the Country Club Management. The Low Support Low Direction, S₄ corresponds to 1,1 Impoverished Management. High Support High Direction, S₂ corresponds to

9,9 Team Management and High Direction, S₁ corresponds to 9,1 Authority-Obedience. Beck and Yeager use the “Leader’s Window” to demonstrate various leader activities. Beck and Yeager discuss decision making with participation. The S₄ leader allows the employee to make decisions alone while the S₃ leader allows employees to make decisions with support. The S₂ leader makes decisions with input, and the S₁ leader makes decisions alone. The “Leader and Communication window” describes the leader’s listening to and giving information. The S₂ leader is an active listener, and S₃ adds active influencing with listening. The S₄ leader is limited in listening to and giving information, and the S₁ leader is highly giving and influencing in information but is not a listener. Buckingham and Coffman list question 5 as “Does my supervisor, or someone at work seem to care about me as a person” (Buckingham and Coffman 1999, 28). One of the major ways leadership demonstrates care and concern for employees is through listening. “The best managers are more deliberate. They talk with each individual, asking about strengths, weaknesses, goals, and dreams. They work closely with each employee, taking note of the choices each makes, the way they interact, who supports who and why” (Buckingham and Coffman 1999, 149).

Beck and Yeager discuss leadership styles in both positive and negative via the leadership window. The positive S₁ leader is directing; in the negative is dominating. The positive S₂ leader is problem solving. The negative S₂ is over-involving. The positive S₃ leader is developing employees while the negative S₃ is over-accommodating. The positive S₄ leader is delegating responsibilities, and the negative S₄ is abdicating (Beck and Yeager 2001, 27).

What leadership style mistakes do leaders make that negatively effect coworkers?

In Hans Finzel’s book *The Top Ten Mistakes Leaders Make*, the leader’s number one

mistake is having a top-down attitude. Seven of the mistakes Finzel discusses fall into the 9,1 Authoritative-Obedience style. This is a leader who is stuck in one style and unable or unwilling to change his or her leadership style to accommodate the needs of the employee and the needs of the job. Because of the leader's inability to change he or she becomes a "paper-pusher;" people are bothersome and interruptive. This is the second mistake. Job tasks become more important than people. As a result, this style of leadership has the appearance of a bulldozer.

The third mistake Finzel refers to is the absence of affirmation. This correlates with Buckingham and Coffman, who measured the strength of the workplace using twelve questions. Question 6 refers to Finzel's third mistake, which states, "Is there someone at work who encourages my development?" (Buckingham and Coffman 1999, 28). Finzel wrote five years before Buckingham and Coffman: "Organizational researchers have been telling us for years that affirmation motivates people much more than financial incentives, but we still don't get it. People thrive on praise. It does more to keep the people who work for you and with you fulfilled than fortune or fame could do" (Finzel 1994, 54).

The fourth mistake leaders make, according to Finzel, is having no room for mavericks. This mistake corresponds to Beck and Yeager's S₁ High Direction, autocratic leader. They illustrate the point using the television show M*A*S*H. They say of Major Frank Burns, "He is the classic style 1 leader, expecting everything to be done by the book" (Beck and Yeager 2001, 30). This person cannot think "outside the box" and any thinking or action outside the policy manual is threatening. The original commander, Colonel Henry Blake is the style 4 or 1,1 (Managerial Grid) who could neither make a decision nor hurt anyone's feelings. "He is best known for asking company clerk Radar O'Reilly to make most of his decisions for him" (Beck and Yeager 2001, 29). Colonel Potter was a leader. Ken Blanchard would view him as a

situational leader because he varied his style based upon the need and the person. At times, Potter was developing. With Corporal Klinger, he was accommodating; with others he was a problem solver.

Dictatorship in decision-making is the fifth mistake Finzel addresses. This leadership style is authoritarian; people are more of a problem and since this leader is in the position of power the subordinate is expected to follow orders. Any questioning of a decision is seen as insubordination. Dictators are described using the following words: hoard decisions, make decisions alone, and viewing truth and wisdom as primarily their domain as the leader ” (Finzel, 1994, 96).

The sixth mistake Finzel discusses is what he calls “dirty delegation.” This happens when an authoritarian leader delegates a work assignment and yet refuses to give the person the authority to complete it. Buckingham and Coffman address this issue in questions 2 and 3. “Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right? At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?” (Buckingham and Coffman 1999, 28). As a result of the authoritarian leadership style and his or her myopic attention to the task at hand, communication suffers because the authoritarian communication is always one way.

Finzel makes the point that communication problems are not limited to the authoritarian style. Communication problems can occur when an organization’s population increases and dynamics change. The seventh mistake is “communication chaos.” This occurs when workers make assumptions without direct or left alone to create rumors. “Never assume that anyone knows anything” (Finzel, 1994, 115). Communication according to Finzel is the “lifeblood of organizations.”

The eighth mistake is the leader's failure to understand the corporate culture in which the leader operates. "I define corporate culture very simply as 'The way we do things around here' Or to make the definition a bit more formal: 'An organization's corporate culture is the way insiders behave based on the values and group traditions they hold'" (Finzel, 1994, 135). A distinction must be made between values that Finzel defines as "preferences" and/or "tastes" and beliefs that are the moral absolutes - the black and white issues of an organization.

The ninth mistake Finzel writes is the failure of the leader to develop his or her successor. This is an issue of pride. The reasons Finzel lists for a leader's failure to let go, develop and mentor future leadership include job security of the current manager, fear of retirement, resistance to change and self-worth (especially when a male determines his self-worth from what he does over who he is). Other reasons include the lack of confidence in the successor and the love for the people and the job.

The final mistake that Finzel names is the failure to focus upon the future. "The tyranny of the urgent always fights against our planning and thinking time, but if we don't make the time to plan for the future we will be its victims" (Finzel, 1994, 186-87). Stephen Covey addresses this problem in the Time Management Matrix found in his book *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*. This person is consistently operating in quadrant 1, the Urgent and Important. The leader in quadrant 1 has little time and attention is given to planning and the future because he is constantly fighting fires.

What is a Biblical theology of leadership?

Kenneth Gangel, in *Team Leadership in Christian Ministry* writes chapter 3 "A Biblical Theology of Leadership." Here he establishes "derived principles" from each of the major

sections of the Old and New Testaments. The following are the Derived Principles Gangel lists throughout the chapter:

Principles from the Pentateuch

1. Biblical leadership comes by divine appointment. In every case, the call seems clear both to the intended leader and those who follow.
2. Leadership moves from singular to multiple. Excluding Noah and Abraham, leaders (beginning with Moses) start to divide leadership responsibilities as seen in the phrases “leaders of the people” and “leaders of the Israelites.”
2. Leadership requires definitive accountability. The law establishes the principle that the leader who is called by divine appointment is held to a stricter standard.

Principles from the Historical Books

1. Leadership requires a time of preparation. Preparation for leadership is seen in the lives of Moses, Joshua, the apostles and Timothy.
2. Leadership requires a heart sensitive to spiritual things.
3. Leadership requires organizational skills. Nehemiah is an example of a leader who possessed abilities to organize, plan, delegate, supervise, train and evaluate.

Leadership in the Poets and Prophets

1. Leadership requires deep conviction in God’s will for both leaders and followers. The prophets demonstrated a mind-set geared toward the future and a commitment to God’s will and serving God’s people.
2. Leadership requires clear theological perspective. The role of the prophets was to serve as “national guardsmen, protecting the purity of the covenant and its essential doctrinal content.”
3. Leadership requires an awareness of contemporary surroundings. For the most part the prophets stayed tuned to the needs and hurts of the day.

Leadership in the Gospels and Acts

1. Leadership is servanthood. “The Bible teaches that to lead is to serve.”
2. Leadership is stewardship. The stewardship of God’s servants is to be aware of the “master’s will and carry out his tasks in light of the master’s return.”
3. Leadership is shared power. Gangel quotes John Stott, who puts a twist on Philippians 2:4 by saying “Christian leaders serve not their own interests but rather the interests of others.”

Leadership in the Epistles and Revelation

1. Leadership is ministry. “Romans 12:8 show us that if the New Testament leadership means anything, it means serving other people.”
2. Leadership is modeling behavior. Modeling is demonstrated in the relationship of Paul and Timothy. Paul reminds Timothy in 2 Timothy 3:14 to follow the example he has set.

3. Leadership is membership in the body. This is not about a membership roll but one's giftedness to be used in the body for the purpose of edification. (Gangel 1997, 47-63)

How does Gangel's view of leadership reflect in the Managerial Grid and Leader's Window?

God's leadership in the Pentateuch moved between 9,9 or S₂ and 9,1 or S₁. "Thou shall not" was God being highly directive. When God spoke, immediate obedience was expected. Yet God also gave high support along with high direction. This is seen in the lives of Abraham, Moses and Joshua. In the period of the Judges, God acts with a 1,1 Impoverished Management style, giving low support and low direction. The principle reason is demonstrated in Judges 21:25 "In those days there was no king in Israel. Everyone did what was right in his own eyes" (ESV).

During the prophets, God again moves from 9,9 and 9,1 depending upon the situation and the willingness of Israel to demonstrate covenant faithfulness. In the Gospels and Acts we clearly see God personified in Jesus Christ and later the Holy Spirit, giving high direction and high support to the disciples and early church. By the time of the writing of the Epistles, the apostle Paul at times uses a 9,1 high direction style as evidenced in 1 Corinthians 5. In Ephesians 4 he uses a Team oriented 9,9 leadership style.

What leadership style is best?

Situational Leadership/Transformational Leadership

Ken Blanchard, in *Leadership and the One-Minute Manager*, uses the leader's window model. Blanchard sees style 1 as directing, style 2 as coaching, style 3 as supporting and style 4 as delegating. Blanchard is a proponent of what he calls "situational leadership." "Situational leadership is not something you do to people, but something you do with people" (Blanchard,

Zigarmi and Zigarmi 1985, 84). Situational leadership is moving within the windowpanes, changing one's leadership style based upon the situation and the employee.

There is agreement between Blanchard, Engstrom, Blake and Mouton and Beck and Yeager regarding leadership styles. They agree that no one style is best but see the need for the leader to float as the situation dictates. Situational leadership is used to develop one to become a person of high competence and high commitment. "The key word is potential.... Now when I use a directive leadership style, I'll know it's not because I think that the person isn't any good. On the contrary, I'll think that the person has the potential to be a high performer-self-directed and self-motivated-but lacks experience" (Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi 1985, 99). A Situational leadership style has concern for the employee as well as the product produced. Situational leadership falls into the 5,5 position of the Managerial Grid. Situational leadership becomes transformational leadership because the goal is developing the person to become more than what he or she is currently.

Transformational Leadership

Leadership that focuses on a committing style is what leadership scholars now refer to as "transformational leadership." As James MacGregor Burns says, Transformational leadership occurs when, in their interactions, people, "raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality....transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both. (Kouzes and Posner 1995, 133)

Phillip V. Lewis adapts material from Kouzes and Posner and lists the following characteristics of transformational leadership:

1. Transformational leaders build on the strengths of others, strengths that may have lain dormant.
2. Transformational leaders raise levels of awareness about the issues of consequences and ways of reaching organizational goals for their colleagues, subordinates, followers, clients or constituents.

3. Transformational leaders enable people to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of others. (Lewis 1996, 6)

Jerry C. Wofford, in *Transforming Christian Leadership*, summarizes his text when he says “The essence of transforming Christian leadership is in its effects on the thoughts and behaviors of followers” (Wofford 1999, 155). Leadership is to challenge the status quo, go beyond self-interests, and emphasize the value of questioning assumptions and the traditional way of doing things. Leaders encourage people to think of new ways to do things and to rethink ideas that have never been questioned. Transformational leaders are critical thinkers who lead their people to be the best they can be. Transformational leaders are servant leaders.

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