

Leadership

A Guide for Growth-Oriented Entrepreneurs

Sample Chapter: Leadership Traits and Attributes

GROWTH-ORIENTED ENTREPRENEURSHIP PROJECT

2015-1 Edition
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Growth-Oriented Entrepreneur's Guide to Leadership

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The Growth-Oriented Entrepreneurship Project (www.growthentrepreneurship.org) engages in and promotes research, education and training activities relating to entrepreneurial ventures launched with the intent to achieve significant growth in scale and value creation through the development of innovative products or services which form the basis for a successful international business. In furtherance of its mission the Project is involved in the preparation and distribution of Guides for Growth-Oriented Entrepreneurs covering Entrepreneurship, Leadership, Management, Organizational Design, Organizational Culture, Strategic Planning, Governance, Compliance, Finance, Human Resources, Product Development and Commercialization, Technology Management, Globalization, and Managing Growth and Change.

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Attorneys acting as business counselors to growth-oriented entrepreneurs who are interested in forms, commentaries and other practice tools relating to the subject matter of this chapter should also contact Dr. Gutterman at the e-mail address provided above.

PART II

PRACTICING LEADERSHIP

Preface

When formal interest in the study of leadership first began in the 19th and early 20th centuries, the so-called “great man” theory, which assumed that certain individual characteristics or traits could be found in leaders but not in non-leaders and that those characteristics could not be developed but must be inherited, was quite popular and many assumed that leaders were simply “born and not made”. As time passed, however, the consensus within the community of leadership scholars and consultants shifted significantly to the current working proposition that while some people do indeed appear to be natural leaders from birth it is nonetheless possible for many others who have sufficient desire and willpower to develop into leaders by following a continuous process of work, self-study, education, training and experience.¹

Stogdill observed “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept”² and there is no apparent limit to the creativity of researchers, management consultants and actual practitioners in devising definitions and conceptions of leadership. Bass, one of the most well-known of the modern scholars and pundits on leadership, argued that leadership was a “universal phenomenon” that could be defined and described as “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perception and expectations of the members”.³ A survey of other definitions and conceptualizations of leadership uncovers several common themes: the leader as a “person”, including his or her traits and personality characteristics; the leader as an instrument of facilitating the needs and desires of the group of followers; leadership as an emerging effect of interaction; leadership as a process of influencing change in the conduct of people and motivating them to embrace and strive for specific goals; and leadership as a set of specific acts and behaviors that a person engages in while serving as a leader and attempting to direct and coordinate the work of his or her followers.

In practice, leadership is more than just personal traits and attributes or issuing directives from a list and, in fact, the reality is that leaders must be able to mix creative visioning with the often difficult and time-consuming tasks that must be completed to engage followers and enlist their support to move their organizations, and themselves, through

¹ A. Jago, “Leadership: Perspectives in theory and research”, *Management Science*, 28(3) (1982), 315.

² R. Stogdill, *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research* (New York: The Free Press, 1974), 7. For an extensive discussion of definitions of leadership, see the chapter on “Definitions and Conceptions of Leadership” in this Guide.

³ B. Bass, *Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Applications* (3rd Edition) (New York: The Free Press, 1990), 19-20.

turbulent changes. Practicing leadership begins by recognizing that four primary factors must be considered⁴:

- The “leader”, who must understand who he or she is and what he or she knows and realize that his or her success is dependent on the leader’s ability to build trust and confidence among the followers and convince them to follow the leader’s directives.
- The “followers”, who all have their own needs and require different styles of leadership that can only be identified if a leader is attuned to understanding human nature and the factors behind the needs, emotions and motivations of the followers.
- The form and content of “communications” between the leader and his or her followers, which is interactive (i.e., two-way), frequently non-verbal and central to the development and maintenance of effective relationships.
- The “situation” or “context”, which determines the actions that should be taken by the leader and the style that the leader should employ.

Each of these factors is subject to a variety of forces that may impact the choices that a leader makes regarding his or her behaviors. For example, while the idea that a person must have certain inherited traits in order to be a leader has fallen into disrepute, the personality characteristics of the leader will invariably come into play as he or she assesses problems and opportunities and decides what steps need to be taken in working with followers. Other forces that will likely be relevant include the skills and experiences of the followers and how they interact with one another; the history, internal culture and structure of the organization; the societal culture in which the organization operates; and competitive conditions, particularly the strategies being used by peer organizations to motivate their employees. Leaders must approach these factors, and the forces that influence them, with a solid analytical framework that can be referenced from time-to-time to ensure that they are paying attention to the things that really matter. A framework suggested by surveying the literature on leadership might include several elements discussed in more detail in this Part: the requisite “skill set”, which should be constructed and nurtured by reference to the appropriate performance imperatives for executive leadership; the roles and activities expected from an effective leader; personality traits and attributes which can be learned and perfected by persons aspiring to leadership positions; and styles of leadership, which encompass the strategies used by leaders to engage with their followers.

Emphasis on “performance imperatives” was stressed by Zaccaro and Klimoski, who counseled leaders about the importance of remembering the context of their actions as leaders and suggested that this could be accomplished by continuously assessing and developing the following categories of skills: cognitive, social, personal, political, technological, financial and senior staffing.⁵ Specific questions for leaders include:

⁴ U.S. Army, *Military Leadership: Field Manual 22-100* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983) (as cited in D. Clark, “Concepts of Leadership”, Big Dog and Little Dog’s Performance Juxtaposition (blog) <http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadcon.html> [accessed June 15, 2015]).

⁵ S. Zaccaro and R. Klimoski, “The Nature of Organizational Leadership: An Introduction” in S. Zaccaro and R. Klimoski (Eds.), *The Nature of Organizational Leadership (Understanding the Performance Imperatives Confronting Today’s Leaders)* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 2001), 1-41, 26-30.

- Does the leader have the requisite **cognitive** skills to effectively scan expansive and relatively unstructured external environments, process and make sense of the information collected from those scanning activities, and use that information to solve problems and forge long-term strategies?
- Does the leader have the **social** skills and competencies that are necessary and appropriate to forge and manage the relationships that are relevant to his or her position within the organizational hierarchy?
- Does the leader have the **personal** skills and attributes necessary for timely and skillful execution of activities such as career and reputation management and acquisition of authority and influence?
- Does the leader have the requisite **political** skills for acquisition of power, including powers of persuasion; timely and judicious use of power, including the ability to handle and resolve conflicts and build coalitions?
- Does the leader have the skills necessary for coping with the dramatic and sweeping effects that **technological** advances have had on the way organizations operate and compete and the operational environment in which leaders must operate?
- Does the leader have the skills and tools necessary to successfully develop, implement, monitor and adjust long- and short-term **financial** goals and objectives and strategies?
- Does the leader seek and hire candidates for positions at the **senior staffing** level in the organization, including other members of the executive team when the leader is the CEO, who possess, or can easily and quickly acquire, the skills, dispositions and capabilities required to respond appropriately to the demands associated with the above-described performance imperatives?

While leaders can be distinguished from managers, leaders nonetheless are responsible for a number of the same functions typically categorized as “managerial” such as setting goals and designing strategic plans to achieve those goals, communicating directives to other members of the organization, overseeing execution of the organizational strategy and setting guidelines for motivating organizational members and assessing their performance. The specific roles and activities of a particular leader will vary depending on where he or she is located within the organizational hierarchy and will also be influenced by other factors such as the type of business engaged in by the organization, the environmental conditions that the organization is facing, the stage of the organization’s development, and the leader’s role in the launch of the organization (e.g., a “founder”).⁶ However, all leaders, regardless of their position or other circumstances, should be prepared to engage in certain core roles and activities including selecting and defining goals and objectives for the organization and designing strategic plans to achieve those goals and objectives; communicating ideas about their vision for the organization and providing directions to other members of the organization regarding actions to be taken to realize the vision; designing and implementing an effective organizational structure that promotes efficient flow of information and collaboration among members

⁶ J. Muczyk and T. Adler, “An attempt at a consensience regarding formal leadership”, *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9(2) (2002), 2-17.

of the organization; implementing human resources management practices that support their vision and provide members of the organization with access to training necessary to maintain and improve the skills required for them to positively participate in the execution of the vision; and engaging in behaviors that support organizational members and enhance their feelings of personal worth and importance.

There is no doubt that extensive resources have been devoted to the search for traits and attributes of effective leaders and, as mentioned above, a person seeking to become a leader need not despair if it all does not seem to come naturally. The question, of course, is identifying the specific personality traits and attributes that are most closely aligned with effective leadership. Answers provided by researchers include emotional self-awareness; self-control; credibility; trustworthiness and integrity; adaptability; achievement orientation and ambition; a strong desire to influence and lead others and willingness to assume responsibility; the ability to use power intelligently to achieve desired goals; social awareness and empathy; social skills and ability to build relationships and promote cooperation; relevant cognitive ability (i.e., strong analytical ability, good judgment and the capacity to think strategically and multi-dimensionally); and a high degree of task-related knowledge about the organization, industry and technical matters.

Finally, the form and content of communications between the leader and the followers, and among the followers themselves, are heavily dependent on the leader's chosen "leadership style", which has been defined as "the manner and approach of providing direction, motivating people and achieving objectives".⁷ While there are a number of different models of leadership style, three fundamental dimensions are often represented: the leader's approach to influencing the behavior of his or her followers; the manner in which decisions regarding the direction of the group are made, with a specific emphasis on the level of participation offered to followers; and the balance struck between goal attainment and maintaining harmony within the group (sometimes referred to as group "maintenance").⁸ For example, two alternative approaches to influencing the behavior of followers are the transactional leadership, which views the leader-follower relationship as a process of exchange, and transformational leadership, which relies on the leader's ability to communicate a clear and acceptable vision and related goals that engender intense emotion among followers that motivates them to buy into and pursue the leader's vision. Contrasting styles for decision-making are found when distinguishing authoritarian (autocratic) and participative (democratic) leaders. The balance between goals and maintenance is emphasized in those models that analyze the degree to which the leader exhibits task and/or relationship orientations in his or her interactions with followers (e.g., "Country Club Leadership", with a high concern for people and low concern for production, versus "Produce or Perish Leadership", with a low concern for people and high concern for production). While leadership styles are often introduced as static and fixed, the reality is that appropriate leadership styles do tend to change as time goes by and the leader must be able and willing to attempt to change his or her style or step aside

⁷ C. Fertman and J. van Liden, "Character education: An essential ingredient for youth leadership development", *NASSP Bulletin*, 83:609 (October 1999), 9-15.

⁸ R. Scholl, "What is Leadership Style?", <http://www.uri.edu/research/lrc/scholl/webnotes/Leadership.htm> [accessed December 31, 2011]

in favor of someone else who is better prepared to provide the right style for the particular situation.

In Practice: Understanding the Foundations for Practicing Effective Leadership

In determining the steps necessary to identify, understand and apply the practices necessary for becoming a more effective leader, the following checklist may be helpful:

- Understand the basic definitions and conceptions of leadership including the roles and required skills of leaders operating at different levels of the organizational hierarchy
- Recognize and understand the four primary factors relating to practicing leadership: the “leader”, the “followers”, the form and content of communications within the organization; and the applicable situational factors
- Understand the traits and attributes associated with being an effective leader and which can be learned and perfected by diligent study and practice
- Understand the specific characteristics of the leader’s personality and assess how they are likely to influence how he or she assesses problems and opportunities and decides what steps should be taken
- Understand the skills and experiences of the followers and how they interact with one another and what their expectations are regarding effective and acceptable leadership styles and behaviors
- Understand other forces that may impact the choices that a leader makes regarding his or her behaviors including the history, internal culture and structure of the organization; the societal culture in which the organization operates; and competitive conditions, particularly the strategies used by peer organizations to lead and motivate their employees
- Understand the performance imperatives for executive leadership (i.e., cognitive, social, personal, political, technological, financial and senior staffing)
- Understand the roles and activities expected from an effective leader and the specific skills required to fulfill the leadership roles at each level of the organizational hierarchy
- Understand the range of styles of leadership, which encompass the strategies used by leaders to engage with their followers, and develop the capacity to transition among styles to fit the specific organizational context
- Create and maintain a formal program for identifying and training prospective organizational leadership and improving the skills of current organizational leaders
- Identify and implement tools for continuously assessing leadership behaviors and their relationship to overall organizational performance and employee satisfaction

Chapter 2 Leadership Traits and Attributes

§2:1 Introduction

There is no doubt that extensive resources have been devoted to the search for “traits” and “attributes” of effective leaders, as well as characteristics of dysfunctional leaders. In fact, one of the earliest and most popular conceptions of leadership that flourished in the 19th and early 20th centuries, often referred to as the “great man” theory, assumed that certain individual characteristics, or “traits”, could be found in leaders but not in non-leaders and that those characteristics could not be developed but must be inherited.⁹

⁹ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 48. For an interesting exploration of the “great man” theory, including exhaustive citations,

Much of the work based on this theory was conducted under the umbrella of settling debates about whether leaders were “born or made” and, to the extent that genes were not totally responsible for leadership success, what strategies could be used to teach people how to execute the behaviors thought to be associated with effective leadership.

Eventually the “great man” theory was discredited in the face of a continuous stream of new theories that had as one of their core principles the democratization of leadership opportunities. However, the “great man” theory did leave behind a keen interest in attempting to identify those individual traits that could be most tightly linked to leadership and laid the foundation for the “trait school of leadership” which held that the traits of leaders—assumed to include their capacities, motives and patterns of behavior—were different from those of non-leaders. In contrast to the “great man” theory, trait theories did not particularly care whether the leadership traits were inherited or acquired and, in fact, early suggestions about optimal traits included items that were inherited (e.g., height, weight and physique) as well as items that were dependent on experience and training (e.g., industry knowledge).¹⁰

Two of the most significant reviews of the trait school of leadership are attributed to Stodgill¹¹ and Mann¹² and there is evidence to support the proposition that certain traits, such as intelligence and dominance, are associated with leadership. However, many leadership scholars lacked confidence in the research findings relating to leadership traits. Muczyk and Adler noted that many of the traits associated with leaders appeared to have a genetic component and that this buoyed the arguments of those who maintained that leaders are “born”; however, they also argued that leadership success depended on the behaviors of those who sought to lead in particular situations and that, as such, the fact that most of these behaviors could be taught supported the view that leaders can also be “made”. They conceded that leaders with certain genetic traits or natural gifts might be predisposed to various types of behaviors, and that this might make their job easier, but that the bottom line was the “traits are not the determining factor when it comes to leadership success”.¹³ Kirkpatrick and Locke acknowledged that trait theories were largely abandoned for a significant period of time; however, they noted that new research using a variety of methods had provided support for the general proposition that effective and successful leaders were “different” and that there were a handful of core traits that were extremely important contributors to, albeit not guarantors of, the success of leaders

see H. Eckmann, Great Man Theory: A personal account of attraction (Paper for the IBA Conference), <http://www.jameslconsulting.com/documents/GreatManTheory.pdf> [accessed December 20, 2011]

¹⁰ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 48. Kirkpatrick and Locke suggested that further information on trait theories and particular traits could be obtained by a review of R. Stodgill, *Handbook of Leadership* (New York: Free Press, 1974); R. Boyatzis, *The Competent Manager* (New York: Wiley & Sons, 1982); C. Cox and C. Cooper, *High Flyers: An Anatomy of Managerial Success* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1988); and G. Yukl, *Leadership in Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1989), Chapter 9.

¹¹ R.M. Stodgill, “Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature,” *Journal of Psychology*, (25) (1948), 35-71.

¹² R. Mann, “A review of the relationship between personality and performance in small groups”, *Psychological Bulletin*, 56 (1959), 241–270.

¹³ J. Muczyk and T. Adler, “An attempt at a consensience regarding formal leadership”, *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9(2) (2002), 2-17.

in the business world.¹⁴ They cautioned, however, that “[t]raits alone . . . are not sufficient for successful business leadership—they are only a precondition” and that aspiring leaders with those traits must take certain actions in order to be successful such as formulating a vision, role modeling and setting goals.¹⁵ There has clearly been a decline in the proportional interest in trait theories among published articles relating to leadership studies topics; however, even though “traits” alone do not tell the whole story behind effective leadership, it is nonetheless useful to survey some of the characteristics and attributes (see Table 2.1) that have been frequently mentioned by researchers and other commentators.¹⁶

Table 2.1
Leadership Traits and Attributes

- **Self-Awareness:** Emotional self-awareness (i.e., ability to read and understand your emotions and recognize their impact on work performance and relationships); accurate self-assessment (i.e., a realistic evaluation of your strengths and limitations); and self-confidence (i.e., a strong and positive sense of self-worth and ability to demonstrate authentic “grace under pressure”)
- **Self-Management:** Self-control (i.e., ability to keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control); credibility; trustworthiness (i.e., consistent display of honesty and integrity and excellent reputation); conscientiousness (i.e., ability to manage yourself and your responsibilities); and adaptability (i.e., skill at adjusting to changing situations and overcoming obstacles)
- **Drive:** Achievement orientation (i.e., drive to meet an internal standard of excellence); initiative (i.e., a readiness to seize opportunities); ambition regarding work and career leading to establishment of hard, challenging goals for themselves and their organizations; high levels of energy and stamina; and tenacity and persistence
- **Leadership Motivation and Effective Use of Power:** Strong desire to influence and lead others and willingness to assume responsibility; willingness to exercise his or her power over subordinates, issue directions to subordinates and make appropriate use of positive and negative sanctions; ability to use power intelligently to achieve desired goals, or a vision (i.e., development of networks and coalitions, resolution of conflicts in a constructive manner, and effective use of role modeling in influencing others)
- **Social Awareness:** Empathy (i.e., skill at sensing other people’s emotions, understanding their perspective and taking an active interest in their work and concerns); organizational awareness (i.e., ability to read the currents of organizational life, build decision networks and navigate politics); selective demonstration of weaknesses and vulnerability to reveal approachability and humanity.; and service orientation (i.e., ability to recognize and meet customers’ needs)
- **Social Skill:** Visionary leadership (i.e., ability to take charge and inspire with a compelling vision); influence (i.e., ability to wield a range of persuasive tactics); developing others (i.e., propensity to bolster abilities of others through feedback and guidance); communication (i.e., skill at listening and at sending clear and convincing messages); change catalyst (i.e., proficiency in initiating new ideas and leading people in a new direction); conflict management (i.e., ability to de-escalate disagreements and

¹⁴ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 49.

¹⁵ *Id.*

¹⁶ For detailed discussion of the research relating to personal attributes of leaders and “traits of leadership”, see B. Bass, R. Bass and R.R. Bass, *The Bass handbook of leadership: theory, research and managerial applications* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 2008). As discussed elsewhere in this Guide, Bass is well-known for his model of “transformational leadership” and Tichy and Devanna identified a list of characteristics or traits of transformational leaders that included the following: identification of self as a change agent, courage, belief in people, value-driven, lifelong learner, able to deal with complexity and “visionary”. N. Tichy and M. Devanna, *The Transformational Leader* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1986).

orchestrate resolutions); building bonds (i.e., proficiency at cultivating and maintaining relationships); and teamwork and collaboration (i.e., competence at promoting cooperation and building teams).

- **Cognitive Ability:** Requisite level of relevant “cognitive ability” ((i.e., strong analytical ability, good judgment, and capacity to think strategically and multi-dimensionally) to create a perception of competence in the minds of followers regarding the leader’s ability to manage information intelligently and use it to effectively identify problems, formulate strategies and solutions and make informed decisions
- **Knowledge of Business:** High degree of task-related knowledge about the company, industry and technical matters; networking and cognitive ability to collect and understand information central to the organization and its business and necessary for understanding concerns of subordinates and making intelligent decisions; and sufficient demonstrable expertise regarding business to engage in behaviors that provide “leadership by example”

§2:2 Goleman

In his well-known article on “What Makes a Leader?”, Goleman argued that “effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of ‘emotional intelligence’”.¹⁷ Goleman described “emotional intelligence” as “the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively”.¹⁸ In Goleman’s first model, the “emotional intelligence” of a leader operating in the workplace context consisted of five fundamental capabilities, each of which had its own specific set of competencies and traits¹⁹:

- Self-awareness, defined as the leader’s ability to recognize and understand his or her moods, emotions and drives, as well as their effect on others. Hallmarks of this trait include self-confidence, realistic self-assessment and self-deprecating sense of humor.
- Self-regulation, defined as the leader’s ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods and the propensity of the leader to be able to suspend judgment and “think before acting”. Hallmarks of this trait include trustworthiness and integrity, comfort with ambiguity and openness to change.
- Motivation, defined as a passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status and a propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. Hallmarks of this trait include a strong drive to achieve; optimism, even in the face of failure; and organizational commitment.
- Empathy, defined as the leader’s ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and the ability of the leader to treat people according to their emotional reactions. Hallmarks of this trait included expertise in building and retaining talent, cross-cultural sensitivity and service to clients and customers.
- Social skill, defined as proficiency in managing relationships and building networks and the ability to find common ground and build rapport. Hallmarks of this trait include effectiveness in leading change, persuasiveness and expertise in building and leading teams.

¹⁷ D. Goleman, “What Makes a Leader?”, Harvard Business Review, 76(6) (November – December 1998), 93-102.

¹⁸ D. Goleman, “Leadership That Gets Results”, Harvard Business Review, March-April 2000, 78-90.

¹⁹ Id.

Several years later, Goleman modified his model slightly by reducing the number of “capabilities” from five to four—“motivation” was removed and subsumed into “social skill”—and changing the names of two other capabilities to arrive at the following²⁰:

- **Self-Awareness:** Emotional self-awareness (i.e., the ability to read and understand your emotions, as well as recognize their impact on work performance, relationships, and the like); accurate self-assessment (i.e., a realistic evaluation of your strengths and limitations); and self-confidence (i.e., a strong and positive sense of self-worth).
- **Self-Management:** Self-control (i.e., the ability to keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control); trustworthiness (i.e., a consistent display of honesty and integrity); conscientiousness (i.e., the ability to manage yourself and your responsibilities); adaptability (i.e., skill at adjusting to changing situations and overcoming obstacles); achievement orientation (i.e., the drive to meet an internal standard of excellence); and initiative (i.e., a readiness to seize opportunities).
- **Social Awareness:** Empathy (i.e., skill at sensing other people's emotions, understanding their perspective and taking an active interest in their concerns); organizational awareness (i.e., the ability to read the currents of organizational life, build decision networks and navigate politics); and service orientation (i.e., the ability to recognize and meet customers' needs).
- **Social Skill:** Visionary leadership (i.e., the ability to take charge and inspire with a compelling vision); influence (i.e., the ability to wield a range of persuasive tactics); developing others (i.e., the propensity to bolster the abilities of others through feedback and guidance); communication (i.e., skill at listening and at sending clear, convincing and well-tuned messages); change catalyst (i.e., proficiency in initiating new ideas and leading people in a new direction); conflict management (i.e., the ability to de-escalate disagreements and orchestrate resolutions); building bonds (i.e., proficiency at cultivating and maintaining a web of relationships); and teamwork and collaboration (i.e., competence at promoting cooperation and building teams).

Goleman noted that leaders do need other traits, such as general intelligence (“IQ”) and technical skills; however, he believed that these were “threshold capabilities” or “entry-level requirements for executive positions” and that his research, along with the work of others, confirmed that emotional intelligence was the “sine qua non of leadership” and that without a person could not become a “great leader” even though the person may have the best training, an incisive and analytical mind and an endless supply of smart ideas.²¹ On the surface, it would appear that Goleman cast his vote with those researchers in the “leaders are born not made” group who insist that there are certain traits that one either has or doesn't have, in this case emotional intelligence. However, while Goleman conceded there is a genetic component to many of the traits that he associated with

²⁰ D. Goleman, “What Makes a Leader?”, *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6) (November – December 1998), 93-102.

²¹ *Id.* See also D. Goleman, *Emotional Intelligence* (New York: Bantam, 1995); D. Goleman, *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (New York: Bantam, 1998); and D. Goleman, “Leadership That Gets Results”, *Harvard Business Review*, March-April 2000, 78-90, 80 (citing findings by McClelland “that leaders with strengths in a critical mass of six or more emotional intelligence competencies were far more effective than peers who lacked such strengths” based on various measures such as financial performance of their organizations, annual bonuses and performance review assessments).

emotional intelligence he pointed out that research and practice indicated that emotional intelligence can be learned, although admittedly it will take a lot of hard work to train and discipline executives to become more empathetic and regulate their predisposition to act before thinking.

§2:3 Goffee and Jones

In their theory about the “four essential qualities of leadership”, Goffee and Jones identified the following traits and behaviors associated with inspirational leaders²²:

- They selectively show their weaknesses and by exposing some vulnerability they also reveal their approachability and humanity.
- They rely heavily on intuition to gauge the appropriate timing and course of their actions and their ability to collect and interpret “soft data” helps them in knowing just when and how to take action.
- They manage employees with “tough empathy”, which means that they are able to empathize passionately—and realistically—with people and they care deeply about the work being carried out by their employees.
- They reveal their differences and capitalize on their unique traits and skills.

Goffee and Jones conceded that there are leaders without these qualities that have been able to deliver superior financial returns; however, they believed that these qualities were essential to inspiring and motivating people, a state of affairs which certainly makes it easier for the leader to drive an organization toward success provided that he or she also is able to select and articulate the right direction. It is also worth noting the Goffee and Jones identified what they considered to be several “myths about leadership” and reported that based on their research it was not true that everyone can be a leader, leaders did not always deliver business results, people who get to the top of the organizational hierarchy are not necessarily leaders and leaders are rarely great coaches.²³

§2:4 Kirkpatrick and Locke

After acknowledging that “trait” theories had fallen out of favor during the middle of the 20th century, Kirkpatrick and Locke argued that recent research had provided evidence to support the general proposition that certain traits do matter and significantly contributed to the success of business leaders and distinguished them from others.²⁴ According to Kirkpatrick and Locke, there are six traits on which leaders differ from non-leaders: drive, the desire to lead, honesty/integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability and knowledge of the business. Other traits, specifically charisma, creativity/originality and flexibility, may also be important for leadership in certain instances; however, Kirkpatrick and Locke observed that the evidence regarding these traits was less clear-

²² R. Goffee and G. Jones, “Why Should Anyone Be Led by You?”, *Harvard Business Review*, September-October 2000, 63-70.

²³ *Id.*

²⁴ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60.

cut.²⁵ They acknowledged that other traits might be needed for effective leadership but elected to focus on the six “core” traits described in more detail in the following sections.

§2:5 --Drive

Kirkpatrick and Locke used the term drive “to refer to a constellation of traits and motives reflecting a high effort level”.²⁶ In particular, they focused on five particular elements which they referred to as achievement motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity and initiative:

- *Achievement*: Kirkpatrick and Locke observed that leaders “have a relatively high desire for achievement” and that high achievers “obtain satisfaction from successfully completing challenging tasks, attaining standards of excellence, and developing better ways of doing things”.²⁷ Persons aspiring for leadership status have a desire to complete challenging tasks and assignment as they progress in order to increase their technical expertise and initiate and execute organizational changes
- *Ambition*: According to Kirkpatrick and Locke, “[l]eaders are very ambitious about their work and careers and have a desire to get ahead”.²⁸ Studies have indicated that effective leaders are more ambitious than non-leaders and in order for them to advance persons seeking leadership positions look for opportunities to demonstrate their drive and determination. Kirkpatrick and Locke also noted that high ambition causes leaders to “set hard, challenging goals for themselves and their organizations”.²⁹
- *Energy*: Leaders have the physical, mental and emotional vitality to maintain a steadily productive work pace and put in the long and intense periods of time, extending for decades, required in order to fulfill their drive for achievement. Kirkpatrick and Locke noted that “leaders are more likely than nonleaders to have a high level of energy and stamina and to be generally active, lively, and often restless”.³⁰
- *Tenacity*: Kirkpatrick and Locke observed that “[l]eaders are better at overcoming obstacles than nonleaders” and have a “degree of strength of will or perseverance”.³¹ This is important because the types of projects that leaders take on, such as organizational change programs, typically take a long time to execute and provide benefits and must frequently overcome strong institutional resistance. As such,

²⁵ Id. at 56. Kirkpatrick and Locke did note, however, that “[f]lexibility or adaptiveness may be important traits for a leader in today’s turbulent environment”.

²⁶ Id. at 49. For evidence and further information regarding “drive”, see B.M. Bass, *Handbook of Leadership* (New York: The Free Press, 1990); K. Smith and J. Harrison, “In Search of Excellent Leaders” in W. Guth, *Handbook of Strategy* (New York: Warren, Gorham, & Lamont, 1986).

²⁷ Id. at 49.

²⁸ Id. at 50. One study of managers at AT&T found ambition—the desire for advancement—was the strongest indicator of success twenty years later. See A. Howard and D. Bray, *Managerial Lives in Transition: Advancing Age and Changing Times* (New York: Guilford Press, 1988).

²⁹ Id. at 50.

³⁰ Id.

³¹ Id. at 51.

leaders must be tirelessly persistent in championing these projects and relentless in their efforts to make sure that the desired changes take hold within the organization.³²

- *Initiative:* Kirkpatrick and Locke argued that effective leaders are “proactive” and that they make choices and initiate actions to create change rather than simply reacting to events or waiting for events to happen. Leaders are not willing to sit idly by and hope that good things will happen to them and prefer instead to take their own initiative to challenge the process.³³

§2:6 --Leadership motivation and effective use of power

Kirkpatrick and Locke noted that while the various characteristics associated with “drive” are admirable they may sometimes cause a prospective leader to believe that he or she must do everything on their own, a situation that can lead to problems with development commitment and responsibility among subordinates. It is therefore important, in the opinion of Kirkpatrick and Locke, that leaders supplement their own drive and ambition with a true desire to lead others, a characteristic referred to as “leadership motivation”.³⁴ Kirkpatrick and Locke cited research findings that indicate that effective leaders have a strong desire to influence and lead others, prefer to be in a leadership rather than subordinate role and have a willingness to assume responsibility.³⁵

Leadership motivation is often associated with the “need for power” and it is commonly recognized that “power is a leader’s currency, or the primary means through which the leader gets things done in the organization”.³⁶ Assuming this to be true, it is understandable that prospective leaders strive to gain the power necessary to exercise influence over others in the organization and Kirkpatrick and Locke emphasize that in order to be successful a leader must be willing to exercise his or her power over subordinates, issue directions to subordinates and make appropriate use of positive and negative sanctions. However, according to McClelland the effective use of that power depends on whether the leader has a “personalized” or “socialized” power motive. A leader with personalized power motive, sometimes described as “power lust”, pursues power as an end in itself and exercises that power in ways that seek to dominate subordinates and make them submissive and dependent. In contrast, a leader with a socialized power motive uses power intelligently to achieve desired goals, or a vision, and “its use is expressed as the ability to develop networks and coalitions, gain

³² Kirkpatrick and Locke noted, however, that persistence is only a positive trait if it used intelligently and that “[d]ogged pursuit of an inappropriate strategy can ruin an organization”. *Id.*

³³ *Id.* at 51-52.

³⁴ For evidence and further information regarding “leadership motivation”, see V. Bentz, “The Sears Experience in the Investigation, Description, and Prediction of Executive Behavior,” in F. Wickert and D. McFarland, *Measuring Executive Effectiveness* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967); and J. Miner, “Twenty Years of Research on Role-Motivation Theory of Managerial Effectiveness,” *Personnel Psychology*, 31 (1978), 739-760.

³⁵ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 52.

³⁶ *Id.* (citing W. Bennis and B. Nanus, *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (New York: Harper & Row, 1985))

cooperation from others, resolve conflicts in a constructive manner, and use role modeling in influencing others”.³⁷

§2:7 --Honesty/integrity

Kirkpatrick and Locke conceded that honesty and integrity are important virtues for every person; however, they noted that in the area of leadership these factors are essential for effectiveness. They explained that “[i]ntegrity is the correspondence between word and deed and honesty refers to bring truthful or non-deceitful” and that honesty and integrity are “the foundation of a trusting relationship between leader and followers”.³⁸ Practices of successful leaders that demonstrate the requisite level of honesty and integrity include being open with their followers, yet discrete in not violating confidences or carefully disclosing harmful information. Kirkpatrick and Locke concluded that “[e]ffective leaders are credible, with excellent reputations, and high levels of integrity”.³⁹

Kouzes and Posner agreed: “Honesty is absolutely essential to leadership. After all, if we are willing to follow someone, whether it be into battle or into the boardroom, we first want to assure ourselves that the person is worthy of our trust. We want to know that he or she is being truthful, ethical and principled. We want to be fully confident in the integrity of our leaders.”⁴⁰ In the same vein, a study undertaken by the Hay Group concluded that the most reliable predictor of employee satisfaction was trust and confidence in the top leadership of the organization and that achieving the desired organizational trust and confidence required that leaders effectively communicate with employees to help them understand the organization’s overall business strategy and how they contributed to the achievement of the organization’s key business objectives and share information with employees about the performance of the organization as a whole and each employee’s business unit (i.e., division or department) in particular.⁴¹

§2:8 --Self-confidence

Kirkpatrick and Locke argued that a leader’s self-confidence, including others’ perception of it, is important to his or her effectiveness as a leader for a number of reasons.⁴² For example, self-confidence is crucial in making the decisions required of

³⁷ Id. at 53. For further discussion of McClelland’s distinction between personalized and socialized power motives, see D. McClelland, “N-achievement and entrepreneurship: A longitudinal study”, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1 (1965), 389-392.

³⁸ Id. at 53.

³⁹ Id. at 54.

⁴⁰ J. Kouzes and B. Posner, *The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Things Done in Organizations* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1989). For evidence and further information regarding “honesty” and “integrity”, see B.M. Bass, *Handbook of Leadership* (New York: The Free Press, 1990); W. Bennis and B. Nanus, *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (New York: Harper & Row, 1985); T. Peters, *Thriving on Chaos* (New York: Harper & Row, 1987); and A. Rand, *For the New Intellectual: The Philosophy of Ayn Rand* (New York: Signet, 1961).

⁴¹ L. Lamb and K. McKee, *Applied Public Relations: Cases in Stakeholder Management* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates/Routledge, 2004).

⁴² S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 54.

leaders and in gaining and holding the trust of those who will be called upon to carry out those decisions. Self-confidence is also needed to navigate the challenges of the often chaotic environment confronting the leader including the need to gather and analyze large amounts of information, solve problems and make decisions under tight time constraints, balance and reconcile competing interests, overcome setbacks, manage risks and uncertainties and cope with unforeseen events. In addition, Kirkpatrick and Locke noted that self-confidence is generally related to emotional stability and that confident leaders are better able to remain even-tempered while confronting the challenges of their position and resolving conflicts and representing the organization in interactions with outsiders. Kirkpatrick and Locke referenced an article that highlighted the notion that effective leaders demonstrate “grace under pressure” that calms their followers.⁴³ Finally, self-confidence allows leaders to see challenges and chaotic events as opportunities for development and situations where they can indeed make a difference.⁴⁴

§2:9 --Cognitive ability

A number of researchers have emphasized the significant demands on leaders with respect to collecting, organizing and analyzing large amounts of information from disparate sources. These challenges have been exacerbated by advances in information technology that have enabled a virtual avalanche of data and communications that often seem overwhelming. It is not surprising therefore that Kirkpatrick and Locke suggested that leaders must have the requisite level of “cognitive ability” to manage information intelligently and use it to effectively identify problems, formulate strategies and solutions and, in general, make informed decisions about issues relating to their organizations.⁴⁵ Having the requisite “cognitive ability” does not necessarily mean that a leader must be “brilliant”; however, Kirkpatrick and Locke cited Kotter for the view that effective leadership requires a “‘keen mind’ (i.e., strong analytical ability, good judgment, and the capacity to think strategically and multidimensionally)”.⁴⁶ In addition, it is important that followers actually believe that their leader is “more capable in *some* respects than they are”.⁴⁷

§2:10 --Knowledge of the business

⁴³ Id. at 55 (citing K. Labich, “The Seven Keys to Business Leadership”, *Fortune*, October 24, 1988, 58-66).

⁴⁴ For evidence and further information regarding “self-confidence”, see B.M. Bass, *Handbook of Leadership* (New York: The Free Press, 1990); W. Bennis and B. Nanus, *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (New York: Harper & Row, 1985); S. Maddi and S. Kobasa, *The Hardy Executive: Health Under Stress* (Chicago: Dorsey Professional Books, 1984); and M. McCall Jr. and M. Lombardo, *Off the Track: Why and How Successful Executives get Derailed* (Technical Report No. 21, Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership, 1983).

⁴⁵ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 55. For evidence and further information regarding “cognitive ability”, see R. Lord, C. DeVader and G. Aliger, “A Meta-analysis of the Relation Between Personality Traits and Leadership Perceptions: An Application of Validity Generalization Procedures,” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1986; 61, 402-410; A. Howard and D. Bray, *Managerial Lives in Transition: Advancing Age and Changing Times* (New York: Guilford Press, 1988).

⁴⁶ Id. at 55. See J. Kotter, *The Leadership Factor* (New York: Free Press, 1988).

⁴⁷ Id. at 55.

Somewhat related to “cognitive knowledge” is the observation by Kirkpatrick and Locke that effective leaders demonstrate a “high degree of knowledge about the company, industry and technical matters”.⁴⁸ Effective leaders are privy to extensive information about their firms and the industry and overall economy in which they are operating and this specific information is invaluable to their ability to make intelligent decisions regarding strategy and operational matters. Another important benefit of relevant technical expertise is that it enables leaders to have a clear understanding of the concerns of their subordinates and gives them credibility when they are offering advice on potential solutions to technical issues that may arise within the firm. Kirkpatrick and Locke cited the findings of various researchers that effective leaders tended to have long careers in the industry in which their firms were operating and that formal education was not necessarily a requirement for effective leadership as long as the leader had the cognitive ability to collect and understand the information that was central to the business of his or her organization.

Knowledge of the business is a particular form of “expertise” that plays a big role in the so-called “power and influence” theories of leadership. These theories, the most well-known of which was put forward by French and Raven, focus on how leaders use power and influence in creating their leadership styles. French and Raven’s “Five Forms of Power” included three forms of positional power—legitimate, reward and coercive—and two forms of personal power referred to as expert and referent.⁴⁹ Proponents of this model have argued that personal power, particular expert, is the preferred alternative for leaders to be effective and influential on the basis of the perceptions of their followers that their leadership role is legitimate. The power of expertise can be enhanced by appropriate behaviors, such as “leading by example”.

§2:11 --Management implications

Kirkpatrick and Locke suggested several “management implications” from their findings regarding what they viewed as universally important “traits” of effective leaders.⁵⁰ First, they argued that cognitive ability is probably the least changeable or trainable of the six traits that they identified and that “drive” is fairly constant over time although they conceded that it could change. Second, both “drive” and the “desire to lead” really must be observed in order to be properly assessed and proper observation requires that employees in lower levels within the organization be given opportunities early in their careers to assume more responsibility and act with greater autonomy. Third, “knowledge of the business” and the accompanying technical knowledge can be acquired over a period of time through the proper balance of formal training and job experience complimented by a

⁴⁸ Id. at 55. For evidence and further information regarding “knowledge of the business”, see W. Bennis and B. Nanus, *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (New York: Harper & Row, 1985); J. Kotter, *The General Managers* (New York: Free Press, 1986); and K. Smith and J. Harrison, “In Search of Excellent Leaders” in W. Guth, *Handbook of Strategy* (New York: Warren, Gorham, & Lamont, 1986).

⁴⁹ For detailed discussion, see J. French and B. Raven, “The bases of social power” in D. Cartwright and A. Zander, *Group dynamics* (New York: Harper & Row, 1959).

⁵⁰ S. Kirkpatrick and E. Locke, “Leadership: do traits matter?”, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2) (1991), 48-60, 58.

“thirst for knowledge” and desire to explore opportunities for learning. Prospective leaders and their companies can facilitate this process through job rotation programs. Fourth, task-specific self-confidence can be enhanced as business and technical knowledge is acquired and prospective leaders begin to learn and apply the skills that they will need in the future. Finally, with respect to “honesty” Kirkpatrick and Locke observe simply that “[h]onesty does not require skill building; it is a virtue one achieves or rejects by choice” and that companies can promote the right choices through celebration of role models for honest behavior and refraining from rewarding, with compensation and/or promotions, dishonesty.

Law Firm Leadership in the 21st Century

The various traits and attributes of effective leaders identified by researchers must be practiced in a manner that is aligned with the organizational context and external environment in which the leader is operating. The legal profession has typically been averse to seeing the practice of law as a business; however, as law firms have gotten larger and competition for clients and skilled legal talent has intensified, the need for firms to select and follow strong leaders has become apparent.

In an article about some of the changes in law firm leadership since the beginning of the 2000s, Cunningham observed that law firm leaders are becoming more and more involved with the same types of issues as the CEOs of their clients and moving away from their long-standing comfort zones of practicing law and building and maintaining a “book of business”. Law firms now look to experienced lawyers who have achieved credibility as rainmakers and subject matter experts to lead the ship and people with these qualifications are willing to turn over the details of managing their hard-earned clients to others and focus their skills and attention on managing the firm’s lawyers and non-legal personnel, administration, overall firm business development and long-term strategic planning. However, in order for this to be effective the law firm leader needs to be grounded in the skills and practices common to successful leaders in other types of organizations. In addition, he or she should be prepared to build an enthusiastic consensus for implementation of the following initiatives based on ideas suggested by Cunningham in his article:

- Quarterly meetings of the firm’s executive or management committee that follow the lead of client board meetings and launch with marketing presentations on what clients want from their law firms, business intelligence on what clients are doing for their outside legal services and why, client retention and defection reports, and information from regular client satisfaction and needs surveys;
- Statements of the mission and values of the law firm that are centered on clients and client service and wide disseminated and incorporated into personnel development practices and firm human resources practices (i.e., lawyers and non-lawyer staff are recruited, assessed and rewarded based on their adherence to the mission and values of the firm);
- Expanded and improved training in client service for all firm personnel, both lawyers and non-lawyers, with constant attention to improvement of results of client satisfaction surveys; Expanded and improved training of personnel engaged in providing internal support services since such services make it easier for others to provide excellent direct services to the firm’s clients;
- Creation and expanded reliance on client service teams and industry service groups and training of members of such teams and groups on best practices relating to team and project management;
- Increased use of sophisticated sales strategies based on explicitly expressed desires and demands of clients and their behaviors and more sophisticated sales training for personnel involved in client outreach;
- Increased involvement of, and delegation of authority to, non-legal professionals trained in marketing, service and sales and integration of such persons into client teams, practice and industry groups, and other levels of the firm’s organizational hierarchy.

While all these ideas sound good, the reality is that it remains rare for law firms to be able to find a lawyer in their midst with extensive training and experience in leadership. While law firms have begun to follow

the path already taken long before by their clients and implement development programs, the effectiveness of such programs requires overcoming certain special challenges such as the following described by Petrie:

- “Most leadership programs are designed for corporate clients and don’t take into account the different psychology, culture or economic model of law firms
- Lawyers must assess the ‘value proposition’ of spending time developing leadership using skills as opposed to doing billable work or developing new clients
- The decentralized nature of a larger law firm means that it is difficult to mandate that partners take part in any leadership development efforts that they choose not to
- Many partners are left to choose their own development methods, but are often the people least aware of what they need to get better at, or the methods that would help them to improve
- The word ‘leadership’ in law firms is sometimes seen as a fuzzy concept
- Rewards and status in a law firm tends to go to those who bring in clients, rather than those who ‘lead’”

While each of the issues described above are very real and have long been a part of the organizational culture among law firms, Petrie argued that law firms could nonetheless make significant progress toward developing “lawyer-leaders” by adopting elements of the an approach recommended by faculty members of the legal practice at the Center for Creative Leadership:

- Develop a “leadership strategy” that supports and compliments the overall business and financial strategy of the firm and which includes the number of leaders needed to implement the firm’s strategy within a given time frame and the required skills, abilities and experiences of each of those leaders
- Conduct a formal assessment of the gap between the firm’s current leadership capabilities and those required to implement the firm’s leadership strategy and approve investment necessary to close that gap
- Mandate personal participation of the firm’s senior leaders in mentoring of younger potential leaders, presentations of content in leadership development programs, review of talent and selection of future leaders
- Engage senior leaders to serve as the principle chain agents for needed transformations in the systems, policies, technologies and business practices of the firm that support the development of firm leaders

Sources: J. Cunningham, “Law Firm Leadership in the 21st Century: Say Hello to the Law Firm CEO”, Legal Marketing Reader (blog), February 2012, <http://legalmarketingreader.com/law-firm-leadership-trends.html> [accessed June 16, 2015]. N. Petrie, Leadership Development in Law Firms: Current and Future Practice (Cambridge MA: Harvard Law School, August 2011). Petrie included several interesting illustrative studies of innovative practices relating to leadership development in the law firm context.

§2:12 Muczyk and Adler

Muczyk and Adler themselves provided a lengthy list of leadership traits based on their review of the literature, including “passion to lead”, “will to manage”, a large reservoir of energy, organizing abilities, a mature personality, a requisite amount of intelligence, task-relevant knowledge, confidence, adaptability, integrity and adaptability.⁵¹ They pointed out that high energy levels and adaptability are necessary for leaders to carry out many of the managerial roles described by Mintzberg and cope with change and the need to interact with a broad spectrum of stakeholders on behalf of their organizations. As for intelligence and task-relevant knowledge, they referred to the findings of Kirpatrick and Locke and noted that these traits were particularly useful in directing subordinates and

⁵¹ J. Muczyk and T. Adler, “An attempt at a consensience regarding formal leadership”, Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9(2) (2002), 2-17.

answering their concerns and questions about specific job-related activities. Finally, they strongly endorsed the importance of integrity as part of the optimal leader profile as a prerequisite in securing the respect, trust and goodwill of subordinates that is necessary in order to motivate to comply with the directions given by the leader.⁵²

Principles and Attributes of Military Leadership

Not surprisingly, leadership has always been an important subject in military training and development programs and military leaders are quoted on listed compiled to illustrate various definitions and conceptions of leadership. For example, Montgomery defined leadership as “the capacity and the will to rally men and women to a common purpose and the character which inspires confidence”. MacArthur observed: “A true leader has the confidence to stand alone, the courage to make tough decisions, and the compassion to listen to the needs of others. He does not set out to be a leader, but becomes one by the equality of his actions and the integrity of his intent.” Leadership quotes from Eisenhower have included “leadership is the art of getting someone else to do something you want done because he wants to do it”, “the supreme quality of leadership is integrity” and “you don’t lead by hitting people over the head—that’s assault, not leadership”.

The US Army has a long history of leadership training activities and Clark, drawing on training materials developed and used by the Army, offered the following list of key “principles of leadership”:

- Know yourself and seek self-improvement
- Be technically proficient
- Seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions
- Make sound and timely decisions
- Set the example
- Know your people and look out for their well-being
- Keep your workers informed
- Develop a sense of responsibility in your workers
- Ensure that tasks are understood, supervised and accomplished
- Train as a team
- Use the full capabilities of your organization

Clark went on to argue that in order to effectively implement the principles of leadership, leaders needed to concentrate on specific attributes that were divided into groups referred to as “Be” (i.e., who leader was as evidenced by beliefs and character), “Know” (i.e., what the leader knew regarding relevant jobs and tasks and human nature), and “Do” (i.e., what the leader did while carrying out his or her duties such as providing direction to followers and motivating followers). Specific recommendations were as follows:

- BE a professional (e.g., be loyal to the organization and take personal responsibility)
- BE a professional with good character traits (e.g., honesty, competence, candor, commitment, integrity and courage)
- KNOW the four factors of leadership: leader, followers, communication and situation
- KNOW yourself (i.e., know the strengths and weaknesses of your character, knowledge and skills)
- KNOW human nature (i.e., understand human needs, emotions, and how people respond to stress)
- KNOW your job (i.e., be proficient, be able to lead by example and be willing to provide training and coaching to followers)
- KNOW your organization (i.e., understand the organizational culture and structure, how to ask for help and access resources and who the informal leaders are among the followers)
- DO provide direction (i.e., set get goals and plan, make decisions and identify and resolve problems)

⁵² Id. They referred to integrity, as well as the leader’s willing and ability to treat subordinates with “courtesy, dignity and respect”, as integral parts of the “moral dimension of leadership”.

and conflicts)

- DO implement (i.e., communicate, coordinate, supervise and evaluate)
- DO motivate (e.g., develop morale and a positive organizational climate, train, coach and counsel)

Source: D. Clark, “Concepts of Leadership”, Big Dog and Little Dog’s Performance Juxtaposition (blog) <http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadcon.html> [accessed June 15, 2015] (citing U.S. Army, *Military Leadership: Field Manual 22-100* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983). Clark’s website also includes both short and long versions of a useful leadership self-assessment survey. Quotations from military leaders selected from a list compiled and presented in K. Kruse, *365 Inspirational Quotes: Daily Motivation For Your Best Year Ever* (Wholehearted Leadership Press, 2014).