2. Process Management:

2.1 Leadership definition: Good leaders are made not born. If you have the desire and willpower, you can become an effective leader. Good leaders develop through a never ending process of self-study, education, training, and experience (Jago, 1982). This guide will help you through that process.

To inspire your workers into higher levels of teamwork, there are certain things you must be, know, and do. These do not come naturally, but are acquired through continual work and study. Good leaders are continually working and studying to improve their leadership skills; they are NOT resting on their laurels.

Definitions of Leadership
Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Another popular definition of Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Note that both definitions have one process in common — a person influences others to get something accomplished.

Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership knowledge and skills. This is called Process Leadership (Jago, 1982). However, we know that we have traits that can influence our actions. This is called Trait Leadership (Jago, 1982), in that it was once common to believe that leaders were born rather than made. These two leadership types are shown in the chart below (Northouse, 2007, p5):

While leadership is learned, the skills and knowledge processed by the leader can be influenced by his or hers attributes or traits, such as beliefs, values, ethics, and character.

Factors of Leadership: There are four primary factors of leadership (U.S. Army, 1983):

Leader: You must have an honest understanding of who you are, what you know, and what you can do. Also, note that it is the followers, not the leader or someone else who determines if the leader is successful. If they do not trust or lack confidence in their leader, then they will be uninspired. To be successful you have to convince your followers, not yourself or your superiors, that you are worthy of being followed.
Followers: Different people require different styles of leadership. For example, a new hire requires more supervision than an experienced employee does. A person who lacks motivation requires a different approach than one with a high degree of motivation. You must know your people! The fundamental starting point is having a good understanding of human nature, such as needs, emotions, and motivation. You must come to know your employees' be, know, and do attributes.

Communication: You lead through two-way communication. Much of it is nonverbal. For instance, when you “set the example,” that communicates to your people that you would not ask them to perform anything that you would not be willing to do. What and how you communicate either builds or harms the relationship between you and your employees.

Situation: All situations are different. What you do in one situation will not always work in another. You must use your judgment to decide the best course of action and the leadership style needed for each situation. For example, you may need to confront an employee for inappropriate behavior, but if the confrontation is too late or too early, too harsh or too weak, then the results may prove ineffective.

2.2 Styles of leadership

Lewin's Leadership Styles: Three Major Styles of Leadership
In 1939, a group of researchers led by psychologist Kurt Lewin set out to identify different styles of leadership. While further research has identified more specific types of leadership, this early study was very influential and established three major leadership styles. In the study, schoolchildren were assigned to one of three groups with an authoritarian, democratic or laissez-fair leader.

Authoritarian Leadership (Autocratic)
Authoritarian leaders, also known as autocratic leaders, provide clear expectations for what needs to be done, when it should be done, and how it should be done. There is also a clear division between the leader and the followers. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently with little or no input from the rest of the group.
Authoritarian leadership is best applied to situations where there is little time for group decision-making or where the leader is the most knowledgeable member of the group.

**Participative Leadership (Democratic)**
Lewin’s study found that participative leadership, also known as democratic leadership, is generally the most effective leadership style. Democratic leaders offer guidance to group members, but they also participate in the group and allow input from other group members. In Lewin’s study, children in this group were less productive than the members of the authoritarian group, but their contributions were of a much higher quality.

Participative leaders encourage group members to participate, but retain the final say over the decision-making process. Group members feel engaged in the process and are more motivated and creative.

**Delegative (Laissez-Faire) Leadership**
Researchers found that children under delegative leadership, also known as laissez-faire leadership, were the least productive of all three groups. The children in this group also made more demands on the leader, showed little cooperation and were unable to work independently. Delegative leaders offer little or no guidance to group members and leave decision-making up to group members.

In the Common Era the **Bureaucratic leadership** style is widely used. Bureaucratic leadership is where the manager manages "by the book" everything must be done according to procedure or policy. If it isn't covered by the book, the manager refers to the next level above him or her. This manager is really more of a police officer than a leader. He or she enforces the rules.

**2.3 Power and Authority**

**Authority**: The organizational structure provides the framework for the formal distribution of authority. **Authority** is the legitimate power of a supervisor to direct subordinates to take action within the scope of the supervisor's position. Formal authority in the organization can be traced all the way back to the U.S. constitutional right to own property. The owner of the organization has the authority to make decisions. For example, entrepreneurial firms have an informal arrangement of employees and centralization of decision-making authority, the owner.
Forms of Authority  Three forms of authority are line authority, staff authority, and team authority.

Line authority is direct supervisory authority from superior to subordinate. Authority flows in a direct chain of command from the top of the company to the bottom. Chain of command is an unbroken line of reporting relationships that extends through the entire organization that defines the formal decision-making structure.

Staff authority is more limited authority to advise. It is authority that is based on expertise and which usually involves advising line managers. Staff members are advisers and counselors who aid line departments in making decisions but do not have the authority to make final decisions. Staff supervisors help line departments decide what to do and how to do it. They coordinate and provide technical assistance or advice to all advisors, such as accounting, human resources, information technology, research, advertising, public relations, and legal services.

Team authority: is granted to committees or work teams involved in an organization's daily operations. Work teams are groups of operating employees empowered to plan and organize their own work and to perform that work with a minimum of supervision. Team-Based structures organize separate functions into a group based on one overall objective. Empowered employees create their own schedules, design their own processes, and are held responsible for outcomes. This facilitates efficiencies in work process, and the ability to detect and react to changes in the environment.

Power is the ability to exert influence in the organization beyond authority, which is derived from position. The supervisor's personal power could include job knowledge, personal influence, interpersonal skills, and ability to get results, empathetic ability, persuasive ability, and physical strength. There are various forms of power such as: legitimate, coercive, reward, expert, referent, and information.

2.4 Communication and Power
Classifying different types of power that people can exert over one another in interpersonal communication can help analyze the power balance in any situation. It can assist people in leadership positions to exert influence over subordinates, and help one of the parties in an argument or negotiation get the upper hand. From an academic perspective, it can help understand the hierarchical dynamics at play in in
interpersonal communication in different societies. There are six different types of interpersonal power of communication:

Expert Power
- Having expert knowledge about a subject that others value and do not possess themselves can give someone the upper hand in communication. In work situations, the person with the valued knowledge is a person people respect and often refer to for help. However, this does not mean that expert power alone can help a person move through organizational levels because it usually takes leadership, networking skills and management experience to advance through the ranks.

Referent Power
- The ability to empathize with subordinates gives a leader referent power in communication. This means that they can identify with how their subordinates feel and think because they can relate back to their own similar experiences in the past. This power can improve interpersonal communication channels across different organizational hierarchies.

- Linked closely to expert power, information power refers to the importance of presenting information coherently and logically. Without information power, having expertise would not be as useful as you would never be able to make a compelling case or win an argument or motivate your employees.

Legitimate Power
- Legitimate power in interpersonal communication comes from formal titles, such as manager, owner, parent, teacher and coach. The effectiveness of legitimate power depends on how the person uses it. If a person abuses their authority, they will lose legitimacy and they will become less effective. However, if they use their power judiciously to do good and help people, their power will be enhanced and they will become more effective.

Reward Power
- Reward power supports legitimate power. An employee is likely to respond favorably to orders and directions if he receives a tangible reward, such as a better job assignment or a pay raise. Rewards can also be intangible -- for example, verbal approval, encouragement and praise can be as effective as tangible rewards.
- The opposite of reward power, coercive power is the ability to punish someone for noncompliance with an order or direction. It complements legitimate power, but in
a negative way because compliance is achieved not out of respect, but out of fear. Examples of coercive power include labor union strike threats, denial of promotion or pay raise and litigation.

2.5 Social process of the groups

The study of group processes concerns the cognitive and social causes and consequences of human aggregation. Typically, research focuses on interpersonal processes in small interactive groups, other perspectives focus on shared cognition and collective self-conception in social categories of all sizes, and on the intergroup context of group processes.

A key issue is whether one defines the group in terms of interpersonal interaction or collective self-conception. Group research includes the study of group cohesiveness and solidarity, of how people are socialized into groups and roles within groups, and of how groups influence their members through persuasion, leadership, and norms.

Although conformity processes homogenize groups, groups are also structured into status-differentiated roles (e.g., leaders, deviants) that can affect group performance by influencing communication networks. Groups also affect performance and behavior by their impact on motivation and self-conception—people can suffer reduced motivation in groups (social loafing), act antisocially due to loss of individuality (de-individuation), or identify with the group and internalize its norms. An important group activity is decision making, which requires diverse positions to be combined into a group decision, and group level representation of information. These and other group processes can sometimes result in poor decisions characterized by groupthink or group polarization.