
| RESEARCH ARTICLE

Leadership: Theories, Styles and Types of Leaders, A Systematic Literature Review and the Narrative Synthesis

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| ABSTRACT

This paper looks into the different conceptualizations of leadership, bringing attention to its deep effect on people and organizations. The numerous leadership theories offer different perceptions. Great man theory believes that great leaders are born not made. In other words, it focuses on great people rather than situations. Trait theory of leadership supposes that people inherit certain abilities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. The situational theory is that there is no single best style of leadership. Good leadership depends on the mission assigned. Transactional theory suggests that the process of leadership should implement a system of rewards and punishment; whereas, Transformational leadership theory does focus on the junction between leaders and followers, where leaders inspire their followers to achieve surprising outcomes. Leadership theories search for explaining the main cause why certain leaders fail while some succeed. This paper also surveys the different leadership styles leaders adopt, from the commanding and participative, where the leader is sometimes either has absolute authority on followers or shares decisions with them, to the visionary and pacesetter. The first believes in the identification of the days to come, not only focus on the current needs of the organization, while the second is obsessed with setting high-performance standards for his followers. Each style is used in certain situation depends on the present needs. The different types of leaders are also referred to in this study, focusing on the impact each leader has on the organization and the followers. Ultimately, this review highlights leadership's involvedness, offering perceptions into its varied conceptualizations and practical inferences across situations.

| KEYWORDS

Leadership theories, Leadership styles, leader-follower dynamics, organizational impact, adaptability

| ARTICLE INFORMATION

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1. Introduction

The concept of leadership has been deluded and misinterpreted over decades. From the epic, omniscient, oppressive "Great Man" (Carlyle, 1907) to the accepting, compassionate, retiring, and modest servant, leadership has been defined and expressed differently by diverse scholars and practitioners. The idea of leadership became a hot issue until the last days of the eighteenth century (King, 1990). Hersey and Blanchard (1977) regarded leadership as a procedure that should have an impact on an individual or a group of people to achieve the needs of the situation. Almost the same holds for Herold Koontz (1988) who defined leadership as the art of persuading people to the extent they themselves endeavor freely and full of enthusiasm to achieve the group goals. Leadership is very complicated in nature (Day, 2000). Leadership is a mutual role between leaders and subordinates who both believe in shared responsibility (Middlehurst, 2008). In this case, leaders value the knowledge and skills of their followers and take for granted that they have something valuable to share. Today, leadership that derives from position or from money or power is momentary. The only type of leadership that lasts longer is the one when people themselves decide whom to follow with conviction (Tracy, 2017). According to Avolio (2004, p.95), there is "no greater force for achieving good or evil than leadership". This means that leading for the greater good or bad is up to the leaders to decide. It is, in fact, a huge liability on the shoulders of leaders and anyone in a position of authority and control.

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Leadership theories search for explanations of the main reason why some leaders fail while others succeed. Leadership theories, similar to all theories, put forward rules and ideas that act as a roadmap and attempt to clarify why certain actions and activities result in more fruitful outcomes. Most of these theories deal less with the behavioral part of leadership and focus more on the actions of the leader (Johns and Moser, 1989). According to Riggs (2001, p.5), "Throughout the world, leadership is generally perceived as something we need more of, while at the same time it is generally misunderstood. There are at least 100 definitions of leadership". The definition and qualities of a leader are as many as the number of people surveyed. In fact, there are dozens of definitions and theories of leadership (McCleskey, 2014). The main problem that stands before giving a clear definition of leadership is the different research objectives that obsess researchers of different fields, as well as the conceptualization and specification of leadership scopes. It is not easy to determine one single definition that catches and matches all the different senses and operationalization of leadership. This is because leadership can be regarded from many different perceptions and angles (including process, interaction, and behavior) (Karmel, 1978).

The study conducted by Bass (1990) confirms that 45% to 65% of the overall dynamics and aspects leading to the success or failure of any organization are determined and established by leaders themselves. Leadership style has a direct effect on workers' conduct and performance. It has also been regarded as a key link to both organizational outcomes and employee productivity (Ehrhart, 2004). Leadership styles practiced by the leader at the level of the organization bring about different consequences that affect the organization and employees either positively or in a negative way. For instance, a productive and active worker could become ineffective if the style of leadership adopted by the leader is in conflict with the task role of the subordinates. However, unproductive employees would get more active and operative if the style used meets the needs and objectives of the task.

The word leader has existed in the dictionary since the fourteenth century (King, 1990). Stogdill (1950) said that the word "leader" was initiated back in the 1300s, and the word "leadership" in the 1800s (P. 7). They are defined and regarded differently at different times. Qualities and characteristics of a good leader at one time may be seen as bad and unsatisfactory at the other. A leader has been seen as having that kind of impact at the level of the organization. He can always be defined as the effect he has on his followers to achieve common goals (Johns & Moser, 1989). Frick (2004 p.1) quoted Greenleaf in his article to clarify how a leader would act. He said, "...goes out ahead and shows the way... Leader says, 'I am first, follow me!' even when he knows that the path is uncertain, even dangerous". Many theoreticians, such as the most well-known icon Machiavelli and other following scholars, believed that leaders are characterized based on their capacity to bring change come rain or shine. This justifies that there is a big difference between the morals of a leader and what the leader does.

The beginning of the twentieth century saw a shift from a focus on moral character to an emphasis on personality. Dale (1981) stated that personality was the key to the success of leaders. Even today, most scholars are more interested in researching the personality traits of leaders than their morals. Before or today, there have always been leaders who do righteous things for egoistic reasons. The inner world of the person must be separated from the outer person. John Stuart Mill (1987) noticed this fragmented part in the person's integrity and the consequences of his deeds. He argued that the hidden intents behind an act communicate the individual's morality, but the conclusion of the act states the morality of the action.

2. Literature

2.1 Key Theories of Leadership

The Great Man theory has been introduced as the earliest theory of leadership. This theory believes that great leaders are innate and not made. Thomas Carlyle (1840) described this theory as the focus on the leader as a hero. Many scholars before Carlyle defended the idea that a leader is born, not made. For example, Plato, Aristotle, and even Machiavelli contributed to this way of thinking. Dowd (1936) stated that this theory made known that great leaders are epic, mythic, and intended to increase leadership when needed. According to Cherry (2010), the term "Great Man" came to light because leadership was seen as a male quality, especially in the field of military leadership. Spotts (1964) said that the concern of 18th and 19th century philosophers focused on great people rather than situations. The Great Man Theory adopts the idea that leaders have exclusive assets that are not found among the common people. It also takes responsibility that leaders are born, not made (Kolb et al., 1971).

The vital concept of this theory is that the leader is genetically able to have higher qualities that differentiate him from his followers. It indicates that an organization's success is determined by the magnitude of its leadership unit. Even though there are slight adjustments, the epic leader remains ingrained in individualistic cultures. Notable figures remain to instigate our curiosity and attention, whether they be Abraham Lincoln, Nelson Mandela, or Elon Musk. The main change today is toward system leaders, characters who have the know-how to come up with new ideas and who spot that "wicked problems" can only be resolved through teamwork. However, many people, followers, and leaders still keep the same principles and assumptions of the Great Man Theory, and this has an impact on their cultural behavior.

The trait theory of leadership, like the Great Man theory, supposes that people inherit certain abilities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theory endeavors to develop particular personality or behavioral features mutually between

leaders. Galton (1869) discovered that leadership was a special asset of astonishing character, and the traits leaders owned were unchallengeable and could not be developed. Allen (1998) said that there are some inherent social and personal features in leaders. Moreover, trait theory suggests key traits for effective leadership, such as drive, integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, and job-relevant knowledge, but it does not yet make a judgment as to whether these traits are inherent to individuals or they can be developed through education or going on some training courses. Impossible to find two leaders who are the same, and no leader has all of the traits (Allen, 1998). Trait theory is all about trying to find out how to be a leader by investigating the characteristics and methods of known leaders.

The second half of the 20th century knew a more persistent search for the cornerstone of leaders. Allen (1998) said that behavioral theorists pointed out causal factors of leadership so that people could be taught and given lessons to be leaders. People cannot be leaders by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but there should be a clear link between the characteristics of the leader and the goals of the followers (Stodgill, 1948; Heilbrunn, 1994). The Ohio State Leadership Studies conducted research, experimenting with 1,800 statements that have to do with leadership behavior. Frequently purifying the behaviors, the research reached two fundamental issues: consideration and initiation of structure. Consideration defines a variety of behaviors related to crucial roles, control mechanisms, task forces, and work management, both inside and outside the unit.

The influence of this kind of work was the idea that leadership was not essentially an innate trait but an alternative real leadership method that could be taught to workforces (Saal and Knight, 1988). This made progress in detecting what behaviors distinguished leaders from subordinates so that the behaviors could be taught. Blake et al. (1964) also developed a two-factor model of leadership behavior like that of Ohio State and the University of Michigan. They entitled the factors "concern for people" and "concern for output.". According to this research, managers display behaviors that fall into two primary categories: tasks and people. Based on which type was shown most frequently, a leader could be positioned along each of the two ranges. The main result of this research was primarily descriptive and facilitated classifying leaders due to their behavior (Homer, 1997).

The major argument of the situational leadership theory is that there is no single "best" style of leadership. Good leadership depends on the mission assigned, and the most effective leaders are those who adjust their leadership style to the ongoing circumstances. This theory of leadership focuses on certain variables associated with the surrounding environment that might define the type of leadership that best suits the situation of the moment. Success is based on a number of variables, including the leadership style, abilities of the followers, and characteristics of the situation. Situational theory suggests that leaders select the best course of action depending on situational variables. Different leadership styles might be more suitable for certain types of decision-making. Effective leadership depends not only on the person or group that is being influenced but also on the duty, job, or function that is necessary to be achieved. The situational approach focuses on the significance of circumstantial factors influencing the leadership process (Yukle, 2009). The hypothesis behind the theory is that different situations demand diverse leadership styles (Northouse, 2007).

Fiedler (1967, 1971), as one of the groundbreakers in this field, pointed out three managerial modules: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. In Some situations, task-oriented leaders are much favored, but others prefer those who are relationship-oriented. He introduced eight arrangements of situational favorability. He then developed a survey to estimate the leader style, named the Least Preferred Co-worker scale. In his research, he discovered that some leadership styles were much more fruitful in certain situations but not in others. Generally, this theory is problematically valid due to its relative straightforwardness, it paved the way for much discussion and research about affiliating a leader with a situation that would be most favorable to the leader's style (Fiedler, 1967). This model issuing even led Fiedler himself, and his associates, to do widespread research aiming to study the validity of the model (Mitchell, Biglan, Oncken, and Fiedler, 1970).

The central focus of Transactional theory is on the role of direction, supervision, organization, and group achievement. This theory suggests that the process of leadership should implement a system of rewards and punishment. It also gives the chance to the manager to lead his followers but they should agree to follow his lead to meet the predetermined goals. Evaluating and training subordinates is always in the hands of the leader when productivity is not up to the required level. The leader should reward his subordinates' effectiveness as the expected outcome achieved, but should always remind them that failure is severely punished.

Bass and Avolio (1994) saw transactional leadership "as a type of contingent-reward leadership that had active and positive exchange between leaders and followers whereby followers were rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed upon objectives". Such rewards might convey gratitude for merit increases, additional benefit, and work attainment. As there is good work, there should be an exchange of positive support and cooperation for collegiality. Decisions should be delayed by the leader and avoid quick responses. His focus must be on errors. This kind of attitude is regarded as the "management-by-exception" and is divided into passive or active transactions. The timing of the leader's involvement is the key difference between these two transactions. In the active form, for example, the leader constantly observes and watches performance and tries to get involved actively (Avolio & Bass, 1997). Generally speaking, transactional leadership is defined as that in which leader-follower

relations are based on a sequence of agreements between followers and leaders (House & Shamir, 1993). It is “based on reciprocity where leaders not only influence followers but are under their influence as well”.

Transformational leadership is a modern and popular leadership theory. It is also known as relationship theory, and it does focus on the junction between leaders and followers. This theory of leadership is where leaders inspire their followers to achieve surprising outcomes; and while doing so they improve their own leadership capability (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders believe in motivating and encouraging the group members to realize the significance of the task. They not only focus on the achievement of the group, but on each person potential fulfillment as well. James MacGregor (1978) touched on the concept of transforming rather than transactional leadership. He focused on “...a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents.”

All leaders, adopting this style, are characterized by ethical and moral standards. Burns (1978) observed that this approach generated a major change in people’s lives and organizations’ working environments. It also reshaped conceptions, beliefs, and values, and reformed employees’ outlooks and prospects. Many scholars perceived the focus on the significance of task outcomes by transformational leaders could stimulate their followers’ higher needs, and demonstrate a selfless attitude where the organizations’ objectives come first (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989a, 1989b). Such kind of leaders have a positive influence on their subordinates regarding job satisfaction, trust, and commitment (Bono & Judge, 2003). The main cause behind the esteem of the transformational theory is its focus on the motivation and development of the follower (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Any individual who is still at the level of doubt and hesitation is in need of inspiration, motivation, and confidence in himself. This kind of process causes positive changes and transformations in people because it deals with people’s emotions and ethics. It also takes into account their long-term objectives. The leader should realize and adapt his actions to the needs and motivations of the followers.

2.2 Styles of leadership

Autocratic leadership, known as authoritarian leadership, is regarded as a type of leadership in when the leader in charge has absolute power over his subordinates and complete decision-making authority inside the organization (Bass and Bass, 2009). This type of leader is classic and dominant by nature. Such kind of leaders want their followers to work according to them. Naturally, they maintain the decision-making rights with them (Obiwuru, et al., 2011). The commanding style is mainly about exerting force on subordinates to execute the services and strategies designed by their leader without asking any question. It is a severe style and does not pave the way for any suggestions, but absolute obedience (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee 2009).

Autocratic leadership leads to conflicts and clashes that touch destructively the total production process of the organization (Iqbal, et al., 2015). Autocratic leaders value submission (Harms et al., 2018), expecting firm devotion to guidelines. They sometimes use prizes and punishments as a way of imposing and applying submission. When this kind of leader is absent or unable to make quick decisions, this can delay the organization and creates blocks and chunks (Sherf et al., 2019). Autocratic leaders don’t value the ideas of their subordinates (Khudhair et al., 2022); which hampers the problem-solving process and sets back the organization ability to cope with the changing circumstances of the world as a whole.

The participative style is all about engaging the subordinates in any ongoing activity by asking them to take part in the decision-making process. Employees are supposed to feel free and at ease to debate issues with their leaders. This later always show kind behaviors. The leader’s task is to create a link between the organization and workers. He also shares decision-making rights with subordinates and inspires them to take on certain responsibilities (Kahai et al, 1997). Decisions are no longer only in the hands of executives (Fenwick & Gayles, 2008). Participative decision making is significant in key matters (Somech, 2010). Participative leaders value their subordinates’ knowledge, ideas, and opinions (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Rana et al. 2019; Khassawneh and Abaker 2022).

Due to the increasing dependence on team working as a strategic means of boosting the effectiveness and competitiveness of the organization, so many leaders have become to favor group interactions rather than one-on-one contexts (Gavin & Hofmann, 2002). Furthermore, leaders, adopting the participative style, inspire and motivate their employees to develop learning skills through information acquisition, sharing and connections, and looking for new opportunities (Benoliel and Barth 2017; Mohammad and Khassawneh 2022). The participative style is all about delegation, consultation, and reaching decisions by consensus (Khassawneh and Abaker 2022; Sarti 2014). It is the only way to the employee innovation (Rosing, Frese, & Bausch, 2011).

Participative leadership has increasingly caught the attention of practical circles. The already set objectives and goals of business organizations are no longer achieved by much dependence on the appointed group of executives. To reach the objectives and the organization success, all the internal entities should be involved to determine what customers or consumers in general want (Jung & Arlio, 2000). If employee participation is very important to success, changing the rules is inevitable to be up to date, and to compete with the existing severe competition. Glantz (2002) said that most successful modern companies today have

changed the structure of the organization radically. Customers at the top and employees in the middle listening to them to satisfy their needs and provide them with what they really want. Chen and Tjosvold (2006) asserted that the importance of joint decision-making is all people's views and ideas expressed freely and face to face which makes them more likely to be understood. When people are free enough from external constraints, they can invest their energy in innovative companies rather than ordinary ones and have a positive impact on the organization success. When they are fully involved in the decision making, they help with original contributions that would be the key to survival and higher profitability (Ahearne et al., 2005; Huang, lun, Liu, & Gong, 2010).

Ellinger and Bostrom (1999) stated that the first researchers explained the coaching style as a management drill and training that helps staffs develop learning capability and professional skills. A coach is defined as that professional or specialist who is hired by an organization to enhance its own individuals' leadership skills and professional conduct. Based on the individual's position within the organization, the coach main task is to train him/her to make a balance between personal development and the organization's main objectives. Coaching leaders encourage employees to solve problems and conflicts themselves for more understanding of the work environment they operate in. This is all to have more professional development to get more chances at the work place (Ryan and Deci, 2010).

Leadership coaching is a technique of simplifying positive change that empowers an organizational leader's "performance, development of particular skills, or a broader sense of personal growth" (Stober, 2008). It also employs a "systematic methodology of inquiry" (Gladis, 2007, p.10) that boosts a client-coach relationship that is marked with honesty, confidence, respect, and appreciation. Gloeman (2001) in the article "Effective Leadership" published in the Harvard Business Review explained that this leadership style is the primary one for the effective management of the organization. The work skill cannot be enhanced without the guidance and interference of the coach. When the psychological needs of the staff are met, they display a strong interest and passion in the daily work activities, to the extent they get more creative and innovative. In sport, for example, the coach plays on the transformation of the psychological and physical strengths of the individual into performance competency and professionalism. The leader can train the member of staff to endow self-regulation (Grant, 2013), self-leadership (Manz and Sims, 2001) and to build permanent personal strong points (Hunt and Weintraub, 2002).

Nowadays, all companies are more interested in developing the quality of their leaders by implementing the coaching style in their work agenda as an effective strategy to boost human capital development (Hawkins, 2008). The one-to-one nature of this style makes the client builds a special relationship with the coach that is regarded as a mish mash of cognitive and behavioral training meetings (Killburg, 1996). In fact, the coach registers facts and behaviors detected through the coaching process and frames a plan of action "through a rigorous process of self-discovery and awareness, goal setting and accountability, action learning and execution, and evaluations and revision" (Gladis, 2007, p. 10) with the client.

The affiliative style is about promoting and stimulating harmony among the members of the team. Goleman in Johnson (2017) stated that the affiliative leadership style is mainly about promoting harmony within the team and focusing on emotional construction and joining. He went further to justify that this style is more fruitful "when trying to heighten team harmony, increase morale, improve communication or repair broken trust in an organization". It is very effective when the leader wants to repair the broken trust that has developed in a team. Affiliative leadership involves learning how to create trust with others in a particular context (Heckscher & Adler, 2006; Jameson, Ferrell, Kelly, Walker, & Ryan, 2006; Vangen & Huxham, 2003). Therefore, the affiliative leadership style puts emphasis on the prominence of team work and creates coherence in a group by joining people to one another for growing job contentment. The affiliative style should be used when leaders try to build team harmony, increase morale, increase communication, or repair broken trust (Goleman, 2013). However, this style should not be used alone since it may permit poor performance to go uncorrected.

Following Cunliffe (2009), Crevani et al. (2010), and Raelin (2006), developing leadership that is affiliative needs constructing a capability to get multiple understandings and future potentials to have an openness to various viewpoints. An affiliative leader gives frequent positive feedback to try to help everyone to be on the right track. Basically, this type of leader should be considered if a business greatly wants a boost for morale and harmony of the team, or if a former event has incurred an atmosphere of uncertainty and doubt within the group. This type of leadership style is able to effectively create coherence among employees. This means the joining of synergies within the organization is also recognized. It is also known as an extremely mutual leadership technique, as it focuses on the emotions over the work needs of followers and teams. It can also prevent emotionally distressing instances and situations, such as negative feedback. With regards to the leader, he must possess the abilities that can aid with being followed, where he has to give a lot of commendations to resolve clashes and issues regarding the management of the whole organizational system (Onyechi, 2009).

Visionary leadership style arose as a matter of interest for scholars in different fields such as education (Montgomery and Gowe 2003; Fehlis 2005), political science (Stazesky 2000), and management (Harper 1991; Fechter and Horowitz 1991; Champlin and Champlin 1993). This concept is traced back to Mary Parker Follett's work on leadership, group membership, and cooperation

about 75 years ago (McLamey and Rhyno 1999). Visionary leadership is defined as the capacity to build and articulate pure and original visions that give meaning and determination to the work of an organization (Nanus, 1992; Sashkin, 1992). Zhu et al. (2005) stated that this kind of leadership produces high levels of unity, vow, trust, motivation, and enhances performance in organizations. Visionary leadership is very significant in today's changing environment for the success of organizations and their survival. Ahmad and Chopra (2004, pp. 51-54) stated that the main good quality of visionary leaders is they have the ability to express, communicate, share the missions and objectives of the organization in an easy vision statement. Built on a sample of more than 300 firms, Chandi and Tellis (1998) proved that the drive and vision of leaders have a noticeable influence on the level of fundamental innovation.

Covey (1991) proposed that great visions call upon the heart and mind, and the innovative process of shaping a vision regularly turns to the inspirational and instinctual aspect. Tellis and Golder (1996,2000) confirmed that visionary leadership and the drive of the leaders to implement their vision could contribute to fast, positive technological change. They have discovered that the longstanding market leaders concentrate attentively and closely on future large scale and reaching the maximum of people. They endeavor to use the current assets to achieve future potential. Senge (1991) detected that the success of the leader depends on his strong will and capacity to deploy the organism in a way that the span and gap between the present reality and strong vision is clearly decreased and dropped off.

The leadership visionary style is very vital visionary behavior of leadership and quality that should be proved by a leader to have a positive and practical effect on an organization. Good and effective leaders have the ability to see and perceive. Leaders believe in the identification of the days to come, not only in the time being (Smylie et al.,1999). This kind of style has, in fact, a clear constructive effect on employees' outputs. Followers have absolute trust in leaders and much devotion to them (Grady and LeSord,1989; Lesourd et al., 1992); Taylor et al.,2014); Valenzuela,2007). Tellis (2006) said that the corporate culture, especially the kind of leadership style adopted by the leader, plays a major role in the success or failure of the organization. As stated by Bass (1996) visionary leadership, as a form of transformational leadership, provides opportunities to boost the capacity of the organization to freely meet its needs. This is achieved by setting people free to invent and innovate. Many studies stated that much appreciated leaders were the ones that have the capability to outline visions or assign tasks to their followers, then inspire and allow them to engage in the organizational function and growth.

The pacesetting style is all about setting high-performance standards for leaders themselves and their followers (Goleman et al., 2013). Being an example in the eye of the follower is what leaders like to achieve; demonstrating distinction and quality and expecting their followers to meet those same criteria. According to Northouse (2013), pacesetting leaders naturally have a strong determination for achievement and struggle for constant enhancement. The most significant part of this leadership style is in achieving excellence within the place of work (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2008). This often creates a positive outcome in the production of work (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2008). Pacesetting leaders usually don't consult or accept feedback. They just believe in "just get it done." Regularly struggling to meet high-performance potentials can generate a stressed and challenging work atmosphere, actually spoiling morale and leading to low job contentment (Northouse, 2013). The ruthless pursuit of high standards and fast-paced implementation can lead to high levels of stress and exhaustion among workers (Goleman et al., 2013).

2.3 Types of leaders

Constructive leadership (CL) is described as the actions and conducts of a manager, that encourage the authentic interest of the workforces, such as appealing and team-oriented decisions and activities (Ali, 2019). This form of leadership can be looked at as a grouping of those decisions and actions, which are pro-organization and pro-subordinate (Einarsen et al, 2007). Constructive manners are very significant for the success and achievement of leadership (Glasø, 2018). It is proved that managers who bestow constructive-oriented leadership are competent and skillful in helping their subordinates to reach and realize the common shared objectives (Araslı, 2019). Such leaders are concerned about the well-being, happiness, and safety of their dependents and, at the same time, focus on the effective use of sources and the fulfilment of the objective based on the valid heed of the organization (Einarsen, 2007). Constructive leaders focus on the goals of the organization and the employees' welfare. The absence of one concern would lead to crippling and undermining the collaboration and interaction wanted to shine and go forward as a team constantly.

This type of leader has both human qualities like respect, justice, and honor along with the organization strong points such as direction, achievement, confidence, and making a great effort for the benefit of all. They are much respected and trusted by their subordinates compared to the destructive leaders who are usually not favored by the team members (Norman, Avolio, and Luthans, 2010). Constructive leaders behave wisely towards both the organization and their followers. They use effectively the resources of the organization and work harder to meet the goals and strategy of the short and long terms (Einarsen, 2007). The interactive work environment is very noteworthy and paves the way for the staff to be easily involved in inspired and motivated work tasks (Kark and Carmeli, 2009). When employees' work receives recognition and praised, they become more enthusiastic, motivated, and freely engage in any work assigned to them with passion. Schyns and Schilling (2013) did a meta-analysis in

contrast with destructive leadership, CL has a firm link with different outputs like behavior towards the manager, single performance, and job gratification. Numerous scholars mentioned and recommended that leadership is mainly hung around business commitment and worker creativity and improvement in organizations (Khaola and Coldwell, 2019; Dedahanov et al, 2019). It is also confirmed, in a meta-analysis on leadership and safety, that there is a link between administrative/group leadership and a diversity of security gages (Clarke, 2013; Christian et al, 2009).

Kathie Pelletier (2010) defined destructive leadership as the “systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor, or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates” (p. 375). Destructive leadership, she stated,

... can involve acts of physical force (e.g., shoving, throwing things, slamming a fist on a desk, sexual harassment that includes inappropriate physical contact), and passive acts such as failing to protect a subordinate’s welfare, or failing to provide a subordinate with important information or feedback. (p. 375).

The great concern among leaders over destructive leadership is flourishing. The big amount of scandals in organizations, sexual harassment, bullying...etc., have called attention to the end result of destructive leadership on followers can be critical and drastic. It has been proved that destructive leadership has a positive connection with follower job anxiety, emotional depression, resistance, and workplace aberration, and, at the same time, is negatively connected with follower organizational dedication and devotion, career contentment, and welfare (Mackey et al., 2017; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The main push factor of destructive leadership is the leader’s personality. All his traits related to this case are called dark traits (Jones & Paulhus, 2014; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). This kind of leadership is seen as a real problem, and it is not allowed or tolerated in modern organization. Reed and Olsen (2010) stated that the problem of destructive leadership used to be much worse and deteriorated than it is today. Nevertheless, it still remains wide ranging and far-reaching. According to Gallus, Walsh, Driel, Gouge, and Antolic (2013), this poor and evil leadership style has both psychological and organizational causes and beginnings.

Destructive leadership behaviors (DLB) are all about the means and methods used to have an impact on followers, but it is unluckily regarded as a strong expose and a parade of antagonism and malice (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). DLB is classified as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000, 2007), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994, 1997), and social undermining (Duffy et al., 2002). This openness to DLB is found to foresee lower-grade of production and organizational citizenship behaviors, family and life satisfaction, and work ethic, professionalism, and integrity (Mackey et al., 2017). By the same token, DLB has been shown to anticipate different undesirable conclusions such as stress, friction, and ill feelings (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

Lipman-Blumen (2005, 2010) defined toxic leadership as “...a process in which leaders, by dint of their destructive behavior and/or dysfunctional personal characteristics, inflict serious and enduring harm on their followers, their organizations, and non-followers, alike” (2005, p. 1). Also, as one of the first to define the complicated structure of leader toxicity, Lipman-Blumen (2005) said toxic leadership broke basic values of human rights by intentionally reframing toxic schedules as noble deeds. He said that leaders are looked at as toxic when they cause:

...serious and enduring harm to their constituents by using influence tactics that are extremely harsh and/or malicious. In short, toxic leaders exhibit destructive behaviors that work to decay their followers’ morale, motivation, and self-esteem, although there is considerable overlap in conceptualizations of toxic, tyrannical, unethical, and destructive leadership. (2005, p. 376).

Whicker (1996) explained that toxic leaders are bullies, authoritarian, and street combatants, confused, dissatisfied, and often wicked people, who could pull and knock others down. They have the ability to control rather than inspiring and enriching followers. Jowers (2015) went further to refer to toxic leaders as having a mishmash of self-centered boldness, conducts that badly upset and disturb subordinates’ enthusiasm and work performance. Norton (2016) put into words toxic leadership as a discouraging action that affects the group of people morale and climate in a negative way. Schmidt (2008), citing Goldman (2006), defined toxic leaders as the ones who had clinically detected psychological health conditions, i.e. long-term unoriginal conditions. Norton (2016), citing Reed (2004), recommended that “losing control in the moment or having a bad day does not make a leader toxic” (p. 144).

Jowers (2015) agreed, citing the wife of a soldier, affirming that “the effects of toxic leadership flow into the marriage and home life of those who experience toxic leadership” (p. 19). Toxic leadership is described as contagious, far-reaching, and insidious (Elle, 2012). According to Elle and Reed (2004), toxic leaders do not contribute to the success of the organizations they conduct; they just mar and spoil the atmosphere of the work environment, crumble group interconnection, and its spirit. “They cause unnecessary organizational stress, emphasize negative values, and create an environment of hopelessness” (p. 3). Lipman-Blumen (2005) assumed that the degree of the negative effects a single toxic leader causes is different from one circumstance to

another. For him, not all toxic leaders are completely unsuccessful and useless. However, many are tremendously effective in results. Steele (2004) defended the idea that toxic leaders are not always useless or unsuccessful leaders in achieving the mission set objectives. He believed "they are usually strong leaders who have the right stuff, but just in the wrong intensity, and with the wrong desired end-state, namely self-promotion above all" (p. 4).

As stated by Tepper (2000) and Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and Ensley (2004), abusive leaders are described by their "injurious actions that include public ridicule, angry tantrums, inconsiderate actions (i.e., rudeness), favoritism, non-contingent punishment, and coercion" (p. 374). Ashforth (1994) claimed that tyrannical leaders are "distrusting, condescending and patronizing, impersonal, arrogant and boastful, and rigid and inflexible. They take credit for the efforts of others, blame subordinates for mistakes, discourage informal interaction among subordinates, and deter initiative and dissent" (p. 374). In the words of Hornstein (1996) "toxic leaders care about obtaining and keeping control through means and ways that generate fear and coercion" (p. 374). Abusive leadership is defined as subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in sustained displays of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). This may include disregard, hostility, exploitation, verbal cruelty, emotional abuse, anger irritabilities, and more (e.g., Shore et al., 2011; Rice et al., 2020; Liao et al., 2021).

Rice et al. (2020) stated that the abusive manager is in a position to apply this sort of authority over the employee as a consequence of the simple fact of his power as a superior, whereas the employee is left to adhere to the impulses of the supervisor. This disturbing circumstance for workers certainly strains their inner self, harms their self-efficacy, and evacuates them of resources, bringing stress (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011; Duffy et al., 2002; Mawritz et al., 2014) and expanding perceived injustice and inequity (e.g., Lind and Tyler, 1988; Tyler and Lind, 1992; Cropanzano et al., 2001). Sooner or later, this would lessen the feeling of belonging at the place of work (see Rice et al., 2020), increasing a sense of lack of self-confidence, job frustration, and expectation of social segregation.

Naseer et al. (2016) suggested that literature generally puts emphasis on the constructive facets of leadership in organizations, especially with the breakthrough of the positive psychology, and, at the same time, downplays and dismisses the unpleasant and harmful parts of the managerial compasses at factories (Naseer et al., 2016). Furthermore, the phenomenon is not just widespread; it is, in fact, regularly connected to harmful consequences for both the workforce and the organization. For example, feelings of shame, turnover intentions, terror, divergent behaviors, decreased performance, less originality and production, and more (e.g., Naseer et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2020; Jain et al., 2021; Korman et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2021; Bokek-Cohen et al., 2022). However, so many people are now aware of this growing severe abuse at the workplace, and becoming a widespread social phenomenon that conquers all types of work atmospheres and includes many manners at varying grades of severity and negativity (Aharoni-Goldberg et al., 2019). Salton Meyer and Ein-Dor (2021) brought into being that the relation between offensive management and job dissatisfaction was extremely expressive as they pointed out considerable opposing psychological effects on employees' daily feelings and involvements at work, thus destructively influencing their work-related efficiency and output.

3. Conclusion and discussion

Leadership is seen as a very important facet of handling social and business bodies at most levels. The effect of leadership invades the individuals' lives and spreads to the organizational dynamic forces. Leadership's many-sided nature is very obvious through its numerous conceptualizations, such as the leader-follower relationship and dynamic social processes. As emphasized by many scholars and icons, leadership is not still or standing, but it always changes and develops to be up-to-date with the changing universal and technological sceneries and sites. Different theories give different outlooks on leadership, starting from the focus on the leader as a hero, someone born, not made, to the leader as a motivator and developer of the follower.

The great man theory believes that great leaders are innate and not made. Philosophers of the 18th and 19th centuries focused on great people rather than situations. This theory adopts the idea that leaders have special assets that are not found among ordinary people. Trait theory of leadership endeavors to develop particular personality or behavioral features mutually between leaders and suggests key traits for effective leadership, but it does not yet make a clear judgment as to whether these traits are inherent to individuals or they can be developed through education or going on some training courses. Behavioral theorists pointed out that people cannot be leaders by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but there should be a clear link between the characteristics of the leader and the goals of the followers. The main idea is that leadership is not essentially a distinctive trait but an alternative leadership method that could be taught to the labor force.

The situational leadership theory suggests that there is no best style of leadership. This later is subject to the task assigned, and the real leaders are those that cope with their leadership style with the ongoing situations. The situational approach is all about the importance of circumstantial factors influencing the leadership process. Transactional theory suggests that the process of leadership should implement a system of rewards and punishment. It defends the idea that the relationship between the leader

and follower is based on a sequence of agreements. Transformational leadership, known as relationship theory, does focus on the junction between leaders and followers. Leaders should inspire followers to realize surprising outcomes. This act doesn't only contribute to developing followers' skills, but it helps improve leaders' own leadership competence. Burns (1978) observed that this approach caused a main change in people's lives and organizations' working environments. It also reshaped conceptions, beliefs, and values, and reformed employees' outlooks and prospects.

The overall dynamics and aspects leading to the success or failure of any organization are determined and established by the leaders themselves. Leadership style has a direct effect on workers' conduct and performance, including their approval of the organization's scheme and policy. It has also been regarded as a key link to both organizational outcomes and employee work performance (Ehrhart, 2004).

Commanding style is regarded as a type of leadership in when the leader in charge has absolute power over his subordinates and complete decision-making authority inside the organization. This style leads to conflicts and clashes that touch destructively the total production process of the organization, and it hampers the problem-solving process and sets back the organization ability to cope with the changing circumstances of the world as a whole. Many scholars defend the idea that this leadership style is more effective in times of crisis. The participative style is about engaging the subordinates in any ongoing activity by asking them to take part in the decision-making process and inspires them to take certain responsibilities. Because of the increasing need for team working as a strategic way of boosting the efficiency of the organization, many leaders have become to prefer group interactions to one-on-one contexts. As a matter of fact, changing the rules is inevitable to be up to date and compete with the existing severe competition. The coaching style, as a management drill and training, helps staff develop knowledge capability and professional skills. This is all to have more professional progress to get more chances at the work place. It is believed by many scholars that the work skill cannot be heightened without the management and interference of the coach.

The affiliative style is mainly about inspiring the members of the team and creating harmony and trust. This style is much favored when the leader is really in need of fixing the broken confidence that has developed in a team. Therefore, the affiliative leadership style puts emphasis on the prominence of team work and creates coherence in a group by joining people to one another for growing job contentment. It should not be used alone because it may permit poor performance to go uncorrected. The visionary leadership style got the interest of scholars in different fields such as education and management. It is believed that this style would articulate original visions that gives purpose to the work of an organization. This style has proved its significance for the survival and success of the organization in the constantly changing business environment. Pacesetting style really aims at seeking excellence at the work place by setting higher performance standards. This is efficient in certain situations because it creates positive results in the production process. Frequently trying to achieve high-performance outcome leads to a stressed work atmosphere and low job contentment.

Constructive leaders are seen as pro-organization and pro-subordinate. The behaviors of such leaders are vital for the success of the leadership process. It's a common belief that constructive leaders are much respected by their subordinates because their main concern is achieving the goals of the organization and employees' welfare. The collaborative work environment is very remarkable and paves the way for the staff to be without difficulty involved in inspired and driven work tasks (Kark and Carmeli, 2009). The result of destructive leadership on followers can be critical. It has been proved that destructive leadership has a positive connection with follower job anxiety, emotional depression, and workplace aberration, and, at the same time, is destructively connected with follower organizational commitment, and welfare (Mackey et al., 2017; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The openness to destructive leadership behavior is seen to foresee lower-grade of invention, life satisfaction, and work professionalism (Mackey et al., 2017).

It is confirmed by famous scholars like Lipman-Blumen (2005) that toxic leadership broke elementary values of human rights by deliberately reframing toxic plans as noble deeds. Many agree on the idea that such leaders just have the capability to control rather than elevating and serving followers. Norton (2016) confirmed that toxic leadership is a discouraging action that disturbs and destresses people morale in a negative way. Elle and Reed (2004) saw toxic leaders as a barrier before the success of the organizations and they just mar the work environment atmosphere. Lipman-Blumen (2005) confirmed that the degree of the negative effects a single toxic leader causes is different from one circumstance to another. For him, not all toxic leaders are completely unsuccessful and useless. Tepper (2000) stated that abusive leaders display hostile verbal and non-verbal behavior. Rice et al (2020) stated that the abusive leader is in a position to apply this kind of authority over the employee as a result of the simple fact that the authority as superior, while the employee is left to obey the desires of the supervisor. As soon as possible this would lower the feeling of belonging at the place of work (see Rice et al., 2020), increasing a sense of lack of self-confidence, job frustration, and social segregation.

The different theories underline the difficulty and vitality inherent in leadership. Each leadership theory focuses on diverse aspects of leadership behavior. Situational reasons play a very decisive role in leadership effectiveness. Because of globalization and severe business competition, updating leadership has become a necessity. This forces leaders to acquire different skill set

and flexibility. By combining the different understandings from different theories, leaders can steer multifaceted situations much more successfully and achieving maintainable success. Eventually, leadership study remains a go-ahead and continuing quest, critical for understanding and boosting leadership usefulness in current contexts. Either through situational, transformational, or transactional approaches, leadership theories propose fruitful insights into steering the densities of organizational life (Bonebright et al., 2012; Wenson, 2010).

This literature is an examination of the complicated nature and deep effect of leadership within organizations. Based on the different perceptions and contributions of diverse scholars, leadership comes to life as a lively course of inspiration, reshapes the culture of the organization, and boosts creativity. Due to the different viewpoints and dimensions of leadership styles, leaders are enabled to go through the complicated nature of current business environments and motivate followers towards common objectives. The synthesis of the study findings underlines and sheds light on the main function of leadership in building employee satisfaction at the workplace and achieving organizational success. Being aware of the interconnection between leadership styles and the circumstances aspects can pave the way for organizations to organizations subject to alliance and progress. This clear identification of the concept of leadership as a social process emphasizes the significance of promoting good communication and mutual respect at the hierarchal level of the organizations. The continuous need to adaptation to the changing global business and social settings reflects the urgent important role leadership has. Having different leadership styles and fully understanding the perceptions picked up from the study, organizations can develop leadership quality and be always able to compete and survive in this ever-changing world.

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