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From Plato to e-Leaders: The Evolution of Leadership Theories and Styles

Murillo de Oliveira Dias¹, Juliana Pan², Patrícia Vieira³, Leonardo José Dias Pereira⁴

¹ Fundação Getulio Vargas, Brazil

^{2,3,4} Université de Bordeaux, France

Correspondence: Murillo de Oliveira Dias, Fundação Getulio Vargas, Brazil. E-mail: agenda.murillo@gmail.com

Abstract

In this work, we addressed the epistemology of Leadership styles and supporting theories, providing a new perspective on the emerging themes after careful analysis and revision. From examining 37 leadership supporting theories, and 120 leadership styles, themes relating to the nature of Leadership emerged from the analysis, such as "cognitive" or "behavioral;" "situational" or "transformational;" "eye-to-eye" or "remote," and from the literature review, such as "informal or formal," "small groups" or "organizations," and leaders. As a result, we believe it is possible to reduce somehow the confusion that has contaminated leadership research for more than a century, paving the way for future research by understanding complex concepts affecting Leadership over the centuries.

Keywords: Leadership Theories, Leadership Styles

1. Introduction

Leaders exert influence in our lives from a very early age. They also carry out effective human relations activities in virtually all scenarios. From ancient times to COVID-19, diverse leadership theories have emerged to explain the phenomenon examined in this work. We also compared leadership styles and taxonomies to provide an overview of emerging themes. The term was coined from the Old English *lædere*, "one who leads, one first or most prominent," agent noun from *lædan* "to guide, conduct," appearing in the literature in the XIX century. Also, from Old Frisian *ledera*, Dutch *leider*. This article addressed how leadership evolved from the traditional "eye-to-eye" leadership to the "e-leadership." More recently, the expansion of companies, with increasing global dispersion of departments, and divisions, associated with an explosion of advanced communication technologies gave birth to a new type of leadership, where leaders influence "one-to-one" or "one-to-many" remotely (Zaccaro and Bader, 2003).

Moreover, we focused on themes that eventually emerged, aiming to provide researchers with a review of the main concepts, usually available in sparse publications. One exception, however, lies with the works of Bernard Bass (1990, 2008). In the masterpiece "Handbook of Leadership," he compiled perhaps the most objective and rigorous

approach to Leadership. Unfortunately, Bass had passed away before his fourth edition (1925-2007)¹ and could not appreciate the new paradigms and challenges that leaders faced worldwide, especially after the coronavirus pandemic.

Firstly, Leadership theories and styles has attracted the attention of scholars over the past decades (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1934; Bogardus, 1918; Sanderson and Nafe, 1929; Chapin, 1924; Bartlett, 1926; Weber, 1947; House and Adisas, 1995; Jennings, 1960; Morrow and Stern, 1988; Lippitt, 1999; Maccoby, 1979; Pigors, 1936; Cattell and Stice, 1954; Bales and Slater, 1955; Benne and Sheats, 1948; Levine, 1949; Clark, 1951; Getzels and Guba, 1957; Oliverson, 1976; Lieberman, Yalom and Miles, 1973; Redl, 1948; Conway, 1915; Spaulding, 1934; Harding, 1949; Zaccaro and Bader, 2003; Calder, 1977; Yukl, 1971; House, 1977; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987; Fiedler, 1964; Murphy, 1941; Jacobs, 1970; Jennings, 1960; Newell and Simon, 1972; Argyris, 1964; Hollander, 1958; Hallinger and Murphy, 1985; Homans, 1950; Stogdill, 1959; House, 1971; Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975; Homans, 1950; Bass and Valenzi, 1974; Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; Hodgkinson, 1978; House, 1971; Yukl, 1971; Sims, 1977; Hayes, 1995; House, 1971; Pfeffer, 1977; Stogdill and Shartle, 1948; Wolman, 1971; Vroom and Yetton, 1974; Bass, 1960; Stogdill, 1959; Hersey and Blanchard, 1977; Hallinger, 1992; Kerr and Jermier, 1978; Osborn and Hunt, 1975; Smith and Krueger, 1933; Burns, 1978; Giddens, 1984; Venkatesh et al., 2003), among others.

Secondly, the ongoing pandemic of COVID-19² has forced governments to impose lockdowns, social isolation, and home-office as part of daily life. Therefore, leaders had to adapt to a new reality that Bass and others could not anticipate. In such a scenario, e-leadership became mandatory, for instance. Some may argue that the coronavirus pandemic was not the first to ravage humans. However, sophisticated digital communication technology was unavailable in virtually all previous pandemics. As a result, we were forced to learn new ways of Leadership without being physically present. The motivation behind this article lies in the investigation of the scope of conceptualizations of Leadership. Finally, we aimed to present a discussion framing similitude that is upheld in the literature. We also figured out another conceptual rundown of Leadership, which is helpful for future researchers/practitioners.

2. Identifying Supporting Leadership Theories and Styles

A snowballing procedure was utilized to distinguish definitions in the literature from critical articles and investigate roads of interest from references. This interaction was not planned as an exhaustive review but intended to catch descriptions across various perspectives. Only English language articles were inspected, as there was no arrangement for interpretation of non-English language sources. Thirty-seven distinct definitions/conceptual leadership supporting theories were identified (see Table 2). Next, we followed Bass (1990) classification of leadership styles as a starting point, totaling 37 leadership styles for small group leaders (see Table 3), as well as 38 leadership styles for organizations and institutions (see Table 4). We also included three crowds and mobs' leadership styles, five student leadership styles, and 21 educational leadership styles (see Table 5). Finally, we identified the e-leader and investigated it separately. In total, 105 leadership styles were explored. This work is limited to theories and styles of leadership. Leadership traits, motivations, values, ethics, and other personal attributes are not in the scope of this research and should be investigated in separate studies.

3. Background

Plato (428 – 347 BC) distinguished three types of leaders in “The Republic:” (i) philosophers/statesmen, or those responsible for political decisions; (ii) business leaders, responsible for providing wealth to the republic; and finally, (iii) military commanders, responsible for protection (Bass, 2008). Centuries later, another Greek philosopher Plutarch (46 to 119 AD), mentioned two types of political leaders in his essay “How to be a leader”: (iv) uneducated, or the (political) leaders insecure and scared of the people he represented; on the other hand, (v) educated leaders, “primarily concerned with the welfare of their constituents, even at the expense of their own power of safety.” (Plutarch, 2019, p.23).

¹¹ Work completed by his wife, Ruth Bass

² While this article is written, COVID-19 seems to be ending globally unless a new severe and aggressive variant emerges.

In the XVI century, the controversial Italian diplomat and philosopher Niccolò Machiavelli (1469 – 1527) advised Lorenzo di Medici in "The Prince" that the virtues of a good leader should: (i) be feared rather than loved; (ii) have the popular support to be successful; (iii) be clever, intelligent, and hold good virtues. In his words, "as a leader, there is no other way to guard yourself against flattery than by making men understand that telling you the truth will not offend you." (Machiavelli, 1993, p.248). Machiavelli also believed in leading by example: "nothing gives a prince more prestige than undertaking great enterprises and setting a splendid example for his people." (p.250)

In the XIX century, the Victorian essayist Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881) illustrated the representations of great leaders, such as Muhammad, Dante, Luther, and Napoleon, who is celebrated for redirecting world history in his seminal work "On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and The Heroic in History" [Carlyle, 1993 [1840]]. In that work, leaders are portrayed as heroes or great men, highlighting the importance of the personal attributes of Leadership. Later, in 1869, Sir Francis Galton (1822-1911) described (1869). In "Genius Hereditary: An Inquiry into its Laws and Consequences," he described an ethnological study on 400 leaders, "illustrious people," to "establish the theory that genius was hereditary." (p.5). Galton studied the psychological traits of leaders, praised by his cousin, Charles Darwin. It is accredited to Galton the terms "nature vs. nurture." However, for Galton, leadership attributes were inherited, not taught. Mendel's genetic theories were only established four years before, in 1865.

In the first half of the XX century, the study of leadership was primarily concentrated on face-to-face leadership traits (Stogdill, 1948; Cowley, 1928, 1931). To date, psychological traits are still considered good predictors of leadership styles. (Zaccaro and Bader, 2003; Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader, 2004). In 1964, Blake and Mouton portrayed the first two-dimensional view of leadership: the "Managerial Grid," illustrated in Figure 1, as follows:

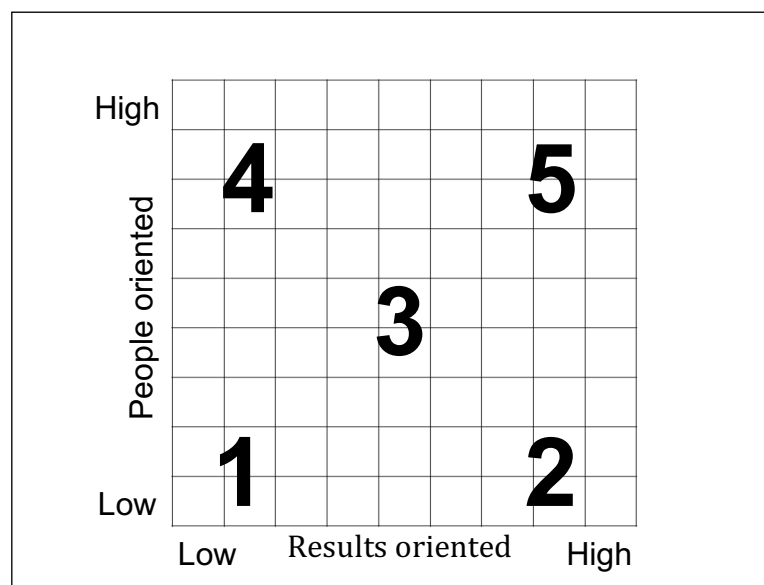


Figure 1: Managerial grid. Source: adapted from Blake and Mouton, 1964

Observe in Figure 1 the following positions of the people vs. results in graphic orientation: (1) low concern for people, low concern for results, the indifferent management, in which leaders elude; (2) low concern for people, high concern for results, the dictatorial management, in which leaders dominate; (3) average concern for people, average concern for results, the *status quo* management, in which leaders compromise; (4) high concern for people, low concern for results, the accommodating management, in which leaders comply and finally (5) high concern for people, high concern for results, the sound management, in which leaders are pro-active and commit.

Also, in the 1960s, the Austrian psychologist, Fred Fiedler, developed the Contingency Theory (see Table 1) and concluded that leadership style, since it is framed through one's valuable life experiences and encounters, is amazingly troublesome if certainly feasible to change (Fiedler, 1964). He argued that leaders' ability to succeed

relied upon two factors: (i) leadership style (dispositional variable) and (ii) compliance with situational (situational variable). A leader could be effective in one situation and not in another. Fiedler's Contingency Model is depicted in Figure 2 as follows:

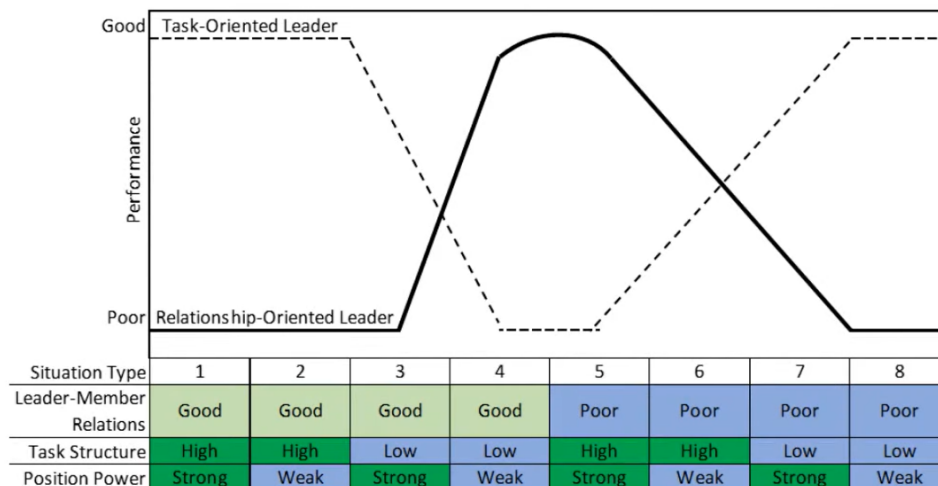


Figure 2: Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

Source: https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_73.htm February 4, 2021

Note in Figure 2 that a good or poor performance was described in eight situation types (Situation 1 to 8) and three dimensions: (i) leader-member relations (good or poor); (ii) task structure (high or low), and (iii) position power (strong or weak).

A given leadership style (task or relationship-oriented) was assigned for poor and bad performances for each situation. One of the model's limitations was that leaders were set to one behavior assessed through the LPC scale. However, the model is transparent, helpful in assessing situations, and taking conditions into account, that other models did not observe.

In 1969, based on Fiedler's and Blake and Mouton's models, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Situational Leadership Theory, based on two independent variables: (i) task behavior and (ii) relationship behavior. Therefore, both variables contributed to four maturity levels: (iii) M1: low competence and low commitment, ideal for the "telling" leadership style; (iv) M2: low competence, but high commitment, ideal for the "selling" leadership style; (v) M3: high competence, but joint commitment, ideal for the "participating" leadership style; (vi) M4: high competence and high commitment, ideal for the "participating" leadership style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1977).

In 1978, the North American historian and political scientist James MacGregor Burns (1918-2014) introduced the transforming leadership concept, in which leaders and followers mutually assist and help (Burns, 1978). He devised two concepts: (i) transforming leadership, inspiring and motivating, focused beyond self and immediate interests, and (ii) transactional leadership, which is concerned with performance, supervision, organization, or immediate interests. Both are mutually exclusive styles (Burns, 1978).

In 1985, however, Bernard Bass expanded the concept of Burns (1978). He explained the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming and transactional leadership. Bass also used the term "transformational" instead of "transforming." He also demonstrated how transformational leadership impacted the performance and motivation of the followers. (Bass, 1985, 1990)

In 2000, the North American Psychologist Daniel Goleman (1946 -) devised six basic styles of leadership based on distinct aspects of emotional intelligence (see Table 3). These include (i) Coercive or the "commanding" leadership; (ii) the Authoritative or "visionary" leadership; (iii) Affiliative or the "relational" leadership; (iv)

Democratic or the “participative” leadership; (v) Pacesetter, or “leading by example” Leadership, and finally, (vi) Coaching, or “personal developer” Leadership Style (Goleman, 1995; 1998a, 1998b; 2000).

Finally, with the ever-increasing communication technologies, such as synchronous virtual meetings, the internet, social network, instant messaging, and other information technologies combined with the globalization of companies, the e-leadership style gained force, especially after the coronavirus pandemic. The Adaptive Structural Theory supports E-leadership (see Table 1), in which leaders adapt to the existing structures and vice-versa (Giddens, 1984), or the User Acceptance of Information Technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

With the COVID-19 pandemic, governments were forced to establish quarantine, lockdowns, and social isolation became part of daily life. Therefore, e-leadership gained prominence. E-leaders may never lead face-to-face. One-to-many leadership is virtually boundaryless. The ability to instantly communicate with peers, followers, suppliers, and customers is limited by the device (computer, tablet, and mobile) and the local Wi-Fi signal infrastructure. Talent can be reached wherever it is; multitask teams are assembled; travel and accommodation expenses are drastically reduced. After the pandemic, the home office and virtual meetings became, for many organizations, the only working way.

However, there are also challenges and pitfalls that e-leadership brings: the absence of face-to-face interactions may convey incorrect understandings in communications, especially the asynchronous ones, such as e-mails or instant text messaging. Virtually all e-leaders are dependent on electric power; in its failure, e-leadership does not exist—moreover, e-leadership deals with artificial network environments. Relationships may become superficial as well. E-leaders also face a new paradigm with the home office: there seems to be little respect for commercial daily hours and lots of sources of distraction, such as background noises. Only the future will tell whether or not e-leadership becomes dominant after the coronavirus pandemic is over or under control.

4. Themes on supporting leadership theories

Leadership theories focused on personal traits, abilities, values, and characteristics in the first half of the XX century. As described earlier, in the 1960s, personal leadership styles became research topics. From the 1960s to the 1980s, situations and leadership styles were investigated. In the 1990s, motivational and transformational theories emerged (Bass, 2008). From the 2000s, leadership theories were also influenced by information technology and advanced communication (Zaccaro and Bader, 2003), or remote leadership style. Thus, the following Table 1 displays the emerging themes of the leadership supporting theories.

Table 1: Emerging themes in leadership theories

Themes on supporting theories	Timeline
personal traits	1900-1940s
personal styles	1950-1960s
situation and leadership styles	1970-1980s
motivational and transformational styles	1990-2000s
e-leadership, remote leadership	2000 -

Observe in Table 1 that the supporting leadership theories denote an increase in complexity in the leadership research. The dependence on the "great men" as leaders with impeccable personal traits gradually loses ground to situational and later cognitive approaches. Finally, Table 2 depicts supporting theories of Leadership as follows:

Table 2: Leadership Supporting Theories

#	Supporting Theory	Description	References
1	Attribution	These theories focus on the process by which members in a group attribute leadership status to another member, typically the one who exhibits behaviours that are distinct from those of the group	Calder, 1977
2	Behavioural	These theories examine a range of behavioural variables in leaders in attempts to determine followers' perceptions of acceptable ways to influence their actions	Yukl, 1971
3	Charismatic	These theories focus on leaders with extraordinary qualities who are often responsible for major social change	House, 1977
4	Cognitive Resources	This theory examines the conditions under which the cognitive resources of the leader, typically experience and intelligence, are related to group effectiveness	Fiedler and Garcia, 1987
5	Contingency	This theory focuses on the relationship between leader effectiveness and a measure of the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale across a range of situational favorability	Fiedler, 1964
6	Environmental	These theories view the emergence of leadership as dependent on the problems that the group must solve. Leadership is essentially a function of the occasion	Murphy, 1941
7	Exchange	These theories consider the social interaction of groups as a form of exchange, in which group members' contributions come at a cost to themselves, and returns at a cost to other group members	Jacobs, 1970
8	Great Man	These theories focus on the identification of unique qualities and characteristics of famous leaders. Early research in the field often viewed these superior qualities as biologically inherited	Jennings, 1960
9	Human Problem Solving	This cognitive theory proposes that common tasks for leaders and followers exist in subjectively and hence differently constructed 'problem spaces	Newell and Simon, 1972
10	Humanistic	Concerned with organizational effectiveness, these theories focus on leaders' efforts to provide group members with maximum freedom within the organization to realize their motivational potentials	Argyris, 1964
11	Idiosyncratic Credit	This theory considers adherence to group norms as increasing one's status, or credit, within the group. Asserting leadership involves deviating from group norms, and hence requires one to accumulate sufficient credit before doing so	Hollander, 1958
12	Instructional	Referring typically to the work of principals, this theory considers the leader as the primary source of insight into virtually every aspect of a school's educational program, there by promoting effective instruction and schools	Hallinger and Murphy, 1985
13	Interaction-Expectation	These theories address the interactions between group members (with each other, and the leader) and their expectations, often in terms of rewards or punishments. Interaction-expectation theories include leader-role theory, role attainment theory and path-goal theory	Homans, 1950; Stogdill, 1959; House, 1971
14	Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	Also known as the vertical dyad linkage theory, this approach examines the reciprocal influence relationship between leaders and individual subordinates. Each exchange relationship is unique, because the role of the subordinate is mutually defined	Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975
15	Leader-Role	This theory views leadership as the origination of interaction, in which partaking in mutual activities heightens feelings of mutual liking and increases the clarity of group norms	Homans, 1950
16	Leadership Styles	This theory examines patterns of behaviours that constitute action dispositions. Such styles are democratic or autocratic, permissive or restrictive, and participative or nonparticipative	Bass and Valenzi, 1974
17	Life Cycle	This theory relates leader behaviour to the experiential and motivational 'maturity' of subordinates, in which leaders gradually decrease emphasis on task structuring as subordinates mature, and subsequently decrease emphasis on consideration	Hersey and Blanchard, 1969
18	Moral	These theories consider leadership as a normative phenomenon, and focus on the values and human agency of leaders and followers. Other 'normative oriented' approaches include ethical, servant, and authentic leadership	Hodgkinson, 1978
19	Motivational	Closely related to path-goal theory, this theory considers leadership in terms of increasing the worth associated with work-goal attainment, hence reducing role ambiguity, and ultimately motivating followers	House, 1971

#	Supporting Theory	Description	References
20	Multiple Linkage	This theory examines the interactive effects of managerial behaviours and situational variables across a range of intervening variables, such as subordinate effort, role clarity, cooperation, and resources	Yukl, 1971
21	Operant Conditioning	This theory involves the leader, a potential source of reward, effectively managing reinforcement contingencies in the work environment	Sims, 1977
22	Participative	These theories of leadership examine the potential for participation of group members in various organizational processes. Such participation might involve decision making, consultation, or power sharing. In educational contexts, participative leadership was often understood as an impetus for site-based management. The notion of 'shared leadership' has become increasingly popular in recent literature, described in a variety of approaches including cooperative, distributed, and teacher leadership	Hayes, 1995
23	Path-Goal	This theory assumes that leaders will motivate subordinates if they satisfy subordinates' needs on condition of good performance, and if they provide supports for subordinates to perform effectively	House, 1971
24	Perceptual Cognitive	These theories of leadership concentrate on the mental processes of leaders and followers and typically describe components of leadership (such as the process by which leadership is attributed), rather than leadership in general	Pfeffer, 1977
25	Personal Situational	These theories examine the relationship between characteristics of leaders and a range of situational demands	Stogdill and Shartle, 1948
26	Psychoanalytic	These theories focus on the leader as fulfilling the psychoanalytic needs of followers. Often, the leader is seen as an embodiment of the superego, to which followers display unconscious Freudian projections of devotion	Wolman, 1971
27	Rational Decision-Making	This theory examines the decision-making of leaders, specifically concerned with whether the process should be participative or directive and whether it should involve group members individually or the group in its entirety	Vroom and Yetton, 1974
28	Reinforced Change	This theory views leadership as increasing the motivation and effective behaviours of group members by changing their expectation of rewards and punishments	Bass, 1960
29	Role Attainment	In this theory, the individual's role in a group is determined by group expectations of consistent behaviour	Stogdill, 1959
30	Situational	These theories consider leadership as primarily residing in the variety of situations faced by groups. Similar to contingency theory, inquiry examines the interaction between situational variables and leader behaviour	Hersey and Blanchard, 1977
31	Strategic Organizational	These theories examine managerial functions which contribute to organizational effectiveness. Proper management is conflated with leadership, particularly in times of organizational change	Hallinger, 1992
32	Substitutes	This theory focuses on two situational variables, substitutes and neutralizers. Substitutes refer to conditions which diminish the need for leader behaviour, while neutralizers refer to conditions which inhibit leader behaviour	Kerr and Jermier, 1978
33	Systems Analysis	This theory interprets leadership using systems theory, in which leaders and followers function in open social systems. The cyclical process involves external conditions acting as an input on the system, with products and services as the output	Osborn and Hunt, 1975
34	Trait	These theories focus on the identification and analysis of the superior qualities of leaders. Frequently identified traits include intelligence, dominance and self-confidence	Smith and Krueger, 1933
35	Transformational	This theory emphasizes two distinct types of exchange leadership: transformational and transactional. Transactional leadership involves rewards as a way of inducing compliance, while transformational leadership involves heightening the consciousness of followers through appeals to higher order values and morals	Burns, 1978
36	AST	Adaptive Structured Theory (AST) studies how technology and leadership impact each other	Giddens, 1984
37	UTAUT	The unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) is a technology acceptance model and explains to what extent the user intentions to use an information system and subsequent usage behavior.	Venkatesh et al., 2003

Source: adapted from Bass and Bass, 2008

4. Leadership Styles and Themes

A vast number of existing typologies of leadership styles have been described. For example, Bass (1990) themed the leadership styles in (i) small groups, based on the work of Benne and Sheat (1948) (see Table 3), (ii) organizations and institutions (see Table 4), (iii) crowds and mob leaders, (iv) student leaders, and (v) educational leaders (see Table 5). Also, the literature pointed out themes such as Autocratic or Democratic (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938; Spector & Suttel, 1957; Bass, 1990). The types of Leadership and respective themes are illustrated in Tables 3 to 6. In the sequence, we present the themes observed after careful analysis.

Table 2: Types of leadership: small groups

#	Types of Leadership in Small Groups	References
1	Masters; Educators	Pigors, 1936
2	Persistent; Salient; Sociometric; Elected	Cattell and Stice, 1954
3	Productivity; Socioemotional support	Bales and Slater, 1955
4	Group task; Group Maintenance; Individual	Benne and Sheats, 1948
5	Charismatic; Organizational; Intellectual; Informal	Levine, 1949
6	Popular; Group; Indigenous	Clark, 1951
7	Nomothetic; Ideographic; Synthetic	Getzels and Guba, 1957
8	Technical; Charismatic; Caring; Peer-oriented	Oliveron, 1976
9	Charismatic energizer; Provider; Social engineer	Lieberman, Yalom and Miles, 1973
10	Patriarch; Tyrant; Ideal; Scapegoat; Organizer; Seducer; Hero; Bad or Good Influence	Redl, 1948

Source: adapted from Bass, 1990; Bass and Bass, 2008

Table 3: Types of leadership: organizations and institutions

#	Types of Leadership in Organizations and Institutions	References
1	Intellectual; Business; Adroit diplomat; Small groups; Mass leader	Burns, 1934
2	Autocratic; Democratic; Executive; Reflective-Intellectual	Bogardus, 1918
3	Static; Executive; Professional; Group leader	Sanderson and Nafe, 1929
4	Political-military; Socialized	Chapin, 1924
5	Institutional; Dominative; Persuasive	Bartlett, 1926
6	Bureaucratic; Patrimonial; Charismatic	Weber, 1947
7	Charismatic; Transformational	Klein and House, 1995
8	Supermen; Heroes; Princes	Jennings, 1960
9	Stars; Adversaries; Producers and Phantoms	Morrow and Stern, 1988
10	Inventor; Developer; Catalyst; Performer; Protector; Challenger	Lippitt, 1999
11	Craftsman; Jungle fighter; Gamesman	Maccoby, 1979

Source: adapted from Bass, 1990; Bass and Bass, 2008

Table 4: types of leadership: crowds and mobs, students, and educators

#	Types of Leadership	References
Crowds and Mobs		
1	Crowd compeller; Crowd exponent; Crowd representative	Conway, 1915
Student Leaders		
1	Social climber; Intellectual success; Good fellow; Big Athlete; Leader in student activities	Spaulding, 1934
Educational Leaders		
1	Autocrat; Cooperator; Elder statesman; Eager beaver; Pontifical type; Muddled person; Loyal staff person; prophet; Scientist; Mystic; Dogmatist; Open-minded person; Philosopher; Business Expert; Benevolent despot; Child protector; Laissez-faire type; Community-minded person; Cynic; Optimist; Democrat	Harding, 1949

Source: adapted from Bass, 1990; Bass and Bass, 2008

Finally, in Table 6, we present the types of leadership themed by (i) Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 2000); (ii) Advanced Communication Technology (ACT); (iii) leaders' roles, and (iv) based on Situational Theory, as follows:

Table 5: leadership styles based on EI, ACT, and Role

#	Types of Leadership	References
Based on Emotional Intelligence (EI)		
1	Coercive; Authoritative; Affiliative; Democratic; Pacesetter; Coaching	Goleman, 2000
Based on Advanced Communication Technology (ACT)		
2	E-leader	Zaccaro and Bader, 2003
Based on the leader's role		
3	Formal; Informal	Pielstick; 2000
Based on Situational Theory		
4	delegating; participating; selling; telling	Hersey and Blanchard, 1969

Source: adapted from Goleman, 2000; Zaccaro and Bader, 2003; Pielstick; 2000; Hersey and Blanchard, 1969

4.1. Traits or personality?

Perhaps the most discussed aspect of Leadership in the XX century was whether leaders are influenced by traits or personality. Traits are defined as the "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself" (APA, 2010, p.686). Traits are consistent characteristics in individual behavior, such as envy, honesty, shyness, and jealousy. For instance, see Table 3 the following leadership styles: (i) Patriarch; (ii) Tyrant; (iii) Ideal; (iv) Scapegoat; (v) Organizer; (vi) Seducer; (vii) Hero; (viii) Bad or Good Influence (Redl, 1948). Conversely, personality "refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving." (APA, 2010, p. 285). For instance, see Table 4, (i) Charismatic; (ii) Transformational (Klein & House,

1995), or (iii) Inventor; (iv) Developer; (v) Catalyst; (vi) Performer; (vii) Protector; (viii) Challenger (Lippitt, 1999).

4.2. Cognitive or Behavioral?

The previous discussion assumes that a trait is observable. Previous studies considered the observable behavior of leaders influencing the behavior of the followers (Bass, 1990). For example, see in Table 2 the following leadership styles: (i) Autocratic; (ii) Democratic; Executive; Reflective-Intellectual (Bogardus, 1918). However, in the last decades of the XX century, the cognitive approach to Leadership became prominent. For example, see Table 5, (i) Coercive; (ii) Authoritative; (iii) Affiliative; (iv) Democratic; (v) Pacesetting; (vi) Coaching (Goleman, 2000).

4.3. Situational or Transformational?

With the Contingency Theory, Fiedler (1964) stressed the importance of external factors. Leaders should make different decisions, adapting to different circumstances, followed by Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1977) Situational Theory. Observe in Table 6 the following leadership styles: (i) delegating; (ii) participating; (iii) selling, and (iv) telling. Finally, Burns (1978) considered the contingency approach of Leadership static. They argued that leaders were able to manifest different leadership styles, concerned with the power relationship (transactional Leadership), or concerned with the positive change of the followers (transforming Leadership), later transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985). For instance, note the leadership styles in Table 5 (i) Charismatic; (ii) Transformational (Klein & House, 1995).

4.4. Eye-to-eye or Remote?

The traditional face-to-face Leadership has suffered a drastic impact with the ongoing Covid-19 pandemic. In remote leadership, leaders and followers are physically distant, connected electronically. However, leaders are forced to deal with virtual teams and face the same leadership dilemmas in artificial scenarios. E-leaders have to overcome some additional challenges in asynchronous communication: the lack of visual cues on body language, replaced by emoticons and emojis, which are not reliable indicators of emotions. Finally, parties may be tempted to lie when not in the presence of others (Dias, 2020). Regarding synchronous communication, the challenges and pitfalls to the virtual communications are not limited to: (a) lack of visual cues due to poor illumination; (b) background noise; (c) poor quality of the video, audio, or both, due to external factors, such as (d) unstable Wi-Fi and (e) interference in the signal from the wireless network; (f) high CPU usage; (g) low video memory; (h) high bandwidth usage; (i) low internet connection speed (j) physical connectivity issues, (k) white noises, (l) malfunctioning devices, (m) power failure, (n) software limitations, among others.

Conversely, e-leaders are provided with a new range of possibilities: (i) the capacity to quickly discuss one-on-one with workers, clients, and providers; (ii) to reduce operational costs with travel and accommodation expenses; (iii) the capacity to utilize talent wherever it is located; (iv) “the opportunity to enhance organizational performance by assembling better multi-functional teams, and to improve better customer satisfaction by using the —follow the sun! methodology; (v) the ability to cut costs; and, the scope for better knowledge management.” (DasGupta, 2011, p.1)

In addition, some additional challenges e-leaders may face: (i) the absence of physical contact and how to build trust and convey enthusiasm through virtual communications; (ii) family, friends, and even pet distractions; (iii) the increase in workload, disrespecting work hours. Finally, E-leaders have to devise effective strategies for coping with stress, grief, anxiety, and other mental health issues that somehow affected their followers during and after the COVID-19 pandemic.

5. Summary

The observations from the previous discussions are summarized as follows: there are functional differences between leadership styles, including both cognitive and behavioral aspects; traits are considered predictors of leadership styles; the studies on Leadership evolved from psychological traits to personality styles, including

situational factors and cognitive aspects, throughout time. Finally, remote leaders face additional dilemmas than eye-to-eye Leadership, such as technical issues and the uncharted effects of COVID-19, which somehow affect the mental health and morale of both leaders and followers.

6. Implications and Research limitations

We developed a shared understanding of leadership styles and theories throughout this article. Variations in conceptualizations have led to several issues. For instance, the contingency approach, which is straightforward and provides clear recommendations, considers leaders performing the same leadership style in different situations (Fiedler, 1964). This study is limited, however, to styles and theories of leadership. Other issues, such as personality, traits, and ethics, to name a few, are not part of the present research and should be investigated separately. The article has implications in several fields of research, not limited to: (i) business negotiations (Dias, M., Leitão, R., Batista, R., Medeiros, D. 2022; Cunha, N., and Dias, M., 2021; Dias, 2020b); (ii) COVID-19 and performance (Dias, M., Lopes, R., Teles, A., 2020; Dias, M., Lopes, R., 2020); (iii) companies' internationalization (Silva. G.B., Dias, M., 2022; Dias, M.; Pereira, L; Vieira, P., 2022; Silva. G.B., Melo, R.C, Dias, M., 2022), among others.

7. Conclusion and Future research

New themes emerged from the literature review based on careful consideration of previous conceptualizations, arguments, and theories presented by past researchers in the field, such as the remote leadership style. By understanding Leadership theories and styles through more condensed approaches, we believe it is possible to reduce somehow the confusion that has contaminated leadership research for more than a century, paving the way for future research. Furthermore, both examination and practice will be upgraded as practitioners and analysts will be working with mutual perspectives of these complex concepts. Finally, this article will permit more noteworthy similarities between research findings, advance examination in ignored areas frequently, and improve the theoretical grounding for future interventions and estimation, such as the impact of remote leadership on task performance during and after the pandemic.

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