A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW ON LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE, LEADERSHIP STYLES, AND EMPLOYEES' ENGAGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

The effectiveness of leadership began at few of the centers in Iowa 1930, Michigan and Ohio states during 1940's and 1950's (Avolio et al., 2009). Fisher (1985) & Chowdhury (2014) pointed out that "Leadership is probably the most written about the social phenomenon of all time" and express with grief that it is still not well understood due to its complexity, defined by the number of variables associated with the concept of leadership, variables that encompass the entire social process. Researchers on leadership focused on personality and traits of leaders, situational and contingencies factors that affected leadership and behavior styles, transformational, charismatic and transactional leadership. At the end of the twentieth century, attempts were made to look at various models and competence of leadership to integrate and into a broader framework called "full range theory of leadership" (Avolio, 1999& Avolio.et.al., 2009).

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is one of the terms that researchers have attempted to understand or define it. Today leadership is the most studied and least understood topic, since we assume that it's a life's phenomenon which is complex and mysterious (Almohaimeed, 2014). Since the early 20th century, leadership has constantly been redefined by a number of leadership theories having been proposed based on different theoretical perspectives by various researchers. There is no specific or single definition for leadership and it's a complex as various literature and research studies on leadership are varied and there is no definition that is accepted universally. Most definitions have a common theme of directing a group towards a goal. Shastri, Shashi Mishra & Sinha (2010) & Keskes (2014) define leadership as "the relationship between an individual and a group based on common interest and they behave as per the directions of the leader". According to Yukl (1994), "leadership is the process of influencing followers".

Moreover, Cole (2005) & Chowdhury (2014) define leadership as a "dynamic process whereby one man influences other to contribute voluntarily to the realization and attainment of the objectives towards the common goal". Leaders play an important role in the attainment of organizational goals by creating a climate that would influence employee's attitudes, motivation, and behavior. Similarly, employees greatly affect the outputs of the organization.

Leadership Competence

Not all intelligence proposed by Gardner (1983) suitable for leadership competencies. Aside from the proposed theory, there are many other intelligences that is more suitable in order to develop leadership competencies. This paper intended to create a conceptual framework to relate multiple intelligences that include social intelligence, emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence; with the organization performance.
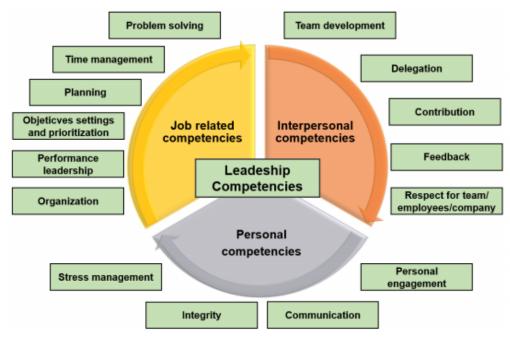
Figure 1. Leadership Competence (Robescu, 2021)

Social Intelligence

The definition of social intelligence as suggested by Canter & Kihlstrom (1987), as being collected information of people and behaviour chronology within particular settings. It comprises the rules that present to the use of information and action planning. There are arguments that successful leaders have a high standard of social intelligence that results in perceptions of social needs accurately and the good choice of appropriate behavioural responses (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). Further, a leader with social intelligence is able to give various feedbacks along with situational demands. The stemmed competencies from standard social intelligence are vital both for the interpretation of social problems and for the following generation and execution of effective solutions (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Fleishman, & Reiter-Palmon, 1991).

Bass and Zaccaro (2002) defined social intelligence as the capability to diverse social circumstances by reading and adapting to the situation. Leaders who are socially intelligent need to hold the attributes to discover the required expertise for the task besides making themselves aware to understand social signs, and handle their actions to be appropriate to influence the relevant views of others within the group members. It is stated that "alertness to the surrounding environment and understanding of situations are intimately associated with leadership ability" (1948). Two criteria that need to be possessed by a true successful leader are behavioural flexibility and social perceptiveness. The skills are necessary for a leader in order to responds to the necessary social situations that vary. Bass (2001) stated that a leader who have gained a strong social intelligence would have the traits characteristics and the traits comprise capacity for status, stress tolerance, sociability, self-confidence, oral communication skills, and organizational problem-solving social dynamics of understanding (Bass, 2001). Conger and Kanungo has introduced a behavioral model of charismatic leadership. The first step of the model presupposes the status quo of the leader measurement of the existing state of situation.

Conger (1999) stated that based on the model, to be a leader with good charisma, one should be able to estimate the "inclinations, abilities, needs, and level of satisfaction experienced by followers" accurately.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence The topic on emotional intelligence has been popular among leadership researchers. There are many related articles written to study the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. The definition of emotional intelligence is the realization and capability to manage the emotions of others, and to understand their emotions (Caruso et al., 2001; Goleman, 2000). This intelligence consists of the abilities to recognize the internal emotions, facilitate actions using emotions, to get the definition of emotional cues and to understand it, and also to control other people's emotions. Besides that, the definition refers to the traits for instance, sensitivity, awareness, empathy, and conscientiousness of other people requirement (Bass, 2001). Other than that, emotional intelligence has been the centre of study to investigate the connections between exhibition transformational leadership manners and the facets of intelligence.

In general, studies on emotional intelligence found that this intelligence is significant to be a forecaster of transformational leadership methods (Hartsfield, 2003; Sosik and Megerian, 1999, Mandell and Pherwani, 2003; Ashkanasy and Tse, 2000). However, inconsistency in results has been found from the specific facets of transformational leadership. To be more specific, a leader who takes

an interest in each staff in an individual level is viewed as individually considerate, in both professionally and personally way, also of the requirement of individual followers. For an effective exhibition of this element, leaders who going to transform the organization must have the capacity to recognize or to relate with others emotionally and furnish instinctive insight and counsel where suitable.

Cognitive Intelligence

From various opinions, cognitive intelligence is the skills related to intellectual skill and problem-solving skill. Leaders must be mentally sharp in orders to inspire people and this is crucial to bring the productive change and solve problem creatively. As a leader, one must have the skill to think critically especially in decision making process. Cognitive intelligence includes aptitudes, for instance, to deal with conceptual abstract and complicated problem solving. In addition, cognitive intelligence appears to be most likely explained a leader's capability to intellectually boost the companions. For an individual to become an effective leader, a strong problem-solving skill is needed as to act as a role model who become a successor going through a string of problem solving. Other than that, the skill is needed in order to confront the objective reasoning abilities, and lastly to determine the needed resources to permit work from others innovatively and creatively. To put it differently, a leader himself should possess the cognitive intelligence so that he can encourage a meticulous-problem solving and creativity in his support staffs. It will be hard for a leader to stimulate and challenge others' cognitive ability without having a strong cognitive skill.

Boyatzis (2009) came out with the empirical framework for cognitive intelligence whereby it is the system thinking that perceiving multiple casual relationships in understanding an event. It is said that leaders with high cognitive intelligence are able to make a good decision and can lead the organization to success. According to cognitive intelligence focus, decision making can be good by assembling all the relevant data, analysing it and then using logical reasoning to come up with the best plan of action. It's all about how the way the leader think. Based on Martin Luther's King characteristics, it can be seen that there is a connection between cognitive intelligence and leadership. There are five cognitive factors that has been suggested which are: 1) Openness to experience, 2) farsightedness and conceptual thinking, 3) knowledge of the business group and task, 4) creativity and, 5) insight into people and situation.

Interpersonal Intelligence

Gardner (1983) defined interpersonal intelligence as the capacity to understand and communicate effectively with others. It involves effective communication either verbally or non-verbally, sensitivity to moods and temperaments, and the ability to understand multiple viewpoints. Interpersonal intelligence is particularly needed by a leader as it is the capability to understand people's intentions, motivations, and desires. This intelligence allows individuals to work well with others. For today's leadership in organization, it is important than ever to have strong interpersonal skills. Several recent studies cite interpersonal skills as a critical element in the selection of leaders in today's organizations. Organizations that used to rely on command and control now rely on empowerment and commitment. Building interpersonal working relationships is discussed.

Interpersonal intelligence is required by a leader to manage the key areas of build a team-oriented employee. There are 3 focuses area which include to get supports from top management for teams, the motivational surroundings for which the leader is responsible, and handling difficulties that about to happen. From the focused area suggested, there are 3 stages to win the executive responsibility to teams is developed. The first stage is to educate the senior officials in the team learning. Secondly is to show them how the work will be done by the teams and last stage is to keep them thoroughly enlightened on the status of the team's work at all times. Interpersonal intelligence or human skill, is the leader's potential to work with other people and this includes all management level such as subordinates, peers, and superiors; they have to skill to help people to work cooperatively toward a common goal of the organization. These skills include motivating employees, communication and active listening, persuasion, and building trust (Kearns et al., 2015).

Intrapersonal Intelligence

From past study, it has been found that intrapersonal competencies are the companion of interpersonal skills hold by leaders. The professionals have considered that intelligent quotient (IQ), or easily understand with the term general intelligence, grants to less than 25% of one's holistic outcome success. In contrast with leaders' cognitive capabilities, the bigger dimensions to which leaders are able of recognizing and fulfilling job satisfactory needs of the staff can be a noteworthy criterion of their emotional intelligence. Organizational performance can be impacted by the staff's sense of job satisfactions and there is a few research found out that the intrapersonal intelligence of a leader can be a factor that led to this positively.

Self-acknowledgement is essential for a leader in order to approach their own feelings and for them to be able to distinguish and draw upon a guiding action in their organizations. More emerging research need to be studies on intrapersonal intelligence of. Intrapersonal competencies give the power to a leader in order to "detect and symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings" (Gardner, 1983) in enhancing the personal behavior to inscribe the satisfactory requirement of the staffs. Intrapersonal intelligence also consists of the assessment and knowledge of individual personal feelings (Taylor & Bagby, 2000). There are six keys of interpersonal competencies of collegial leaders identified by Manser (2005). The keys are optimism, self-expression, self-awareness, self-confidence, self-control, and adaptability (Singh, Manser & Dali, 2013).

Leadership Theories

Great-Man Theory. The effort toward explorations for common traits of leadership is protracted over centuries as most cultures need heroes to define their successes and to justify their failures. In 1847, Thomas Carlyle stated in the best interests of the heroes that "universal history, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at the bottom of the history of the great men who have worked here". Carlyle claimed in his "great man theory" that leaders are born and that only those men who are endowed with heroic potentials could ever become the leaders. He opined those great men were born, not made. An American philosopher, Sidney Hook, further expanded Carlyle perspective highlighting the impact which could be made by the eventful man vs. the event-making

man (Dobbins & Platz, (1986). He proposed that the eventful man remained complex in a historic situation, but did not really determine its course. On the other hand, he maintained that the actions of the event-making man influenced the course of events, which could have been much different, had he not been involved in the process. The event making man's role based on "the consequences of outstanding capacities of intelligence, will and character rather than the actions of distinction". However, subsequent events unfolded that this concept of leadership was morally flawed, as was the case with Hitler, Napoleon, and the like, thereby challenging the credibility of the Great Man theory.

These great men became irrelevant and consequently growth of the organizations, stifled (MacGregor, 2003). "The passing years have given the coup de grace to another force the great man who with brilliance and farsightedness could preside with dictatorial powers as the head of a growing organization but in the process retarded democratization". Leadership theory then progressed from dogma that leaders are born or are destined by nature to be in their role at a particular time to a reflection of certain traits that envisage a potential for leadership.

Trait Theory. The early theorists opined that born leaders were endowed with certain physical traits and personality characteristics which distinguished them from non-leaders. Trait theories ignored the assumptions about whether leadership traits were genetic or acquired. Jenkins identified two traits; emergent traits (those which are heavily dependent upon heredity) as height, intelligence, attractiveness, and self-confidence and effectiveness traits (based on experience or learning), including charisma, as fundamental component of leadership (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Max Weber termed charisma as "the greatest revolutionary force, capable of producing a completely new orientation through followers and complete personal devotion to leaders they perceived as endowed with almost magical supernatural, superhuman qualities and powers". This initial focus on intellectual, physical and personality traits that distinguished non-leaders from leaders portended research that maintained that only minor variances exist between followers and leaders (Burns, 2003). The failure in detecting the traits which every single effective leader had in common, resulted in development of trait theory, as an inaccessible component, falling into disfavor. In the late 1940s, scholars studied the traits of military and non-military leaders respectively and exposed the significance of certain traits developing at certain times.

Contingency Theories (Situational). The theories of contingency recommends that no leadership style is precise as a stand-alone as the leadership style used is reliant upon the factors such as the quality, situation of the followers or a number of other variables. "According to this theory, there is no single right way to lead because the internal and external dimensions of the environment require the leader to adapt to that particular situation". In most cases, leaders do not change only the dynamics and environment, employees within the organization change. In a common sense, the theories of contingency are a category of behavioral theory that challenges that there is no one finest way of leading/organizing and that the style of leadership that is operative in some circumstances may not be effective in others (Greenleaf, 1977).

Contingency theorists assumed that the leader was the focus of leader-subordinate relationship; situational theorists opined that the subordinates played a pivotal role in defining the relationship. Though, the situational leadership stays to emphasis mostly upon the leader, it creates the significance of the focus into group dynamic. "These studies of the relationships between groups and their leaders have led to some of our modern theories of group dynamics and leadership". The theory of situational leadership proposes that style of leadership should be accorded with the maturity of the subordinates (Bass, 1997). "The situational leadership model, first introduced in 1969, theorized that there was no unsurpassed way to lead and those leaders, to be effective, must be able to adapt to the situation and transform their leadership style between task-oriented and relationship oriented".

Style and Behavior Theory. The style theory acknowledges the significance of certain necessary leadership skills that serve as enabler for a leader who performs an act while drawing its parallel with previous capacity of the leader, prior to that particular act while suggesting that each individual has a distinct style of leadership with which he/she feels most contented. Like one that does not fit all heads, similarly one style cannot be effective in all situations. Yukl (1989) introduced three different leadership styles. The employees serving with democratic leaders displayed high degree of satisfaction, creativity, and motivation; working with great enthusiasm and energy irrespective of the presence or absence of the leader; maintaining better connections with the leader, in terms of productivity whereas, autocratic leaders mainly focused on greater quantity of output. Laissez faire leadership was only considered relevant while leading a team of highly skilled and motivated people who excellent track-record, in the past.

Feidler & House (1994) identified two additional leadership styles focusing effectiveness of the leadership. These researchers opined that consideration (concern for people and relationship behaviors) and commencing structure (concern for production and task behaviors) were very vital variables. The consideration is referred to the amount of confidence and rapport, a leader engenders in his subordinates. Whereas, initiating structure, on the other hand, reflects the extent, to which the leader structures, directs and defines his/her own and the subordinates" roles as they have the participatory role toward organizational performance, profit and accomplishment of the mission. Different researchers proposed that three types of leaders, they were; autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Without involving subordinates, the autocratic leader makes decisions, laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and hence takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position and the democratic leader accesses his subordinates then take his decision. "He further assumed that all leaders could fit into one of these three categories".

Process Leadership Theory. Additional leadership theories with a process focus include servant leadership, leaming organizations, principal centered leadership and charismatic leadership, with others emerging every year. Greenleaf introduced servant leadership in the early 1970s. A resurgence of the discussion of servant leadership was noted in the early 1990s.

Servant leaders were encouraged to be focused to the anxieties of the followers and the leader should sympathize with them take-care of and nurture them. The leadership was imparted on a person who was by nature a servant. "The servant leader focuses on the needs of the follower and helps them to become more autonomous freer and knowledgeable". The servant leader is also

more concerned with the "have-nots" and recognizes them as equal (Greenleaf, 1996). The leaders in leading organizations are to be the steward (servant) of the vision of the organization and not a servant of the people within the organization. Leaders in learning organizations clarify and nurture the vision and consider it to be greater than one-self. The leader aligns themselves or their vision with others in the organization or community at large.

These process leadership theories and others that have emerged often suggest that the work of leaders is to contribute to the well-being of others with a focus on some form of social responsibility. There appears to be a clear evolution in the study of leadership. Leadership theory has moved from birth traits and rights, to acquired traits and styles, to situational and relationship types of leadership, to the function of groups and group processes and, currently, to the interaction of the group members with an emphasis on personal and organizational function of groups and group processes and, currently, to the interaction of the group members with an emphasis on personal and organizational moral improvements (Yammarino, 1999).

Transactional Theory. The leadership theories, by the late 1970s and early 1980s, activated to diverge from the specific perspectives of the leader, leadership context and the follower and toward practices that concentrated further on the exchanges between the followers and leaders. The transactional leadership was described as that in which leader-follower associations were grounded upon a series of agreements between followers and leaders (House & Shamir, 1993). The transactional theory was "based on reciprocity where leaders not only influence followers but are under their influence as well". Some studies revealed that transactional leadership show a discrepancy with regard to the level of leaders" action and the nature of the relations with the followers.

Bass and Avolio (1994) observed 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". From the leader, these rewards might implicate gratitude for merit increases, bonuses and work achievement. For good work, positive support could be exchanged, merit pay for promotions, increased performance and cooperation for collegiality. The leaders could instead focus on errors, avoid responses and delay decisions. This attitude is stated as the "management-by-exception" and could be categorized as passive or active transactions. The difference between these two types of transactions is predicated on the timing of the leaders" involvement. In the active form, the leader continuously monitors performance and attempts to intervene proactively (Avolio & Bass, 1997).

Transformational Theory. Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from the rest of the previous and contemporary theories, on the basis of its alignment to a greater good as it entails involvement of the followers in processes or activities related to personal factor towards the organization and a course that will yield certain superior social dividend. The transformational leaders raise the motivation and morality of both the follower and the leader (House & Shamir, 1993). It is considered that the transformational leaders "engage in interactions with followers based on common values, beliefs and goals". This impacts the performance leading to the attainment of goal. As per Bass, transformational leader, "attempts to induce followers to reorder their needs by transcending self-interests and strive for higher order needs". This theory conforms the Maslow (1954) higher order needs theory. Transformational leadership is a course that changes and approach targets on beliefs, values and attitudes that enlighten leaders" practices and the capacity to lead change. The literature suggests that followers and leaders set aside personal interests for the benefit of the group. The leader is then asked to focus on followers' needs and input in order to transform everyone into a leader by empowering and motivating them (House & Aditya, 1997).

Emphasis from the previously defined leadership theories, the ethical extents of leadership further differentiate the transformational leadership. The transformational leaders are considered by their capability to identify the need for change, gain the agreement and commitment of others, create a vision that guides change and embed the change (MacGregor Bums, 2003). These types of leaders treat subordinates individually and pursue to develop their consciousness, morals and skills by providing significance to their work and challenge. These leaders produce an appearance of convincing and encouraged vision of the future. They are "visionary leaders who seek to appeal to their followers" better nature and move them toward higher and more universal needs and purposes" (MacGregor Bums, 2003).

Leadership Styles

Transactional Leadership Style. Transactional leadership style comprises three components; contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). A transactional leader follows the scheme of contingent rewards to explain performance expectation to the followers and appreciates good performance. Transactional leaders believe in contractual agreements as principal motivators (Bass, 1985) and use extrinsic rewards toward enhancing followers' motivation. The literature revealed that the "transactional style retards creativity and can adversely influence employees job satisfaction. Management-by-exception explains leaders' behavior with regards apt detection of deviations from expected followers' behavior.

The application of both styles varies from situation to situation and context to context. The situations entailing high degree of precision, technical expertise, time-constraints, particularly in technological intensive environment, we shall prefer transactional leadership whereas, in human-intensive environment, where focus is on influencing the followers through motivation and respecting their emotions on the basis of common goals, beliefs and values, preferable option is transformational leadership style (MacGregor Bums, 2003).

Contingent Reward. Contingent reward leadership focuses on achieving results. As humans appreciate concrete, tangible, material rewards in exchange of their efforts, thus, this behavior surfaced. "Where transformational leadership acknowledges individual talents and builds enthusiasm through emotional appeals, values, and belief systems, transactional leadership engenders compliance by appealing to the wants and needs of individuals" (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Manager leaders who use contingent reward are expected to show direction to the employees so the job gets done. In nutshell, key indicators of contingent reward encompass performance-based material rewards, direction- setting, reciprocity, and confidence-building in the team.

Management by Exception (Active). Management by exception (active) is not the relinquishment of leadership, characterized by a laissez-faire leadership. Leaders who follow management by exception (active) have an inherent trust in their workers to end the job to a satisfactory standard, and avoid rocking the boat. "This type of leadership does not inspire workers to achieve beyond expected outcomes, however, if target is achieved, that means the system has worked, everyone is satisfied, and the business continues as usual," (Bass & Avolio, 2004). There is a little sense of adventure or risk-taking, new perspectives, or white-water strategies in case of management by exception leaders. It corresponds need-driven change culture. To sum it up, management by exception (active) includes trust in workers, poor communication, maintenance of the status quo, and lack of confidence.

Management by Exception (Passive). "It is the style of transactional Leadership in which the leaders avoid specifying agreement, and fail to provide goals and standards to be achieved by staff. Sometimes, a leader waits for things to go wrong before taking action" (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership links with positive outcomes on individual as well as organizational levels. Transformational leaders embolden followers to attain higher-order needs like self-actualization, self-esteem (Bass, 1985), and are influential in surging followers' motivation in the direction of "self-sacrifice and achievement of organizational goals over personal interests (Bass, 1995). Leaders with Idealized Influence demonstrate heightened concerns and cognizance of followers' needs and generate a sense of shared risk-taking" (Jung et al., 2008). Inspirational Motivation affords a cradle of encouragement and challenges followers to achieve the set goals, whereas, Intellectual Stimulation inspires followers to be more creative and innovative in their problem-solving skills. Transformational leaders grade their relationships with followers very high in priority and demonstrate individualized consideration in meeting their needs for empowerment, achievement, enhanced self-efficacy and personal growth. Leadership styles, however, do not embrace all of the factors that influence innovation.

As per Cummings, Midodzi, Wong, and Estabrooks (2010), "leadership style alone could not be linked to patient mortality". Instead, the researchers examined that when the organization had associated and consistent organizational culture, patient mortality was on downward trajectory. Cummings et al., (2010) observed that regardless of style, "leaders who practiced relational and transformational styles had better quality outcomes than those who demonstrated autocracy".

Idealized Influence. It is the attribute of a leader which inspires followers to take their leader as a role model. Charisma is an alternate term which replaces idealized influence. Idealized influence creates values that inspire, establish sense, and engender a sense of purpose amongst people. Idealized influence is inspirational in nature. It builds attitudes about what is significant in life. Idealized influence is related with charismatic leadership (Yukl, 1999; Shamir et al., 1993).

Charismatic leaders instill self-confidence onto others. It is their demonstration of confidence in a follower's preparedness to make self-sacrifices and an aptitude to undertake exceptional goals which is an influential rousing force of idealized influence and role-modeling behavior (House and Shamir, 1993). Leaders with confidence in their employees can secure great accomplishments. Leaders with idealized influence are endowed with a constructive sense of self-determination.

Shamir (1993) showed that maintaining self-esteem is a powerful and pervasive social need. These leaders are high in the conviction, transform their followers through regular communication, presenting themselves as role model, and encouraging them toward "achieving the mission and goals of the company". They have requisite degree of emotional stability and control. "These leaders go beyond inner conflicts and direct their capacities to be masters of their own fate". As per Jhon Marshall (CEO, Solaris Power), transformational leaders' role of mentoring followers and learning about key responsibilities of leaders in the context of idealized behavior. Such leaders are learning leaders. In short, fundamental pointers of idealized influence are role-modeling, articulation and values-creation, providing sense of purpose, meaning, self-esteem, self-determination, emotional control and confidence in followers.

Inspirational Motivation. Developing the consciousness of followers, aligning them towards the organizational mission and vision, and motivating others in understanding and pledging to the vision is a key dimension of the transformational leadership style of inspirational motivation. "Inspirational motivation targets at the principle of organizational existence, instead of personality of the leader" (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Instead of suffocating employees, a leader with this style, encourages the employees in the organizational pursuit drawing best out of them. The prevention of "experimentation and hampering creativity only frustrate employees who want to positively and productively contribute to the organization". Leaders equipped with this style encourage the employees rendering them more autonomy to make decisions without supervision and providing them the tools to make these decisions. The leaders using this behavior set high standard for followers besides communicating their vision in unambiguous ways, and encouraging them to develop beyond the normal situations for their own and organizational growth (House and Shamir, 1993). The successful executives are always active with their people by inspiring, rewarding and correcting them and by replacing them, if they fail, thereby, creating opportunities for others. In short, leaders with inspirational motivation behavior create vision, establish communication and manage challenging workers by encouraging, working with them and giving them autonomy.

Intellectual Stimulation. Leaders with characteristics of intellectual stimulation are those who "intellectually stimulate followers, engender creativity and accept challenges as part of their job". They maintain their emotional balance, and rationally deal with complex problems. They cultivate the similar skills in their workers as well. They develop problem solving techniques in the followers for making complex decisions, reflecting a mutual consensus between leaders and employees. "The intellectual stimulation leadership approach projects in large measure the mentoring, coaching, morale-building strengths of individualized consideration". Both leadership approaches build organizational skills as well as character, similar to caring leadership behaviors that coach and challenge (House and Shamir, 1993). "In other words, leaders with this leadership approach require first to unravel the complexities of the challenge, develop sense of direction towards what it means for them and their workers prior to promoting worker involvement in the challenge".

There are different levels of intellects and encouragement to work actively. It is an ability to intellectually stimulate the workers and a propensity to get involved actively in the work. "In nutshell, the key indicators of the intellectual stimulation are rationality, creativity, consensus decision-making, coaching, supporting, challenging, and involvement". IV. Individualized Consideration. Individualized consideration is concerned with the basic transformational leadership behaviors of regarding individuals as fundamental contributors to the work place. Such leaders display concern for their workers" needs, and are equipped to boost and coach the development of desired workplace behavior. Their role alternates from participatory to autocratic style. In short, "fundamental elements of individualized consideration consist of reassurance, caring for and coaching of individuals and an open and consultative approach".

Employees' Engagement

Employee engagement is a complex, broad construct that subsumes many well researched ideas such as commitment, satisfaction, loyalty and extra role behavior. An engaged employee extends themselves to meet the organization's needs, takes initiative, reinforces and supports the organization's culture and values, stays focused and vigilant, and believes he/she can make a difference (Macey, 2006). In practice, organizations typically define engagement as being a part of the organization, having pride and loyalty in the company, being committed, and going "above and beyond the call of duty". Kahn (1990) defined employee engagement as 'the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles. In engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.

The cognitive aspect of employee engagement concerns employees' beliefs about the organization, its leaders and working conditions. The emotional aspect concerns how employees feel about each of those three factors and whether they have positive or negative attitudes toward the organization and its leaders. The physical aspect of employee engagement concerns the physical energies exerted by individuals to accomplish their roles. Thus, according to Kahn (1990), engagement means to be psychologically as well as physically present when occupying and performing an organizational role. Engaged employees work with passion and feel a profound connection to their company. They drive innovation and move the organization forward (Gallup, 2004). In contrast to this, not-engaged employees are sleepwalking through their workday, putting time—but not energy or passion—into their work. They don't have productive relationships with their managers or with their coworkers. Actively disengaged employees aren't just unhappy at work; they are busy acting out their unhappiness. Every day, these workers undermine what their engaged coworkers accomplish. Most often employee engagement has been defined as emotional and intellectual commitment to the organization (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006; and Shaw, 2005) or the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their job (Frank et al. 2004).

Development Dimensions International (DDI, 2005) defined engagement "The extent to which people value, enjoy, and believe in what they do". It also states that its measure is similar to employee satisfaction and loyalty. A leader, according to DDI, must do five things to create a highly engaged workforce. They are: align efforts with strategy; empower people; promote and encourage teamwork and collaboration; help people grow and develop; and provide support and recognition where appropriate. Robinson et al. (2004) defined engagement similar to the established constructs such as 'organizational commitment' and 'organizational citizenship behavior' (OCB). It is a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its values. An engaged employee is aware of the business context and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. According to Maslach et al. (2001), six areas of work-life lead to either burnout or engagement: workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness and values.

They argue that job engagement is associated with a sustainable workload, feelings of choice and control, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work community, fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work. Like burnout, engagement is expected to mediate the link between these six work-life factors and various work outcomes. Corporate leadership Council (2004) defined employee engagement as "the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization, how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment". It is a desirable condition, where an organizational connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy among employees. So, it has both attitudinal and behavioral components (Erickson, 2005).

Engagement is the measure of an employee's emotional and intellectual commitment to their organization and its success. It is an outcome of employees' organizational experiences that are characterized by behaviors that are grouped in to three categories: say, stay and strive (Hewitt, 2005). For Seijts and Crim (2006), employee engagement means a person who is fully involved in, and enthusiastic about, his or her work. Engaged employees care about the future of the company and are willing to invest the discretionary effort to see that the organization succeeds.

Brown (2006) viewed engagement as a progressive combination of satisfaction, motivation, commitment and advocacy resulting from employees' movement up the engagement pyramid. Employee engagement can be considered as cognitive, emotional and behavioral. Cognitive engagement refers to employees' beliefs about the company, its leaders and the workplace culture. The emotional aspect is how employees feel about the company, the leaders and their colleagues. The behavioral factor is the value-added component reflected in the amount of effort employees put into their work (Lockwood, 2007). Mone and London (2010) defined employee engagement is "a condition of employee who feels involved, committed, passionate, and empowered and demonstrates those feelings in work behavior". It is thus the level of commitment and involvement an employee has towards their organization and its values. The organization must work to develop and nurture engagement, which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee. Thus, employee engagement is a barometer that determines the association of a person with the organization.

CONCLUSION

Hence, leadership is a set of behaviors used to help people align their collective direction, to execute strategic plans, and to continually renew both public and private organization. Leaders provide guidance, inspiration, and motivation when achieving goals. They help to cre-

ate a vision and rally people around a common cause. In addition, leaders possess the necessary skills and knowledge to make informed decisions and solve problems effectively.

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