

Conceptual study Revolving leadership - a management prospect

Metwally. Ayman ,^aEl Saghier. Niveen ,Sobhy. Ahmed

Dr. Ayman Metwally
Chairman of the Marketing and International Business Department
Associate Professor of Business Administration
College of Management and Technology
The Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport (AASTMT). Egypt ,
Alexandria,Miami

Dr. Niveen El Saghier

Assistant Professor of Business Administration
College of Management and Technology
The Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport (AASTMT). Egypt ,
Alexandria,Miami
niveenmohamed@yahoo.com

Dr. Ahmed Sobhy

Chairman of Discourse Research Center

Visiting Professor

The Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport (AASTMT).
dr.ahmedsobhi@gmail.com

1.INTRODUCTION

El- Kaffash (1996 a) (1) suggested the concept revolving leadership as a new paradigm with more explanatory power to understand the Islamic state in history. El- Kaffash suggested that the political field was not their main field of leadership and that there were other fields like the social, the communal, the economic, the scientific and the religious are more prominent fields in the society. Each of these fields has its own epistemological sphere (episteme) as well as its own leaders, and according to the time and space of any event, the leadership revolves among these leaders.

El- Kaffash (1996 b) (2) has suggested a new model for understanding and categorizing art according to its effect and influence on the human being. Combining these two models and transplanting them in managerial sciences the author is trying to open a new conceptual framework for understanding and enhancing management. Let us first go through different theories of management.

1.1 DIFFERENT THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT:

1.1.1 Definitions of management: "Management is a multi-purpose organ that manages business and manages managers and manages workers and work." (3) "To manage is to forecast and to plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control." (4) "Management is the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized groups."(5)

1.1.2 Management – Historical background:

1.1.1.1 Henri Fayol (1841 - 1925):

Fayol was the first person to actually give a definition of management which is generally familiar today namely 'forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control'. Fayol also gave much of the basic terminology and concepts, which would be elaborated upon by future researchers, such as division of labour, scalar chain, unity of command and centralization. Fayol was describing the structure of formal organizations.

1.1.1.2 F W Taylor - (1856 - 1915) - The Scientific Management School:

Taylorism involved breaking down the components of manual tasks in manufacturing environments, timing each movement ('time and motion' studies) so that there could be a proven best way to perform each task. Thus employees could be trained to be 'first class' within their job. This type of management was particularly relevant to performance drives e.g. 'Action On' projects.

1.1.1.3 Max Weber (1864 - 1924):

Bureaucracy in this context is the organizational form of certain dominant characteristics such as a hierarchy of authority and a system of rules.

Bureaucracy in a sense of red tape or officialdom should not be used as these meanings are value-ridden and only emphasize very negative aspects of the original Max Weber model.

Through analyses of organizations Weber identified three basic types of legitimate authority: Traditional, Charismatic, and Rational-Legal.

Authority has to be distinguished from power in this discussion. Power is a unilateral thing - it enables a person to force another to behave in a certain way, whether by means of strength or by rewards. Authority, on the other hand, implies acceptance of the rules by those over whom it is to be exercised within limits agreeable to the subordinates that Weber refers to in discussing legitimate authority.

1.1.3 Human Relations Theories

1.1.1.1 Elton Mayo (1880 – 1949): Hawthorns studies

Where Classical theorists were concerned with structure and mechanics of organizations, the theorists of human relations were, understandably, concerned with the human factors.

The foci of human relations theory is on motivation, group motivation and leadership.
At the center of these foci are assumptions about relationship between employer and employee.

1.1.1.2 NEO_RELATIONS THEORY

1.1.1.3 Maslow (1908 - 1970): hierarchy of needs:

Maslow proposed a hierarchy of human needs building from basic needs at the base to higher needs at the top.

Maslow made assumptions that people need to satisfy each level of need, before elevating their needs to the next higher level e.g. a hungry person's need is dominated by a need to eat (i.e. survival), but not to be loved, until he/she is no longer hungry.

1.1.1.4 Douglas McGregor (1906 – 1964): Theory X and Theory Y:

McGregor identifies two main types of individual for managers to consider and how to motivate.

1.1.1.5 Rensis Likert (1903 – 1981):

Likert Described 'new patterns of management' based on the behaviors of managers. Essentially Likert's work gives more alternatives in the spectrum between Theory X and Theory Y of McGregor.

1.1.2.6 Chris Argyris (1923):

1.1.2.7 Argyris Studied the needs of people and the needs of organisation. He felt that classical models of organisation promoted 'immaturity'. He felt that it was important to understand the needs of people and integrate them with needs of organisation. Only in this way, he said, can employees become co-operative rather than defensive or aggressive.

From all of the above we can conclude that management is all about authority and concentration of power or assigning power to different sectors.

1.1.3 DIFFERENT VIEWS OS STRATEGY:

1.1.3.1 Definition of strategy:

The concept of strategy has been borrowed from the military and adapted for use in business. A review of what noted writers about business strategy have to say suggests that adopting the concept was easy because the adaptation required has been modest. In business, as in the military, strategy bridges the gap between policy and tactics. Together, strategy and tactics bridge the gap between ends and means. (6)

1.1.3.2 M. E. Porter: 'What Is Strategy?'

Porter claims in 1996 that not all business decisions are strategic. Decisions can only be defined as strategic if they involve consciously doing something 'differently' from competitors and if that difference results in a sustainable advantage. To be sustainable it must be difficult to imitate. Activities which simply increase productivity by making existing methods more efficient ('operational efficiency') are not strategic since they can be easily copied by others. (7)

1.1.3.3 R. Whittington: 'Theories of Strategy'

Whittington introduces us to four different perspectives on strategy: the classical perspective, the evolutionary perspective, the procession perspective and the systemic perspective. The classical perspective assumes that the manager has near to complete control over how to allocate the internal and

external resources of the firm, and can thus manipulate the internal organization of the firm to better suit these objectives. In this view, strategic behavior is guided by rationality, opportunism and self-interest.

1.1.3.4 H. Mintzberg and J. A. Waters: 'Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent'

Mintzberg and Waters explore the process by which strategies form within organizations. They compare intended strategies (strategies that come from a planning process) with realized strategies (what the organization actually did). They provide a framework to study the difference between these two concepts through a continuum where at one end lays the completely planned strategy and at the other end lays the completely emergent strategy. In the planned strategy, intentions are very clear and directly translated into actions. In emergent strategies, decisions emerge from bargaining, chance and positive feedback. An example is the strategy based on consensus. In the middle of these two extremes lie what the authors call the entrepreneurial, ideological and umbrella strategies. Instead of saying that any one type of strategy is better than the other, the authors claim that what is best depends on the nature of the organization. From the above discussion we can see that strategy deals with long term decision in the way it is perceived within a certain organization.

2. THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP IN DIFFERENT EPISTEMES:

2.1 Leadership in political science:

2.1.1 Introduction: Leadership has been an active area of scientific investigation for over half a century, with scholars developing different perspectives on antecedents, processes, and outcomes. Conspicuous in its absence has been a conceptualization of leadership from a political perspective, despite appeals for such a theory and the widely acknowledged view of political processes in organizations. In this article, we develop a model of a political theory of leadership in an effort to address this need, and to demonstrate the versatility of such a conceptualization for understanding both leadership and social influence processes in organizations. Because we define politics in organizational leadership as the constructive management of shared meaning, we demonstrate how a political perspective does not necessarily cast leaders in a personally ambitious, manipulative role. We proceed to show how this political perspective can contribute to effectiveness through both enhanced leader outcomes and the constituencies' consequences to which leaders are directing their efforts. The implications for a political theory of leadership are discussed, as are directions for future research. (5)

2.2 THREE LEADERSHIP THEORIES:

2.2.1 Max Weber's Theory:

In Max Weber's theory, he wrote about three types of leaders: bureaucratic, charismatic, and traditional. Weber was one of the first of the theorists to recognize that leadership itself was situational in nature, and that effective individuals needed to move dynamically from one type of leadership style to another to remain successful.

Weber also believed there were two basic paradigms within which leaders worked: transactions and transformations. Weber believed that transactional leaders were those that worked within the existing systems or environment to achieve results. For example, he theorized the bureaucrat is a transactional leader effective in using their knowledge, or legal authority, to achieve results.

Charismatic leaders were transformational in Weber's model. These individuals were almost divine in nature, and were often compared to heroes. A transformational leader was not afraid to approach things from an entirely different perspective, and in Weber's theory used personal charm or charisma to help them achieve their goals.

2.2.2 James Macgregor Burns' Theory

The model Burns described aligns with some of the thoughts of Weber. To these he added his own insights into leaders and how they operated. While both theories of Weber and Burns recognized transactional and transformational leadership types, Burns created an overarching dimension of moral versus amoral leaders. The latter of which he felt were not true leaders.

2.2.3 Transactional Leaders

Among the transactional leadership styles, Burns went on to describe five different types of leaders:

Opinion Leaders: individuals with the ability to sway public opinion

Bureaucratic Leaders: individuals that hold position power over their followers

Party Leaders: hold political positions or titles in a particular country

Legislative Leaders: political leaders that are at work behind the scenes

Executive Leaders: often described as the president of a country, not necessarily bound to a political party or legislators

2.2.4 Transformational Leaders

In addition to the five transactional forms mentioned above, Burns' theory went on to describe four transformational types too, including:

Intellectual Leaders: transforms society through clarity of vision

Reform Leaders: changes society by addressing a single moral issue

Revolutionary Leaders: brings about change in society through sweeping and widespread transformation

Charismatic Leaders: uses personal charm to bring about change

2.2.5 Goleman's Theory

In the theory of emotional intelligence, Daniel Goleman attempted to answer the question: What are the elements that characterize a leader? This was more of a behavioral approach to describing leadership than some of the previous work just described. Goleman wanted to determine the behaviors that made people effective leaders.

Goleman's emotional intelligence is sometimes characterized as an emotional quotient, or EQ. This idea was to supplement the thought behind an intelligence quotient or IQ. He felt that intelligence was not enough to define a leader. He believed there was something that separated them from mere intellectuals: their emotional intelligence.

2.2.6 Emotional Intelligence

Goleman's leadership theory went on to describe five characteristics, or components, of emotional intelligence:

Self-Awareness: the ability to understand one's strengths and weaknesses

Social Skills: how people relate to others and build rapport

Self-Regulation: the ability to think through consequences before reacting to a situation

Motivation: a strong will, or a drive, to succeed

Empathy: the ability to understand another person's point of view

2.2.7 Leadership Theory Today

In many ways, recent leadership theories build upon the work of earlier scholars. This body of work has been improving as refinements are made to existing models. The beneficiaries of all this research are those that apply what they learn to work environments, or to their lives outside the workplace.

As is the case with many learning experiences, one's leadership abilities stem from the total of all lessons learned via the written word, as well as the successes, and the mistakes, made along the way

2.2 Leadership in sociology:

Leadership has played an important role in the human history since earliest times. The historians have glorified heroes in battle and valued the importance of their deeds for the future generations.

The role of politicians, statesmen and emperors in the development of empires, territories and nations has received considerable attention in the imperial history. In modern society there is emphasis on leadership and to earn an online Leadership degree is considered a great starting point, since there is continual search for men with leadership qualities.

2.3 Leadership in psychology

What exactly makes a great leader? Do certain personality traits make people better-suited to leadership roles, or do characteristics of the situation make it more likely that certain people will take charge? When we look at the leaders around us – is it our employer or the President – we might find ourselves wondering exactly why these individuals excel in such positions.

People have long been interested in leadership throughout human history, but it has only been relatively recently that a number of formal leadership theories have emerged. Interest in leadership increased during the early part of the twentieth century. Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished between leaders and followers, while subsequent theories looked at other variables such as situational factors and skill levels.

While many different leadership theories have emerged, most can be classified as one of eight major types:

2.3.1 "Great Man" Theories:

Have you ever heard someone described as "born to lead?" According to this point of view, great leaders are simply born with the necessary internal characteristics such as charisma, confidence, intelligence, and social skills that make them natural-born leaders.

Great man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is inherent – that great leaders are born not made. These theories often portray great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed. The term "Great Man" was used because, at the time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership.

2.3.2 Trait Theories:

Similar in some ways to Great Man theories, trait theories assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioral characteristics shared by leaders. For example, traits like extraversion, self-confidence, and courage are all traits that could potentially be linked to great leaders.

If particular traits are key features of leadership, then how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? This question is one of the difficulties in using trait theories to explain leadership. There are plenty of people who possess the personality traits associated with leadership, yet many of these people never seek out positions of leadership.

2.3.3 Contingency Theories:

Contingency theories of leadership focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to this theory, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation.

2.3.4 Situational Theories:

Situational theories propose that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variables. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making. For example, in a situation where the leader is the most knowledgeable and experienced member of a group, an authoritarian style might be most appropriate. In other instances where group members are skilled experts, a democratic style would be more effective.

2.3.5 Behavioral Theories:

Behavioral theories of leadership are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Consider it the flip-side of the Great Man theories. Rooted in behaviorism, this leadership theory focuses on the actions of leaders not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation.

2.3.6 Participative Theories:

Participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account. These leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others.

2.3.7 Management Theories:

Management theories, also known as transactional theories, focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. These theories base leadership on a system of rewards and punishments. Managerial theories are often used in business; when employees are successful, they are rewarded; when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished. Learn more about theories of transactional leadership.

2.3.8 Relationship Theories:

Relationship theories, also known as transformational theories, focus upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfill his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards.

2.4 Leadership in business

2.4.1 The Meaning of Leadership:

Leadership is the social process of influencing the behaviors of others without posing any threats of violence. It is a process of influencing the thoughts, attitudes and behaviors of others by setting a direction that helps visualize what they can hope to achieve or what lies ahead for them. It's the capability of getting other people to do something significant through harnessing their efforts jointly.

Leadership in a very ordinary sense refers to creating a group of followers whom another individual leads. Merely accompanying a group of people isn't leadership unless the person actually is choosing and showing a direction to the followers. Without followers a leader isn't a leader in spite of having the desired qualities or nature of a leader.

2.4.2 The Essence of Leadership in Business

The nature of business leadership is both a complex and compelling phenomenon. Many discussions of leadership confuse personality, important objectives, formal position and specific behaviors with acts of leadership. It may involve certain characteristics, but leadership is not confined to these characteristics; rather, it's all about influencing others in a substantial way.

Whether the setting is a business, a government, an educational institution or in an athletic setting, most people would agree that having a good leader is desirable. A good leader is someone like a good physician. Just as the physician must identify the patient's disease accurately to ensure the effectiveness of

the prescribed treatment, the business leader must also be able to diagnose problems, values and voices while finding effective solutions.

In leadership you push past the average expectations by carrying a sense of mission, motivating, learning and inspiring new ways of thinking. This is known as transformational leadership. It emerges as the most updated and diversified techniques in the field of leadership theory and practices to boost workforce competency and performance.

2.4.3 Leadership and Management in Business

True leadership in business is a subtle quality, and thus we often confuse management duties with personal style with leadership. Management and leadership are related, but they are not the same. You can be a manager or a leader; you can also be both or neither. The biggest difference between managers and leaders lies in the way they motivate others. When executing plans as a manager, you focus on supervising results, comparing them with goals and correcting deviations. In contrast, as a leader you focus on energizing people to overcome hurdles in reaching goals. Effective leaders hunt pressing issues such as influence, power, dependence, and policies for change.

Power, achievement and affiliation shape the basic human needs and are acquired over time to result in legitimate reward, coercive, referent and expert powers in business issues affecting leadership behaviors. If as a leader you have a high need for institutional power rather than personal power, you may be more effective. Personal power can be transformed into leadership abilities through the adoption of different approaches to leadership and adjusting your perspective of what the meaning of "power" is.

2.5 THEORIES ON LEADERSHIP MANAGEMENT:

2.5.1 Overview

Leadership and management can have the same qualities, but that's not always the case. Leadership is about standing out, while management is largely bureaucratic in nature. These need not be mutually exclusive. Some theories of leadership, however, make it plain that leadership is not management, and a manager is not a leader but merely a position of bureaucratic authority.

2.5.2 Trait Theory

The primary approach that differentiates managers from leaders has been called the "great man" theory or, similarly, the "trait" theory. In these cases, leadership is something inborn; it is an innate desire to control, to accept responsibility and even seek glory through leadership. This kind of person is a born risk-taker and refuses to live the life of mediocrity.

2.5.3 Behavioral Theory

This philosophy largely identifies management with leadership and suggests leaders are made, not born. The context of this kind of leadership can be the nature of the task, in that one person is better educated in one area than the others or that the person chosen to lead is popular and people are willing to follow his directives. Most approaches that use the behavioral model assume a participatory approach to management, where workers and others are brought in for important decisions, although this is not always the case.

2.5.4 Transactional Theory

A transactional approach to management describes when rewards are used to motivate a team. The main issue is self-interest, which can refer to both the manager and the worker, as they both look good and are rewarded if the task goes according to plan. Conversely, punishment is used when a team member does not complete the task set forth by the manager. This is the simplest, most bureaucratic approach to management.

2.5.5 Transformational Theory

This is the opposite of transactional management, and it is a true leadership role in that it does not depend on bureaucracy but on the personal presence of the leader. This model seeks to motivate those under authority. For example, the manager raises awareness about the importance of the task at hand and inspires her team to succeed. This theory seeks, most of all, to transcend self-interest and mold a tightly integrated team together to perform a task.

2.5.6 Charismatic Theory

The charismatic approach is leadership in the most powerful sense and is one of the few models that do not require a bureaucratic apparatus to function. Charismatic leadership is a radical form of transformational leadership -- people follow out of love or respect to the leader. Rewards and self-interest are rejected here, and tasks are completed because the charismatic presence motivates others to work for a greater good.

2.5.7 Organizational Leadership Theories

Leadership, as explained by successful businessman Alan Keith, is "ultimately about creating a way for people to contribute to making something extraordinary happen." Good leaders move their followers to

action and help them realize their potential to accomplish a greater objective. While larger companies actively mine the work force for great leaders, for small businesses, owners often need to fill this role themselves. Understanding the theories of organizational leadership helps you grow and develop leadership skills and identify potential leaders during the hiring process.

2.5.8 Trait Theory

The idea that great leadership derives from a person's individual characteristics or traits is known as trait theory. Research identifies six personal traits that strongly relate to leadership: intelligence, adjustment, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to new experiences and self-efficacy. According to trait theory, individuals with these characteristics emerge as leaders regardless of the situation.

2.5.9 Behavioral; Style Theory

This theory describes leadership not as a set of traits but a set of behaviors and styles. Theorists studied three main leadership styles: authoritarian, where the leader dictates what followers must do; democratic, where the leader presides over a collective decision process; and laissez-faire, where the leader does not participate in the decision process. The results of the studies indicate that followers preferred the democratic approach to leadership and that performance increased when leaders used positive reinforcement.

2.5.10 Functional Theory

Functional theory argues that leaders' primary responsibility is to assess what their followers need and ensure that those needs are met. A range of studies indicate that leaders must perform five primary functions: monitor the environment, organize subordinate activities, train and coach subordinates, motivate followers, and participate in the group's work.

2.5.11 Transactional Theory

Transactional theory argues that leadership arises from an individual's ability to reward or punish subordinates based on their performance. Leaders must be given a goal, must possess the ability to train and evaluate subordinate's performance towards that goal and must be given the authority to reward subordinates when goals are met.

2.5.12 Transformational Theory

Transformational leaders focus on the big picture and use communication to motivate followers to effectively and efficiently execute their vision. Transformational leadership theory calls for leaders to be visible and accessible, and to actively seek out new ideas to realize objectives.

2.5.13 Environmental Theory

The environmental theory of leadership argues that leaders use psychology and self-awareness to foster self-sustaining environments where group members bring out the best in one another. The leader creates a culture that motivates and excites members to complete required tasks not because they are required to but for the benefit of the group. Instead of carrying the group, environmental leaders create a setting in which group members want to carry one another and are empowered to do so.

2.5.14 Situational; Contingency Theories

These theories argue that the desired traits and behaviors exhibited by a leader depend largely on the situation, and that there is no best way to lead. Based on this theory, the authoritarian leadership style is effective during times of crisis but not for everyday operations, the democratic leadership style is more effective when a consensus needs to be built, and the laissez-faire leadership style is effective when subordinates are trained and experienced individuals who appreciate the freedom it provides.

2.5.15 The Advantages of Emerging Leadership Theories

Organizations require leaders to motivate, direct and drive workers to move the company forward. A leadership theory attempts to understand and explain the process that occurs between leaders and followers. Emerging or current leadership theories focus on leadership styles that respond to a variety of situations and circumstances instead of the individual traits of the leader.

2.5.16 Leadership Theories

Emerging leadership theories include situational, contingency and transformational leadership. Early theories on leadership focused on the traits and characteristics of the individual leader. Those theories determined that great leaders are born with the traits necessary to lead groups of individuals. In the latter half of the 20th century, leadership theories began to focus on situational and contingency leadership, which propose that leadership styles or the individual leader must adapt his style to the specific situation or traits of the workers. For example, a strong totalitarian leader is a good choice for unskilled workers, while a democratic style works best with creative and highly skilled workers.

2.5.17 Motivation

Matching the leadership style or leader to the individual needs of the group may have a positive impact on motivation. For example, transformational leaders appeal to the ideals and values of a group, which can

encourage workers to perform at their highest level. Transformational leaders model the behavior, ideals and values they seek and encourage workers to strive toward those goals. Modern styles, such as situational leadership, adapt the style to meet the needs of employees in an effort to motivate them. Situational leadership requires one leader to adapt her style to the changing needs of the group, but contingency leadership theory requires the organization to fit the leader to the group she leads.

2.5.18 Employee Development

Emerging leadership styles encourage employee development to benefit the individual worker and the organization. Leadership theories that focus on individual employee development identify abilities and traits in employees and encourage workers to explore them. Leaders may use performance evaluations as an opportunity to set goals for workers, such as training and education programs or assuming new responsibilities. The company gains a skilled and motivated work force through employee development programs, and the worker is encouraged to reach new goals.

2.5.19 The Bottom Line

Strong leadership that motivates develops and guides workers can result in a lower cost to an organization. A high level of job satisfaction among workers leads to lower employee turnover and higher productivity. Leaders in organizations that experience higher productivity use tools such as performance appraisals, mentoring programs, training and coaching techniques to promote job satisfaction among workers. High employee turnover results in increases in recruitment, hiring and training costs. Successful leadership may result in lower employee turnover and the associated costs.

2.6 Leadership in media

2.6.1 History and Orientation

The two-step flow of communication hypothesis was first introduced by Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in *The People's Choice*, a 1944 study focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign. These researchers expected to find empirical support for the direct influence of media messages on voting intentions. They were surprised to discover, however, that informal, personal contacts were mentioned far more frequently than exposure to radio or newspaper as sources of influence on voting behavior. Armed with this data, Katz and Lazarsfeld developed the two-step flow theory of mass communication.

2.6.2 Core Assumptions and Statements

This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals (opinion leaders) who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information. Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. The term 'personal influence' was coined to refer to the process intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's ultimate reaction to that message. Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviors and are quite similar to those they influence. The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision making. The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behavior, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes and behavior. The two-step flow theory gave way to the multi-step flow theory of mass communication or diffusion of innovation theory.

3 Revolving leadership

3.1 Introduction

The term revolving leadership is quite a recent term, although it has its own precedence in several medieval literature as we have shown before. The closest term we found to this new/old concept is a coined term by ERIC THOMAS WEBER (8). E.T Weber has used a paradoxical term to define what he thought the most applicable method of leadership which is democratic leadership. The paradox here is that the term leadership implies authority and one man show, while democracy implies the idea of the rule of the people. E.T Weber tried to resolve this paradox by juxtaposing democratic leadership versus authoritative leadership. The problem here is that authoritative is not the opposite of democracy, democracy implies in itself authority. He felt this problem by giving an example of a civil leader, Martin Luther king versus a dictator, Adolf Hitler. The problem again, the author departs from the realm of science into the realm of morality.

3.2 Democratic leadership

John Gastil (1994) offers one clear place to start a discussion about democratic political leadership. He summarizes democratic leadership as "behavior that influences people in a manner consistent with and/or conducive to basic democratic principles and processes, such as self-determination, inclusiveness, equal participation, and deliberation" (p. 956).

Leadership has descriptive and prescriptive elements. To understand this difference, one can consider Adolf Hitler and Martin Luther King Jr. Clearly, we may describe Hitler as a leader because of the position he held as head of the German state. At the same time, the wars and genocidal policies that he undertook are inconsistent with what we prescribe for those in leadership. To call people leaders in some circumstances expresses ethical characteristics that we expect them to exemplify or call others to follow. Martin Luther King Jr. is an example of a person called a moral leader.

Democratic principles accord power and authority to majorities, but the rights of a minority impose limits on what the majority can do. For example, the possibility of a majority voting to remove civil and even human rights from a certain minority of the voters and to exclude them from future participation in government led thinkers as early as Aristotle to believe that democracy, in this sense of majority rule for the benefit of the majority, would be an illegitimate form of government. Democratic political leaders, therefore, have a duty insofar as they are committed to democratic values to uphold the majority's wishes and to protect the rights of political minorities.

In leadership theory, one of the most famous warnings for democratic theorists comes from Plato. He explained that the greatest punishment for those unwilling to lead is to be led by those worse than him or her (Republic 347c). In this way, Plato warned the democratic citizen of the dangers of not participating in government. Of course, in his day, many categories of person were excluded from participation in public offices. In the 19th and 20th centuries, democratic societies in many countries became significantly more inclusive in opening the offices of public leadership to previously disfranchised and underrepresented groups. Today, therefore, Plato's warning speaks to more and more people. As the doors of opportunity widen, so does the call for public responsibility.

A wide variety of applications could be listed for thinking about the value and meaning of democratic leadership. First among them is the matter of the conceptualization of problems. When a group is increasingly dissatisfied with its circumstances, often initial steps in leadership are necessary for clarifying and organizing the group's thoughts about what its problems are. The process of facilitating communication between groups can aid both in formulating consensus about shared problems and in raising awareness for those who had previously been ignorant of a group's concerns. In democratic societies, persons hoping to contribute to community leadership will often organize listening sessions, town hall meetings, and other gatherings.

Although members of these groups may complain of the problem of preaching to the choir—in other words, of talking with only those who already agree on a problem the act of clarifying a group's objectives is crucial before action can be taken intelligently to achieve them.

A further application of democratic leadership concerns the matter of secrecy and lying. This is again the problem of the noble lie that Plato introduced so long ago. In general, democratic values call for transparency, honesty, and full disclosure. In the case of troop movements in times of war, however, we see the dire need to avoid full disclosure about a special set of public details since enemies could benefit and cause our soldiers greater harm. These exceptions are few, though, and are not reason to doubt the virtues of openness and transparency in democratic societies. The idea is that to consent to government action, citizens must be aware of it.

Finally, in applying the principles of democratic leadership, one should consider the conflicts that arise regarding the place of public school education in moral training. How does a society train its citizens in moral behavior apart from religious indoctrination? For instance, Ben Franklin's discussion of virtues in his autobiography is consistent, arguably, with many religious moral teachings, yet it is not founded upon religious texts. This brings us to the topic of civil religion that Chapter 57 examines. Finally, it is important to note some cases in which democratic political leadership is inappropriate. Among these are cases in which members who would participate in decision making are particularly unqualified to the task (Dahl, 1991). Other cases include matters of justice in which a judge is the most appropriate person for deciding a matter of criminal or other legal concern, so as to avoid bias, to ensure expertise in the subject to weigh judicial considerations when those are the kinds deemed appropriate for the decision-making process in question. Finally, in some cases, decisions have already been made and have been tasked to a division of society or of an organization. In such cases, to have a democratic process for designing the procedures of implementation of a democratically decided matter may not be necessary or appropriate. It is inefficient, for instance, to have a committee choose word for word the contents of each sentence of a letter as it is written the first time. Democratic procedures and values may need to go in to deciding on final versions or how changes should be made, but democratic leadership is inappropriate for many levels of implementation (Gastil, 1994, p. 965).

3.3 DEFINITION:

“Jahilya” is another of the restored concepts here. It is restored on the hands of Hisham Jaffer. Jahilya is one of the key concepts Hisham uses to analyze the dilemma of modern politics. Hisham is a free-lance

political researcher with an Msc in political science Cairo University in Cairo. His master thesis was about “The Hakamia” concept.

Hakamia is one of misused concepts and has a very bad reputation denoting despotism or theocracy at the best.

Hisham’s effort re-illuminates the concept juxtaposing it with the concept of Jahilya. He penetrates the political theory in Islamic tradition and shows the differences between “Hokm” or “Rule” and “Amr” or “Authority”. Hakemya in Hisham’s work is ruling in the light of god’s orders meaning it is something that is abiding for every believer regardless of his position in the authority “Amr”>

He who is not abiding by the Shariaat is living in Jahilya (The era before the prophet- PBUH). Here Hisham sees the concept as a diachronic structure and emphasizes its historicity as a set of moral codes. Not its historical implications as a specific era only.

Juxtaposing “Hakimya and Jahilya” and demarcating “Hokm” from “Amr” Hisham opens the way for a new theory of leadership in modern Islamic thinking. For here everybody can play the role of the leader not the authoritarian. (9)

3.4 Examples

I’ve something here to add as an illustrating example.

During the ICPD in Cairo In September 1994 we organized a common prayer for all the religious participants of the NGOs forum (An Interfaith communion) leadership was diffuse during this episode. The theoretical organizer was Ahmad Abdullah; the religious was Mohamed Hussein who led the prayer playing the role of Imam.

Here we see the real and practical illustration of the revolving role theory imbedded in Hisham’s theory. This work proves that polity is but an aspect of life and not the life for. People are the real ruler and masters of their own destinies.

During the reign of Mohammed bek Abu-El-Dahb, The sheikhs from Al-Azhar were telling him we don’t like to have this beard in hell, it was like a kind of advice but we can see by the way they were treating the supreme leader of the country that they have a kind of moral and religious authority, he dared not to challenge.

During the time of the battle of Ain-Galoot against the Tartars, Sheikh Al-Ezz ibn Abd El-Salam sold the Mamluk leaders in the open market in order to secure money for sponsoring the campaign. One of the main leaders of the society at this time which is the president of the trade syndicate (Shahbandr) after seeing this donated most of his money for the support of the campaign. The whole episode gives us an idea about the diffusion of the authority and the revolution of the leadership.

During the reign of Abbasid Caliph El-Nasser, The famous Sufi master ibn Arabi prevented his followers from saluting the Caliph, because according to the Islamic tradition it should be the other way around as the Caliph was riding and they were walking so the Caliph should salute them and not them salute him. This done, the Caliph did salute them and thanked them because they have saved him.

If we return back to the time of the prophet PBUH and his early successor we will see lots of incidents where Abu-Bakr was taken the opinion of other companions of the prophet like Ali or Omar, The main issue here, being the religious, the political or the economic leader doesn’t give you exclusive command on all revenues and resources of the society, and according to the time and place there is always a leader that can fulfill the certain destiny of this moment.

3.5 Revolving leadership – a management prospect:

Kaffash (1996 b) “western civilization was built upon severing all epistemological relations with the others. Negation of the other is the base of the imperialism as shown by Chomsky in his book “The year 501” (1993). It was very normal to search for epistemological roots in Greco-Roman world view, for going back to the origin is the base for renaissance. What I suggest is a completely new theory in seeing the relationship between the body, soul and the physic.

According to this division, Kaffash suggested a new taxonomy of arts. Auditory arts, visual arts, audio-visual arts and linguistic arts. We can benefit from this taxonomy in theories of leadership, where there are psychological leaders who can use auditory power, there are audio-visual leaders who can use the media and there are people who can lead in the linguistic field, even there is these visual leaders like artists who are followed by lots of people, creating trends and schools.

This enhances the practical value of our concept revolving leadership. This approach has come from the episteme of philosophy of beauty (esthetics). We can see four different types of leaders; this means that each field can utilize one of these types. The new concept that we are suggesting in this paper (RL) will be illuminated if we see leaders as visual types or auditory types or audio-visual types or linguistic types, and revolve the leadership within a certain establishment according to the needs of the moment. For example, if in a certain situation the corporation or the establishment needs a leader of the auditory type where there is listener s and big audience regardless of his position in the corporate.

3.6 Revolving leadership – practitioner view

Revolving leadership has lots of important applications in several areas of management and administration.

- 1- Physiological boosting of every participant
- 2- Diffusion of the authority
- 3- Increase of participation
- 4- Atmost utilization of different skills of participants
- 5- Helps in resolving the conflicts between participants

References

Against the current, SGR (South Group for Research), Editor Ossama El-Kaffash, 1996.

Concepts of beauty an Islamic overview, International Institute for Islamic Thinking (IIIT), Cairo, Egypt, Herndon, USA, 1996.

Peter Drucker, The Practice of Management, classic Drucker collection edition, 2007

Henri Fayol, Industrial and General Administration, Sir I. Pitman & Sons, Limited, 1930.

Harold Koontz, The management theory jungle, Academy of Management, 1961

Fred Nickols, Strategy: Definitions and Meaning, <http://www.nickols.us>, 2012

M. E. Porter, What Is Strategy? , Harvard Business Review, 1996.

Eric Thomas Weber, Democratic Political Leadership, Chapter 13 in Political and Civic Leadership: A Reference Handbook, D.C.: Sage Press, 2010.

) Against the current, SGR (South Group for Research), Editor Ossama El-Kaffash, 1996.