## Styles of leadership in the Brazilian Army: an analysis of conceptual evolution


#### Abstract

The research aimed to assess the conceptual evolution regarding the styles of leadership in the Brazilian Army (EB, acronym in Portuguese) literature. The Provisional Instructions (IP, acronym in Portuguese) 20-10 (1991), Military Leadership, was the initial point. It was a project of manual that remained in force for about 20 years, as the primary source for teaching the theme. Based on the behavioral approach, it defined the existence of three types of leadership: autocratic, democratic, and delegative. In 2011, the EB issued the C 20-10, a new Military Leadership manual, which brought some new approaches as the concept of Styles of Command. The purpose was to investigate leadership theories to contribute to teaching the subject and training of military leaders. Therefore, according to the theoretical evolution, the currently manual could be updated with new conceptions for the Army. Also, this study intended to serve as a reference for further researches.


Keywords: 1. Leadership. 2. Brazilian Army. 3. Types of Leadership.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Since the end of the last century, the speed of information flow has increased dramatically, requiring almost instant adaptations by organizations. Due to the conjuncture in society, the EB began a series of structural reforms, seeking to be ready to face new adversities. Thus, the preparation of the military demanded particular attention, as it is a crucial component for combat, being more relevant than technology.

This situation experienced in recent decades has profoundly changed the role of Human Resources (HR) in organizations, both the profitable and nom-profitable ones. The importance of leadership factor has increased in organizations.

From 1991, after the implementation of IP 20-10, the EB sought an increase in the teaching of leadership by developing a specific doctrine:

> The Terrestrial Military Doctrine is the set of basic concepts, general principles, processes, and norms of behavior that systematize and coordinate Army employment activities. Within this context lies the doctrine of leadership, whose understanding depends on our knowledge and analysis of the military institution. [...] The doctrines of leadership and combat form an integrated whole, the essence of which is combat power, where leadership is implicit in all elements: commander value, operational capability, and troop morale; The doctrine of leadership is a primary aspect of the military institution. Its purpose is to ensure that military leaders acquire the skills, knowledge, attributions, and behaviors that enable them to make quick, sound decisions that are consistent with the objectives of the military. (BRAZIL, 1991, p. 3-1).

As a discipline, Leadership studies have also been developed in civil society in recent decades. Companies began to favor teamwork, forming cohesive groups with their leaders. Nowadays, knowing how to lead represents a basic need in the highly competitive world of organizations. Over time, several researchers have experimented and devised theories to strengthen and make the leader-led relationship more effective.

The main objective of this paper is to analyze the EB literature concerning the styles of leadership since 1991, by identifying these evolutive aspects according to the current theories.

Secondly, by seeking support in the current literature (both civil and military), this research intends to improve the current essential documentation on military leadership used by the Force: the manual C 20-10, released in 2011.

These circumstances have led to the selection of the title "Styles of leadership in the Brazilian Army: an analysis of conceptual evolution." This study allowed identifying and exploring a variety of sources. It was sought to contribute to updating the C 20-10 and collaborate for training future EB leaders.

The reason for choosing that is because the EB gives great importance to the theme of leadership since man is a primordial element of every Armed Force at any time. Prepared
leaders increase the cohesion and power of a military force.
Using the classification criterion indicated by VERGARA (2007), this work was developed based on exploratory and descriptive research. Exploratory, because it sought to identify the existence of theories on leadership applicable in the military. Descriptive, due to the concern of exposing how the EB treats this concept.

The means of investigation used were documentary and bibliographic researches. The first was based on material available in the EB and foreign Armies, while the second sought to make a systematic study of existing theories on leadership.

Comparative method was used, taking into account the civil and military environments, to identify the differences and similarities between the leadership concepts employed. Thus, the following steps took place during the investigation:

- survey and selection of bibliography and relevant documents;
- reading of the bibliography and selected documents;
- archiving bibliographic records, citations, summaries, and analyzes; and
- critical analysis of information and the consolidation of study questions.

Collection of material as newspapers, magazines, EB info and manuals, military journals, scientific articles, papers, and the World Wide Web, took place through consultations to the libraries of the Army Command and General Staff College, the War College, and also the author's personal archive.

## 2. DEVELOPMENT

At first, it might be thought unnecessary to define the term leadership. One way or another, nowadays, one has a clear idea concerning the meaning of the word. KOVACH (2018, p. 2) affirms, "Leadership Theories date back one hundred years. Through time, experience and various settings, theories evolved and represented the human side of the construct, bringing relationships, behavior, and emotion into perspective".

Nevertheless, it is important to identify the concepts addressed in civil and military environments. McCLESKEY (2014) supports that "the question of the correct definition of leadership is a nontrivial matter." Thus, it's possible to understand why researchers have been reached hundreds of different definitions and theories during the last decades.

These days, some authors dedicated to motivational or management books always highlight the critical role of leaders to accomplish organizational missions. HUNTER (2004, p. 25) defines leadership as "the ability to influence people to work enthusiastically to achieve
the goals identified as being for the common good". Emphasizing a little more the social side of the term, MAXIMIANO (2006, p. 202) still highlights the personal capacity of the leader to unite his group in favor of the company.

Considering some peculiarities of their jobs, military leaders are different from other professionals, basically, because they are formally designated, acting under specific legislation. YEAKEY (2002, p. 49) confirms this distinction by emphasizing that if the military leader fails to cooperate with his subordinates by the authority of his own character, he can do so by the authority of the law.

After these brief comments regarding some definitions, the following lines will explore the core of this article - types of leadership - in different perspectives.
a. Types of Leadership according to the Literature

In the academic context, authors such as STONER and FREEMAN (1999, p. 346) state that types of leadership are "the various patterns of behavior preferred by leaders [the highlight is ours] during the process of directing and influencing workers". This approach underscores the leader's human figure and his most constant attitudes.

For BLANCHARD (2005, p. 49), "leadership style or type is the way a person behaves when he seeks to influence the performance of others. It is a combination of steering and support behaviors." In this case, the author highlights the importance of clarifying the task (directing) to the leader and the respective incentive (supporting) in its triggering and complements the previous definition, not only focusing on his behavior or personality.

> "There are as many styles of leadership as there are leaders. Some styles are better than others, but there is no one-size-fits-all treatment that works with everyone. Good leaders configure their treatment based on the situation." (FLOGLESONG, 2005, p. 7).

These definitions show congruent aspects in civil and military circles. The style becomes a tool for a leader, according to his own choice, which helps him to lead the group.

The literature presents different classifications regarding types of leadership. In general, one avoids adopting a perfect style. Thus, it inferred that there is no standard model to be used, and the authors take different views, as shown:

1) Coercive, controlling, and guiding

SILVA (2000, p. 2), apud COSTA (2009, p. 26) distinguishes three types of leadership: coercive, controlling and guiding. The author characterizes Coercive Leadership as one that bases its influential acts predominantly on the power of coercion and position. Coercion is the ability to influence with potential punishment.

Controlling Leadership relies more on position and reward power, although it
rarely uses the power of coercion. It is used more subtly in the form of material or emotional manipulation. Its underlying philosophy is lack of trust in people, the belief that there is only one way to do the right things that people are incompetent, unwilling to work on, hence the need to control their activities.

Regarding Guiding Leadership, according to the author, it is a style rarely approached in the specialized literature because it has any paternalistic connotation. It sometimes uses the power of position: the authority of office, reward, knowledge, and connection. Unlike coercive and controlling styles, it allows structural barriers to being overcome, tending to encourage organizational cohesion.
2) Autocratic, paternalistic, permissive and participatory

Some scholars prefer to visualize four distinct types of leadership. Thus, PADILHA (2003, p. 3), apud COSTA (2009, p. 26) presents another perspective: autocratic, paternalistic, permissive, and participatory or democratic.

In the harsh environment, the leader, assigned to the group leadership by some authority, acts as a leader and makes decisions. The authoritarian leader determines the group's programs, makes the most important plans. Only he knows the sequence of future steps in the group's activities, dictates actions and patterns. He is in charge of awards and punishments. This type of leader has no confidence that people can make decisions, choose the most appropriate goals, and overcome difficulties. Thus, it tends to produce immature individuals after some time.

The second style presented, Paternalistic Leadership, is seen as a branch of Autocratic Leadership, very common in governments, businesses, and religion. The leader is kind, paternal, friendly to the needs of the staff under his influence, but feels that he must make the most important decisions on behalf of the group and for their sake. This kind of leadership avoids discord and produces happy and effective group action. One of the flaws in style is the growth and development of leaders only, who have the opportunity to make decisions, make mistakes, and learn from their own experience.

This type of leader also fears giving up his position to someone else, because he is never sure that other person can lead his group with as much dedication, efficiency, and protection as he does. It is common to see him giving parental advice and expressing "strong" opinions and "final words" that are decisive and important.

Permissive Leadership is defined as a product of a society in transition. Amid the insecurity of an evolving democracy, it is believed that the best way to steer is not to do so at all, leaving mature individuals complete freedom without guidance and without control or
help. In group life, this free form of work or discussion often leads to unsatisfactory experiences. Given the individualistic nature, group members rarely learn to tolerate individual differences for the sake of the common interest. However, these characteristics are indispensable for effective team action.

Participatory or Democratic Leadership appears in a group that acts by participation, and the members work together. The utmost importance is the growth and development of all its members. None of them are exclusively leaders because leadership is collective. The group works by following the principle of consensus. Thus, it seeks to achieve in all objectives within the area in which it can act by participation, a high degree of social and interpersonal relationships, for a problem-solving basis.
3) Executive, Coercive, Distributive, Educational, and Inspirational

According to KRAUZ (1991), apud STEINMANN and CALDEIRA (2003, p. 61), leadership can be achieved by "charisma", an innate individual characteristic. The author cites four types of leaders: executive, coercive, distributive, and educational:

The "executive" leader aspires to order. It is the reflection of the human effort to try to organize.
The "coercive" leader gains legitimacy in violence. Whether in physical or verbal imposition. Leader and led repel each other. Fear is the keyword.
The "distributive" leader merely distributes tasks, not beyond what already exists. He needs to be around, giving service and charging results. It is a relationship of positions and roles.
The "educative" leader exercises leadership by an exchange. Education is more than a training technique; it also teaches men to think about themselves. It is what enables the leader to understand own needs. (Loc. Cit).

Complementing this classification, according to PENTEADO (1981), apud STEINMANN and CALDEIRA (2003, p. 61), there is the "inspiring" leader, who rarely needs to give orders, each one knows what to do and where to go, by reference provided by leadership.
4) Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)

One of the most prestigious academic studies is the SLT, developed by HERSHEY and BLANCHARD. It described the leadership style and stressed the need to relate the leader's style to the maturity level of the followers. The theory proposed that effective leadership required a rational understanding of the situation and an appropriate response.

The SLT focuses on leaders' behaviors as either task or people-focused. McCLESKEY (2014, p. 118) explains that SLT evolved from a task-oriented versus peopleoriented leadership continuum. The continuum represented the extent that the leader focuses on the required tasks or focuses on their relations with their followers. So, "the level of
maturity (both job and psychological maturity) of followers determines the correct leadership style and relates to previous education and training interventions" (BASS, 2008; HERSEY \& BLANCHARD, 1969; apud McCLESKEY, 2014, p. 118).

During the last decades, there were a lot of researches regarding the SLT. According to McCLESKEY (2014, p. 119), the authors asked a variety of research questions about the relationship between leadership adaptability, task-orientation of the leader, leadership style, working situation, operational conditions, organizational structure, and level of leadership experience.

The studies have brought some new perspectives. In particular, although previous researches indicated that relation-oriented leadership is preferred over task-oriented leadership, task-orientation is suitable in some situations. Assigning tasks and job roles, specifying procedures, and clarifying follower expectations result in increased job satisfaction. Besides, authors like LARSSON and VINBERG (2010), apud McCLESKEY (2014, p. 119) concluded that successful leadership includes both universally applicable elements (task-oriented) and contingency elements (relation and change-oriented).

KOVACH (2018, p. 4) supports the idea that SLT proves strong leadership capabilities when a given leader is in a particular situation and can adjust the way they lead to achieve desired results. If the leader were not able to transfer his or her skills to a different situation when necessary, the leader would be less likely to be successful.

Additionally, during her studies, KOVACH (2018, p. 4) provided an example of SLT within a military context to create a better understanding. As stated by her, "every soldier has a different skill set. When soldiers can play on their strengths, they can demonstrate expertise and dominate the situation. When put in an unfamiliar position, there is a learning curve as well as other factors that could limit the potential for success in that situation".

Given this diversity of styles presented, the leader-led relationship can occur in different types of leadership, with varying degrees of satisfaction, expectation, and autonomy. ERVILHA (2008, p. 92) notes, "With so many styles, it would be better to say that the leader today has no style. To be effective, it doesn't have a unique style, but it uses them all as the moment demands."

The types of leadership cited in the civil literature mentioned above are not the only ones that exist and do not exhaust the subject. They were presented to provide a brief notion of the various terminologies used. Even though, it is necessary to verify their availability in the military environment, with the appropriate adaptations.

The IP 20-10 (1991) replaced the Campaign Manual C 22-10 - PRINCIPLES OF HEADSHIP, approved by the Army Staff (EME, acronym in Portuguese) on December 14, 1953. After 38 years, the IP introduced the terms leader and leadership, from English origin, in the EB vocabulary. It presented the following concept in the military environment:

Military headship component that refers to the affective domain of subordinates' behavior comprising all aspects related to values, attitudes, interests, and emotions that allow the military, in the exercise of his position, to lead his followers to the accomplishment of the missions and the achievement of the objectives determined. (p. 2-1).

The IP 20-10 (1991, p. 4-3) defined leadership type or style as the way the leader uses to set direction, refine plans and orders, and motivate his men to accomplish their mission. It was a superficial approach as it did not take into consideration the characteristics, personality, and working environment of the leader.

During years, the IP 20-10 (1991) represented the theoretical basis for the teaching of leadership within the scope of EB. The manual defined three basic types of leadership:

1) Authoritarian or Autocratic: characterized by the full emphasis on the figure of the leader, responsible for setting norms, setting goals, and evaluating results. He was the one who finds the best solutions for his team. Expected the leaders to execute their plans and orders without any thought. Also, he established strict rules, inspects subordinates in the smallest detail, and sets standards of efficiency, using the reward and punishment system to motivate men. The autocratic leader based his performance on a formal discipline in pursuit of enforced obedience.

According to the IP, the main problem of this kind of leadership was the lack of interest in subordinates' ideas, not using their creativity. It could generate discontent within the team and inhibit the initiative of its members, as well as not considering the leader-led relationship. However, one may wonder if this style would not be attractive when the group had no experience in giving suggestions or if they were not interested in the activity.
2) Democratic or Participatory: the leader looked for fulfilling the mission through participation, engagement of men, and harnessing their ideas. It sought to establish respect, mutual trust, and mutual understanding, contributing to personal satisfaction and a sense of contribution. This type of leader met with the subordinates to talk about areas of friction, establishing a robust interdependent bond between team members and developing their operational capacity. In its absence, the group would be able to continue the planned execution.

This style of leadership enabled creativity to be developed by everyone, as the environment was conducive to innovation, leading to the advancement and improvement of the group. Thus, according to the IP 20-10, teams used to become more cohesive and efficient, as the appreciation of subordinates promotes responsible performance and selfdiscipline. Besides, they could create better conditions for developing attitudes of respect and trust.
3) Delegative: this style was best suited for technical matters, where the leader assigns his or her advisers to make specialized decisions. So, he had more time to address all issues without focusing on a particular area. However, the leader held the final word on mission execution. The crux for success was to know how to delegate assignments without losing control. Alternatives to specific problems were enriched by expert input, which could raise the quality and decision-making of the leader. However, the management of subordinates' activities might decrease, thus requiring permanent monitoring and supervision.

The former manual for studying leadership in EB showed a comparative table between the characteristics of autocratic and democratic leadership, highlighting their essential differences. In a cursory analysis, the democratic style was better than the authoritarian. Otherwise, the frame seemed incomplete, because it did not present the delegative type in the comparison, despite showing its definition in the text. Apart from that, General COUTINHO (1997, p. 239) prefers to avoid labeling:

> Authors who have elaborated or accepted this classification acknowledge that there is no pure kind of autocratic leader or democratic leader [the highlight is ours]. There is effective leadership of one kind or another, and of course, several intermediate subtypes. The same leader may also be more coercive or persuasive depending on the circumstances, acting most properly at the moment.

Regarding the leader personality conflict (democratic vs. autocratic), REZENDE (2006, p. 82) states, "if you are a really hard and demanding leader, your sacrifice serves as a source of motivation because it will demonstrate that the team is not alone." Thereby, an autocratic style was not entirely inappropriate, as IP 20-10 used to clear. The manual also pointed out:

Participatory (democratic) leadership is adopted by the Brazilian Army [the highlight is ours]. It is most in line with the very concept of military leadership, that is, the ability to influence human behavior and lead people to their duty. Based on the knowledge of human nature, it comprises the analysis, prediction, and control of its reactions, favoring, above all, the strengthening of the basic principles of our institution: hierarchy and discipline. (1991, p. 4-8).

Accordingly to this publication, the ideal style adopted by the EB was democratic, regardless of the various situations and circumstances that a leader might face, such as on the occasion of military instruction, employment in real missions, and of daily treatment in
the quarters. It seemed that there was an ideal type of leadership for the whole Force, that was, participatory (democratic) in any case.

This position, nowadays considered outdated, had a scientific basis. One of the first attempts to identify an administrator's leadership style was the investigation conducted in 1939, under the coordination of KURT LEWIN at the University of Iowa. At that time, they identified the three types, identical to those cited in the IP 20-10.

The research results from the late 1930s concluded that laissez-faire style was ineffective in all cases compared to other types of leadership. They also named the democratic leader as the most likely to achieve higher levels of group satisfaction. CHIAVENATO (1994, p. 394) confirms that from these experiences, researchers defended the role of the democratic leader as perfect, strongly compatible with the American spirit of that time. Therefore, the IP, by emphasizing the democratic leadership, almost as complete, is aligned with these considerations.

Each leader predominantly uses a style according to the situation and the group. Hence, the authoritarian, democratic, and delegative coexist in the leader, and he can use them, with flexibility, depending on the circumstances and demands of the situation.

COUTINHO (1997, p. 241) also stated that the authors often concluded that democratic leadership was preferable to autocratic leadership. The preference for either style was a personal choice or an imposition of the circumstances of the moment.

The IP 20-10 became the manual C 20-10 in 2011 and had only one edition. Despite the term "provisional", militaries of EB used it as the primary reference for the subject leadership for twenty years.
c. Types of Leadership according to the C 20-10

The current Field Manual C 20-10 (2011, p. 3-3) presents the concept of military leadership as "a process of interpersonal influence of the military leader over his followers, as it implies the establishment of affective bonds between individuals, to promote the achievement of the military organization's objectives in a given situation".

According to the new manual, Command (leadership or direction) is the professional exercise of a military position, embodying the legal authority of that position, the administration, and desirably, the leadership. So, legal authority, administration, and leadership can be considered tools for commanding action.

Military leadership is, therefore, the tool that enables the commander to move men and women not only by force of laws and regulations, but by their professional qualifications and personal commitment. [...] Leadership will be a means of overcoming and maintaining motivation in order to achieve individual involvement in collective effort in pursuit of mission accomplishment. (2011, p. 6-2).

The C 20-10 introduces a new approach when it uses the term style of command instead of style of leadership, as found in the literature and in the IP 20-10:

A style of command corresponds to how to achieve individual involvement in a collective effort in pursuit of mission accomplishment. Some theories admit that leadership can be typified as autocratic, participatory, or delegative. However, according to the concept of military leadership presented in chapter 3 of this manual, these typifications are characterized as styles of command, not leadership [the highlight is ours]. (2011, p. 6-2).

In the first view, it seems to be the same idea, because the text also presents the three types already known: autocratic, participatory, and delegative. Thus, the terminology represents adequacy to military vocabulary. The new manual works with the following styles of command, which correspond to the commander's attitude towards his commanded:

6-3 AUTOCRATIC COMMAND STYLE This style emphasizes the commander's full responsibility, which sets standards, establishes goals, and evaluates results. [...] The commander, when using this style of command, centralizes all decisions and does not use the advice of his subordinates to study the situation. Experience indicates that this style of command, when employed indiscriminately and for a long time, tends to erode the affective bonds established between the commander and the commanded. [...] However, there may be occasions when the use of this style of command is appropriate, such as in combat situations where subordinates must act immediately, without any questioning or discussion of the orders issued, under penalty of failure of the mission. [..] Therefore, it is up to the commander to decide when to use this style of command, always being aware of the appropriateness of its application and the effects, whether positive or negative, that may cause the accomplishment of the mission. (p. 6-2)
6-4 PARTICIPATIVE COMMAND STYLE [...] the commander sees the fulfillment of the mission through participation, engagement, and harnessing the group ideas as his responsibility. By adopting the participatory style, the commander seeks to act more in tune with the group, listening, and taking advantage of their suggestions and then deciding. It will make it easier for all members of the group to engage in achieving their goals truly because the people being listened to tend to feel co-responsible for both the success and failure of the actions they undertake. By doing so, it will be easier to develop cohesive bonds, spontaneous collaboration, and interdependence among group members, and raise the individual's creativity levels. Better conditions can also be created for the development of attitudes of respect and trust towards the commander, favoring the bonds of leadership. The participatory style of command does not exclude the authority of the commander, which must be exercised to the full. It is up to the commander to make final decisions, after hearing and considering the often conflicting opinions [...]. (p. 6-3).
6-5 DELEGATIVE COMMAND STYLE The delegative style of command is best suited for groups dealing with technical issues. The commander in these situations assigns his aides to make specialized decisions. In these groups, the commander's knowledge and experience may be at or above the commander's knowledge and experience, which will depend on advice for decision making. The critical point of this style of command is the need for the commander to know how to delegate duties to the commanders, without losing control of the situation. To do this, you should listen to each advisor or subordinate boss and, with interpersonal skills, accept or reject the assistance given, deciding on the ultimate goal. This style of command is widely employed at the intermediate and higher levels, where decision-making power will often be delegated to subordinate commanders. Besides, the delegative style will also be characterized in decentralized execution operations. (p. 6-3).

Among the cited concepts, in the description of the participative command style, there is no reference about the best situation to use it. Somehow, it seems to be incomplete because
when it comes to autocratic and delegative types, the manual gives examples to employ them according to the particular situation.

So, one of the evolutions in the text of C 20-10 is the acceptance that is possible to use different styles on many occasions, leaving the idea of a standard type of leadership. It is one of the main differences from the IP 20-10, close to the current literature precepts already presented:


#### Abstract

How the issue of command styles is often addressed can lead to a misunderstanding of the concepts, leading the individual to believe that they should opt for a unique style. For each situation and each commanded group profile, it may be necessary to adopt procedures that are peculiar to a particular command style [the highlight is ours], including alternating the use of more than one form in the same situation. Thus, it would be inappropriate to seek to be a commander who always exercises the participatory command style [the highlight is ours], for example. One should not make such a choice. There will be crises, situations where he is dealing with insensitive and rebellious people, in which this style of command does not apply, and he needs to act like an autocratic commander. Similar reasoning may be used for other command styles. In a group of competent individuals and with high initiative, an autocratic command may constrain subordinates' ability and generate negative results in achieving that group's goals. (2011, p. 6-4).


Different from the IP 20-10, the new manual also talks about leadership and command in various situations:

Nevertheless, the context in which leadership occurs in normal situations and the characteristics of the leader and the led will bring about essential nuances in the leadership relationship. Differences in the personality characteristics of the commander will make him adopt a predominant behavioral profile, with more or less permission to participate in group decisions and access to information. The features of the group, on the other hand, will largely determine the style of command to be used, as their maturity, respect for rules and regulations, and commitment to the mission will show the degree of control and pressure to be exerted on everybody. (2011, p. 6-8).

Besides, as other innovation, the C 20-10 includes examples of possible scenarios witch a leader may use the types of leadership to face the challenges. Currently, there are countless scenarios to identify, but in this case, the manual concentrated only three main lines:

1) Peace or normality;
2) Crisis: the Armed Forces deepen concrete deterrence measures; and
3) War or conflict: there is military use of the means of defense.

The text treats these scenarios as synonyms, and they may combine, as current conflicts may not be declared, coexisting with peace and the crisis. Otherwise, it might be confusing due to the complex subject and its high level. There are not objective examples to better clarify the flexibility between styles and different possibilities.

So, despite mentioning the possible situations for the appropriate employment of the command styles, in this part, the C 20-10 could be more simple and objective, by presenting
an attachment with some cases considering a platoon/company/battalion/staff levels. This way, it will be easier to teach the subject.

After all, due to the new components introduced as the possibility of a leader uses different types of command and the brief ideas about the scenarios, it is correct to affirm that the C 20-10 brings concepts linked to the SLT.
d. Types of Leadership in other armies

1) United States of America (USA)

The Field Manual ADRP 6-22 - Army Leadership (2012) is the basic source for the subject in the USA Army and highlights the following definition, as an important integration toll, in a different approach of C 20-10:

> 1-1. Leadership is the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to accomplish the mission and improve the organization (ADP 6-22). As an element of combat power, leadership unifies the other elements of combat power (information, mission command, movement and maneuver, intelligence, fires, sustainment and protection) [the highlight is ours]. Confident, competent, and informed leadership intensifies the effectiveness of the other elements of combat power. (2012, p. 1-1).

There are no direct references regarding the styles of leadership or the related theories, as presented above. However, when the text talks about Organizational Leadership (Chapter 10), it shows some ideas to guide the leader acts to have an effective communication by using persuasion to build teams and consensus:

> [...] Openness to discussing one's position and a positive attitude toward a dissenting view often defuses tension and saves time. By demonstrating these traits, organizational leaders provide an example that subordinates can use in selfdevelopment. In some circumstances, persuasion may be inappropriate. During operations, leaders must often make decisions quickly, requiring a more direct style [the highlight is ours] when leading and deciding on courses of action. (2012, p. 103).

This is the only moment when the term "style" appears in the entire manual. In a general view, the issue concentrates the principles and main guidance ideas, according to the level of leadership (Direct, Organizational, and Strategic).
2) United Kingdom (UK)

The British Army Leadership Code (AC 72021, First Edition) highlights the current importance of the leadership: "it is of the upmost importance that leaders recognize that these behaviors have to be applied to every aspect of life, and are not restricted to working hours or certain situations."

Different from the USA policy, the British manual treats the theme of types of leadership according to the situation. The main options presented between Transactional and Transformational Leadership:

In military life, there are definitely times when a Transactional (or Directive) 'Just do it!' style of leadership is required. These are often in the most demanding of circumstances, [the highlight is ours] when people need to react instantly and rely on the muscle memory developed during training. However, for the majority of the time, leaders must aspire to be Transformational (or Inspirational) and - motivating and inspiring the team to achieve through shared Values, vision, trust, and confidence. (p. 21).

The AC 72021 states that the leader can appropriately adapt the two main approaches of leadership:

The Transactional and Transformational [the highlight is ours] approaches represent two ends of a spectrum, which a leader must be comfortable moving along, applying the leadership behaviors as the challenge and situation demands to get the very best out of the team. An awareness of some recognized leadership styles aids in the understanding of this spectrum. (p. 22)

When it comes to detail the possible types of leadership, the manual presents five options, objectively, under each approach:
a) Transactional Leadership
(1) The Directive Style: "Do what I tell you". This approach is well understood and most effective when a leader requires rapid, unquestioning action. However, it is dangerously easy to fallback on in less demanding circumstances and overuse can have a negative impact.
(2) The Participative Style: "What do you think?" The leader asks for and values input from the team. They create an environment where ideas and timely constructive criticism is welcome, building commitment through participation.
(3) The Pacesetting Style: "Do what I do, Now!" The leader provides challenge, demands high standards and leads by example. This style is proven to get results from a motivated and highly competent team. However, for those who can't keep up it can be demoralizing.
b) Transformational Leadership
(1) The Coaching Style: "What could you achieve?" The leader encourages dialogue and focuses on the future. It develops others by helping them identify their own strengths and weaknesses and building long-term capabilities; and
(2) The Affiliative Style: "People come first". The leader focuses on the needs of both individuals and teams, building bonds and creating rapport. But, too much focus on people can allow poor results to go unchecked, threatening the achievement of the task.

Finally, the AC 72021 highlights, "research has shown that the most effective leaders regularly use at least four of these styles", suggesting that they have to act with flexibility.

So, even though the military proposals of the manual, it is linked to the civilian literature.
3) Spain

This year, the Spanish Army started the development of a new concept to provide unity of leadership doctrine for the 2035 horizon: the Derivative Concept 01 (2019). The main reason was to better face the future challenges of the 2035 horizon, determined by its Volatility (V), Uncertainty (U), Complexity (C) and Ambiguity (A), typical of a VUCA environment, that will generate confusion and instability and make it difficult the anticipation of threats and the use of opportunities, as well as adequate decision making.

According to the initiative, in a VUCA environment, Army commanders, from the head of a squad to the Operation Commander, will have to adapt and innovate quickly on the battlefield, be agile, creative, adaptable and resilient. The bosses should promote the initiative of their subordinates, to favor the agility of the organization, in a context in which the speed of events will favor the decentralization of decision-making.

The Directive $01 / 2019$ does not refers to a roll of styles of leadership, but highlight two relevant points:

> An adaptable boss [the highlight is ours] is the one who is able to incorporate many of the different approaches into his leadership style, knows when to assert each of them ahead of others, and lead his team on a goood path according to the different needs.
> Resilient leadership [the highlight is ours] is that exercised by bosses who help their suboridinates to resist the crisis, adapt to situations, and recover from adversity. The resilient leader is the one who inspires others to achieve the goals they could not have achieved on their own. (p. 12)

Thereby, for the complex and uncertain future, it will be necessary for a leader to have these skills to see the best moment to act appropriately by adjusting his style of leadership to the possible demands.

The Spanish Army is working on this matter also based on current academic research, considering the historical, social evolutions. As already mentioned above in this paper, for decades, the studies followed natural new perceptions. Therefore, SUANCES (2011) confronts the maintenance of the type of leadership over time with its adaptation to social changes:

Admitting the existence of some immutable principles, I consider the need for permanent adaptation of leadership styles unquestionable. Leadership is, above all, an interpersonal relationship that must be adjusted to the evolution of people and societies [the highlight is ours]. This relationship is very conditioned by the perception that the subordinate has of the actions of the leader and the perceptions, even of the same words or gestures, are not equal in a person born in the 21st century than in one who lived in World War II. The leader has to know what world he lives in and understand that, as Confucius said: "Only the wisest and the stupidest never change." (p. 69).

## 3. CONCLUSION

It was possible to observe the high degree of importance that leadership has today because of the various challenges present in the modern world. In the complex and ambiguous military landscape, advanced technology, and the rapid flow of information in the field demand effective leadership capable of providing unity and mutual trust.

The research aimed to analyze the concept of styles of leadership in the EB literature since 1991 and collaborate to increase the teaching of the subject. The core of the present work was precisely to show that the theoretical approaches of leadership have been evolving, exploring the academic, and foreigner military sources.

Leadership studies began with the trait-based approaches of leaders at the beginning of the last century. In the late 1930s, the behavioral view brought the development of new theories, seeking to identify similar actions for effective leaders. Terms such as autocratic, democratic, and delegative leaders appeared in the academic vocabulary.

Decades later, the IP 20-10, implemented by the EB in 1991, presented the styles of leadership and denoted the idea that there would be no flexibility in the characteristics of each type, with leaders labeled as authoritarian, democratic, or delegative. Besides, the democratic leader was the standard character.

Among the various thoughts, this research highlighted Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory, as understood by the study, which would be suited to the military context. Regarding the use of this theory in EB, it represents an evolution of C 20-10, released in 2011. It leaves the "static leadership" characterized in the old IP 20-10, which defined the democratic leader as the ideal for the institution. The situational approach has included the relational and dynamic aspects of leadership, by considering that the action of a leader compensates the behavior of the followers.

The text of the new manual has no longer used the concept of types of leadership anymore. Today, the terminology classified as autocratic, participative, and delegative still is in the C 20-10, but referring to styles of command. It gave way to more elaborate and contextualized to situational variables, as seen in this paper. Otherwise, it is possible to update, by including examples for better comprehension and following the evolution of studies and theories, as it happens with the other doctrinal sources of the Brazilian Army.

This research merged these strands of thought, the complementarity observed between them and the similar and successful examples from other military sources, especially the USA, UK, and Spain. The USA Army issue focuses on the leadership levels and the
competencies required. This investigation noted that the British Army's manual combined situational, transformational, and transactional leadership theories in a practical way. The new Spanish Army initiative concentrates on thinking about the uncertainties of the future and also based on cultural aspects changes in a future VUCA world.

Leadership must adapt to the culture, the changing demands of the workplace, the creation of organizational networks and the pursuit of flexibility, and new relationships between commandants and subordinates. Usually, military personnel can adapt more quickly than others to different life and work situations. It is possible that individuals can learn how to diagnose a leadership situation and can, at least to some extent, change their style to make their leadership more effective in that situation.

It is hoped that this research will help in the use of new theories, giving them the proper practical imprint on the lessons learned in the literature. Therefore, it will be possible to improve and optimize leadership practices, developing interpersonal relationships, which will benefit Human Resources.

Thus, despite the variety of terms raised, it is necessary to evaluate which are close to the EB environment. In the same vein, it is not intended to exhaust in this work all possible types of leadership, since there are several studies on this subject.

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