EXCELLENT MANAGERS:

Exploring the Acquisition, Measurement, and Impact of Leader Skills in an Australian Business Context

Shane Douglas Muldoon
BEcs [Hons] [UNE], BSW [Hons] [Melb],
DipCrim [PostGrad] [Melb], MA [Hons] [Melb]

30th June 2003

VOLUME ONE

Research Report

Excellent Managers

For information:

Shane Douglas Muldoon,

School of Management,

Victoria University of Technology,

Footscray Park Campus,

PO Box 14428, MCMC

Melbourne,

Victoria,

AUSTRALIA, 8001.

Email: nap@netsol.net.au

Telephone: (03) 9354 5459

Excellent Managers

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This thesis explores the acquisition, measurement, and impact of leader skills in relation to business managers' performance in an Australian context. The central problem explored in this thesis is whether effective managers are the same as successful managers, and the role of leader skills in that respect. Studies of managers commonly equate effectiveness with success. However, Luthans, Hodgetts and Rosenkrantz (1988) have shown that effectiveness and success are not identical concepts. In this thesis, research results are classified into four categories. Managers recognised as achieving both individual success and leader effectiveness are classified as excellent. Those who are comparatively high in individual success but low in leader effectiveness are classified as career managers. Highly effective managers with low individual success are classified as achievement managers. Finally, those low in individual success and low in leader effectiveness are classified as student managers. This classification framework is named the Manager Quad. It is presented in Figure 3.1.

The quadrant categories are based on the results of a quantitative survey of 185 work unit members and 43 managers drawn from 49 work units employed in 17 companies. These results are reported in Chapter Five. Qualitative data derived from 16 interviews of managers are also analysed and reported in Chapters Six and Seven.

The theoretical framework for this thesis, resulting in the four categories, involves a Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership developed within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. This theory is summarised in Section 3.4. It is theorised that outcomes like effectiveness and success depend upon leader skills accrued from life-long learning processes. It is proposed that excellent managers' behaviours form a highly proficient, integrated set of leader skills within what is described in this thesis as the Leader Action Characteristics Set (LACS).

This thesis presents a leader skill instrument referred to as the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI). The instrument demonstrates parsimony, reliability, and validity in an Australian business context. Statistical analysis of data shows leader skill proficiencies are related to managers' leader effectiveness, individual success, and work unit performance.

Additionally, qualitative analyses indicate four Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs), which provide important conceptual extension of the quad. DILPs are shown to distinguish managers' abilities to define situations that produce desirable business results.

In this thesis it is argued that leader skills are relative rather than absolute. The data analysis classifies a number of respondents as excellent managers, indicating that Australia has a reasonable number of business managers with highly proficient leader skills, and shows many other Australian managers possess very sound, though incomplete sets of leader skills.

Contents

Contents

Contents

List of Participating Companies

❖ Bendigo Bank

❖ Boral Plasterboard

❖ Bradmill

❖ Chubb

❖ City West Water

❖ Citywide Service Solutions

❖ Clelands Coldstores

❖ Franklins Ltd

❖ Jeanswest

❖ Lonely Planet Publications

❖ Monsanto

❖ Patrick Stevedores

❖ Pilkington

❖ Pivot Agriculture

❖ Skilled Engineering

❖ SPI Powernet

❖ TXU Networks

List of Tables

List of Tables

List of Figures

Glossary of Terms

This glossary lists and defines major terms of this thesis. Additionally, there is an index covering these plus other important terms from relevant literatures, which provides ease of reference to the text for further explanation.

Achievement managers are those who tend to be more effective as leaders and less successful as individuals. It is surmised that these outcomes are due to their leader skills being lopsided in degree of integrated expertise.

Balanced, Masterful Self is a specific form of business identity that combines tendencies toward both blending self-orientation and other-orientation and blending work unit and company foci, with integrated, proficient leader skills.

Career managers are those who have relatively high individual success and low leader effectiveness. It is surmised that these outcomes result from lopsided leader skills, but in a different fashion to the leader skills of achievement managers.

Company business success refers to the extent a commercial firm has an ongoing basis for generating income, repaying debt, securing investment monies, and providing returns to its principals.

Company-extended Self is a specific form of business identity that combines tendencies toward self-orientation and a company focus with relatively high strategic influence leader skills.

Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs) reproduce the Manager Quad in light of interpreted case descriptions advanced consequent to analyses of qualitative data collected via interviews. DILPs refer to managers' different patterns of antecedents and correlates along with leader skills, which were interpreted to arise from life-long social learning processes, and in relation to performance outcomes. These distinctive patterns were clear. Achievement managers displayed a work unit self, with relatively high leader effectiveness and comparatively low individual success; career managers a company-extended self, with relatively high individual success and comparatively low leader effectiveness; student managers a needful self, with relatively low levels of both individual success and leader effectiveness; and excellent managers a balanced and masterful self, with comparatively high levels of both leader effectiveness and individual success. The DILPs *theoretically* connect qualitative case descriptions, leader skillsets, and outcomes.

Glossary of Terms

Excellent managers refer to those who are both highly effective as leaders and highly successful as individuals. It is surmised that these outcomes are due to highly developed and integrated levels of leader skills.

Individual success means a manager's career progress as determined by his or her age-related organisational and remuneration levels.

Interactive leader skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are attributed with regard to present business realities via mutual definition of the situation by leader and followers, and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

Interformative leader skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are attributed with respect to future business realities via mutual definition of the situation by leader and followers, and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

Leader is defined as someone who provides a way for others (followers) to develop, understand, accept, and work toward achieving collective (group or organisational) goals, without recourse to methods of domination, either formally or informally, and regardless of organisational lines of authority and responsibility.

Leader Action Characteristics Set (LACS) refers to an initial, systematic statement of leader skills drawn from leader behaviours commonly nominated in the literature, and that are interpreted within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. This statement provides a framework of items for empirical data collection and factor analyses. It is thus the basis for the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory.

Leader effectiveness refers to the extent managers enable job satisfaction and commitment; morale and team spirit; task efficiency and goal achievement; and overall work unit performance, as judged by work unit members. This is the manager's direct contribution to work unit business life.

Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI) is the name given to an instrument for measuring leader skills developed by the writer consequent to factor analyses of survey data. It is so named to distinguish it from other scales in the literature and from its parent behavioural characteristics described in LACS, and to emphasise its anchorage in the Symbolic Interactionist paradigm.

Leader skills proficiency is represented in a set of patterned and reproducible behaviours learned by managers to high levels allowing them to systematically

influence their work unit members to develop, understand, accept and work toward achievement of company goals, without recourse to methods of domination.

Leadership i*s* defined as an interactive process wherein an individual (the leader) provides a way for others (followers) to develop, understand, accept, and work toward achieving collective (group or organisational) goals, without recourse to methods of domination.

Management refers to the classic functions of planning, leading, organising, and controlling at both the work unit and broader organisational levels, and these functions may be exercised individually or collectively.

Manager is defined as someone who is formally appointed to an organisational position with the title of 'manager', irrespective of whether he or she is formally responsible for other employees.

Manager Quad (MQ) refers to a model of managers developed by the writer. Managers are cross-classified initially according to the degree of their individual success and the degree of their leader effectiveness. This quad structure incorporates and builds upon the work of others, with due acknowledgements.

Managers as leaders are individuals who are managers in the above sense, *and* who manage people *or* who are at least in formal leadership positions, whether or not they embrace all the remaining classic management functions.

Needful Self is a specific form of business identity that combines tendencies toward self-orientation and a work-unit focus with non-integrated, deficient leader skills.

Reality Management Theory (RMT) is an original theory of individualised leadership developed by the writer from relevant literatures. This theory essentially states that managers' leader skills involve managing meaning and defining situations, that the degree and nature of these skills determine their outcomes, and that the outcomes of leader effectiveness and individual success provide a basis for categorising managers. This theory incorporates and builds upon the work of others, with due acknowledgements.

Remuneration is calculated as the total of salary, the value of both self and employer superannuation contributions, salary sacrifice, performance bonuses, company stock and dividend plans, company vehicle benefits, health payments, education expenses and any other dollar value items forming part of a manager's current compensation package.

Glossary of Terms

Self/other-orientation refers to whether managers are typically self-oriented to their own personal circumstances or other-oriented to the circumstances of people around them, or both.

Strategic influence leader skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are imputed by followers regarding definitions of the situation in the external environment on behalf of the business work unit (at least putatively), but with implicit career enhancement potential and/or purposes, and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

Student managers are those who are comparatively neither effective as leaders nor successful as individuals. It is surmised that these outcomes are due to as yet poorly developed and integrated levels of leader skills.

Work unit performance means the extent of job satisfaction and commitment; morale and team spirit; task efficiency and goal achievement; and overall work unit performance, regardless of motivational source, as judged by work unit members.

Work Unit Self is a specific form of business identity that combines tendencies toward other-orientation and a work-unit focus with relatively low strategic influence leader skills.

Work unit/company focus refers to whether managers are typically concerned with their work unit or with the overall company, or both, and whether their concern is self-serving or altruistic.

List of Theories and Models

This list cites the major theories and models (with acronyms bracketed) in relevant literatures that are mentioned in this thesis at the given page number. Additionally, there is an index of terms (including those here asterisked) that are particularly significant to this thesis, which provides ease of reference to the text for further explanation.

1 Introduction

(T)he effectiveness of a leader lies in his (sic!) ability to make activity meaningful for those in his role set… If in addition the leader can put it into words*, then the meaning of what the group is doing becomes a* social fact *(Pondy 1978, pp. 94-95, original emphases).*

Whether effective managers are equivalent to successful managers, and how this relates to leader skills concerning meaningfulness, are central questions of this thesis. Discussions of the relationship between being a manager and being a leader are still vexed with conceptual muddiness. The measure of leader effectiveness, the prevalent concern of researchers, remains problematic. There are many measures, and no universally agreed benchmark of what it means to be an effective leader. Definitions of leader and leadership are similarly multifarious. It is commonly assumed there is no difference between business and other kinds of leaders, so it is acceptable to conflate them in leadership models and research programs. Leaders at the top of organisations, at middle and lower levels, and in various functional departments, have all been examined copiously, but most often separately, in different studies employing various paradigms and methods. Very few researchers have studied leaders at all levels and functional areas within a single research program. The role of strategy as part of everyday individualised leadership is largely unexplored, although there is no shortage of strategic leadership writings. The transactional and transformational leadership distinction, incorporated into numerous specific models of leadership at the individual level, remains inadequately developed in terms of theory and testable hypotheses. The debate has not moved far from the question of whether leaders are born or made. The question of becoming a leader is almost unbroken ground. Researchers have hardly started to examine how leaders are made, what are their antecedents and correlates, and what developmental processes are involved. It is even arguable that an entire school of thought remains unidentified in the huge leadership literature. These are the main issues addressed in this thesis, which focuses upon business managers as leaders.

The thesis makes two major contributions to the study of leadership: one of empirical test within an exploratory frame, the other of conceptual analysis. Empirical exploration involves a new instrument for measuring leader skills, statistical testing of hypotheses, and qualitative data analyses. Conceptual analysis concerns

1 Introduction

development of an original theory of leadership and an associated classification of managers.

1.1 Problem Identification

Initiation of the research problem. In 1988, Luthans, Hodgetts and Rosenkrantz published results of their four-year study of management practices, involving 457 managers. Their study produced findings directly relevant to the problem to be investigated in this thesis. They distinguished, for the first time in the literature, between managers who were successful in terms of career progression, and those who were effective in the sense of satisfied, organisationally committed subordinates and work unit performance. They found successful managers and effective managers systematically differed in relative frequency of their activities. Effective *and* successful managers also were discussed briefly, but found to be indistinguishable from managers generally in relative frequency of their activities.

What then is the difference? Do these latter managers actually exist in the real world, or did Luthans and his colleagues find a random event? Can they be distinguished from other sorts of managers, and especially from their logical opposites? If they exist, why are they different? What makes them effective *and* successful? If it is not relative frequency of managerial activities, what is it? What are the implications for practice, policy, and education in the field of management? A literature review linked these questions to leadership. The following sketches this link to define the research problem of this thesis.

Managers' leader skills, education, and related research in Australia. In Australia, the Karpin Report (1995) was commissioned by the Federal Government to review the performance of Australia's managers compared to their counterparts in other countries. Its findings conclude: [a] Australian managers lack competitive leadership skills and even awareness of the need, [b] this twin deficit requires urgent redress, and [c] redress is constituted by ongoing measures. Particularly, research supporting this report found that international best practice warranted high priority to upgrading front line managers' leadership skills in an Australian context (Vines, Ivanoff, Griss and Prentice 1995); yet Australian management education, training, and development practices neglected them (Rothman and Stewart-Weeks 1995).

The Karpin Report (1995) considers that Australian managers are not only vital to business success, but that they are so in respect to learnable skills, that these skills require enhancement, and that this is especially true of leadership. Subsequent media attention promoted a belief, especially within the business and academic

1 Introduction

communities, that Australian business managers needed to significantly enhance their leader skills. Indeed, in an article entitled "What's All the Karping About Down Under", one of the most prominent and influential contemporary writers in leadership devoted his attention to this very issue (Avolio 1996). This is despite the view of Craig and Yetton (1995), who conducted the literature review for the Karpin Report (1995), that there is little evidence of leadership contributing to organisational performance, which depends more upon managerial competencies such as setting high but achievable goals for employees, and ensuring appropriate reward systems. Still, that report defines the problem of management essentially as one of leadership. It suggests that answers to the above questions lie in leader skills. Similar conclusions have been drawn from various viewpoints by other observers of the Australian scene (Dunphy and Stace 1990; Andrewartha, Correll and Pickett 1996; Evans 1996; Sinclair 1998), as elsewhere (Smith and Peterson 1988; Buhler 1998). Yet there is a relative paucity of leadership research in Australia (Parry and Proctor 2000). These issues of managers' leader skills, related management education, and paucity of relevant research in Australia are central to this thesis.

Broader leadership literatures and research. Bennis (1997) considers that there is now a crisis of leadership. He laments leadership is lost and suggests remedies for its resurrection. The title of his book is insightful: *Managing People is Like Herding Cats.* He stresses the challenge of contemporary leaders in terms of managing people who have their own minds. Although there are differences between his thinking and arguments in this thesis, there is agreement on this key challenge. This reflects a central theme of this thesis: management practice rests upon leader skills, and the effectiveness and success of managers depends largely upon the nature and development of those skills.

There is a renewed interest in the nature of leadership for the 21st century. Many writers observe fundamental changes demanding a 'new leadership'. Bass (1990) refers to a variety of now well-established societal changes, including the information revolution, industrial democracy, decline of unionism, robotics and computers, aging population, exporting of industry, increasing employment of women, deregulation, environmental concerns, and multinationalisation of firms. Drucker (1986) argues a symbol economy of capital and currency flows has arisen to dwarf goods and services in global trade. Abramson (1997) points to downsizing, knowledge workers, telecommuting, and globalisation. Neef (1999) outlines the significance of the new knowledge-based, global marketplace. Sarros, Densten and Santora (1999) succinctly recount advances in the personal computer and Internet. Dunphy and Stace (1990), as well as Sinclair (1998), similarly discuss a range of

1 Introduction

forces that compel rethinking the nature and purposes of today's leaders. These forces have helped to promote the emergence of strategic analysis and decision-making as critical management skills. Tomorrow's leaders are not necessarily those of the past. Karpin (1995) describes the 'leader/enabler' for 2010. Conger (1993a) says future leaders must become globally aware strategic opportunists.

Yet changing needs and nature of leadership do not require relinquishing historical thought, issues, and theory, but rather reformulating leadership theorising as suggested by McElroy and Hunger (1988). Earlier scholars' efforts still provide a basis for extrapolating research directions such as the processes of leadership, its essential subjectivity and contingent nature, the role of culture, the relationship between appointed and emergent leaders, among other concerns (Bass 1990; House and Baetz 1990; Chemers and Ayman 1993b; Parry and Proctor 2000). Although this thesis proffers contributions at both conceptual and empirical levels, therefore, the original theoretical elements of the thesis owe much to other scholars, and these debts are duly acknowledged at appropriate points.

The research problem. These considerations help define the research problem of this thesis as whether effective managers are the same as successful managers, and the role of leader skills in this regard, within an Australian business context. Are there Australian business managers whose contemporary leader skills make them both effective and successful in contradistinction to others? If so, what can they teach us to help redress the perceived relative poor performance of Australian managers? The problem of leadership continues as a core business management concern (Smith and Peterson 1988; Buhler 1998; Ashkanasy 2000). This thesis revisits the manager/leader debate to propose that leader skills help determine systematic differences among managers, and it explores new ways of formulating and resolving this perennial problem.

1.2 Aims

This thesis broadly investigates whether there *is* an integrative class of managers who are both *effective and successful*, and tests in an exploratory fashion a new theory of leader skill differentials, (not relative frequency of managerial activities), relating to this and other classes of managers. Its contribution to the study of leadership is thus twofold, being both empirical and conceptual in intent.

Specific research aims are to:

1. Examine the worth of distinguishing effectiveness from success in a business management context, and formulate a model of managers on this basis;

1 Introduction

2.   Contribute to the development of business leadership theory within a previously unarticulated paradigm, emphasising leader skills acquisition;

3.   Develop a new instrument for measuring individualised business leadership in terms of broadbased leader skills, including a dimension concerning strategy;

4.   Provide new knowledge of business managers in the State of Victoria, and the impact of their leader skills on important business outcomes;

5.   Enhance our understanding of what lies behind different performance levels of business managers within an Australian context; and

6.   Extrapolate findings to business leadership training and development, and management education, with reference to the manager/leader debate.

Regarding the first three points, this thesis is concerned primarily with managers as leaders in today's business world. Research purposes include extending leadership theory to take account of contemporary developments in business practice and management education. An original model of managers as leaders is constructed, incorporating a generic skill acquisition focus and strategy dimension, and explicit research hypotheses are tested. These are exploratory intents with a view to follow-up research programs.

This thesis also aims to make substantive additions to the management field. The final three points indicate how this is achieved. Research proceeds mainly in an important Melbourne business precinct that significantly impacts the Australian economy, on an issue of national prominence for some time. This thesis emphasises business managers' leader skills, and training and development in this respect, rather than management systems and structures.

In respect to these aims, key terms are defined conceptually and operationally in this thesis, and these are listed in the glossary and index. Most notably, this includes definitions of leader, leadership, leader skills proficiency, manager, management, leader effectiveness, individual success, work unit performance, and company success. Also, the index includes a range of leader skills and other important terms, and there is a list of leadership theories and models.

1.3 Summary of Significance

Leadership as a basic concern. This thesis focuses upon the problem of leadership in an Australian business management context following upon a national inquiry that indicated the need for further research, for appropriate business responses, and for continuing policy action (Karpin 1995). A great deal is still being written on the subject, and this alone suggests its continuing importance (Smith and

1 Introduction

Peterson 1988; Buhler 1998). There remains a general consensus that leaders do matter, for better or worse, in deciding the fortunes of organisations. The widespread popularity of leadership development programs in Australia and elsewhere attests to this. Also, most leadership research is conducted overseas, especially in the U.S.A., with very little in the antipodes, and hence an Australian contribution has merit (Sarros et al. 1999; Parry and Proctor 2000).

Strategic import. This thesis is also important because strategy is included in its ambit, and today's leaders are increasingly considered *strategically* decisive. Dainty and Anderson (1996) cogently argue this consequent to their eight year research programme involving over 200 executives. Similarly, Whipp and Pettigrew (1993) state that different leadership needs are produced in different eras, and leaders must adapt accordingly, and an important recent adaptation concerns the advent of strategy in management thinking and practice.

Strategic leader skills seem imperative in the growing global business environment of the 21st century. In recent years, Australian companies and government departments have increasingly recognised this and hired management consultants to develop the strategic knowledge and skills of managers. This reflects a belief that the cutting edge of organisational performance lies in strategy, which remains, with certain qualifications, the prime responsibility of managers as leaders (Hagen, Hassan and Amin 1998; Thompson and Strickland 1998).

Leader skills focus. Again, this thesis is important as it emphasises, and undertakes for the first time, measuring *leader skills* as *essential* both to coherent theorising about leadership and to testing its outcomes within a defined model at the individual level. The importance of numerous leadership variables has been investigated and documented, as shown in the literature review (s. 2.2). Much has been written about leader skills in diverse literatures. Specific leader competencies have been examined within broad frameworks of managerial skills (Spencer and Spencer 1993; Dainty and Anderson 1996; Armstrong 1998). Andrewartha et al. (1996) advanced competency standards in terms of key roles such as managing people, assuming managers and leaders are identical. To confuse matters, work purporting to address leader skills often includes factors that are demonstrably not so, such as personality factors, traits, or values (Yukl 1981). A skills-based approach has been identified as one of the major perspectives in leadership training (Conger 1992). Yet there appears no articulated theory and associated measurement of a leader skillset as such. A decade ago, House and Baetz (1990) observed leader competency as a missing element in leadership studies, and as an important future

research direction. This neglect has not been redressed significantly, and particularly not as an integral component of a defined model of individualised leadership.

Contemporary conceptual framework. More generally, therefore, this thesis is important as it offers a contemporary conceptual framework that allows empirical relationships among defined business variables of generic leader skills and outcomes to be tested, although this is an exploratory effort. This thesis develops an original theory, model, and related instrument, within a Symbolic Interactionist perspective, and it promises new insights into the problem of leadership in *today's* business world. The specific theory concerns broadbased business leader skills that are not confined to an industry, organisational level, or functional area. That is, it is generic, rather than focussed upon, for example, top leaders or middle managers or professionals. Hence, it has general business application potential.

The possibility of identifying excellent managers as a learning exemplar. Excellent managers are postulated to exist in the real world, so it is important to discover whether they do and, if so, why they warrant the superlative. It is important to investigate whether they display identifiable behaviours in the form of high-level leader skills that can be learned, which would suggest others could be trained to become excellent managers. It is also important to examine the link between leadership skill proficiencies and company performance indicators and, specifically, to explicate excellent managers' relative contribution to a firm's business success. The framework proffered in this thesis provides a means for identifying excellent managers for such purposes, and to permit further case study research accordingly. Here, it is important to explore whether excellent managers share growth experiences and background; and how they achieve, maintain, and hone leader skills. These are central tasks of this thesis.

Australian managers' leader skills and performance. Finally, this thesis potentially provides insights into the publicised issue of Australian business managers being relatively poor performers, consequent particularly to the Karpin Report (1995) and other writings noted above (s. 1.1). This has been attributed to leadership and educational deficits. It is also a perception of Australian managers' leader skills. This thesis anticipates important insights into leadership may be drawn from those Australians found to be excellent managers, which, in turn, may help to reduce any stereotypical view of Australian managers as poor performers.

Conceptual and empirical interest. The overall importance of this thesis is that it provides two major contributions to the field of leadership, against the backdrop of the leader/manager debate. One is of conceptual interest and the other is of empirical interest. There is the original development of a theory of leader skills, of an

associated instrument, and of a classification of managers. These conceptual developments are examined in an exploratory fashion using quantitative and qualitative data analyses. Accordingly, within its exploratory limits, this thesis has practical application potential in management education and business policy.

1.4 Structure of this Thesis

Following this introductory material, Chapter Two provides a review of the literature in terms of the effectiveness/success distinction, approaches to leadership, and the leader/manager debate with reference to strategy. This includes nominating Symbolic Interactionism as a hitherto unidentified paradigm of leadership, within which this thesis is formulated.

Chapter Three is devoted to the development of an original theory of individualised leadership, with reference to particular bodies of literature, and acknowledgement of intellectual debts. Section 3.1 provides a discussion of the paradigm to show more precisely how the theory developed in this thesis relates to allied theory and key concepts. Hence, in sections 3.1.1 to 3.1.4, theoretical components of this thesis are explained in four parts, and in section 3.1.5 these are drawn together. Section 3.2 provides a description of the theoretical infrastructure of this thesis, putting the fifth paradigm in perspective of broader literature on leadership. Section 3.3 is devoted to articulating the particular leadership theory and model of this thesis, and section 3.4 provides a summation of that theory. Section 3.5 documents key terms and general propositions.

Chapter Four details the field program's methodology and techniques.

Chapter Five includes a description of the companies, work units, and individual participants, plus analyses of quantitative survey data focused upon measurement and impact of leader skills in a business environment, including hypothesis testing.

Chapter Six provides a tri-level descriptive examination of qualitative case interview data concerning antecedents and correlates of managers, with a view to better understanding leader skill acquisition. This chapter is intended as a basis for the next one.

Chapter Seven presents an interpretive understanding of manager patterns, emphasising excellent managers, and a discussion of implications for management education and Australian managers' business performance.

Chapter Eight provides conclusions and inferences from the research findings.

2 Business Managers as Leaders

The scholarly context of the thesis is circumscribed by a number of aspects of the business management literature. These are reviewed in order to build first the foundations and then the superstructure of a theory of managers as leaders. Whilst quite extensive, this review must be selective, and it does not exhaustively cover the insights and ideas of those writings that are included. The intent is to provide a sufficiently representative, fair, and informative account to render a sound basis for this thesis.

2.1 Effective Managers and Successful Managers

First, there is the question of effective versus successful managers, or rather its absence from relevant literature.

Skills. Recent studies concerning effective managers and successful managers continue to equate effectiveness with success, which is frequently ascribed to a manager's strategies or skills as a leader, usually without coherent theory (Calonious 1990; Lipshitz and Nevo 1992; Davidhizar and Shearer 1993; Hill 1998; Landry 1999; Miller 1999). Typical concerns have included breaking rules, learning strategy, avoiding aggressive conduct, emotional intelligence, time management, and contextual influences. Some studies are more focused upon what makes for a successful (assumed to mean effective) management career, and they too tend to emphasise leadership skillsets. To succeed, managers need to develop skills to fit into the corporate culture (Pearse and Bear 1998), and to have an ability to learn from experience (Spreitzer, McCall and Mahoney 1997). Women confront a 'glass ceiling,' and they require special skills and strategies to penetrate corporate cultures (Ragins, Townsend and Mattis 1998; Daily, Certo and Dalton 1999).

Deficient studies. Often studies of successful managers are very limited, being characterised by small, arguably biased samples of managers, (usually executives); conversational interviewing as the main research tool; and a general lack of analytical rigor (Watson 1997; Morgenson 1998). This is not always so. The rigorous study by Carless, Mann and Wearing (1996) is one of the relatively few sophisticated leadership research projects in an Australian setting.

Two key assumptions. Like much though certainly not all of the broader literature reviewed shortly, the foregoing studies also frequently assume that managers are interchangeable with leaders, and that effectiveness results in and

thus equates to success. Both these assumptions are demonstrated in the Craig and Yetton (1995) review of leadership studies.

A fallow distinction. The distinction between effectiveness and success has not been generally taken up as a research issue. Whisenant (1998) followed the distinction of Luthans et al. (1988) to find that, contrary to expectations, networking was not significantly related to an applicant's success in obtaining a position as an intercollegiate athletics director. Whisenant (1998) thus failed to corroborate the distinction in one respect. However, distinguishing effectiveness from success has lain largely fallow as an idea, submerged in the controversy about effectiveness, and in the debate on leaders and managers. Thus, instead of generating further investigations, the idea's worth remains an open question. This thesis explores its merit for clarifying issues in relation to managers as leaders.

The issue of effectiveness versus success: leader skills. Notwithstanding the study just cited, Luthans et al. (1988) have convincingly shown that effectiveness and success are not identical, that the distinction is at least real, if not of crucial importance. Their study was four years long, large and rigorous, using multiple techniques, and collecting and analysing information on 457 managers across many companies and industries. It demonstrates that effective managers differ from successful managers in terms of what they do and how often they do it. However, it also raises questions of why managers who are effective *and* successful do not differ systematically in their activities from managers generally, and therefore what is the significance of this, if any? To answer these questions the above studies, in line with the Karpin (1995) report, suggest turning to leader skills. This is accomplished here by reviewing the literature on major approaches to leadership, and on the managers versus leaders debate with reference to strategy.

2.2 Leadership Theory and Thought

The nature of the literature on leadership. The literature on leadership is remarkable for its enormous size, diversity and dynamism. Over ten thousand studies are recorded; numerous specific theories have been posited; key concepts and operational variations abound; issues are multifarious; and agreement and disagreement are equally prolific about what is and what is not important (Burns 1978; Bennis and Nanus 1985; Bass 1990; Bryman 1992; Cooper 2000). Stogdill (1974) surveyed leadership theory and research and concluded there are almost as many definitions as writers on the subject, and many have since reiterated this view despite Rost's (1991) reported contrary opinion that relatively few leadership writers

actually define the term (Barker 1997). Under these circumstances, any thesis concerning the topic must define the term itself, at least briefly describe major leadership approaches, provide a critical review of these in terms of research evidence, and state a position regarding what has gone before.

The definition of leadership in this thesis. Although defining **leadership** is itself problematic (Conger 1992), partly because of the enormous attention it has received, a basic definition is mandatory. It is conceived in this thesis as *an interactive process wherein an individual (the **leader**) provides a way for others (**followers**) to develop, understand, accept, and work toward achieving collective (group or organisational) goals, without recourse to methods of domination.*

Notably, this is a micro-level concept at the level of individual-group interactions, and does not include variables at meso- and macro-levels. The importance of this is argued as the thesis is developed. This conceptualisation is indebted most notably to writers who have distinguished a leader by virtue of follower acceptance from someone who *simply* imposes his or her will on others by use of force or fear of some kind (Pigors 1935; Burns 1978; Hollander 1993). It is not that a leader may not be sometimes or even often autocratic, but rather that leadership involves a mutually devised compact between leader and followers, so that it does not rely solely on one party's instruments of power. Additionally, this conception does not preclude other functions of management insofar as they overlap with that of leadership. As Yukl (1981) notes, conceptions of leadership and management have been long intertwined closely.

Categories of leadership thought. Leadership writings are assigned generally into four main categories, despite various nomenclatures, including 'new' and 'emerging' theories (Boal 2000; Lowe 2000). These are discussed in some detail in this chapter. Strategic leadership writings are intertwined within these categories, yet there is a distinct literature devoted to strategic leadership as well, and it is considered regarding the manager/leader debate (s. 2.3). Each category is akin to Kuhn's (1970) notion of a paradigm as a mode of scientific inquiry competing in terms of enduring adherents; a body of interwoven theoretical beliefs; legitimate problems and unresolved issues; and typical methods, rules, and standards. In the leadership field there is considerable fluidity around these characteristics, especially the last one, and it might be argued that there are as yet no established paradigms.

A fifth category is nominated here. Including the fifth, none of these categories have impermeable barriers, and many of the more specific theories have accrued such large and distinct bodies of writing to warrant some consideration as

emerging paradigms in their own right. These five categories are now reviewed before proceeding to the manager/leader debate.

2.2.1 Trait/Grand Person

Whilst the origins of Trait Theory (TT) are lost in antiquity, along with myths of demi-gods as leaders of mortal humans, it is usually traced in modern times to World War 1 Commissioned and Non-Commissioned Officer selection procedures using psychological tests. Earlier references can be found, and these were influential in their times (Galton 1870; Terman 1904; Smith and Peterson 1988). Theories of this sort share the common premise of natural born leaders.

General Trait Theory and Grand Person Theory. There are two kinds of Trait Theory: arguments that consider leaders of all sorts are somehow commonly born to their lot, and those that are particularly concerned with the 'grand person'. In its broad application, Trait Theory seeks to discover the innate characteristics that supposedly distinguish leaders from followers, and result in some people being born leaders and others being born followers. In this view, all leaders are special by birth.

Grand Person Theory (GPT) is a variant of Trait Theory that proposes leaders who become acclaimed as 'great' are even more special than leaders who do their job without achieving fame or notoriety. People who shape history, who successfully persuade masses of their fellows to follow them during cataclysmic times, who lead under exceptional circumstances, who raise themselves and their followers above the mundane of everyday life, are leaders who seem to be especially gifted. Indeed, they appear to have supernatural powers and to be fulfilling their destinies, so mere mortals could not hope to emulate them. Because they seem blessed with extraordinary gifts, they are even more readily thought to be natural born leaders. The theme of extraordinary ability is revisited in discussions of transformational leadership, (s. 2.2.4). For now, it is enough to observe that Trait Theory generally is underpinned by an assumption (albeit strongest in GPT) that leaders are not ordinary people.

Universal versus situation-contingent traits. There is also a significant differentiation between universal leader traits and situation-contingent leader traits (Stogdill 1974; Sackett 1987; Bass 1990). The former refers to the idea that born leaders can lead under any circumstances, that they have special gifts that are transferable across all situations, that they therefore can be the leader regardless of industry/company knowledge, type of group, characteristics of followers, and so on. The latter is referred to as a revival of Trait Theory in more recent writings. It states

that natural leadership talents are more specifically constituted, that leader traits form into differential clusters, so that leaders are born to lead according to circumstance. Some natural leaders will come into their own in one sort of situation, others will be born to lead in a different kind of situation. A leader of soldiers in battle is not necessarily a leader of scientists at the cutting edge of space technologies.

Current relevance. Although not now a popular approach, Trait Theory is still evident in the leadership literature. Sometimes it appears as an underlying assumption. At other times it is more explicit, but only part of another, broad perspective such as Stratified Systems Theory (SST) (Boal and Whitehead 1992; Hooijberg and Quinn 1992). It is also still considered by eminent leadership researchers to be worthy of continuing attention (House and Baetz 1990), and possibly a question of degree to which leadership is genetic or developmental (Conger 1992).

Aside from the distinction of leaders from followers, Trait Theory also often deals with two other distinctions: that between higher-echelon and lower-echelon leaders, and that between effective and ineffective leaders. It is this last that is of greatest interest, and that occupies the minds of leadership researchers generally. Notably, research focusing upon the first two distinctions often assumes the third, and this is equally true of Trait Theory studies.

Flaws and problems. Trait Theory suffers fatal flaws. The most crucial is its inherently unscientific character, as it disallows testable propositions. In its strict *genetic* sense, a trait for socio-cultural events essentially resides inside people, where it is not available to current empirical methodologies. It is not 'observable' in any direct way, and it must always be inferred from events on another reality level. There is also a lack of causal as distinct from correlational and identical twin evidence.

Moreover, it is commonly difficult to understand just what is meant by the term, as authors go beyond genetics. Smith and Foti (1998) examine personality pattern variables of dominance, intelligence, and self-efficacy as traits associated with leader emergence. Too often, Trait Theory is equated to personality theorising, despite conflicting theories of how personality is formed, whether innate or post-natal learning is involved, and hence how much it is malleable or established beyond easy change efforts. There is strong disagreement over interpreting the available evidence concerning so-called personality traits, such as social potency, which means

> *an individual's ability to be masterful and to be a forceful leader (Conger 1992, p. 21).*

In much of the trait literature, the term is even more broadly applied. For Filley, House and Kerr (1976), a trait

> *is defined as any distinctive physical or psychological characteristic of the individual to which the individual's behavior can be attributed (p. 213).*

As Smith and Peterson (1988) say, a trait just has to be some

> *stable characteristic of a person (p. 4).*

This allows a too generous interpretation of what to include in operationalising the concept. It becomes almost an article of faith in comparing or accumulating under a single rubric different research pieces claiming to examine traits. Personality factors, physical features, intelligence measures, and even behaviours are all thrown together as traits. These are arguably very different variables that cannot be reduced to one plane. Bryman (1992) observes the

> *danger that the term 'trait' becomes so stretched that it applies to any variable on which leaders differ from non-leaders (p. 4).*

In sum, Trait Theory is inclined to be a witch's cauldron of explanation, and it is essentially closed to empirical scrutiny of definable relationships on one level.

Further, it represents a counsel of despair. A firm must recruit people with the 'right stuff' – whatever that might mean – for leadership positions in the first place, for training and development are useless. Trait Theory precludes exploring what makes a leader, to suggest how potential leaders can discover and learn skills of their trade, and to show how managers in leadership positions can improve themselves as leaders. It seems not especially useful.

Research evidence. Evidence concerning traits remains at best very uncertain, and, given the above problems, it is the least supported of all the approaches to comprehending leadership. Calder (1977) cites a number of reviews from the late 1940s to the late 1950s demonstrating the inability of trait research to detect traits associated with leadership across situations or even to find high correlations within a given context. He also states a major deficit as the failure to

> *distinguish between leadership as a process and the leader as a person (p. 179).*

Filley et al. (1976) report briefly on data up to 1971 and conclude the weight of relevant evidence does not strongly support a trait approach. A review by House and Baetz (1990) actually cites effectiveness data no more recent than 1968, and even this is ambiguous as well as sparse.

Bennis (1997) observes:

A Nobel Prize awaits the person who resolves the question of whether leaders are born or made. But for now the argument leads nowhere (p. 22).

Unfortunately, the argument does lead somewhere, either toward or away from viable social science research. Also, Bennis (1997) himself later clearly states

true leaders are not born, but made, and usually self-made. Leaders invent themselves (p. 104).

The idea of leaders inventing themselves presages Symbolic Interactionist thought which is dealt with below (ss. 2.2.5 and 3.1). Although this thesis proceeds on the assumption that leaders can be made and that leadership competencies can be learned, it nonetheless accepts that the jury may still be out on this question. Perhaps the eventual outcomes of the recently well-publicised Human Genome Project will finally put to rest, one way or the other, this tenacious belief in superhumans versus ordinary folk.

2.2.2 Style/Behaviour

In direct contrast to Trait Theory, a body of thinking arose in America between the late 1930's and the late 1940's that emphasised leaders' behaviours, not genetic factors. In this second view, leaders are people who display a behavioral set that is repetitive in patterning and reproducible more or less at will, and that has certain effects on 'followers'. Leaders' behaviours are susceptible to empirical identification, cataloguing, and measurement. Testable models of leadership can be constructed. Once key behavioural factors and relationships are identified, leadership is amenable to learning. Leaders are made not born. This notion of 'making' leaders underlies much of the literature. A behavioural learning premise guides this thesis.

Overview of leadership Style formulations. The Style or Behaviour approach includes a range of specific formulations. These include: the **University of Iowa** (UI) studies of the late 1930's and early 1940's (Lewin and Lippitt 1938; Lewin, Lippitt and White 1939; Lippitt 1940); the **University of Michigan** (UM) research (Coch and French 1948; French 1950; Katz, Maccoby and Morse 1950; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin and Floor 1951; Mann and Dent 1954; Morse and Reimer 1956; French, Israel and As 1960); the **Ohio State University** (OSU) studies from the late 1940's, (Stogdill 1948; Shartle 1950; Fleishman 1953; Fleishman, Harris and Burt 1955; Fleishman 1957; Halpin and Winer 1957; Hemphill and Coons 1957; Fleishman 1960); Likert's **Four Systems Model** (FSM) (Likert 1961; Likert 1967); **Four Factor Theory** (FFT) (Bowers and Seashore 1966); and the **Managerial or Leadership Grid** (LG)

developed by Blake and Mouton, then by Blake and McCanse, (Blake and Mouton 1964; Blake and Mouton 1978; Blake and McCanse 1991).

Foundations of the style approach: the University of Iowa studies. The Style approach was spawned from three main intellectual sources. First, the **University of Iowa** (UI) studies of the late 1930's and early 1940's distinguished between autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles of leadership along a single continuum (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938; Lewin et.al. 1939; Lippitt, 1940). That is, this view supposes only one dimension of behaviour defines leader style. A leader cannot readily swap styles, but rather adopts one or the other.

Autocratric leaders make unilateral decisions, dictate work methods of subordinates, provide information on a need-to-know basis, and give at most punitive feedback. Democratic leaders actively involve subordinates in decision-making and determination of work methods, share work goals, and impart constructive feedback for developmental purposes. Laissez-faire leaders are largely passive, allowing complete freedom to subordinates, providing necessary materials and answering questions, but otherwise avoiding feedback, and hence prone to abdicate responsibility.

Both the original and a variety of subsequent studies have qualified and queried the popularly cited finding that democratic leadership is superior (Meade 1967; Misumi 1985; Smith and Peterson 1988). Though flawed in several respects – not the least being a research focus on 11 years old boys as subordinates to adult leaders – these studies shifted attention from traits to behaviours in trying to understand leadership.

University of Michigan research. A second foundation behavioural theory of leadership developed under the auspices of the **University of Michigan** (UM). Here researchers first differentiated between job- or production-centred and employee-centred leaders, with a later distinction of four associated categories of behaviour thought directly related to leader effectiveness.

Job-centred leaders promote goal achievement and high performance (goal emphasis behaviours) and provide resources like tools, materials, technical knowledge that aid work performance (work facilitation behaviours). These leaders stress technical aspects of the task, simplify work into routines, determine job methods, closely supervise workers, and monitor productivity standards. By contrast, employee-centred leaders enhance employees' feelings of personal worth and importance (support behaviours) and encourage close, mutually satisfying relationships among them (interaction facilitation behaviours). They attend to the human element, encourage workplace participation, and seek to motivate workers.

Like the Iowa researchers, those at Michigan saw leader behaviours as unidimensional, so that a leader is either job-centred or employee-centred in style. Further, job-centred and employee-centred leaders largely mirror the Iowa distinction between autocratic and democratic leaders.

Four Factor Theory. Bowers and Seashore's **Four Factor Theory** (FFT) was promulgated to counter criticisms of a simple dichotomy in leader behaviours presumed to be the reason for variability in empirical support for earlier UM studies (Bowers and Seashore 1966; Smith and Peterson 1988). The bracketed behaviours above indicate these four factors and their relation to earlier efforts in this stream of research thought.

Ohio State University studies. Thirdly, in the late 1940's a two dimensional approach to leadership emerged at **Ohio State University** (OSU). Ohio researchers argued that leader behaviour was reducible from 1800 behaviour descriptions to an initial 150 field research items, and ultimately to two interrelated theoretical constructs. The first construct is called 'initiation of structure' (now routinely dubbed 'initiating structure') and the second 'consideration'.

A leader's behaviour tends to initiate structure by clearly defining roles toward goal attainment; or a leader is considerate of employees by developing mutual trust, and showing concern for their feelings and respect for their ideas (Korman 1966; Kerr and Schriesheim 1974). Initiating structure behaviour means actively directing group activities through planning, scheduling, informing, and experimenting. It emphasise rules and procedures, performance standards, and task accomplishment. The focus is on the job. Consideration behaviours develop a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. These aim to help workers by explaining, being friendly and available, and doing them favours. The focus is on the people doing the job

A leader can behave in ways that produce various combinations of low or high ratings across these two independent dimensions: low/low, high/high, low/high, high/low. The OSU approach remained influential in later years, transmuting into the contingency approach outlined in the next section (Kerr and Schriesheim 1974).

Other style contributions: These seminal models of leadership style were followed by yet other proposals.

Likert's Four Systems Model. Likert's contribution was two-fold: he summarised much of the extensive UM research and he advanced a view of leadership in his own right (Likert 1961; Likert 1967). His **Four Systems Model** (FSM) of different organisational designs and their effectiveness conceptualises leadership as based on a principle of supportive relationships. This principle states leaders are responsible for ensuring subordinates have opportunities for developing

a sense of personal worth. Unlike most mainstream approaches, which purportedly concern just leader effectiveness or a similarly 'objective' criterion, an ethical or ideological basis for leadership is enunciated, as evident in the adopted nomenclature.

System 1, exploitative-authoritative leaders issue orders backed-up by threats within a classical management-subordinate framework. Performance standards and methods are rigidly set and supervised, with no confidence being shown in workers. This dictatorial mode engenders poor trust relationships with subordinates. System 2, benevolent-authoritative leaders adopt an overall directive style, condescending in attitude, but with subordinates able to comment without fear. System 3, consultative leaders include subordinates in decision-making, with emphasis on rewards not punishment. System 4, participative group leaders allow a genuine share in decision-making about supervision, work methods and goals, as well as self-appraisal performance standards, with development of high levels of trust. These leaders motivate employees through both economic rewards and cultivation of feelings of self-importance. System 4 is seen as the ideal type.

Likert's model is clearly reminiscent of earlier thinking aside from its genesis within the UM camp. For instance, system 1 and system 4 match closely the UI autocratic and democratic leadership styles. Unlike most previous writers, though, Likert saw leadership as interwoven into organisational structure, with four distinct styles, each of which can be learned and practiced, but only insofar as permitted by prevailing structural parameters. Interestingly, this organisational embedding of leadership is a form of macroscopic contingency thinking, which Likert shares with some other eminent organisation theorists around the same time (March and Simon 1958; Katz and Kahn 1965).

The Managerial or Leadership Grid. Another influential approach was developed by Blake and Mouton (1964), and amended by Blake and McCanse (1991). Originally conceived in terms of a **Managerial Grid** (MG), it became known as the **Leadership Grid** (LG) in a later formulation. Strictly speaking, this construct is anchored in attitudes rather than behaviours. It describes five management styles in a bi-dimensional matrix of concern for people and concern for production. Leaders can acquire variable mixtures of these two attitudes, each of which is rated on a nine-point scale.

A 1,1 style is called impoverished management as it describes a minimum of effort by the manager to get work done within organisational parameters. Authority-compliance [9,1] means operational efficiency is sought by minimising human interference. Middle-of-the-road management [5,5] involves balancing work output

and worker morale to produce adequate organisational performance. Country club management [1,9] emphasises relationship needs through a friendly atmosphere and comfortable work tempo. Team management [9,9] builds relationships of trust and respect, supposedly resulting in committed people and work accomplishment. This is the preferred style generally.

Whilst framed in attitudinal terms, this model nevertheless evidences behaviours in the manager or leader style descriptions, which is unsurprising since it is based on the OSU studies (McElroy and Hunger 1988). Again, the 9,9 style is said to be not always the best, dependent on issues identified in any specific situation – a rider that reflects Contingency theory (s. 2.2.3).

Tasks versus people: a core theme of leadership writings. The LG also mirrors a central theme of leadership thinking: a dual emphasis on people issues versus production issues, or relationships versus tasks, or employee development versus work methods and goals. That theme is reflected in many of both the foregoing formulations and those discussed later in this chapter.

Problems of the Style approach. Taken as whole, the Style approach shares some of the common difficulties of leadership research, and indeed, broader social science research. Over ten dozen 'leadership scales' were used during the 1960-76 period alone, with only 3% used more than a few times (Schriesheim and Kerr 1977). Measurement scales for supposedly the same concepts have altered over time and among studies, so findings have not been truly comparable even where the same model has been employed (Filley et al. 1976; House and Baetz 1990; Tejeda, Scandura and Pillai 2001). It has thus never achieved consensus on precisely what behaviours, or more accurately the conceptualisation of behaviours as factors, are crucial to its commonly acknowledged central issue of leader effectiveness.

It has also been content to identify the apparently most important behaviours (to effective leadership) by way of simple frequency counts in measuring instruments, and not to go on to examine the degree of expertise in enacting those behaviours. Skill level is either ignored, or left implicit, or assumed to be measured by count data, or treated as a correlate of the behaviour itself.

Outcome criteria have also commonly varied, both in conceptualisation as well as operational measures, so different effects of leadership have not allowed genuine comparisons across different studies (Yukl 1981).

These are among the reasons why the available evidence on leader effectiveness is so highly variable, some studies showing strong connections, others contrary or nil effects, and yet others the reverse effect of leader behaviour being determined by subordinate performance (House and Baetz 1990).

Nor has this approach satisfactorily addressed whether leader/subordinate behaviour is a matter of automatic responses to environmental stimuli in a Skinnerian fashion, or whether it entails conscious, intentional conduct by leaders/subordinates, or whether it is something else, possibly in between.

Some writers have taken a clearly Skinnerian view of leadership (Ashour and Johns 1983), with some effort to reinterpret other models (including within the style approach) in these terms (Mawhinney and Ford 1977; Scott Jr. 1977; Sims Jr. 1977). Generally, **Behaviour Modification** or **Operant Conditioning** (BM/OC), as it is alternatively known, considers a leader is capable of manipulating rewards and punishments (stimuli) to cause subordinates to behave in a desired manner, and hence to perform appropriately and according to standards that promote business success. Yet this begs the question of whether leaders are somehow beyond the same kind of manipulation, or whether they too are merely sophisticated 'black boxes' responding to external stimuli beyond their control, and hence whether 'someone or something else' does all the determining of human behaviour. This suggests the tantalising possibility that leaders are redundant in a quite profound sense, that blind chance or a deity rules, and thus that the whole leadership literature is itself a misadventure.

Others have adopted a more **Cognitive-Behavioural** (C-B) approach that can be said to still confuse the basic issue of whether humans are really rats or sentient beings (Podsakoff 1982; Larson Jr. 1984; Podsakoff and Schriesheim 1985). This **Neo-Behaviourist** (N-B) view is unclear because notions of reward and punishment in human affairs are amenable to interpretation in quite a different way than usually proposed by neo-behaviourists themselves, viz. in terms of meaningfulness. So, what is reward for one person is punishment for another, or neutral for yet another. This view also implies generally that leadership can be replaced by the judicious use of rewards and punishments (Smith and Peterson 1988), much like the arguments about substitutes and neutralisers (Kerr 1976).

In the main, it can be concluded that operant conditioning in Koestler's (1967) strict ratomorphic sense is not favoured in this or other schools of leadership thought. But too often researchers imply rather than state clearly that patterned and reproducible behaviours are indeed under the control of their actors. Not surprisingly, then, the extent of that control, in terms of degree of expertise, is left even more unquestioned.

Empirical evidence: diversity and difficulties. The Style approach has been accorded variable empirical support over the decades. Therefore, assessment of specific models and the overall viewpoint depends partly upon which specific studies

are accepted, and/or which body of critical reviews is considered credible (Fleishman and Hunt 1973; Hunt and Larson 1977; Schriesheim and Kerr 1977; Yukl 1981; Smith and Peterson 1988; Bass 1990).

For instance, some studies indicate no relationship at all between initiating structure and consideration as independent variables and management or leadership effectiveness as an outcome variable (Palmer 1974).

Other studies suggest consideration or supportive leadership is more or less closely associated with high subordinate satisfaction and positive attitudes (Comrey, Pfiffner and High 1954; Argyle, Gardner and Coiffi 1957; Indik, Seashore and Georgopoulos 1960; Korman 1966); lower turnover and grievance rates (Fleishman and Harris 1962; Korman 1966; Fleishman 1998); and less stress and greater cooperation within workgroups (Oaklander and Fleishman 1964).

Many studies show little or no association between supportive leadership and employees' attitudes, productivity, or performance ratings, albeit due perhaps to intrinsically satisfying tasks or non-reliance on leaders for rewards (House and Mitchell 1974; Filley et al. 1976).

Similar findings hold for the relationship between participative leader style and followers' responses. Overall, Filley et al. (1976) conclude a total of 33 separate studies from 1948 to 1973 positively relate participative leadership to employee satisfaction and productivity. Examined more closely and combined with other studies, it is also evident that task structure, followers' needs, knowledge and intelligence, and leader skills either confound or clarify the causal relationship (Maier 1949; Maier 1963; Filley et al. 1976). Participative leadership is effective, it is declared, only when certain conditions are met:

> *(L)eaders must also have the required skills, subordinates must have favorable attitudes toward participation, and the task must be complex, nonroutine, and require either a high quality decision or subordinate acceptance, or both (Filley, House et al. 1976 , p. 229).*

The effectiveness of initiating structure or instrumental leadership also has mixed empirical support. Literature reviews have found the most positive effects of structured leadership arise under certain conditions. Subordinates must experience pressure from sources other than their leader, undertake satisfying tasks, depend upon the leader for information and direction, feel psychologically disposed to accept instruction, and/or perceive they have job mobility (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy and Stogdill 1974). Similarly, it has been concluded they must do nonroutine tasks, occupy high level jobs, experience stress from elsewhere than their leader, work with

12 or more peers reporting to the same leader, and/or have a considerate leader (House 1974).

Korman's (1966) review cited methodological difficulties concerning small samples; same source bias; simple, static, two-variable correlational analysis; low and insignificant correlations; neglect of curvilinear analysis, with associated artificial 'high/low' leader categories; and absence of moderating and situational variable analysis. He concluded:

> *Despite the fact that 'Consideration' and 'Initiating Structure' have become almost bywords in American industrial psychology, it seems apparent that very little is now known as to how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which may affect such predictions (p. 360).*

Korman's (1966) review was updated by Kerr and Schriesheim (1974), who concluded same source bias, situational moderating variable, and statistical significance issues were largely redressed; whilst static correlational analysis, and artificial 'high' and 'low' categories issues remained. They also remarked upon several metric shortcomings of the OSU scales that had been overlooked by Korman (1966) and that remained extant. Attempts to reconcile diverse findings on structure and consideration therefore were fraught with methodological problems, which seemed not entirely resolved before the field of leadership took new directions.

Moreover, it is worth emphasising that these diverse results applied to the relationship between leader styles themselves, as well as their impact upon various outcomes. OSU researchers in the late 1940s contended these were independent dimensions, so a leader could choose directive and supportive behaviours in a fairly simple fashion to achieve effectiveness. Questions arose whether these are truly independent as proffered, and especially whether a leader could be simultaneously 'high/high' on consideration and structure, or 'concern for people' and 'concern for production' in Blake and Mouton's (1964, 1978) terms.

Once again, research was inconclusive generally. Some studies support the notion of independence (Fleishman and Harris 1962; Oaklander and Fleishman 1964; Cummins 1972), some are ambivalent, and others contradict it (House, Filley and Kerr 1971; Hammer and Dachler 1973; Kerr and Schriesheim 1974).

More recent evidence persists with inconclusive findings (Yukl 1981; Bass 1990). For instance, a laboratory experiment in mediation showed highly considerate leaders produced strong results in terms of initial offers, speed of settlement, and satisfaction; whereas task-oriented leaders effectively facilitated in unstructured situations, but were significantly less effective in well-structured negotiations (Ross, Conlon and Lind 1990). Craig and Yetton (1995) cite several studies questioning

whether or how participative leader behaviours are linked to subordinate satisfaction and performance. This experimental and correlational evidence suggests on balance that high performance promotes high satisfaction but not the reverse. Yet, Craig and Yetton (1995) also report several descriptive case stories of effective managers providing participation and empowerment to subordinates.

There is clearly a strong historical line of evidence that questions and qualifies the Style approach.

Is versatility the answer? Nevertheless, Sashkin and Fulmer (1988) venture a simple, insightful explanation to reconcile the puzzle of research findings where subordinates report effective leaders engage in high levels of task and relationship behaviour, yet there is no consistent relationship between these two major leader behaviours and leader effectiveness. They contend the notion of versatility advanced by Blake and Mouton (1964) offers an answer.

The effective leader is said to be versatile, or skilled in tailoring behaviour to situational exigencies, designing actions that convey an accurate and true message of concern for both people and tasks. Hence, followers correctly perceive the effective leader to be highly focussed on both. Other leaders may be effective in task *or* relationship terms, or *inconsistently effective in both terms*, and hence appropriately assessed as ineffective leaders in an overall sense. What is implied here is that leader behaviour occurs over time, with followers' views being an accurate summation of leader skill taken over time, though not necessarily observed at any given moment. A similar insight is posed in the concept of behavioural flexibility within a **Competing Values Framework** (CVF), (Quinn 1988; Hooijberg and Quinn 1992; Denison, Hooijberg and Quinn 1995; Boal 2000) (Appendix J).

Interactive, geometric behaviour combinations. Thus, Blake and Mouton (1982) suggest the two leader dimensions are indeed integrally interrelated, or interdependent, rather than merely independent, so response to a considerate leader depends also on the degree of structuring behaviour shown by the leader, and vice versa. They argue these are separate dimensions, not unidimensional, but cannot just be added and subtracted. That is, these are interactive factors and combine in a geometric manner according to a leader's choice (Lowin, Hrapchak and Kavanagh 1969).

A conclusion: scholastic fertility in new research directions. The best conclusion is that the Style approach remains scholastically fertile, especially if combined with recent directions in leadership thinking.

For instance, research more critically associated with this approach has often questioned the causal direction between leader behaviour and subordinate variables.

It has been argued that supportive and participative leader styles result from, as much as cause, follower outcomes like satisfaction, decision involvement, and productivity. Notably, this has been usually a mechanical observation about the complexity of causal relationships and dealt with in terms of moderating and intervening variables involved in the class of theories considered in the next section.

More particularly, as Calder (1977) indicates, the Style approach generally neglects the leadership *process*, and especially a process that is interactional between leaders and followers. More so, it tends to ignore the meaningfulness of leadership as a process of human interaction. Redressing these deficits may provide more scholastically fertile directions for research, as considered below (s. 2.2.5).

2.2.3 Contingency/Situation

From the late 1940s, an immediate reaction to some of the perceived problems of the style approach was a systematic series of efforts to catalogue the situational factors determining appropriate leader behaviour. These efforts identified four main types of contingency variables that have generally stood the test of time: leader personality or characteristics; task requirements of leader and subordinates; subordinates' attitudes, needs, and expectations; and organisational and physical environment (Filley et al. 1976).

Overview of Contingency/Situational leadership theories. This school of thought contains another range of theories, including: the **Continuum of Leader Decision Behaviours** (CLDB) (Tannenbaum and Schmidt 1985, originally 1958); Fiedler's **Least Preferred Co-worker** (LPC) approach, which is itself often called Contingency Theory (Fiedler 1967; Fiedler, Chemers and Mahar 1977; Fiedler and Garcia 1987; Fiedler 1993; Triandis 1993; Chemers and Ayman 1993b; Fiedler 1997); **Path-Goal Theory** (P-GT) (Evans 1970; House 1971; House 1974; House and Dessler 1974; House and Mitchell 1974; House and Shamir 1993); the **Normative Leadership Model** (NLM) which focuses on decision making (Vroom and Yetton 1973; Vroom and Jago 1978; Vroom and Jago 1988), alternatively named the Prescriptive Leadership Model (Filley et al. 1976); **Situational Leadership Theory** (SLT) (Reddin 1970; Hersey and Blanchard 1982), which is sometimes called 'Lifecycle Theory' (Stoner, Collins and Yetton 1985); and Yukl's **Multiple Linkages Model** (MLM) (Yukl 1971; Yukl 1981).

Continuum of Leader Decision Behaviours. In 1958, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1985) put a view containing the central proposition of what was to become known as the Contingency or Situational Theory approach. They proposed a seven-

point **Continuum of Leader Decision Behaviours** (CLDB), ranging from boss-centred to subordinate-centred leadership. In this framework, three sets of forces are identified: forces in the manager, forces in the subordinates, and forces in the situation. At one pole of the continuum, leaders rely upon forces within themselves such as background, knowledge, values, and experience. This boss-centred leader takes little notice of the other two forces, making and announcing decisions unilaterally, based on the authority of the management position occupied. At the other end of the continuum, subordinate-centred leaders allow subordinates to function freely within defined limits. These leaders look to forces in subordinates such as their desire for independence, willingness to make decisions, commitment to organisational goals, knowledge, and experience. However, managers are also potentially influenced by wider forces, those in the situation that circumscribe their leadership, including the organisational climate, work group specifics (composition, size, roles), nature of assigned tasks, time constraints, and environmental factors. Accordingly, in addition to the polar possibilities, a manager may choose among the other five positions: to unilaterally make then 'sell' a decision; to present ideas to subordinates and invite discussion; to canvass tentative decisions subject to change; to put problems, obtain suggestions, then make decisions; or to define limits of work group decision-making.

In regard to forces in both subordinates and the wider situation, managers are deemed wise to be flexible, and to adapt their leadership behaviours to fit and take advantage of exigencies outside of themselves and their personal resources. In short, leader effective behaviours depend upon the circumstances of leadership.

Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker. Fiedler advances one of the more complicated theories of leadership (Fiedler 1967; Fiedler, et al. 1977; Fiedler and Garcia 1987). He is also commonly credited with originating the Contingency approach, an entitlement that more properly belongs to Pigors (1935), who long before discussed leadership in terms of the leader, followers, their common goal, and the situation. Fiedler's model is nonetheless perhaps the first sophisticated and most debated of the Contingency models, if not the most controversial of the post 1940's leadership theories generally. Fiedler commenced his work in 1951, around the same time as other researchers started to re-examine situational influences on leadership (French 1949; French 1950; Cattell 1951; Davis 1954).

Fiedler's thinking is based on responses to a questionnaire designed to tap leaders' views about the most difficult person with whom they have worked. Comprised of a series of eight-point bipolar semantic differential scales, this **Least Preferred Co-worker** (LPC) measure aims to uncover personality factors, or

"interpersonal attitudes" to use his words, which he considers stable and difficult to alter (Fiedler 1967). Although it is thus focussed upon the 'inner life' of leaders, measuring variables of a similar order to traits, it is argued to provide an index of leadership style. A high (positive) LPC score indicates a relationship-oriented leader, while a low (negative) rating means a task-oriented leader. This is reminiscent of the Ohio State University style distinctions, as noted by Smith and Peterson (1988). A middle-rating leader straddles these two styles. Another measure, the Assumed Similarity Between Opposites (ASO), was abandoned once it became evident that this was highly correlated with the LPC measure (Filley et al. 1976).

Fiedler's LPC model proposes the most appropriate style depends upon situational control, or the degree to which a leader can influence events. In turn, situational control is a function of three dimensions: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Fiedler 1967; Fiedler 1997). Leader-member relations refer to how much a leader can rely upon subordinates' compliance, trust, and support. Task structure is a matter of the extent work goals, methods, and performance standards are clear and specified. Position power is the amount of a manager's formal authority, especially in terms of reward and punishment capacity. The model generally matches low LPC leaders to low or high control situations, and high LPC leaders to moderate control situations. Strong task direction is needed in low control situations, and it can maximise efficiency with compliant subordinates. On the other hand, a strong relationship focus is optimal with vague tasks or unhappy employees.

Fiedler considered a leader's style usually has to be matched to the right situation, since leadership is determined by generally (though not always) intractable personality characteristics. This means either the leader must be moved from an incompatible situation, or the situation itself must be changed. The latter can occur via several avenues, such as altering group member composition, leader availability changes, job redesign, and authority delegations. For example, a controlling leader faced with an unstructured task should first clarify the problem so as to move the work group to a new position (Fiedler 1967).

Fiedler re-interpreted the LPC measure several times, including to reflect a leader's hierarchy of primary and secondary motives (Fiedler 1972; Fiedler 1978; Fiedler 1993). This allowed him to argue that high LPC leaders assured of good relationships with subordinates could afford to stress task issues, and low LPC leaders assured of task accomplishment could afford to develop their follower relationships, thus elucidating apparent discrepancies where actual leader behaviour contradicted the model's predictions. Although some authors indicate this is a major

shift (Smith and Peterson 1988), it still relies on personality considerations of motivational preferences to explain adaptations of conduct. It extends and details rather than replaces the original conception that is supposedly measured.

Criticisms of the LPC approach. This is nevertheless a difficulty that is compounded by additional re-interpretations of this central concept over the years, with lack of demonstrated construct validity. Hence, it is said to be a measure in search of meaning (Schriesheim and Kerr 1977). Its meanings include a personality attribute of some general kind, an emotional reaction to difficult work colleagues, task versus interpersonal relations orientation, cognitive complexity, and a motivational hierarchy. Again, all of these are nevertheless internal to the leader, and hence arguably personality aspects. In a sense, Fiedler is a victim of his own flexibility, his own willingness to respond to criticism and to adapt his model in the light of research results, all of which is ironic given his belief, itself qualified, that personality and associated attributes are relatively fixed.

Criticism of Fiedler's model remained strong and persistent over the years, though not without its stalwart proponents as well. It has been disparaged in several ways. Aside from often reinterpreting the critical LPC measure, criticisms have included obtaining statistically insignificant results, using small samples, arbitrarily weighting situational variables, inadequately conceptualising causal linkages, and, most damaging, lacking explanatory power (Graen, Alvares, Orris and Martella 1970; Ashour 1973; Evans 1973; Shiflett 1973; Schriesheim and Kerr 1977; House and Baetz 1990). In this last respect, the LPC construct fails to describe or detail the leader behaviours concerned and how these actually produce group effectiveness under the conditions of the three situational factors identified by the model. It is supposedly bereft of theoretical connection between the differential scores on the operational construct and the behaviours represented by them. That is, it is at most an empirical generalisation, not a theory.

A related criticism is an observed overlap between the LPC measure and the supposedly independent dimension of leader-follower relations (Smith and Peterson 1988). Since the former is routinely and the latter normally assessed by the leader, and these both involve conceptions of how the leader relates to followers, conceptual 'muddiness' is involved in a critical regard. Empirical evidence for this criticism is provided by Shiflett (1973), who reanalysed data on military groups from a study by Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) supporting Fiedler's model. Shiflett used leader-follower relations instead of LPC as the predictor variable, and found that a large proportion of the variance was explained. This is underscored by the inductive nature of the model, where construct validity of the central LPC measure has been

challenged (Schriesheim and Kerr 1977; Rice 1978). Criticisms have not gone uncontested by Fiedler himself as well as others, who generally assert the strong predictive power and utility of the model for management training and advice (Chemers and Skrzypek 1972; Fiedler 1993; Triandis 1993).

Path-Goal Theory. Another somewhat complex framework is that of **Path-Goal Theory** (P-GT) (Evans 1970; House 1971; House and Mitchell 1974). Its central tenet is clear enough. An effective leader clarifies subordinates' goals and potential rewards available to them, showing the ways (paths) of achieving these, and ensuring consistency with work goals and organisational performance. The idea is to find common ground between employees' needs and aspirations and the firm's expectations and competitive directions. A leader is a negotiator who successfully meshes employee and organisational drives. As a negotiator, a manager gives rewards to motivate employees to pursue organisational goals. This works providing employees value the rewards under prevailing conditions, which represents the real challenge. Thus, it is a variation of Expectancy Theory of motivation (Vroom 1964), and hence shows a clear linkage between leadership and motivation of employees.

Path-Goal Theory builds upon Ohio State University research by delineating four leadership styles that incorporate the distinctions between consideration and initiating structure, including at the operational level (Schriesheim and Von Glinow 1977). A directive (instrumental) style involves clearly defining objectives, expectations, standards, work schedules and methods. A supportive (considerate) one means being friendly, approachable, helpful and concerned for subordinates' welfare. Participative leadership is described by consulting with employees and by encouraging their suggestions. An achievement-oriented style establishes challenging goals, high expectations and confidence in subordinates. In contrast to the LPC model, these styles can be both learned and adapted according to the assessed situation. They are considered sets of verbal and non-verbal actions that can be modelled, observed, explained, understood, and reproduced by a learner after adequate cognitive processing and behavioural practice.

Two sets of contingency factors are identified for assessment, and these are what complicate application of the major theoretical premise, and present the leadership challenge for practising managers. First, there are subordinate characteristics, which include individual needs, performance skills, personality traits such as authoritarianism and locus of control, and employee perception of their own abilities. Secondly, environmental characteristics include assigned tasks, primary work group factors, and the formal authority system. Each environmental factor may act to stimulate, reward, or constrain appropriate task behaviour (clarifying

Excellent Managers   28

expectations, preventing conflict and confusion, or restricting initiative). A manager needs to accurately assess both of these contingency factors, as a whole, before adopting an appropriate leadership style. This is the demanding nature of leadership, and the reason for theoretical complexity.

The theory declares managers are effective if they tailor their leadership conduct correctly to the assessed subordinate and environmental parameters. Some general examples are suggestive of this dynamic process of assessment and matching. For instance, a directive style motivates employees who have poor skills, by clarifying tasks and stipulating work methods; whilst an achievement-oriented approach motivates employees who have sound expertise, by providing opportunities to show their skills. Directing experts, or expecting great things of untrained employees, is unproductive. Experts are motivated by challenge, whilst newstarts are motivated by needing to know what to do and how to do it. Moreover, a leader's style needs to be congruent with individual differences among employees. One subordinate may like support and encouragement, whilst another may respond to clear direction, although both may be similarly competent. Regarding contextual factors, leadership style is varied also. A cohesive and organisationally committed team undertaking mundane tasks requires support and encouragement. A dysfunctional workgroup characterised by variable commitment needs clear expectations and direction. Similarly, where task structure and/or roles are poorly defined, instrumental leadership is appropriate.

Hypotheses of Path-Goal Theory. Path-Goal Theory generates a number of hypotheses related to the identified leadership styles, (as just implied), although these hypotheses are not always clearly stated by its proponents. For example, one key hypothesis is that participative leadership facilitates need satisfaction and productivity of subordinates whenever it assists reducing ambiguity or whenever subordinates are ego-involved; or of subordinates who are predisposed to independence and nonauthoritarian behaviour, even when tasks are clear and non ego-involving. Another states that leader consideration most positively affects subordinates' performance and satisfaction when they are fatigued, frustrated, under stress, or engaged in dissatisfying tasks. Again, instrumental or directive leadership is hypothesised as positively related to task ambiguity and negatively related to task clarity. Achievement-oriented leadership appears mainly postulated as associated with subordinates' expertise or felt control over challenging tasks. This is the least clearly indicated and researched of the hypotheses, although it is also the most interesting. The several hypotheses and substantial evidentiary reviews of them can

be gleaned from two publications in particular (Filley et al. 1976; House and Baetz 1990).

Research evidence concerning Path-Goal Theory. Specific studies have often found mixed support for P-GT, with supportive leadership tending to be confirmed, and instrumental or directive leadership discounted (Stinson and Johnson 1975; Dessler and Valenzi 1977; Bryman 1986). However, the supportive leadership hypothesis has not always been confirmed, and it has been strongly linked to satisfaction regardless of task structure (Schriesheim and Schriesheim 1980). Likewise, the instrumental leadership hypothesis has been confirmed in a number of studies, disconfirmed in several others, and qualified by another (House and Baetz 1990). Yet it seems that directive leadership appeals especially to authoritarian subordinates; that participative leadership appeals particularly to independent minded followers; that supportive leadership is most satisfying for subordinates faced with stressful, frustrating, or dissatisfying tasks; and that achievement-oriented leadership may be best employed under conditions of uncertainty (Filley et al. 1976; Abdel-Halim 1983).

Research evidence has been restricted by the partial nature of many studies. These have tended to focus only upon instrumental and supportive leader styles due to the adoption of Ohio State University measures; typically examined only the degree of task structure in environmental variance; and/or otherwise excluded significant moderators, rather than testing the theory as a whole (Smith and Peterson 1988). A meta-analysis of 120 studies concludes that much of the research testing P-GT has been flawed and that a more parsimonious theory is warranted (Wofford and Liska 1993). Both observations apply generally to the contingency approach.

P-G T contributions. Path-Goal Theory makes valuable contributions to our understanding of leadership. It emphasises employee motivation as the other side of the leadership equation and suggests the interactional nature of leadership. Although a leader is still considered to impact followers, they also impact the leader, and the true skill of leadership is in making the most of this challenge. This is in stark contrast to much leadership theory, (including the LPC model), which too often views followers as objects, unthinking, and unable or unwilling to influence their lot, or at least best manipulated not engaged. It is arguably one of the theories of leadership at the individualised level that is best articulated, since it provides a clear major premise as well as reasonably integrated minor premises. It builds logically upon existing research and plausible theory, extending rather than dramatically departing from the main body of knowledge. For instance, it elaborates relationship leader styles in terms of participation and achievement-orientation. Like the LPC model, it contains a

Excellent Managers   30

moderate number of key variables, which arguably cover those most important in the world of work, although still too many to meet the need for parsimony.

Situational Leadership Theory. What has been called the Lifecycle Theory, or more often **Situational Leadership Theory** (SLT) was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). It has been noted as similar to P-GT, a leaner version, with only one environmental dimension of significance (Smith and Peterson 1988). This is one of the most used conceptual frameworks for leadership training, due partly to its apparent simplicity, and due arguably to its aptness to firstline and middle managers' concerns with delegation issues focussed upon subordinate readiness, a point that is raised indirectly by Conger (1992).

Its core proposition is that effective leadership varies with the 'maturity' of followers. Interpersonal maturity, or readiness, is the ability and willingness of a subordinate to undertake an assigned task. Ability is skill, knowledge, and experience. Willingness is confidence, commitment, and motivation. Two leader behaviours are distinguished as independent dimensions. Task behaviour refers to the extent that a leader details the duties and responsibilities of subordinates. Relationship behaviour is the degree of interaction and reciprocal communication a leader engages with followers, including listening, facilitating, and supporting. Again, the Ohio State University heritage is evident.

Four leadership styles are distinguished on the basis of cross-relating these two dimensions. Directing [or telling] provides specific task-related instructions to subordinates who are unable and unwilling to responsibly undertake an assignment. There is close supervision of performance and the leader avoids supportive behaviour as this is permissive. Coaching [or selling] gives specific task-related directions to those who are unable but willing or confident. Skill deficiencies are compensated by explanation, and supportive behaviours reinforce enthusiasm. Supporting [or participating] emphasises shared decision-making and collaboration with able but unmotivated or insecure subordinates. The manager aims to encourage responsibility. Delegating allows employees to assume full responsibility for decisions and implementation due to both willingness and ability to do so.

Problems of Situational Leadership Theory. A difficulty with SLT lies in the basic ideas of ability and willingness that comprise follower readiness. Both these concepts are themselves multidimensional, together covering six distinct empirical variables. Maturity, therefore, turns out to be a cluster concept that belies its initial ease of understanding and application. It is prone for this reason to being misused in practice, especially in its popular employment as a training and development device

and as a management tool, with only one of its several facets potentially held in mind during its use.

This is at first glance a theoretical fault that promotes failure of practitioners to fully grasp the concept and to appropriately tailor their leadership behaviour. The problem here is similar to that of the LPC model, where ultimately too many meanings are detailed for its central concept, resulting in confusion that exacerbates the issue of whether it is really just a measure. The idea of follower readiness or maturity arguably should be clearly and simply defined as a theoretical construct. That is, the model may be better served by not attempting to explicate elements comprising ability and willingness, leaving these to be developed as components of operational and training measures, and leaving the model even simpler in theoretical construction. On the other hand, the model might then be criticised for insufficient theoretical exposition of central concepts. The real difficulty, therefore, may not be just a theoretical defect, but rather the exigencies of a complex world of human affairs, where complex theoretical constructs are hard to measure and even harder to apply. All of this suggests a fundamental flaw in the very notion of a contingency approach, irrespective of the particular model under consideration. The approach defies the principle of parsimony.

Evidence and value of SLT. Typically, SLT is mentioned briefly in the literature, with little research evidence apparently accumulated and reported. Its predictions are contradicted by managers' choice of actions in one study (Blake and Mouton 1982). Another study confirms the model insofar as personnel managers strongly evaluated managers whose self-rated style matched their estimate of subordinate maturity (Hambleton and Gumpert 1982).

Nevertheless, the Hersey and Blanchard formulation is valuable. It further highlights the importance of the interactional nature of leadership. It also reinforces the notion that leadership can be a matter of appropriately allowing subordinates to 'govern themselves'.

Normative Leadership. Vroom and Yetton (1973) constructed a model of leadership that focuses upon decision-making. It aims to help managers decide how to decide on the basis of Maier's criteria of quality and acceptability of decisions (Maier 1949; Maier 1963; Maier 1970; Maier and Verser 1982). Maier's work, which advocates conference (or democratic) rather than autocratic methods of leadership, is itself a worthy contribution to the leadership field. However, it does not provide a coherent model of individualised leadership so much as distinguishes between methods and skills, where the latter are really broad interpersonal and communication skills, not dedicated leader skills.

Vroom and Yetton's **Normative or Prescriptive Leadership Model** (NLM), presents a decision tree method for deciding when and how far a leader should involve subordinates in work unit decisions. Five styles are described, with leaders supposedly able and prepared to change styles according to the situation. In the A1 (autocratic) style, a leader solves the problem or makes the decision using available information. An A11 (autocratic) style means a leader decides after obtaining necessary information from subordinates. C1 (consultative) leadership involves the leader deciding after sharing the problem with relevant subordinates individually and getting their ideas. A C11 (consultative) approach entails a leader deciding once the whole group has pondered the problem and inputted collectively their ideas. The G11 (group) style allows the group to decide by consensus following a normative process of discussing the problem, generating solutions and evaluating these, with the leader acting only as a facilitator. Interestingly, although not identical in all respects, these styles remind us of a number of the leader behaviours defined by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1985).

When each style is appropriate is determined by eight situational variables. These are decision technical quality; subordinate commitment; leader information; problem structure; subordinate acceptance; goal congruence; subordinate conflict; and subordinate information. Many decision paths are generated according to the nature of the requirement for each of these variables. One formulation of the model illustrates 23 separate paths for concluding which style to adopt (Vroom and Jago 1988). For example, if the decision needs to be of high rather than low technical quality, a different path is followed to conclude which leadership style is appropriate. Then, if subordinate commitment is important, the path branches differently to that followed if it is unimportant, and so on.

Evidence on the Normative Leadership Model. Evidence concerning the NLM is interesting if not perplexing. A study of 96 managers showed that 68% and 22% of their recalled decisions were successful according to whether the model's prescriptions were or were not followed, respectively (Vroom and Jago 1978). Given their unfamiliarity with the normative model at the time, these managers reflected its tenets very well. Field (1982) undertook an experiment with 276 students applying the five decision modes to 115 cases to find that decision effectiveness was greater if the prescriptive rules were followed. If only people conformed to *homo economicus* there would be no problems with the leadership process. Both these research pieces refer to the original model not later versions (Vroom 1984; Vroom and Jago 1988).

Utility of NLM. The general utility of this decision tree model is that it alerts us to the potential of sequenced criteria or weighted variables in determining when and

which leader behaviours are desirable. The model also clearly raises the issue of leadership effectiveness in terms of facilitation, rather than direction, support, or simple participation. It goes beyond some earlier notions that saw leaders as unilaterally behaving *towards* employees rather than *with* them, even when relationship-oriented rather than task-oriented. Many prior concepts of leadership style did carry a similar sense of permitting the work group to assume a vital part of the leadership function itself: for instance, system 4, team management, achievement-orientation, and delegation. Within the NLM, this is clearly spelt out.

This type of leadership behaviour is not only reminiscent of wartime theorising about democratic leadership at the University of Iowa, it is also compatible with the emerging importance of the knowledge worker in recent times, and it carries a kernel of Symbolic Interactionism (SI). Paradoxically, the NLM also clearly recognises the possibility of conflict between leaders and followers, given its inclusion of the criterion of acceptability of decisions to subordinates. In the main, this possibility had been ignored previously: either the leader simply led or allowed followers 'their head' as appropriate.

Criticisms of NLM. Critical comments about this model have focussed on its impracticality in real life management decisions, where there are considerable work pressures, time constraints, and irrationalities (including a managers' own foibles), and associated obstacles to testing its validity other than via experiment (Filley et al. 1976). Its highly rational temperament denies many of the realities of human interactions and decision-making processes, despite research reported by Vroom and Jago (1978). It is also limited not only to decision behaviour but by two simple criteria for determining effectiveness in this regard. It has a lack of parsimony that typifies Contingency theorising (House and Baetz 1990).

Multiple Linkages Model. This is also exemplified in Yukl's (1981) ambitious attempt to encourage more comprehensive theories of leadership. In his **Multiple Linkage Model** (MLM) he cites so many intervening and situational moderator variables that the impact of leadership itself threatens to be lost. Yukl (1981) himself remarks upon this difficulty of complex causal relationships, with associated research design, conceptual, and measurement obstacles.

The problem of too many variables. Overall, effective leadership depends on almost everything in one formulation or another of the Contingency approach. There is undoubtedly solid agreement about the major types of situational variables, as illustrated in the largely overlapping, moderate number of variables in the LPC and P-GT models. But even this core of agreement provides for too many factors at a theoretical level and, more importantly, the underlying logic of the approach promotes

a zeal for discovering others. Hence, ever since its earliest proponents Contingency theorising has deterred comparison due to its predilection for widely different factors of interest from one study to another (Filley et al. 1976). It is fundamentally flawed as an approach and it broadly suffers from a paralysis of manifold possibilities.

This problem of uniqueness clearly contradicts the basic scientific principle of parsimony. Thus, the attempt to find appropriate evidence has been described aptly as searching for a needle in a haystack (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Ahearne and Bommer 1995), and a broad leadership approach has been argued to be more useful and generalisable (Korman and Tanofsky 1975). In the final analysis, the Contingency approach fails to indicate what a leader can do to have an effect, much less measure leader skill in doing so, and hence it more or less renders the leader impotent in the face of all the uncontrolled variables of organisational life.

Two more themes of leadership: theoretical deficiency. At this point, another two interrelated themes of the leadership literature are evident. The first is a general lack of theoretical strength. Whilst the 'meaningless measure' criticism of the LPC model may be true enough, close scrutiny of many other leadership 'theories' show they bear a similar burden, without accruing similar levels of critique over the years. It is hard to see how Fiedler's LPC approach differs much in these terms from many others. For example, the Iowa, Ohio State, and Michigan research endeavours focus largely on operational concepts and empirical generalisations, not on explanation using well-developed theoretical frameworks. Again, the NLM has a narrow prescriptive intent based on Maier's two simple criteria of quality and acceptability; and SLT depends upon a 'muddy' central cluster concept.

The difference between abstract conceptualisation and operational measure, between theory and empirical generalisation is commonly difficult to discern. This relates to the fact that most individualised leadership research studies concern just models, rather than strongly articulated theories from which models and hypotheses are developed for testing purposes. With a few notable exceptions, such as Operant Conditioning and arguably Path-Goal Theory, the word 'theory' is loosely employed in the leadership literature.

Confounding levels of reality. Also, this lack of theoretical sophistication involves easy shifts between regarding different levels of reality and associated empirical measures as much the same (s. 2.3.1). There is a frequent tendency to move from considering traits, attitudes, values, personality factors, and actual behaviours as all essentially belonging to the same class of events, or at least as near equivalents for purposes of research, analysis, model construction, and theoretical development. For instance, an attitudinal model or measure is good

enough to directly infer behavioural patterns and their effects, as in the leadership grid and the LPC construct.

This has become a cause for concerned comment only in more recent years (Lowe 2000), and even then it often seems not to be well appreciated (Bartölke 1988). There are notable exceptions like the effort of Boal and Bryson (1988) to marry phenomenological and structural levels into a single framework; advocacy for meso research by Rousseau and House (1994); and multiple level approaches (Dansereau and Yammarino 1998; Mumford, Dansereau and Yammarino 2000). Yet the literature remains generally prone to criticisms of fallacy of levels and reductionist explanation, despite some awareness of social science philosophy and related epistemological issues (Peterson and Smith 1988).

The continuing relevance of situational considerations. Contingency thinking remains nevertheless prevalent in leadership research, because research findings continue to show

> *that leadership has an effect under some conditions and not under others and also that the causal relationships between leader behavior and commonly accepted criteria of organisational performance is two-way (House and Baetz 1990, p.8).*

Conger (1997) points to generation gap effects between leaders and their followers. Buhler (1998) says leadership is multi-faceted, always evolving, and no one size fits all as it reflects the needs of the age, the place, and the people concerned. However, such commentaries suggest not only nor even necessarily the value of a broad contingency view, but rather the powerful nature of human interaction between leaders and their followers.

Perhaps the greatest value of the Contingency approach will prove eventually to be its signposting the role of a more specific contingency perspective, one that focuses upon the interaction of leader and followers. Notably, the role of followers is one of the most cited and critical variables in Contingency thinking. The idea of a two-way influence process, wherein followers impact leader behaviour as well the reverse (Herold 1977), represents one of the common reasons why leadership is considered contingent. It underpins the framework of this thesis (s. 2.2.5 and ch. 3).

2.2.4 Transactional & Transformational Leadership

Popularised by Burns (1978), the distinction between Transactional and Transformational leaders has been utilised variously to enhance our understanding of leadership (Bass 1985; Dunphy and Stace 1990; Nadler and Tushman 1990; Bass and Avolio 1990a; Bass 1998). The mid-1970s advent of this distinction has been

called a paradigm shift or new genre in leadership thought (Avolio and Bass 1988; House and Shamir 1993), although Barker (1997) argues contrarily. Generally, there is more similarity than difference among particular variations of Transactional/Transformational views, especially by comparison with other schools of leadership thought.

Work emphasising the transformational or charismatic leader. But, like House (1977) in his seminal work preceding Burns, many writers emphasise mainly or only the transformational leader, (often called charismatic or visionary), and some have developed substantial bodies of work accordingly (Bennis and Nanus 1985; Tichy and Devanna 1986; Conger and Kanungo 1987; Conger and Kanungo 1988a; Conger and Kanungo 1988b; Bennis 1989; Dunphy and Stace 1990; House and Baetz 1990; House and Shamir 1993; Conger and Kanungo 1994; Kouzes and Posner 1995; Bennis 1997).

Much of this work is concerned primarily with organisational change, with transformational leadership discussed in this context (Hunt 1999). Sometimes the main model is really one of organisational change with elements of transformational leadership, and with a separate model of what it means to be a transformational leader (Tichy and Devanna 1986; Dunphy and Stace 1990). Considerations at the individual and organisational levels are frequently mixed, psychological and sociological analyses going forward together, once again reflecting the fallacy of levels. Sometimes it is clearly focused upon leader characteristics or strategies (Bennis and Nanus 1985), and sometimes there is a listing of disparate factors rather than a coherent model (Bennis 1989). Sometimes there is a very clear model, but none that is easily operationalised, partly because of a deliberate attempt to marry psychological and sociological levels of phenomena (Boal and Bryson 1988).

The mainstream cleavage. However, the main work has focussed on the **Transactional/Transformational Leadership** (T/TL) bifurcation. This cleavage generally cuts across other broad approaches to leadership theory, although it overlaps some of the Symbolic Interactionist accounts in significant though complicated ways. It represents a current frontier of leadership thought and research, along with work relating to gender issues, and concerns with post-heroic models (Sinclair 1998; Fulop and Linstead 1999).

This distinction is generally put in the following terms. *Transactional leaders* are concerned with the everyday routine of an established workplace, where the leadership task is to ensure effectiveness and efficiency within the status quo, and with business success in this context. This is accomplished by a transaction with followers, with the leader providing some form of quid pro quo in exchange for their

cooperation. The leader usually motivates followers in a mundane, materialist fashion. By contrast, *transformational leaders* introduce a new paradigm of business practice, or elicit exceptional work unit performance. The leader's main tasks are to challenge convention and help define a new vision of the future, to popularise new commitment, and to energise followers accordingly. This is seen as not a question of mere exchange, but rather a fusion of the interests of leader and followers in a two-way affective relationship initiated and sustained by the leader. The leader normally motivates followers via higher-order appeals and essentially internalised rewards. It involves exceptional accomplishment by followers and hence leadership to suit.

Burns' seminal work, and the MLQ/FRL framework. Burns' (1978) conceptualisation is of transactional and transformative leadership forming a single continuum of behaviours. Burns' classic text has been the fountainhead of a great deal of subsequent leadership thought, including the extensive work of Bass, Avolio and their colleagues on the **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire** (MLQ) and the more recently named **Full Range of Leadership** (FRL) model. Indeed, despite various commendable contributions, it is fair to say the MLQ/FRL dominates the Transactional/Transformational literature.

Augmented leadership. In his reformulation of transformational leadership, Bass both extends Burn's concept and sees it as a separate dimension to that of transactional leadership (Bass 1985; Bass and Avolio 1993a; Bass 1998; Bass 1999). Any particular leader might embody both forms of leadership, as these comprise independent behaviours. A leader may employ both styles at different times or in differing amounts at the same time. Considerable recent research evidence – garnered by both its main proponents and more independent researchers – shows transformational leadership elicits extra effort and performance from followers, over and above that expected in an exchange relationship with a purely transactional leader (Bass 1985; Bass and Avolio 1990a; House and Shamir 1993; Avolio 1994; Kouzes and Posner 1995; Densten and Sarros 1997; Bass 1998; Proctor-Thomson and Parry 2000). This 'augmentation' effect of transformational leadership is clearly of great interest.

Qualifiers and problems of the MLQ/FRL framework. This evidence, however, is qualified by its very generality. It covers a range of leadership situations, including not only business, but also those of the military, religious and other fields. Yet the latter are very different areas of human endeavour involving especial values that are compatible with particular equations between leaders and followers and that call forth specific kinds of leadership. The military is underpinned by the superordinate value of ultimate personal sacrifice for one's country. Similarly, religious contexts are suffused

with the value of self-sacrifice for one's god. Again, welfare fields contemplate the notion of a common weal alongside, if not in front of, the individual's interests. There is no easy counterpart within the field of business, which values material wealth, profit and shareholder returns above ideas of community, society and the 'greater good.' Hence, business management education involves consideration of ethics, social responsibility, and social obligations in tangibly different ways than do religious or social work education. Ideologies and linchpin values differ radically among various fields, and some are therefore more conducive than others to transformative leadership. There is thus an inbuilt bias to broad research findings on this sort of leadership.

Also, a major drawback of the conceptual framework developed by Bass and his colleagues in particular lies in their statement of transactional leadership as a kind of operant conditioning in contrast to transformational leadership as grandly meaningful interaction (Bass 1985; Bass 1998). Transformational leaders are charismatic, inspiring, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate of their followers; but transactional leaders are mundane, provide only contingent rewards, and manage-by-exception (actively or passively). Despite some contrary indications, (Avolio and Bass 1988), this is implied strongly across their numerous publications. Operational measures are thus conceptually guaranteed to show the augmentation effect at the cost of assuming transactional leaders do not interact meaningfully with followers.

This does not dispute conceptual distinctions as the necessary basis of operationalisation, but rather queries the logical guarantee of an empirical outcome instead of allowing for evidentiary testing, given comparison is between two widely different subjects, or species, 'ratomorphic' humans and 'symbol-creative' humans. Although this is not the only criticism of the instrument developed by Bass and his colleagues (Yukl 1999; Parry and Proctor 2000; Tejeda et al. 2001), a number of which are acknowledged by (Bass 1999), it is one of the most significant. Smith and Peterson (1988) charge that

> *some of the transactional items are written in a manner which already implies that the leader is ineffective (p. 116).*

The underlying assumption here is a common tautological flaw in theories and models developed from Burn's (1978) seminal work – for instance, Bennis and Nanus (1985); and Kouzes and Posner (1995). There is accordingly a point of convergence with Trait Theory in these approaches that often suggests an unnecessary elitism, albeit unintended, and even when transformational leader skills are deemed both learnable and organisationally widespread (Avolio and Bass, 1988).

Moreover, Bryman (1992) points out, Bass

> *treats transformational leadership both as exhibiting elements of a cluster of personal traits and as pointing to transferable skills (p. 100).*

Again, this is despite contrary indications to be found on the MLQ/FRL model of leadership (Avolio and Bass 1988). This goes to the heart of the question of whether or how far

> *transformational leadership is the product of personal predisposition or whether it can be developed in leaders (Bryman 1992, p. 100).*

The MLQ/FRL model is logically indecisive in this regard as well.

Leaders versus managers. Notably, the Transactional/Transformational distinction often seems translated to that between managers and leaders (Zaleznik 1977; Bennis and Nanus 1985; Peters and Austin 1985; Peters 1987; Bennis 1989; Kotter 1990; Kouzes and Posner 1995). As Dunford (1992) states, this does not do justice to its conceptual power. It is certainly not what Burns (1978) conceptualised, nor what many subsequent scholars have taken from his work and employed (sometimes inconsistently) in both theory and research (Bass 1985; Bryman 1992; House and Shamir 1993; Bass and Avolio 1993a). Also, this aspect of the manager/leader debate – explored further in the next section – carries a similar logical flaw and a similar elitist undertone to that just discussed concerning Transactional versus Transformational leadership. It is tautological to name as managers some people who do things right, and others leaders who do the right things, then go on to say that their performances differ in regard to effectiveness – doing the right things (Bennis and Nanus 1985; Tichy and Devanna 1986).

The irresistible superhero. These difficulties relate to a belief that leaders employing transformational skills manage meaning in a way that sets them apart from their fellows – followers, leaders employing only transactional skills, or managers. This too often implies that transformational leaders have an *innate superior ability* to understand and to envisage reality, especially in its changing aspect, to re-present that reality, and hence to persuade others as to future direction. That is, they do not just have a particular skill that differs in type or degree from that displayed by others. This is largely why they are sometimes considered leaders rather than managers, or at least transformational leaders rather than *just* transactional leaders. This is also why there are discernible traces of elitist sentiment in many writings on transformational leaders – reinforced and reflected by a frequent focus on upper echelon managers – even when such seems unintentional (Sashkin and Fulmer 1988). As a result, there is an underlying sense of followers *having no*

choice in following their leader – that is, there is an implied power relationship wherein, especially during periods of stress or change, the leader 'leads' and followers necessarily follow.

Complementarity. In this respect, Transformational/Transactional Leadership approaches have been often viewed as complementary (Dunphy and Stace 1990; Nadler and Tushman 1990; Dunford 1992). Transactional leadership is suited to stable environments, whilst transformational leadership is suited to volatile ones (Proctor-Thomson and Parry 2000), although this is not an absolute distinction (Carless et al. 1996). Baliga and Hunt (1988) make an especially interesting effort to describe an organisational lifecycle approach to individualised leadership, which involves stable/volatile considerations in phasic fashion, so that

> *managers have to be matched to the organisational life cycle (p. 135).*

They attempt with some success to specify strategic leadership behavioural propositions appropriate to the demands, constraints, and choices of each phase, and to state the case for different broad kinds of leadership mix to obtain effectiveness accordingly.

Even so, at the level of organisational functioning, this complementarity can be considered in two distinct ways according to one's assumptions about leadership dimensionality at the individual level – whether individual leadership is unidimensional or otherwise, whether it involves independent or interdependent factors, and whether these are innate or learnable. The principals of a firm may deal with change by having a sufficient number of judiciously placed transformational leaders, and ensure stability by balancing these against another collection of well placed transactional leaders. Or they may endeavour to ensure all the firm's leaders are adequately equipped to provide continuity as well as handle change processes, through well designed and delivered training and development programs. It is this latter sense of complementarity that appears mainly (though not always) intended by authors arguing its merits. Issues of dimensionality are explored further in relation to the leader/manager debate (s. 2.3.1).

The challenge of the postheroic leader? Transformational/Transactional Leadership thought has been challenged by the idea of a postheroic leader (Bradford and Cohen 1984). In this view, the transformational leader particularly is questioned as no longer, if ever, viable as the sole model to be emulated by managers. Bradford and Cohen (1984) describe three components of their manager-as-developer approach: building a shared-responsibility team, continuous development of individual skills, and determining and building a common department vision. The

postheroic leader is not the master technician or super conductor that is suggested by much of the literature on transformational leadership, but rather someone who promotes continuous learning. Indeed, the postheroic leader takes advantage of every opportunity for self-development and development of followers and the organisation as a whole. Ironically, Bradford and Cohen (1984) published prior to Bass (1985), and subsequent leadership theory has remained significantly committed to the heroic tradition, returning to Great Person theorising in the guise of the transformational or charismatic leader.

Arguably, postheroic thought has not been confined to the model advanced by Bradford and Cohen (1984). One variant of postheroic thinking emphasises gender differences, and argues cogently that women tend to tread a leadership path effective in an affiliative fashion, whereas masculinist models of leadership have been historically associated with aggressive forms (Court 1994; Sinclair 1998). Another suggests hierarchy can and should be replaced with a network of leaders and leadership teams, or multiple leading, where everbody is potentially if not often a leader (Bower 1997). Postheroic thinking announces that leadership does not need to rely on power *over* others to accomplish mutually satisfying objectives.

Like much previous leadership thought, a simple postheroic emphasis also risks the danger of disassembling the phenomenon of leadership into bits of a jigsaw puzzle, selecting out the postheroic from the heroic, and seeing this as most contemporarily appropriate. In so doing, the larger picture of the jigsaw puzzle is again lost from sight. The part becomes the whole. Contrary to this, it may be argued that leadership has not entered a postheroic phase. Scholars often simply see increasingly the pieces of the multidimensional leadership puzzle, as its global, multicultural nature is recognised and explored. Leadership continues to elaborate and grow with the times, to become more not less differentiated. Today's leaders must be and often are heroic *or* postheroic, affiliative *or* achievement-oriented, as the occasion demands. Reminiscent of the Contingency approach, Bradford and Cohen (1984) recognise this, saying that the technician, conductor, and developer leader styles all work under different conditions. Also, some authors attempt to integrate, for example, purportedly masculinist and feminine characteristics into a 'new' holistic model (Court 1994).

Despite the many models of leadership and associated research canvassed in the preceding generally recognised approaches, there is substantially more leadership literature with different concerns. This raises an argument that an entire school of thought remains latent, and one that frames this thesis (ch. 3).

2.2.5 Symbolic Interactionism: A Fifth Paradigm of Leadership

There is a series of views on leadership that cannot be classified readily into any of the approaches discussed above. These views overlap and cohere sufficiently to warrant regard as a distinct school of thought. Leadership effectiveness is often either recast into quite different terms or it is cast aside for another way of explaining the nature and importance of leaders. For instance, Pondy (1978) says that

> *the effectiveness of a leader lies in his ability to make activity meaningful for those in his role set (p. 94).*

A fifth leadership paradigm. These approaches are generally concerned with social interaction, role development, stories, and attributions in the leader-follower equation. They are strongly cognizant of influences from culture and society, and evermore from a global viewpoint (Smith and Peterson 1988; Martinko and Douglas 1999). The Constitutive perspective covers some but not all of them (Grint 1997). They are related but not identical to Cognitive approaches, especially insofar as the latter emphasise interactions between thinking individuals, and between them and their environment (Jaques 1986; Smith and Peterson 1988; Jaques and Clement 1991; Cowan, Fiol and Walsh 1992; Jacobs and Lewis 1992). In terms of social science epistemology, they generally mix Hermeneutics and Interpretivism, and often Positivism, yet they tend to ignore natural versus social sciences debates about, for example, the integrity of social phenomena and the nature of objectivity, leaving these as assumptions (Blaikie 1993).

Symbolic Interactionism: naming the paradigm. Collectively, they may be categorised as Symbolic Interactionist models, linked by an implicit or explicit focus on the processes of *social meaning* involved in leader-follower interactions within culturally determined organisational settings. Unlike with the distinction between Transactional and Transformational leaders, however, there is usually no implied restriction to 'grand meanings'; and no related suggestion that leaders are exclusively able to control or interpret important meanings, and that differentiates them critically from others. These perspectives broadly consider human behaviour is psychosocially learned, more or less conscious, intentional, story-oriented, and meaningful; and sometimes rational and sometimes nonrational; rather than merely a genetic code or fixed personality function or conditioned reflex to external stimuli. Meaning and behaviour are married together, though often implicitly, in the ascription of roles or labels within a socio-cultural context. Organisational life and leadership resound with attribution, metaphor, symbol, description, interpretation, and other aspects of human narrative within the theatre of life. To date, although Symbolic Interactionism is a

clearly formulated school of thought in sociology, and it is generally framed in the broader management literature under the head of the Management of Meaning (MM), it has not been defined unambiguously within the literature on individualised leadership. This thesis proposes to help redress this omission.

Overview of Symbolic Interactionist leadership perspectives. Leadership theorising within this school includes, to varying degrees of good fit, **Leaders as Symbols** (LS) (Klapp 1964); the **Attribution to Follower** (AF) approach (Green and Mitchell 1979; Feldman 1981; Martinko and Gardner 1982; Martinko and Gardner 1987; Lord and Maher 1989); the **Attribution to Leader** (AL) approach (Calder 1977; Pfeffer 1977; Hollander 1993); **Implicit Leadership Theory** (ILT) research (Eden and Leviatan 1975; Weiss and Adler 1981; Larson Jr. 1982); the **Transactional/Social Exchange/Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory** (T/SE/ICT) approach (Hollander 1958; Hollander 1960; Hollander 1978; Hollander 1993); the **Leader-Member Exchange or Vertical Dyad Linkage** (LMX/VDL) model (Danserau Jr., Cashman and Haga 1975; Graen and Cashman 1975; Graen 1976; Graen and Scandura 1987); the **Strategic Influence** (SI) view, (Pelz 1952); the **Social Identity Theory** of leadership (SIT) (Hogg 2001; Hogg and Reid 2001); the **Romance of Leadership** (ROL) view, more broadly called **Management of Meaning** (MM) by leaders (Smircich and Morgan 1982; Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich 1985; Bennis and Nanus 1985); and the **Event Management Model** (EVM) (Smith and Peterson 1988). It aligns with broad historico-cultural and psycho-social approaches that are often intertwined with other strands of theorising and specific issues like the gender debate in leadership (Court 1994; Kets de Vries 1997; Sinclair 1998). The view that leaders may be redundant due to substitutes or incapacitated by neutralisers, although strictly an 'alternative to leadership' approach (Kerr 1976; Kerr and Jermier 1978), fits partly into this category.

Leaders as Symbols. It is important to note that although the notion of **Leaders as Symbols** (LS) is significant in this school, it is not focussed simply on this concept, as the Romance of Leadership/Management of Meaning literature amply demonstrates; much less restricted to the narrow idea of the symbolic leader in the popular sense, the public figure of notoriety or fame. Klapp (1964) was one of the first to study this latter kind of symbolic leader, in the context of the emerging phenomenon of celebrities in the late 1950's and early 1960's.

> *A symbolic leader is one who functions primarily through his meaning or image (p.7).*

Klapp cites many examples of the symbolic leader, including Marilyn Monroe who rejected the idea of being a sex symbol, a thing, though she saw it as a better

image than some. Insofar as public figures like Marilyn Monroe or Mahatma Gandhi appear 'larger than life' and signify human themes or great ideas or social movements, this captures an essential aspect of Symbolic Interactionism: the use and importance of symbolism in social events such as leadership. Klapp's discussion, however, tends to orient around the narrow notion of the leader as a public symbol, someone capable of becoming "a timeless and placeless myth" (p. 64), someone who serves a vicarious function for transporting ordinary people from the mundane of everyday life into an 'unreal' play. This is analogy (s. 3.1.2).

The importance of metaphor. Symbolic Interactionism in this thesis' view, though, fundamentally operates on metaphor, where *social reality is itself a play*, and everyone is an actor playing some part in the drama of life. Weick (1977) puts a related though more narrow, cognitively based view in his description of enactment processes in organisations. He sees the human world as invented by people in sensemaking activities such as soliloquising, metaphor, and the 'real-isation' of ideas. It is a psychosocial creation, not some objective reality that awaits discovery.

Within the leadership literature there have been varying approximations to conceiving of leaders and developing theory in these or similar terms, such as Fleming's (2001) view of narrative leadership. It is possible to begin drawing together some of these models and ideas into a more coherent statement of a distinct approach to leadership. As this task of integration is attempted here, it is stressed that most of the writings being reviewed are not claimed to be directly concerned with symbols and meaning, but rather that these are compatible with and readily included within a Symbolic Interactionist framework.

Attribution Theory. Several of these specific approaches to leadership are based on or easily related to **Attribution Theory** (AT). The central AT contention is that people seek to make sense of events in terms of definable causes. Generally, this line of theorising holds humans are prone to infer or attribute personal motives or external causes to behaviour according to various assumptions about the person and situation concerned (Kelley 1973; Nisbett and Ross 1980; Martinko and Gardner 1987). It is more psychological than sociological, concerning cognitive processes of perception and the role of intent or personal potency, as distinct from environmental causes, underlying human behaviour.

Nevertheless, it is included here because it helps our understanding of the interpersonal processes of leadership, it shades into sociopsychology, and it can be reformulated readily to a microsociological emphasis. It suggests some of the mechanisms by which social actors take up leader/follower roles, create organisational plots, engage in story-telling, and make and derive meaning from tales

told. The concepts and principles of attribution depicted in this line of theorising provide one, fertile way of explaining the making of meaning in leadership as elsewhere in human life. Further, it has been utilised as a form of critique of leadership and leader inference that is itself a powerful way of understanding the role of leadership as a paramount symbol in society and in the business world. AT is thus extended more or less well into the sociological perspective of Symbolic Interactionism. There are two major variants of this view, depending on who is the target of attributions, and both relate to other models.

Attribution to Follower model. On one hand, the **Attribution to Follower** (AF) model relies upon the proposition that employees' performances are explained in terms of either internal or external causes by the manager as leader (Green and Mitchell 1979; Feldman 1981; Ashkanasy and Gallois 1994), and, indeed, by followers themselves (Martinko and Gardner 1987). However, attributions *by leaders* tend to be the main focus of this variation, and this is the relevant focus in this thesis.

Leader behaviour and effectiveness are either inner-oriented to the work unit, or other-oriented away from the work unit. Inner-oriented leaders are prone to blame subordinates for failures, especially where leaders themselves are unschooled in subordinates' tasks (Mitchell and Kalb 1982), and to accept responsibility themselves for success (Martinko and Gardner 1982). This suggests, among other things, that employee performance deficits may be explained as subordinates learning a sense of helplessness. Internal attributions of poor performance have been found to result in leaders taking programmed decisions of direct punishment, whereas external attributions produce further situation diagnosis by leaders to discover or detail the cause (Wood and Mitchell 1981).

A range of factors potentially biases a leader's evaluations of subordinate performance and consequent reactions. These include the leader's prior behaviour (Kipnis, Schmidt, Price and Stitt 1981); subordinate peer popularity (Mitchell and Liden 1982); influence of good performers on a subordinate being evaluated (Liden and Mitchell 1983); previous consistency of good performance (Bizman and Fox 1984); overall subordinate performance (James and White 1983); on-the-spot decision-making (Ashkanasy and Gallois 1994); and, most significantly, whether poor performance is within or outside the subordinate's control (Green and Liden 1980), or due to lack of effort or ability (Bizman and Fox 1984).

These studies suggest leaders' behaviours are determined at least partly by their views of subordinates and subordinate performance, not only by their set of learned leader styles. Leadership is interactive in this sense, and not always rational.

Attribution to Leader model. On the other hand, AT also provides insights into leadership from the viewpoint of leaders themselves being the target of attributed causation (Calder 1977; Pfeffer 1977; Meindl et al. 1985; Meindl and Ehrlich 1987; Hollander 1993). This is the **Attribution to Leader** (AL) model. From this angle, the success or failure of a work unit is attributed to internal leader characteristics or lack thereof, rather than to complex organisational, industry, and societal forces.

Accordingly, Calder (1977) defines leadership as a set of personal qualities and the associated scientific problem is one of explaining how actors infer leadership from observing each other's behaviour, given that they

> *must work backward from behavior and can never know with certainty whether or not leadership qualities actually exist as a personal cause of behavior (p. 195).*

That is, the problem is how to determine whether the cause of relevant effects is leadership qualities or something else. Calder's specific model is represented in a fairly complex flow diagram that entails four stages: observation; inferred behaviour using an implicit theory of leadership; information estimation based on choice alternatives analysis; and influence of biases due to personalism and goal incompatibility. Calder (1977) emphasizes that

> *leadership has meaning only as defined by a particular group of actors (p. 199).*

Conger, Kanungo et al. (1997) say that

> *leadership is an attribution based on followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviour (p. 291).*

The latter authors further state any measurement of leadership must be based accordingly on followers' opinions. Although they specify charismatic leaders, this view has general application.

The role of interpretation: culture, meaning, and sociology. For purposes of this thesis, what is notable here is the need to interpret behaviour, including by followers, in order to describe and define individualised leadership. According to AT theory, the behaviour must meet a number of requirements: it must be significant, instigated and controlled by the actor, consistent over time, fitted to a consensus of relevant others' opinions, distinctive from that of followers, and socially desirable or in accord with group values (Martinko and Gardner 1987; House and Baetz 1990). Only then is it accepted as leader behaviour within the terms of some implicit theory. Clearly, these principles involve cultural determination and meaning making at a social not just individual level. Whilst AT is promulgated most often in cognitive terms as psychological theory, it has a strong microsociological bent. Accordingly, AT can

be understood and utilised within an explicitly Symbolic Interactionist framework, which is a major intent of this thesis (ss. 3.1.5, 3.3.2, and 3.4).

Implicit Leadership Theory and culture. Associated research has supported the idea that people have an **Implicit Leadership Theory** (ILT) of what comprises the typical profile of an effective leader (Eden and Leviatan 1975; Weiss and Adler 1981); that the profile varies according to the particular kind of leader concerned (Foti, Fraser and Lord 1982); and that information about a leader or group performance influences perceptions of whether a specific leader actually fits the profile (Phillips and Lord 1981; Larson Jr. 1982) and whether non-leader causes are at work (Phillips and Lord 1981).

Similarly, Hofstede's (1980) research has been combined with AT to show how attributions and associated perceptions – or definitions of the situation (s. 3.1.2) – clash when expatriate leaders from highly individualist cultures interact with work unit members whose home culture is highly collectivist (Martinko and Douglas 1999). A significant international collaborative research project, the GLOBE Program, has recently found some aspects of charismatic/transformational leadership are universally endorsed in implict theories of leadership, whereas other aspects are culturally contingent (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla and Dorfman 1999). Leader profiling processes appear to vary in important, complicated ways among cultures. ILT suggests leadership is rooted in cultural meanings, although not in any simplistic fashion.

Two AT faces of leadership. There are thus two AT faces of leadership. AT states leaders themselves make attributions to followers that generally determine whether performance is defined as under the latter's control or due to environmental causes beyond their control (Green and Mitchell 1979; Feldman 1981); and, hence, inter alia, whether the leader's style is likely to be task-oriented or socio-emotional. Also, actors are labelled leaders consequent to behaving or being perceived to behave in accord with expectations, norms, and goals that promote the group's interests, and that coincide with followers' personal ideas of leadership. Most importantly, followers attribute the label of leadership, rather than the leader simply assuming it or having it bestowed by a third party, and this is culturally variable. Attribution is itself a complex, interactional process involving human symbols and associated meaningfulness.

Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory. Attribution Theory is compatible with **Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory** (ICT) (Hollander 1958; Hollander 1961a; Hollander 1974; Hollander 1978; Hollander 1993). Hollander (1993) has also described this as a **Social Exchange/Transactional** (SE/T) approach. It is not to be equated with the

notion of transactional leadership in the Transactional versus Transformational leadership literature (s. 2.2.4), although it is part of one side of that distinction.

The crux of Hollander's theorising is that aspiring and potential leaders must earn credibility with their constituents in order to acquire the mantle of leader, and once acquired must similarly maintain it. Credit is earned during interactions with followers, where the latter come to view the leader's conduct as an innovative or unique contribution to the group that is simultaneously compatible with individual members' interests. For this to occur, the leader must display some competence of particular value to the group, as well as demonstrate identification with the group and its expectations. Consequent to earning credit, the leader achieves status that allows later deviations so long as these produce continuing positive contributions to the group good. Such deviations may be tolerated and even lauded for this reason. Strong parallels with AT are evident, as acknowledged by Calder (1977).

Followers as active participants in leadership processes. Hollander's contribution is broadly an argument for giving greater weight to the role of followers as not simply passive but actively engaged in determining effectiveness outcomes of leader-follower interactions. Effective leadership is seen as good **followership**, where followers give dependability, honesty, and competence in return for the leader giving esteem, recognition, direction, and vision. A leader emerges and remains recognised so long as he or she delivers some vital group outcome. Furthermore, a leader's legitimacy, influence and power, and behavioural style are at least partly determined by followers' expectations, perceptions, attributions, and judgements. A leader cannot reach beyond certain limits allowed by followers. It is understandable that Hollander emphasises followership in contradistinction to leadership.

Leader-Member Exchange Model. These specific perspectives can be further related to the **Vertical Dyad Linkage** (VDL) **or Leader-Member Exchange** (LMX) **Model** formulated by Graen and Cashman and their associates (Danserau Jr. et al. 1975; Graen and Cashman 1975; Graen 1976; Graen and Scandura 1987). LMX thought includes consideration of unique relationships between a leader and each follower, hence the dyad (Brower, Schoorman and Hwee 2000). However, the model also examines the role of group dynamics in determining the nature and effects of leadership. In this view, leaders exchange idiosyncrasy credits with other group members in building cohesion, developing norms, and pursuing organisational goals. However, not only do they interact with and attribute cause to followers, they distinguish among subordinates who perform well and those who perform poorly due to motivations and abilities; and this produces high-quality and low-quality exchange relationships within the work unit.

In-groups versus out-groups. That is, they distinguish an in-group and an out-group of followers within the work unit, with significant implications concerning performance expectations and appraisals, staff morale, systematic interactional biases, and self-fulfilling prophecies. This invidious distinction is based on various attributional biases, including the compatibility of leader authority and member affiliation values, or the degree to which a leader recognises members' independence or members accept a leader's authority (Ashkanasy and O'Connor 1997). There are consequent repercussions on actual performance, satisfaction, internal conflict, turnover, and other commonly examined work unit outcomes. In sum, LMX extends Attribution Theory, especially Attribution to Followers thinking, to argue leaders divide subordinates into a favoured ingroup and a scrutinised outgroup, with a variety of often unintended and unwelcome consequences.

Pelz' idea of Strategic Influence. **Strategic Influence** (SI) is another way of looking at leadership that sits outside mainstream categories (s. 2.3.2). This view arose from Pelz' work in the late 1940's focusing upon effective leadership of first-line supervisors, though it can be applied to any management level (Pelz 1951; Pelz 1952). The basic proposition is that subordinates want a leader to effectively represent their concerns and interests in various forums, in order to obtain a favourable share of organisational resources, opportunities, and rewards, and hence to enable their performance as a winning team. Its basic thrust implies leaders need to broadly influence significant others outside the work unit, including peers, suppliers, contractors, and partners, not just superiors. Interestingly, although the precise tactics of influence are neutral, this proposition does not require leaders to be altruistic since they may use their influence against the work unit or particular members, according to Pelz (1952).

The proposition is still compatible with an other-oriented attributional premise that followers perform well given adequate support from outside the work unit. It is clearly consistent with Attribution Theory and Leader-Member Exchange thinking. Indeed, the SI view has been supported by research showing managers with high LMX relationships with their superiors win more resources for their subordinates (Graen, Cashman, Ginsburgh and Schiemann 1978). The leader's strategic influence establishes a mutually reinforcing dynamic within the work unit: employees thereby get the wherewithal, which ensures their willingness and commitment, with consequent success as a work unit feeding back to reinforce the leader's strategic influence. Success breeds success. A review of relevant studies by Smith and Peterson (1988) indicates strategic influence may vary in nature and potency according to whether the broader culture is individualistic or collective.

Social Identity Theory. The recent articulation of a **Social Identity Theory** (SIT) of leadership reflects much of the foregoing stream of thought (Hogg 2001; Hogg and Reid 2001). According to this theory, a person's social identity is to knowingly belong to certain groups, where membership has emotional and value significance. All groups are cognitively represented by prototypes, which are context specific, multidimensional sets of characteristics that define a group and distinguish it from other groups. Via interrelated processes of depersonalisation, social categorisation, and self-categorisation, the social world is structured as a competitive environment consisting of ingroups and outgroups; and people match themselves and others to any relevant ingroup or outgroup prototype(s). Rather than idiosyncratic preferences or personal relationships, it is social attraction (or perceived prototypicality) that forms the basis of people's feelings about one another. A leader is, or is likely to be, the member who appears most representative of the group's prototype(s) in a particular intergroup social comparative context – that is, the member who is most socially attractive (or most consensually liked).

However, there are both prototypical and non-prototypical leaders. In this view, a particular social identity becomes salient to perception, thought, and behaviour, as the relevant prototype accounts for structural differences and similarities in the social context; as it accords with the social meaning of that context; and as it satisfies self-interests. As people identify more strongly with a group, they are increasingly influenced by the group's basic characteristics regarding leadership of the group. In Hogg's words (2001), this heightening of social identity means that

> *the basis for leadership perceptions, evaluations, and endorsement becomes increasingly influenced by prototypicality; prototypical members are more likely to emerge as leaders, and more prototypical leaders will be perceived to be more effective leaders (p. 191)*

Moreover, high prototypicality means that the member concerned is able to provide most information about the group prototype(s). This means that the member is also most subjectively important and most distinctive from other members. In turn, attribution processes operate to foster the idea that the member therefore has intrinsic leadership ability. So, the more prominent a member's prototypicality, the more likely that he or she will not only achieve leadership recognition, but also that less prototypical members (followers) will attribute a charismatic personality as the cause. Hogg (2001) cites a number of research studies in support of the Social Identity Theory of leadership.

A dramaturgical précis. All of the models so far reviewed in this section are easily related to each other, and to a dramaturgical view of organisational life.

Leadership at the interpersonal level is a role largely created, sustained, and filled at the beck of followers and significant others. Its mechanisms, however, are usually taken for granted, and concealed if not mystified in the language of everyday organisational life. A dramaturgical view is even more evident in other writings that take a more critical view of Attribution Theory, although not necessarily denying the essentials of Calder's model and related thought.

Romancing leadership. In the **Romance of Leadership** (ROL) view, people, including subordinates, attribute heroic qualities of causation to leaders (Meindl et al. 1985; Meindl and Ehrlich 1987). Although this view is linked to Attribution Theory, it reaches beyond AT, and especially beyond the variant that emphasises cognitive, psychological aspects of human life. This view is more clearly micro-sociological in orientation, and in an important sense it represents a critique of much of AT, rather than simply an extension of that way of thinking about leadership.

It points to attributions that involve a need to simplify and stereotype an abstract, multidimensional reality into easily understood and 'touchable' categories, to permit at least a semblance of human control over an uncertain world of seemingly blind forces. This results in a highly unrealistic, romantic image that fulfils functions unrelated to mere goal attainment. It allows followers (and other stakeholders) a focal point for celebrating success, or a scapegoat for moving on from failure. Leaders are symbols, and their purpose is not simply (if at all) effectiveness. It also allows managers to manage meaning, and thus to control subordinates' views and activities.

Management of meaning. The **Management of Meaning** (MM) by leaders is also strongly micro-sociological, and it is a kindred stream of thought at a broader lvel to that of the ROL view. It is an idea enshrined in the title of a significant article on leadership (Smircich and Morgan 1982).

> *After periods of interaction, unstructured leaderless groups typically evolve common modes of interpretation and shared understandings of experience… Individuals in groups that evolve this way attribute leadership to those members who structure experience in meaningful ways. Certain individuals… take a leadership role by virtue of the part they play in the definition of the situation (p. 258)*

In this view, leaders are clearly said to be involved in the construction of social reality, in the determination of whose definition of the situation will prevail. Because emotions, perceptions, beliefs, values, technologies, job activities, and communications become mixed in the melting pot of everyday business life, because these are often highly qualitative and ephemeral, and because a 'viable basis for action' is therefore required, members of organisations depend upon managers as

leaders to interpret what is meant or intended within the workplace. Thus, Pfeffer (1981b) says that

> *it is the task of management to provide explanations, rationalizations, and legitimation for the activities undertaken in the organisation (p. 4).*

This function is especially important in today's world of environmental uncertainty, where change is endemic, and where employees turn to managers for assistance to understand the latest job redesign, organisational restructure, process re-engineering effort, strategic direction, or even management philosophy. Fleming (2001) says leaders can and should be narrators, who use stories for sensemaking and sensegiving to facilitate organisational adaptations. Notably, it is mainly the leader's definition of the situation that matters (Pondy 1978; Pfeffer 1981a; Smith and Peterson 1988). Imposition of meaning, rather than interaction, is emphasised. This is readily seen as a form of story-telling, and theorists engage in critical review of the organisational leadership story being told.

Event Management Model. The **Event Management Model** (EVM) of leadership advanced by Smith and Peterson (1988) also belongs to the Symbolic Interactionist category. This model is dealt with separately below (s. 3.1.4), as its relationship to this thesis warrants a distinct discussion.

Meaning-making, social construction of leadership, and stories. Altogether, therefore, the foregoing suggest leader behaviours are essentially interpreted and reframed according to the needs of others, especially followers, within a cultural context; and not simply accepted in a mechanical, objective fashion of leader styles (much less personal qualities) having effects on organisational performance. Leadership is interactive and not always rational. The processes of interaction are cultural, symbolic, and problematic, and attributions occur in these terms.

It requires little effort to extend our understanding of these processes as integral to social construction of leader roles within organisational life via crescive, interactive play-writing and enactment. Indeed, these processes create what it means to be a leader, to be effective as a leader, and to retain the leadership mantle. Attribution processes are meaning-making processes, and AT principles and concepts help us to understand how leaders and leadership are culturally created within the individual/group nexus, and particularly if these are contemplated at a sociological rather than psychological level. Leadership is an interactional form of story-telling. It is a process of scripting, casting, acting, and audience appreciation, within the cultural story of organisational life.

Strengths of the Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. These perspectives have a number of virtues. They remind us that leaders have normal human likes and dislikes, and that these influence their behaviour and responses to the task of leadership, as suggested by the 'letters' of Mumford et al. (2000). Leaders are not always rational, nor only concerned with work performance. Further, this category of theorising generally stresses follower motivation as the other side of the leadership coin. Follower motivation is neglected or de-emphasised in many mainstream leadership theories. Yet in today's world of globalisation, incessant change, enormous complexity, and ascendance of knowledge workers in an information society, leadership in any isolationist or elitist sense seems no longer viable for prolonged company business success. Followers and leaders together create the story of organisational life, the mechanisms of which are illuminated by Attribution Theory and associated theorising in conjunction with the symbol/meaning literature.

The central role of meaning in leadership. Perhaps the most critical collective implication of these perspectives is the central importance of *meaning* to leadership. This is seen in the creation and importance of images and other artefacts as social reality. It involves a dramaturgical view of the social world, wherein, as Shakespeare well understood, we are all actors on the stage of life, and we are thus capable in concert of re-constructing our roles, scenes, and plot of the play to create a new social order. It is further evident in the interpretation of wider events, including organisational missions and environmental change factors.

Meaning is also seen in the emphasis upon interpretation of both subordinate behaviour *and* leader behaviour. Upon this fulcrum of interpreted behaviour, it is possible to determine value, to exchange idiosyncrasy credits, to attribute cause, to decide the focus of remedial activities, and/or to provide symbolic heroes or sacrificial lambs, among other things. Behaviour in this sense refers to both verbal and non-verbal acts of communication between sentient actors, even when any given actor is unaware of the import ascribed to his or her conduct by others.

The meaningfulness of leader behaviour is especially noteworthy. It is not just any leader behaviour that is of interest to this school of thought, but rather leader behaviour meaningfully connected to organisational fortunes. Meaningful behaviour – or action – is constituted symbolically by actors during the processes of their interaction, during the stories they weave and tell as integral to their daily lives. In this respect, Symbolic Interactionism entails a form of Contingency theorising that implies the impossibility of stating categorically before the fact just what is and what is not defined as meaningful in a given situation. Even broad predictive equations established in organisational histories may be overturned via reinterpretation.

This element of meaningfulness, with its associated uncertainties, is generally unheralded in the previously cited broad approaches. In those, it is not problematic in any way, but routinely taken for granted as a paradigm assumption. It is even diametrically opposed and rejected in some specific models, like those of a Skinnerian behaviourist perspective (Scott Jr. 1977).

At first glance, this suggests Symbolic Interactionism is antithetical to reliable and predictable leader effects. Yet, it is precisely the element of meaningfulness that allows social actors to become leaders, to be labelled leaders, and to be effective as leaders – to play out their role in the organisational story. It is their degree of skill in systematically managing meaning that matters. It is therefore mistaken to believe these models ignore effectiveness issues to concentrate upon other concerns such as leader emergence, as some writers imply, sometimes paradoxically given their own foci (Smith and Peterson 1988). Rather, mechanistic causal relationships between objects are replaced by meaningful determinations of human events.

Social Learning Theory. In accord with this meaningfulness, these models rely generally upon **Social Learning Theory** (SocLT) (Bandura 1977) (s. 3.1.3). This reliance is important due to the central concern with how actors construct, convey, interpret, and re-construct meaningful behaviour in the equation between leaders and followers, as well as more broadly among significant others in the organisation and its environment. This involves symbolic coding, cognitive organisation, mental rehearsal, and behavioural reproduction processes within a context of intentional communication and continuous feedback among leader, work unit members, and others (Camp, Blanchard and Huszczo 1986). It is also a matter of perception within the confines of cultural processes (Smith and Peterson 1988; Conger 1991).

Notably, rather than the *social nature* of this learning process, cognitive components are emphasised in much leadership thought cited in this section, whereby learning is internalised for reproduction, followed by confirmation and continuation, or denial and revision. That is, mostly that theorising is best construed psychologically, with its social or socio-personal aspect de-emphasised. Yet, as suggested in the foregoing, this theoretical stream is readily recast into dramaturgical terms within a micro-sociological framework (s. 3.1).

This section identifies a previously unacknowledged school of leadership thought. It shows there is already a body of knowledge concerning leaders from a Symbolic Interactionist perspective, although this has not been integrated previously. It explicates the paradigm for theory and research adopted in this thesis.

Finally, although the literature on leadership is replete with models of the various sorts reviewed above, these are not its only concerns. This brings discussion to the debate about managers versus leaders from a strategic viewpoint.

2.3 Managers, Leaders, and Strategy

The following argument proceeds in two parts. First, the general debate about leaders and managers is examined critically, because this thesis is embedded in that debate, and the debate is itself often unclear and simplistic. The second part of the discussion largely assumes the first to move on to considerations of managers and leaders from a strategic viewpoint. These further underpin theoretical development of this thesis.

2.3.1 Leaders and Managers

A multi-faceted debate. The question of whether or in what sense leaders differ from managers recurs constantly in the management and business leadership literature. Gardner and Schermerhorn Jr. (1992) describe three basic positions on the issue, saying writers see leadership and management as synonymous, radically different, or separate but complementary. It is a more complex debate than this, with many 'hard-line' and 'soft-line' variants (Karpin 1995; Campbell 1997), that is not fully detailed here. The most critical question is whether managers and leaders differ essentially, in their personal history, motivation, thought, work, and interaction (Zaleznik 1977; Zaleznik 1990). This 'hard-line' remains the view of some contemporary writers on business leadership (Ackerman 1985; Crosby 1990; Clancy and Webber 1995; Sarros et al. 1999); but it is not so of others (Drucker 1988; Bennis 1989; Jaques and Clement 1991; Conger 1992; Barnes 1996; Fagiano 1997), and it is rejected here. This rejection fundamentally informs this thesis, which focuses upon managers' leader skill proficiencies.

Confusion, ambiguity, and tautology. The manager/leader debate can be generally described as muddled, often conceptually loose and underlaid with simplifying assumptions, involving different levels of reality and tautological inclinations, and hence often lacking tight, precisely developed arguments. This is true of Zaleznik's (1977) seminal paper, which is based principally upon personal conjecture and unsupported generalisations; isolated instances and apparently hypothetical scenarios; popular stories and autobiographies of famous people; and broad company examples, rather than methodologically rigorous evidence. Managers differ from leaders because Zaleznik (1977) says so, describing managers in one set

of terms and leaders in another set of terms, usually in contrast, and with a strong trait sentiment.

Often, however, it is very difficult to judge just what is the position of a given text, as it shifts with the pages. Indeed, this is one of the key frustrations to be found in the literature. Bennis and Nanus (1985), among the most quoted protagonists of this debate, provide an example:

> *The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing (p. 21).*

Aside from its tautological character noted earlier (s. 2.2.4), this seems to clearly declare managers and leaders as different 'creatures.' This is certainly the interpretation taken up by later writers such as Baliga and Hunt (1988). But if so, it appears belied by Bennis and Nanus (1985) further declaring that

> *leadership seems to be the marshalling of skills possessed by a majority but used by a minority. But it's something that can be learned by anyone, taught to everyone, denied to no one (p. 27).*

The tautological element also disappears in this second statement, which eschews outcomes as distinguishing managers and leaders. Bennis (1989) later clarifies the position by stating that managers *can* learn to become leaders, although he sometimes remains ambiguous on the point. More recently, Bennis (1997) returns to a 'hard-line' sentiment in reformulating the above distinction.

> *More than anything, the difference between a leader and a manager rests on the status quo: Managers are willing to live with it, and leaders are not (p. 17).*

This logically denies managers can be leaders, and vice versa.

Potential confusions and contradictions appear in the writings of other notable leadership theorists. Kotter (1990) unambiguously distinguishes management as productive of order and consistency, from leadership as creative of change and movement. Yet he states:

> *(S)ome people can be very effective leaders and managers (p. ix).*

He explains leadership and management are independent dimensions, so someone can be more or less good on both axes. Hence, a manager can be a leader, but is not necessarily so, and vice versa. Individuals can adapt their role behaviours to changing job demands.

But then, the developmental opportunities he cites for leaders are about broad management learning at an executive level, including political and personal favouritism, and being successful rather than necessarily effective, as much as anything else. These opportunities include senior executive mentors, assignments

that broaden knowledge and experience, and formal training; none of which necessarily address leader skill development, and all of which would be career enhancing regardless of effectiveness.

Effectiveness, success, emergence, hierarchy, and efficiency. Thus, it is unclear at times what aspect Kotter (1990) is examining in relation to leaders and managers. Additional to effectiveness versus success, effectiveness versus emergence and higher echelon versus lower echelon achievement are too often confounded into manager/leader considerations, rather than placed as separate arguments. Others argue in a similarly vague and variable fashion, notwithstanding their otherwise often insightful contributions (Tichy and Devanna 1986; McCall, Lombardo and Morrison 1988; Conger 1992). The distinction made by Luthans et al. (1988) helps clarify the leader/manager debate.

The difficulties are compounded by the prevalent tendency for discussions to go forward without clearly distinguishing effectiveness from efficiency, and merging this vagueness with those relating to leader and manager. It is often unclear whether the debate is about inherent differences between *effective* incumbents of management positions and *efficient* incumbents, or *effective* leaders and *ineffective* managers, or *effective* leaders and *effective* managers, among other possibilities. Here it is necessary to beware of the everpresent risk of tautology. There is a real likelihood of argument merely stating definitions. This is the problem with the oft-quoted dictum of Bennis and Nanus (1985) that managers do things right (efficiency) and leaders do the right things (effectiveness). It is a common problem in the literature.

People versus human resources. There are still other difficulties in the debate. Rothman and Stewart-Weeks (1995) surveyed 904 human resource/corporate planners and 2116 line managers in 475 Australian companies as part of the Karpin (1995) Report's background research. Their respondents also generally held a somewhat ambiguous view of the leader/manager debate. These authors state:

> Leadership was about people. *It involved providing strategic direction and identifying a competitive edge. This then translated to 'skilling up' staff to be motivated and empowered to deliver on the promise of the business.* Management was seen to be about resources. *Management was seen to be concerned about the allocation and distribution of material and human resources to support the strategic direction of the business. There was wide acknowledgement that the management role was not viable by itself, without leadership, in Australia's competitive operating environment (p.168, original emphases).*

But what does this mean precisely? It seems evident that *both* leadership and management are about people, as immediately announced here in terms of 'human resources.' How can 'human resources' be allocated and distributed without leadership implications? But perhaps there is a difference between a person and a human resource. If so, the real problem is that this is left unclear and, consequently, the overall argument is muddled.

The fallacy of levels of analysis. The framing of the discussion in terms of leadership and management, rather than leaders and managers as initiated by Zaleznik (1977), raises questions instead of providing clear answers. Can a manager engage in leadership; and can a leader engage in management? Or can a manager only do management; and can a leader only do leadership? These are not easy questions to answer partly because they conceal other moot questions. Is management/leadership a personality predisposition (whether trait or learned), or a behavioural habit, or a set of role expectations, or some larger collective event? Or is it something else again, an admixture of these and other differing phenomena on various planes of reality? These levels of analysis questions have been entertained inadequately in the substantial literature so far devoted to the debate, and instead, have been carried forward too often as assumptions.

It is not that the problem of levels has been ignored, especially in more recent times, as demonstrated by Waldman and Yammarino (1999); and Lowe (2000). It is rather that this aspect of the debate is particularly complex, involves basic ontological and epistemological issues, and its discussion has not yet matured in a leadership/management context. Galtung (1967) provides an incisive account of the various faces of the fallacy of the wrong level in social science research. Pfeffer (1985) provides another account of levels of analysis errors specifically in terms of organisation theory and research. Together, these authors show the difficulties of this issue yet to be resolved in the leadership and management fields, only some of which are further explored here.

There remains a common failure to take account of the fallacy of levels, the tendency to argue in terms of two or more orders of reality as if they are the same (s. 2.2.3). Hence, is management at the level of individual managers in interaction with others the same as management at the level of organisational functioning? Is leadership at the level of small group behaviour identical to leadership at the level of larger collective activity? Is there a difference between leader and leadership, and between manager and management? It is here argued that there is a difference, ignored by Zaleznik (1977), and that he and subsequent writers often confuse issues as a result of not clarifying between events concerning leaders and managers at the

interpersonal level, and phenomena of leadership and management at the organisational level.

Leaders and leadership, managers and management. Much of the confusion in the literature rests in mingling the broader terms of 'management *viz-a-viz* leadership' with the more specific ones of 'manager *viz-a-viz* leader.' In this thesis, as Kotter (1990) suggests, managers may or may not be leaders, and vice versa. Those who occupy formal management positions are increasingly required to discharge the full range of classic management duties including leadership, and hence to be both managers and leaders. Yet, this is still not always the case. Individuals are responsible for organisational functions and occupy jobroles accordingly, but *variably* so, and there is no easy translation to their micro-level activities and their relative effectiveness.

Moreover, it should be remembered that although subordinate performance is impacted by a specific leader's individual behaviour, it is affected separately by company leadership as a collective event. This collectivity involves not only the behaviours of a number of present leaders, in relation to both their own work units and the wider organisation, but also the cultural and system embodiments of past leaders, and it adds another complication at the macro-level.

Once these fallacy of level problems are understood and dealt with, it becomes possible to discern better the true terms of the debate. Managers *viz-a-viz* leaders is not the same as management *viz-a-viz* leadership.

Managers as leaders, or managers versus leaders? There are two logical ways in which the principals of an organisation can try to achieve any perceived necessary balance of management and leadership *at the individual level*. They can employ some individuals who are leaders, and others who are managers, and ensure it has a correct mix of leadership and management via judicious job assignments, again at the individual level. This option is the implied necessity of a view that considers leaders and managers, as individuals, are radically different in intrinsic aptitudes, temperament, worldview, and abilities.

Alternatively, an organisation can employ individuals who are both leaders and managers, each of whom have whatever it is that comprises the inputs called leadership and management at the individual level. This second option assumes that individuals can *be* both leaders and managers, and that leadership and management are therefore not just conceptually distinguishable as organisational roles and functions, or as two sets of characteristics (traits, qualities, skills, and/or knowledge) that can be possessed by individuals only in a mutually exclusive fashion.

One experienced international human resource manager summed-up the Task Force's view on this critical debate with the words:

> *In the 1990's a good manager is a good leader (Wawm and Green 1995, p. 569).*

This clearly indicates the second position, but remains vague as to whether leaders and managers are considered identical, or whether individuals can learn to be both in possibly differential degrees.

Dimensionality. This represents yet another difficulty in comprehending the position taken by participants in the debate. Even when a single level of reality – that of individuals, rather than of organisations – is addressed, there is a danger of not paying adequate attention to the nature of dimensionality. Unidimensional and bidimensional arguments, based on the same assumption of social learning, can produce different conclusions.

If managers and leaders are unidimensionally the same creature, cut from identical cloth, then it is unnecessary to provide different developmental inputs to ensure they become effective. A single, uniform training and development process will have the desired results. The more training the better, as quantity counts, it tops up one and the same 'bottle' of inputs that provide the individual with the wherewithal to discharge leader and manager duties. This assumes unidimensionality does not involve the radical differences of a 'manager' at one pole and a 'leader' at the other.

If managers and leaders are not necessarily the same, but may be so, if the same person can learn to become either one or both, then training and development inputs need to be more sophisticated. Such inputs must be targeted aptly to individual learning needs, and mindful of the final balance of learning objectives for each learner. Here, quality is as important as quantity, as there are two 'bottles' of inputs to fill, one for leader roles and the other for manager roles. Conceivably one bottle can be more or less filled comparative to the other.

This assumes leaders and managers, *in their bidimensionality*, may range from separate but complementary to closely aligned if not identical, rather than being essentially different. The dimensions are different, not the people. In this case, some learners may become better managers than leaders, others better leaders than managers, yet others quite poor in both respects, and still others very good in both respects. The spectrum is available in both regards for many reasons, including the vagaries of the learning process.

Managers as leaders versus managers as administrators. But *must* all managers also be leaders in practice, at least to some degree? This is often taken for granted, and sometimes argued as essential (Jaques and Clement 1991). Yet

contemporary organisational life strongly shows the classic management functions, including leadership, do not inhere in all management positions. To reiterate, leadership and management at the organisational level cannot be equated with leaders and managers at the interpersonal level.

Many managers are more properly termed administrators, or managers of things. They manage systems, procedures, plans, finances, information, assets of various kinds, and so on – but they do not manage people. Insofar as they have direct reports, the 'leader' function is often adequately fulfilled by technical knowledge, professional standards, system benchmarks, and so forth (Kerr 1976).

In Kotter's (1990) view, they are managers, who engage in planning, organising, and controlling processes, but not in leadership processes of establishing direction, then aligning people with that direction, and motivating and inspiring pursuit of the direction.

In this thesis, they are also seen as managers, but *functionally* not inherently. They *could be leaders* if their job permitted and if their skills sufficed.

Top leaders or top administrators? Even CEOs and strategic managers, or perhaps especially such 'high flyers,' are not necessarily leaders in the sense so often assumed, contrary to **Upper Echelon Theory** (UET) implications (Hambrick and Mason 1984; Waldman and Yammarino 1999). They frequently rely on organisational control systems, which serve to substitute for their leadership impotence in the face of the vastness of globally spread companies. Alternatively, they rely upon their juniors to fulfil intermediary leadership roles that connect command from the top to the outer reaches of business empires. Further, even in respect to their direct reports, it is not difficult to imagine that any leadership on their part is redundant given the latters' likely motivation and remuneration levels.

Indeed, it could be argued that top 'leaders' generally do not need to be leaders, but rather managers who are thoroughly familiar with the business, particularly in its political dimension. They may be symbolic leaders or figureheads at most. Studies of top leadership may be misplaced, and questions arise whether these are largely studies of managers as managers (alá administrators), rather than managers as leaders; and, perhaps, successful managers rather than necessarily effective managers. Certainly, although the literature and media reports are replete with familiar examples of business 'heroes', there are also more than enough examples of 'villains' and 'also rans' at the top to give pause to any assumption that 'top' means 'leader' much less 'effective.'

Leaders as managers versus simply leaders. There is a reverse question of whether all leaders must also be managers, as argued by Tosi Jr. (1985) and

Drucker (1988). Tosi (1985) observes that such managerial practices as acquiring resources and assigning responsibilities lay behind leader effectiveness, so that

> *any theoretical construction of leadership influence which does not include such managerial elements is likely to be far too inadequate (p. 225).*

Yet it is difficult to escape the conclusion that leaders are not always managers, and sometimes have no need to be, just as managers are not always leaders. It is even more difficult to accept Zaleznik's (1977) simplistic reduction of the issue to distinguishing transactional and transformational leaders as genetic/personal history 'once-borns' and 'twice-borns' in William James' terminology.

The position of this thesis. In this thesis, a manager is defined as someone who is formally appointed to an organisational position with the title of 'manager', irrespective of whether he or she is formally responsible for other employees. On the other hand, management refers to the classic functions of planning, leading, organising, and controlling at both the work unit and broader organisational levels, and these functions may be exercised individually or collectively. A leader is someone who exercises leadership in the sense defined earlier (s. 2.2), either formally or informally, and regardless of organisational lines of authority and responsibility.

The leader/manager debate is complex and unresolved. It is even more so when strategic considerations are contemplated.

2.3.2 Strategic Leaders

Managers have been considered as strategic leaders in at least two ways.

Leaders who use strategic influence. First, there is the notion of strategic influence arising from Pelz's (1952) work (s. 2.2.5). Pelz (1952) himself refers simply to the

> *first-line supervisor's power or influence within the department (p. 212).*

Pelz found influential supervisors who support employees gain employee satisfaction, whereas noninfluential supervisors who support employees lose employee satisfaction. Supervisory influence is related positively to employees' satisfaction provided it is exercised in their favour, and exercised *effectively* so. However, the idea is easily extended to other levels of management. A manager is supposed able to help subordinates to satisfy their needs, or to harm them, in a concrete fashion, if he or she has influence or power within the broader organisation.

This is reminiscent of much of the leadership literature in its emphasis on gaining follower support, commitment, and motivation by providing satisfactions and rewards to follow the leader. It is allied to what has been variously described as instrumental, participative, exchange, transactional, and like forms of individualised leadership. The formulation of representation behaviours by Baliga and Hunt (1988) is fundamentally similar, though more elaborate, and they claim these are additional to those typically associated with a superior-subordinate treatment of leadership. Aside from Pelz's (1952) original conceptualisation, Path-Goal Theory especially has systematised strategic influence in explicitly combining motivational and leadership concerns, and it articulates strategic functions of leaders at the work unit level (Evans 1970; House 1971; House and Mitchell 1974; House and Baetz 1990). Underlying this concept of leadership as strategic influence is the assumption that a manager obtains sufficient resources and empowers subordinates to realistically pursue and achieve their business objectives.

Leaders who manage strategically. Second, there is an idea of managers as strategic leaders because they *manage their work or business unit strategically*. The manager thinks strategically and contributes to the firm's strategic directions at the larger organisational level (Jauch and Glueck 1988; Hamel and Prahalad 1989; Porter 1996; Hill and Jones 1998). The manager, as a leader, ensures work unit functioning meshes with the firm's corporate strategy (Dainty and Anderson 1996). The manager also seeks to add to, alter, or create strategy (Ohmae 1988). This is a conceptualisation of strategic leader skills that is reminiscent of what has been variously called charismatic, visionary, and transformational leadership.

Strategic leadership in this second sense is the far more commonly discussed notion. It is covered in both the general literature on strategy (Hill and Jones 1998; Thompson and Strickland 1998); and in writings concerned more specifically with leadership from a strategic viewpoint (Hambrick 1989; Westley and Mintzberg 1991; Hagen et al. 1998). Yet it remains a largely undefined, diffuse, multi-faceted concept (Hambrick 1989; Phillips and Hunt 1992). It has been treated as a form of or subsumed under transformational leadership by some authors (Sashkin and Fulmer 1988; Atwater and Atwater 1994; Conger 1997). Aside from strategy, however, the literature on strategic leaders also overlaps management in commerce generally (Hickman and Silva 1984; Andrewartha et al. 1996; Waldman and Yammarino 1999); the quality movement (Barnes 1996; Jackson Jr. and Frigon 1996); and organisational change (Dunphy and Stace 1990). Several recent reviews illustrate the extent of the literature concerning strategic leadership (Boal 2000), and this

thesis is selective in its treatment accordingly. Appendix J includes supplementary material in this regard.

The need for managers as strategic leaders. The literature reflects an increasing acceptance that managers *need* strategic leader skills in this second sense to ensure a competitive edge for their firm (Hickman and Silva 1984; Dunphy and Stace 1990; Bartlett and Ghoshal 1994; Dainty and Anderson 1996; Hagen et al. 1998). Many writers suggest strategy and strategic leadership are predominantly if not the sole prerogative of CEOs and Business Unit Managers (Hickman and Silva 1984; Bass 1985; Jauch and Glueck 1988; Phillips and Hunt 1992; Dainty and Anderson 1996); particularly where this involves the company's overall strategic direction (Dunphy and Stace 1990; Barnes 1996). As Hambrick (1989) puts it:

> *The study of* strategic leadership *focuses on the people who have overall responsibility for an organisation – their characteristics, what they do, and how they do it. The people who are the subjects of strategic leadership can be individual executives (e.g., CEO's or division general managers), more broadly defined 'top management teams,' or other governance bodies (e.g., boards of directors) (p. 6, original emphases).*

Stratified Systems Theory (SST) generally explains this as a matter of time spans, task quality, complexity, and discretionary decision-making all increasing as the organisational hierarchy is ascended (Sashkin 1992). The likelihood of being confronted with strategic realities, rather than more mundane operational issues, rises with seniority. Others dispute this not as a probability but as an implied hierarchical axiom, some seeing strategic leadership in one guise or another as permeating future organisations (Conger 1993a; Barnes 1996), and others viewing this permeation as a current necessity (Tichy and Devanna 1986; Peters 1987).

Further, although top leaders may be expected to possess strategic knowledge and capabilities, and more so than other leaders in an organisation, this is not inevitable (Boal 2000). It is an empirical question whether incumbent senior managers have all the requisite expertise for leadership of a strategic kind. It is equally an empirical question whether more junior managers and other employees do or do not possess strategic expertise. The skills involved here are particularly demanding ones that are not readily available, nor merely a result of experience, and require both persistent commitment and what Lewis and Jacobs (1992) call 'conceptual capacity' to achieve and regularly implement. Indeed, not conceding their entire argument, Lewis and Jacobs are inclined to reduce strategic leadership to a matter of high order cognitive functioning within SST terms (Jacobs and Lewis 1992; Lewis and Jacobs 1992). Whilst 'top leader' proponents do not say *all* top leaders

have 'what it takes', it is a strong bias, and one that carries various implications, including that lower level leaders may be thus discounted. This is an error that can be more fully appreciated with further discussion.

As Bartlett and Ghoshal (1994) argue, there has been an erosion of senior managers' capacity to lead strategically due to the increasing difficulty of staying abreast of strategically important developments and to the challenge of reconciling strategy in different parts of huge, complex, and globally scattered organisations. Indeed, this represents a fundamental flaw in those approaches (like SST) that consider strategic leadership remains the province of senior executives. A number of features of contemporary business life are arraigned against this simple dictum, including the compression of time, volatility of environments, structural flattening, advent of knowledge workers, and fundamental shifts in the nature of business itself such as e-commerce and virtual organisations, to name but a few.

Thus, it is also the case that strategic thinking and analysis are no longer confined to a centralist, strategic plan mentality, which is an underlying assumption of a top leader approach. Rather, strategic practices are increasingly acknowledged to be more fluid and to involve more far ranging processes like emergent strategy (Mintzberg 1987); strategy matrices based on normative decision-making (Christensen 1997); value curve creation employing multiple approaches (Kim and Mauborgne 1999); highly flexible 'judo' strategy (Yoffie and Cusumano 1999); and 'profit pool' analysis (Gadiesh and Gilbert 1998). An overarching characteristic of these broader conceptions of strategy is the assumed spread of strategic responsibilities and activities throughout the modern company.

Partly related to these insights, regardless of their precise position in the pecking order or the size of their company, managers' awareness of the need for strategy increases with the competitive need for it. Strategy considerations in the literature and management courses, as well as consultancy firms, all go toward ensuring that it becomes a critical facet of routine managerial expectations and development (Hewson 1997; Spitzer and Evans 1997).

For these reasons, strategic skills not only may but now *need* to be widely distributed throughout any firm that wishes to be successful in today's global business world. This has been mentioned as an aside by some authors (Gardner and Schermerhorn Jr. 1992), and it is one of the implications of what has been called strategic convergence (Jennings 2001). This means not only distribution beyond the CEO to senior managers at the Business Unit level, as Dainty and Anderson (1996) argue, but broadly to all levels and areas of the organisation.

Generally, the several attempts proffered within the SST approach are *at best* midrange theories of strategic leadership, which is the claim made by their authors and others (House 1992). But the result is a mixture of macro-, meso- and micro-variables, which falls prey to logical hazards, especially those of the fallacy of levels, reductionism, and tautology (ss. 2.2.3 and 2.3.1).

The clearest and most logically coherent model of individualised strategic leadership is the sort suggested by Hill and Jones (1998), where strategic leaders or strategic leadership is simply another way of saying transformational leader or transformational leadership; or that of Gardner and Schermerhorn Jr. (1992), where strategic leadership is comprised of transformational and transactional components (Appendix J). These point in a fruitful direction, but do not go far enough in detailing a theoretical framework, its components and how they are related, and what specific testable hypotheses are logically generated from it.

This chapter has sought to review the literature on leadership and associated management writings with the objects of both outlining major relevant concerns to date and preparing a base for the theoretical framework of the thesis. The next chapter seeks to develop and explain that framework, especially regarding excellent managers.

3 Understanding Excellent Managers

Managers and leaders. In commencing this chapter it is stressed that this thesis is about managers who manage people. It is thus about *managers as leaders*, or who are at least in formal leadership positions, whether or not they embrace all the remaining classic management functions. It is not about leaders who are not managers, nor about managers who are simply systems or programs administrators. Nor is it about leadership and management in their broader meso- and macro-level meanings. It is about the individual level of the leader-follower equation regarding formal manager roles. (The term 'individualised leadership' is used in this sense, not to refer to the specific theory of **Individualised Leadership** (IL) debated in Mumford et al. (2000)). This chapter intends developing a *sociological* theoretical framework to facilitate understanding managers as leaders, and especially excellent managers as leaders. The chapter is divided into five parts.

Section 3.1 delimits more precisely and integrates the components of Symbolic Interactionism in this thesis, including allied theory and relevant micro-sociological concepts.

Section 3.2 outlines the theoretical infrastructure of the thesis. This infrastructure incorporates Symbolic Interactionist with other elements of the broad literature on leadership. It places the paradigm in this larger perspective.

Section 3.3 advances a particular theory of leadership, or superstructure of this thesis. This involves a basis of operational instrumentation (s. 3.3.1); the role of leader skills in managing social reality and an associated model of managers (s. 3.3.2); and a life-cycle view of leader skill development that considers managers' broader backgrounds (s. 3.3.3). Together, these form the crux of this thesis.

Section 3.4 provides a summary of the advanced theory.

Section 3.5 outlines a set of propositions derived from that theory along with key definitions of the thesis.

3.1 What is Symbolic Interactionism?

> *The term 'symbolic interaction' refers, of course, to the peculiar and distinctive character of interaction as it takes place between human beings. The peculiarity consists in the fact that human beings interpret or 'define' each other's actions instead of merely reacting to each other's actions. Their 'response' is not made directly to the actions of one another but instead is based on the meaning which they attach to such actions. Thus, human interaction is mediated by the use of symbols, by interpretation, or by ascertaining the meaning of one another's actions (Blumer 1972, p. 145).*

Dissensus on Symbolic Interactionism. The theories and models of leadership outlined earlier (s. 2.2.5) are nominated as being within a Symbolic Interactionist framework. The current theory and related model are constructed within the terms of this broad social science approach. This approach is encapsulated in the above quotation from a seminal work. The critical idea is that human beings engage in social intercourse based on the interpreted meaning of each other's actions. They do not merely act and react like machines or unthinking, uncreative creatures. Nor is any single action or reaction pivotal, although at any given moment some spontaneous action (or reaction) is required for a reaction (or further reaction) to occur. A web of continuous symbolic interactions is important for this is the means of collectively creating a distinctively human world. Nonetheless, there is no universal agreement on what precisely constitutes this approach, nor even on defining its central ideas (Golding 1996; Maines 1996;). Any treatment must be selective given the breadth of its conceptual compass (Stryker and Stratham 1985; Sarantakos 1998). So it is worthwhile specifying the intellectual roots of Symbolic Interactionism as applied in this thesis.

3.1.1 Postmodernism and Symbolic Interactionism

First, Symbolic Interactionism as employed here shares some of the Postmodernist (or Poststructuralist) leanings discussed in terms of Social Anthropology and the methodology of 'ethnographic immersion' (Linstead 1996; Linstead, Small and Jeffcutt 1996; Altheide and Johnson, 1998), in terms of the leadership literature (Calás and Smircich 1988), and in terms of the broader social sciences (Calás and Smircich 1997a). There is no strong disagreement with the worth of Postmodernist epistemology and its associated critique of the *status quo*. Notably, a hard distinction is not drawn between Postmodernism and Symbolic Interactionism, as it is by some writers (Cooper and Burrell 1988; Calás and Smircich

1997b), although overlaps are intriguing and debatable (Maines 1996). Appendix K supplements the following account.

Stories and the social construction of reality. There is particularly a kindred interest concerning culture, symbols or signs, communication, and socially constructed meaning as critical to human events, as models *of* as well as *for* social reality (Feldman 1996). Human beings both representationally create and imaginatively speculate upon themselves, their institutions and collective intercourse. They are, as Calás and Smircich (1988) assert, essentially storytellers whose common mode of being is narration in some form. In this view, often the metaphor of a stage play and people as actors is utilised to portray the dynamic mechanisms of creating reality, where the actors play to a script that is alterable in the acting, and hence interpret and give meaning as they do so.

Alternatively discussed in terms of an abstract society, people are said to collectively impinge upon the individual, yet the individual is integral to that collective interaction. As Berger (1973) puts it, the "structures of society become the structures of our own consciousness" (p. 140), and "society defines man, and is in turn defined by man" (p. 176).

The word 'reality' is used in this sociological sense throughout this thesis, to refer to an essentially social construction, so that 'reality' and 'social reality' are interchangeable terms. This kindred interest in the human creation of reality (or of meaning at a social level) is generated from the Hermeneutic tradition, the Interpretive view, and the more recently developed Realist approach to social science (Blaikie 1993), all of which partly underlay both viewpoints.

The approach of this thesis. Compared with much Postmodernist thought (Appendix K), however, this thesis adopts a modest approach. It aims to provide a less intricate and more easily grasped account of the social construction of meaning, identity, and interpersonal relationships, regarding leadership. This is believed both possible and worthwhile. Consensus and harmony along with disagreement and conflict are considered equally legitimate and equally likely states of social being. Language, symbols, and knowledge are not only instruments of power for masking or suppressing discontent, but also means of sharing common understandings, values, aspirations, and goals. An objective reality in some sense is not only possible, though tenuous, it is essential to human endeavours, and it is a matter of recognising the significance of the intersubjective element in the construction of the social world (Schutz 1967).

This last is not a question of positing, as Calás and Smircich (1997b) state,

> *the possibility of* real, final understandings *in subjectivity (p. 571, original emphases).*

Nor is it, as Cooper and Burrell (1988) indicate, a matter of

> *a network of interacting individuals who, through the commonsense of ordinary discourse, can reach a 'universal consensus' of human experience (p. 97).*

It necessitates neither final understandings nor a universal consensus. Nor does it suggest that meaning is easily apprehended in the creative act of constituting social reality, even by social actors themselves, who, as Weber (1947) recognises, often enough behave subconsciously or impulsively. It does not even imply that, when apprehended consciously, meaning is fully and harmoniously shared among members of a social group.

Sufficient agreement creates social reality. It is neither more nor less than *a sufficiency of agreement that permits social reality*, instead of a jumble of disconnected, idiosyncratic personal realities constituting social chaos. Social reality remains problematic, fluid, discontinuous, and conflictual, but it is not impossible. Whilst it is not the equivalent of social order, it depends upon something akin to the concept of a 'social fact' (Durkheim 1938), though with more *interactive* qualities, as it exists beyond the individual's purview and impinges upon individual actors even as they *collectively create* the social world. Thus, the view of this thesis is predominantly within the Interpretive-Hermeneutic view of social science inquiry, albeit affiliated with Positivism, in a similar vein envisaged by Weber (Blaikie 1993).

3.1.2 The Definition of the Situation

Thomas and Znaniecki's concept of the definition of the situation (Thomas 1972) is pivotal to Symbolic Interactionism (Blumer 1972), and it links the theory promulgated in this thesis to contingency approaches to leadership. It refers to a "stage of examination and deliberation" that precedes "any self-determined act of behavior" by anyone, within the context of a social unit as defining agency, such as the family, community, or society (Thomas 1972, pp. 331-332).

The basic concept. The idea is fundamentally that people construct the meaning of any social situation through sharing or at least conventionally agreeing upon values, norms of behaviour, and beliefs about what is real and what is not real (Blumer 1972). Just as importantly, they do so actively via symbols in language, in behaviour, and in other accepted media of communication or discourse (Blumer 1972; Dewey 1972a; Dewey 1972b), including gossip or rumour (Thomas 1972), as well as various electronic means in contemporary times. A social situation is not

given by objective truths that somehow exist outside of actors. It is created via dynamic processes of communication and learning that amount to symbolic interactions among those in the situation. Actors define social situations. This notion is clearly compatible with the interchange of attributions contemplated by Leader Member Exchange and related theories.

Dramaturgy. Defining a situation is much the same as writing a script to consolidate meaning, then acting out a play to bring it to life. The script is written interactively and played out continuously in a self-fulfilling fashion, unless or until it is re-written in the face of new challenges or in the ebb and flow of new actors arriving upon the scene from another 'theatre' of life. Tichy and Devanna (1986) see organisational transformation as human drama, but this is so of organisational life generally, not only during periods of fundamental change. Hence, we see the influence of dramaturgy in the Symbolic Interactionist framework proffered here. This reaches beyond the use of analogy as a tool of social analysis indicated by Goffman (1959), to state that social realities like leadership are actually constructed in dramaturgical fashion.

In discussing symbolic leaders in the public realm, Klapp (1964) noted drama as

> *a social process in which things happen to audiences because of parts played by actors; the function of the actor is to transport the audience vicariously out of everyday roles into a new kind of reality that has laws and patterns different from the routines of the ordinary social structure (p. 24).*

Metaphor. Klapp's view of drama is that of symbol as simile (s. 2.2.5). The Symbolic Interactionist view of this thesis adopts metaphor: leaders and followers are social actors who take on their identities and play out their roles *as real life*, not as pretence. The symbol is the reality, and there is nothing vicarious about the experience. Contrary to Klapp's idea that this involves a dialectical process largely beyond the reach of the actors concerned, just as the actor on stage may walk away from a role, the actor in a business firm may walk away and redefine or search out another. Toward the end of his book, Klapp himself recognises the increasing interpenetration of the dramatic with a changing society.

Cultural and habitual definitions. In any given society, or group of people, there are stable, generally accepted definitions of the situation, which Stebbins (1969) calls cultural and habitual definitions. These are taken for granted assumptions about what is right and wrong (morality); what is acceptable and unacceptable conduct (norms); what is formally sanctioned by the state (laws); what is real and knowable or unreal and unknowable (ontological-epistemological systems

like religions, the sciences); and so on. Cultural definitions are standard, undisputed meanings of events shared by members of a culture or sub-culture. Habitual definitions operate at more specific levels of everyday life where they are regularly employed without being communicated explicitly, with different definitions being applied in different contexts. Postmodernist thinking tends to deny these prevailing definitions (Linstead et al. 1996), by reinterpreting them as mere 'legitimating meta-positions' or 'masculinist monologic' that disguise(s) fundamental ambiguity characterising social reality (Cooper and Burrell 1988; Calás and Smircich 1997b).

Organisational definitions. Yet these shared definitions seem undeniable for all practical purposes. In organisational terms, such definitions include professional codes of conduct, procedure manuals, mission statements, cultural artifacts like logos, dress standards, technical 'truths' and data, instruments of authorities and delegations, routine work unit practices, job statements, assigned roles, and the like. They further encompass meanings that are imposed on historical relationships between parties and specific instances or occasions of interaction that are bound by space and time, that may be referenced to professional codes and so on. As Pfeffer (1981a) argues, they also include symbols of power such as office size, furnishings, parking spaces, eating facilities, and restrooms, which are the physical manifestations of an often unspoken shared social reality. The very concepts of 'manager' and 'leader,' 'subordinate' and 'follower,' are likewise important definitions of the situation within organisational contexts. In an organisation, as elsewhere, the definition of the situation can be vital. According to Pfeffer (1981a),

> *those units which can provide resources, and resolve problems that are more critical for the other subunits and for the organisation as a whole, are more likely to have their definitions of the organisational situation accepted (p. 185).*

Intersubjectivity. It is important to stress that definitions of the situation are indeed social constructs, unlike their cognitive counterparts called attitudes and schemas. (A significant rider concerning the cognitive nature of attitudes and schemas is discussed shortly and elaborated in the following section). Whilst an attitude or schema operates privately (perhaps subconsciously) within an individual, definitions of the situation are intersubjective and available to public scrutiny. This intersubjectivity has been variously understood and named by leadership theorists. For instance, attribution theorists talk of the need for covariation of an internal state and observed behaviours to be consistent in a number of ways, including consensus of observers (Calder 1977). Alternatively, Boal and Bryson (1988) refer to phenomenological validity and consensually validated interpretive schemes. This

essentially comprises intrinsic and extrinsic components that require substantial and appropriate correspondence between behaviour and the actor's internal feelings, perceptions, and cognitions, as well as between behaviour and its external consequences or responses that are elicited from outside the actor, and within a shared awareness among group members. The point is that definitions of the situation, whilst involving actors' inner worlds, become realised through exposure to the common ground between actors. Like Pfeffer (1981b), authors often confound the cognitive and the social, thus committing the fallacy of levels (ss. 2.2.3 and 2.3.1).

Attitudes and schemas may originate in social space and underlay definitions of the situation, but they remain psychological dispositions to behaviour and filters of experience, respectively, (Smith and Peterson 1988), so long as they are not exchanged regularly in social space. Once they are shared to any significant extent, they cease being attitudes/schemas and become definitions of the situation or parts thereof. Definitions of the situation are more or less routinely shared meanings, embedded in cultural values and norms. These serve to collectively organise and make sense of human experience in a way that involves, permits, and delimits symbolic communication among actors. Whereas attitudes/schemas tend to be taken-for-granted psychologically, definitions of the situation tend to be taken-for-granted sociologically. Organisational culture, insofar as it is pervasive throughout the organisation, can be thus viewed as a coherent system of interrelated definitions of the situation.

Contrary to the Postmodernist desire to render 'unreal' these social constructs, they are indeed the reality of human life, and the principal questions concern formative processes, strength, malleability, composition, spread of sharing, and circumstances of disintegration or denial. There is nothing inherently 'wrong' with social scientists accepting this reality, as do organisational members. It is more or less wise or convenient to do so, provided scientific discourse does not lose sight of its true nature, to suggest it cannot be otherwise. Postmodernist critique is extremely useful to preventing this sense of immutability.

Unique personal definitions. However, since each actor brings to every situation his or her own life experience, attributions, and particular worldview, it may be necessary to reconcile idiosyncratic inputs to defining the situation. Stebbins (1969) talks of unique personal definitions in this respect. These are employed by actors for various reasons like self-actualistion urges, perversity of personality, accidental circumstance, and lack of interpretive guidelines from existing cultural or habitual definitions. These are germane to creativity and change. It is in this regard that schemas and attitudes shade over into definitions of the situation, and they have

a constant potential to become habitual or cultural definitions shared with significant others, rather than stay uniquely personal views of experience.

Competitive sources of meaning and fluid definitions. Aside from unique personal definitions, there are multiple, potentially competitive sources within any organisation via which actors may impute meaning to any event (Smith and Peterson 1988). For instance, notwithstanding a relatively homogeneous organisational culture, subcultures generate different values and hence possibly opposed situational definitions. Postmodernists add other categories of artificer – such as gender, class, race, and sexuality – to the list. There is a potential for conflict, and the ultimate definition of the situation is never therefore a given. Taken-for-granted assumptions about the world may be challenged, and modified, in the processes of social interaction, a point that is sometimes lost in Interpretivist views such as Winch's (1958) rule-guided behaviour. In multinational forums and multicultural societies such as Australia this potential is greater, and the richness and diversity of worldviews is both a threat as well as a boon. Still, even in a homogeneous society, or tightly knit micro-social arena, (e.g., family, team), there are disagreements of varying import.

Hence, any definition of the situation cannot be presumed, nor even considered settled for any appreciable period. Each new instance requires continual reworking and recognition of changes in the proclivity, power, and influence of actors to have accepted their views of what is happening, what is significant, and what might be necessary for the future. Definitional fluidity is endemic in organisational life. Even the autocrat ultimately depends upon others understanding and acquiescing at some minimal level. This recognition of definitional fluidity is a principal point of departure between this thesis and important kin Symbolic Interactionist contributions to the leadership literature, like Pfeffer (1981b), and Smircich and Morgan (1982).

Even enduring practices and 'truths' are liable to break down over time, as actors come and go from scenes of social interaction. Such scenes are many and varied. In organisational terms, these include functional areas and hierarchical levels, or the units that make up the structure, as well as both occasional and repetitive ceremonial venues like annual general meetings, Xmas parties, social clubs, special farewells, and so on. Every work unit, whether 'permanent' or project or virtual, represents a stage for socio-organisational scenes of interaction, and hence, for ongoing processes of defining the situation. As participants in work units turn over, whether manager or member, a new situation is born, requiring redefinition and reconstruction via processes of group dynamics and formation.

In today's world, instability is increasingly the rule, and it is in this important regard – that of organisational conflict, change, and innovation – where

Excellent Managers   75

Postmodernist insights have their principal value. Today, the most potent commercial symbols of meaning are those associated with competitive survival in a turbulent, technologically dominated, and information rich/dependent business world. The manager is no longer the 'boss' of tradition. Knowledge workers have an advantage in this world not enjoyed by their forebears. Also, anyone who gains communication and other interpersonal skills, including in cyberspatial reality, can wield significant creative influence in defining organisational situations, whether or not they are formally assigned to manager roles.

There are exceptions, of course, where cultural and habitual definitions endure for lengthy periods in organisational contexts. Managers continue to be privy to information and other bases of power deniable to followers. Further, as Pfeffer (1981a) points out:

> *In situations in which the leadership is stable, definitions of acceptable organisational practices are more likely to be stable, and role expectations are also more likely to remain unchanged (p. 308).*

Still, organisational environments are evermore labile and it is evermore difficult to stipulate the repository of meaning making. In short, despite exceptions, today's world of symbolic interaction within organisations is in many ways more uncertain than that of even a decade or so ago. The tension between tradition and tomorrow, between the *status quo* and its nemesis, between those who currently have power and privilege and those who do not, provide issues for daily resolution. Any particular definition of the situation is therefore fluid, forever potentially changing, even though it may be largely determined for significant periods in stable environments.

The leader-follower interchange. The leader-follower situation is thus a potential tug-of-war on various fronts among work unit members, involving the manager as one among many actors exchanging attributions and defining situations accordingly, and this is underlined by the trend toward knowledge worker industries. Every member may potentially have his or her definition of the situation accepted, and the capacity

> *to make sense of things* and *to put them into language meaningful to large numbers of people gives the person who has it enormous leverage (Pondy 1978, p. 95).*

Hermeneutic-Interpretivist writings are prone to ignore this differential aspect of meaning making in the social world, assuming instead that actors are uniformly capable of defining situations (Blaikie 1993). In this thesis, meaning making is not assumed to be a capacity shared uniformly by actors in the creation of social reality.

Initiating definitions. Yet, how do definitions come to prevail in the first place? Under conditions of conflict, novelty, and diversity, how are innovative definitions formed and accepted? As just indicated, Pfeffer (1981a) suggests the power of the work unit or stable leadership is the key. Hosking and Morley (1988) indicate skilful leaders construct *flexible* social order, with creative and political innovation inbuilt to the leadership process itself. Festinger (1954) and Smith (1973) point to social comparison processes and informal communications undertaken by people, when situations are found to be ambiguous. Again, the schemas and attitudes of idiosyncratic personal experience may allow unique insights into how to interpret novel situations for group betterment. Leadership is implied in both these latter instances. In this thesis, it is agreed to be a matter of leadership. But leadership depends upon who is most persuasive, who is able to best manipulate symbols of meaning that describe issues confronting a work unit or organisation at any given moment.

Leader skill proficiencies. It is contended that this devolves largely to a question of an individual's skill proficiencies in management of meaning within the context of the prevailing culture. Put alternatively, a manager's leader skill proficiencies critically orient around defining the situation as a socio-cultural event. Thus, leader skills that fit culturally determined definitions of the situation help explain why some actors become accepted, effective, and successful, whilst others of apparently similar character fail to do so, and why expatriate managers must pay particular attention to indigenous culture and custom. At the intersection of societal cultures and a company's specific business culture, the manager as a leader must be adept at understanding symbols of meaning and have skills in defining situations accordingly.

One such skillset is outlined below (s. 3.3.1), and it provides operational definitions required for empirical data collection and theory testing in this thesis. The proposed skillset is one of many that could be adduced from the literature. However, it is constructed largely from elements demonstrated as especially relevant according to contemporary leadership research. Notably, an individual's specific leader skillset may be more or less based in this hypothetical one. But how do individuals develop leader skillsets?

3.1.3 Differential Association and Social Learning

The question of skill development can now be examined further. Alongside the central concept of the definition of the situation, a Symbolic Interactionist

approach to leadership is enriched by insights from the **Differential Association Theory** (DAT) of deviance and **Social Learning Theory** (SocLT).

Sutherland and Cressey (1969) have advanced a specific formulation of Differential Association Theory to explain how an individual comes to engage in delinquency rather than lawful conduct. This theory may be applied to other social phenomena, to understand the acquisition, persistence, and outcomes of any patterned behaviour, and it is here adapted to individualised leadership. That is, its basic propositions are pertinent to understanding how individuals achieve leader skills and maintain leader status, as well as associated consequences. Although Sutherland and Cressey cite nine points in their explanations, these are reduced to four principles enunciated in terms of leaders and followers.

Differential Association Theory principles. First, the patterned behaviours constituting leadership and followership are learned in interaction with others via a process of communication, where symbols are used in meaningful exchange. This occurs mainly within intimate personal groups. Secondly, the content of learning includes both behavioural techniques and specific motivations. That is, skills of leadership and followership, as well as driving forces, are socially learned. Thirdly, individuals learn to be leaders or followers according to the priority, frequency, duration, and intensity of their interactions carrying leader or follower attribution patterns. The earlier in life, more often and enduring, and more emotional and prestigious their interactions emphasising leader patterns, the more likely they will acquire leader skills and take on leader roles, and the more likely they will become effective and successful in those roles. The same holds for followership. Fourthly, over time and circumstance, an individual is exposed to an excess of definitions favouring leadership or followership, and even particular patterns of leadership or followership. Thus, typical leader/follower stories are created.

It is contact with or isolation from leader versus follower patterns that results in one or another specific pattern being adopted into an individual's expectations, identity, role orientation, and behavioural expertise. Interestingly, the theory also allows for neutral patterns to be likewise learned: that is, an individual may learn to be neither a leader nor a follower, but rather sit opportunistically, so to speak, on the fence. The theory thus fundamentally posits individuals differentially associating with others in one or another small group – and hence with ideas, values, cultures – especially in their early years, promotes learning to become leaders or followers.

Social Learning Theory principles. These processes of differential association are readily related to Social Learning Theory (Bandura 1977; Camp, Blanchard and Huszczo. 1986). Differential association involves all the cognitive mechanisms of

social learning described earlier (s. 2.2.5), as well as its interpersonal aspects. In the latter regard, the principles of vicarious learning and modelling are particularly important to leader/follower behaviours. Vicarious learning is observing other actors to learn how to behave, what is expected, and why. Modelling involves imitating or acting out the behaviours of other actors. In these ways, leader and/or follower behaviours are incorporated into one's own skillset, along with underlying rationales. Whilst these principles are mirrored by cognitive processes, allowing internalisation and reproduction, they refer critically to shared processes, not ones that lie within the individual imagination alone. It is in this social interactive sense that the symbolic nature of learning is truly significant.

This carries significant implications. Attitudes, which have tended to assume mystical and immutable characteristics in the social sciences, are behavioural patterns learned during differential group life experiences, that become entrenched as largely unreflective inner 'truths' guiding individual conduct. Despite potential for these to be idiosyncratic, they arguably originate in social space, rather than issuing out of the individual's imagination. Also, they may and often do become habitually and culturally defined through routine sharing with significant others. They can become common definitions of the situation – or intersubjectively attributed, agreed, and interpreted roles. Hence they can be measured instrumentally as meaningful behaviour patterns not simply internal dispositions. So, although Symbolic Interactionist concepts are often considered qualitative, the conceptualisation of leadership and followership in these terms does not preclude scaled questionnaire observations at a micro-sociological level. (Similarly, it can be argued that schemas are mental frames adopted from and expressed in socio-cultural intercourse).

With insight and by the force of free will, moreover, leader and follower behavioural patterns are susceptible to conscious change. They are convenient, internalised definitions of the situation that are habitually or culturally applied unless or until challenged. Like even their idiosyncratic counterparts that stay at an unseen and unvoiced psychological level, they can be challenged, reconsidered, and thus altered, and with greater likelihood of success. Individual leader skillsets can be learned and altered through practice during training and development programs.

3.1.4 Event Management

There is another strand of thinking particularly relevant to this thesis' theoretical framework. This is the **Event Management Model** (EVM) of leadership advanced by Smith and Peterson (1988) that is indebted to Symbolic Interactionism

and the Management of Meaning literature. However, there are both real differences and similarities between their model and this thesis.

Psychological versus sociological levels. Arguably, differences in emphases and key terms between the EVM and this thesis are reflected from different traditions of thought, one arising largely though not solely within psychological and the other similarly within sociological frameworks – like the two strands of Realism represented by Harré and Bhaskar (Blaikie 1993). The EVM is cast mainly in terms of events that are *cognitively* interpreted and roles that are considered separate from a sense of socio-personal identity. This is allied but not identical to the wider concept of the definition of the situation, which conceives of events and the self as among realities socially constructed via role-playing in the theatre of life. The critical difference is this thesis' emphasis on the social not cognitive aspect of learning, as posited in the prior two sections. It is accordingly vital to grasp the sociological approach of this thesis.

Psychological reductionism. The EVM also involves an ambitious attempt to bridge two widely separate levels of analysis, that of the individual and that of the organisation. This ignores the interposition of the group between the individual and the organisation, and hence fails to coherently blend the two into a social-psychological theory at the group level. It is not surprisingly prone to psychological reductionism, as it is grounded more in psychological than sociological literature. This is demonstrated in the key notion that, according to Smith and Peterson (1988), managers and others *as individuals* impute meaning via a complicated, contrived cross-tabulation of five types of procedures against three types of structures. Like the unwieldy cognitions of Vroom and Yetton's Prescriptive Theory of managerial decision-making, this is neither practical nor parsimonious (Vroom and Yetton 1973; Vroom and Jago 1988). Its theoretical basis is not coherently articulated.

A heuristic. Again, although it is summarised as six associated propositions, its authors conceive EVM simply as a heuristic. It does not elucidate operational statements. It does not provide a clear understanding of its central idea leading to testable hypotheses.

Symbolic Interactionism. Yet, despite their essentially psychological bent, Smith and Peterson (1988) often make Symbolic Interactionist statements like:

> (M)ost of organisational life is socially constructed (p. 124).

This tendency allows for several points of agreement between these authors' view of leadership and this thesis. These include, for instance, the importance of a leader's and followers' shared perceptions of the meaning of their interactions. Leaders are best seen as focal persons in a role set, not exclusive definers of reality.

Leadership involves a leader and significant others, including followers, peers, superiors, and wider network actors. From a leader's viewpoint, it thus involves downward, upward, and lateral influence efforts. Moreover, Smith and Peterson (1988) recognise a central task of leaders is management of meaning, and this is so whether transformational or transactional leadership is involved. This thesis sees this task as being inextricably *in concert with significant others, especially followers.*

3.1.5 An Integrated Symbolic Interactionist Approach to Leadership

From the foregoing, it is possible to draw together key considerations of a Symbolic Interactionist approach to leadership, within which this thesis is situated.

Sociological theory. The approach taken in this thesis is *sociological* not psychological. It orients around the concept of the definition of the situation (Stebbins 1969; Thomas 1972) and Differential Association Theory (Sutherland and Cressey 1969), along with socialised perceptions in active learning (Dewey 1972b), and Social Learning Theory (Bandura 1977). It also takes several specific theories in the leadership literature as a collective reference point related to meaning-making and story-telling in the social construction of leadership (s. 2.2.5). This thesis is therefore embedded in a theoretical web, which serves a similar purpose as the notion of a series of theories whose continuity welds them together into a research programme (Lakatos 1970). This indicates its intellectual roots and shows how it relates to other theories, rather than being an isolated research effort in a theoretical vacuum.

Symbolic Interactionism. Elements of these theories and models are integrated under the umbrella of Symbolic Interactionism. This provides a general framework for understanding how managers come to develop leader skills; how those skills are constituted through social learning processes as repetitive, self-controllable, overt, and symbolic behaviours; and how those skills are deployed and re-constructed in interacting with significant others, especially followers. A particular theory is detailed later (s. 3.3). The outcomes of those skills used in interaction may be dissension or consensus, failure or accomplishment, or degrees of such. However, the more proficient a manager is in terms of leader skills, the more likely are outcomes of consensus and accomplishment. Specific outcomes are many and varied, and these include what are called here leader effectiveness, individual success, work unit performance, and company business success (s. 3.5).

Emergence and effectiveness. This thesis holds leadership is fundamentally a symbolic interactive process, part of the wider intersubjective creation of social reality, wherein a leader emerges and is effective due to skills of defining situations

for betterment of the group. These skills focus upon understanding, interpreting, and communicating – or sensemaking and meaning making – within a cultural context. Emergence and effectiveness are integrally interrelated. The skills and the motivation to lead develop due to an excess of definitions favouring leadership rather than followership that are conveyed via lifelong social learning processes in differential associations. Both emergence and continuing effectiveness depend upon any situation of leadership remaining culturally aligned with the leader's developmental experiences. Individuals may become generalist or specialist leaders according to the range and nature of their differential associations, and hence their degree of skills may vary accordingly. The broad range of technical, conceptual, and interpersonal skills may be ancillary or integral to any leadership situation.

Culture, conflict, and attributions. Within any particular arena the leader may not be symbolically attuned to all members. There may be cultural and interpersonal conflicts that result in factions or isolates, so there is a potential for the creation of in-groups and out-groups. This potential increases with the size and diversity of the group or organisation. As leader skill proficiency increases, such conflicts are increasingly manageable. Attribution of the leadership label increases as the leader thus engages in exchanging cultural value with all members of the group. Cultural value is reflected in any item deemed worthy of exchange within a group. Such items are symbols of cultural value just as money is a symbol of material wealth. Indeed, money and material wealth are themselves key aspects of business culture, as distinct from other broad cultures. Ultimately, it is the intersubjective agreement of group members that determines what is of symbolic significance, what is of cultural value, and what constitutes social reality. Leadership is concerned with the management of reality during socio-cultural interaction.

Given these central tenets of the current approach, and preceding literature review (ch. 2), the theoretical infrastructure of this thesis can be explicated.

3.2 Theoretical Infrastructure

The theoretical infrastructure comprises elements drawn from the literature on leaders and managers, both broadly and in terms of strategy, with an underlying Symbolic Interactionist theme. These elements are summarised in Table 3.1. This table shows only what is considered especially pertinent to understanding how managers become effective as leaders and successful as individuals in today's business world, and thus become excellent managers. The intent is to integrate

selectively from a diverse literature to place the fifth paradigm into a broader context, and to outline key assumptions and beliefs of the thesis.

Table 3.1 Theoretical foundations of understanding excellent managers in today's business world

Meaningful behaviours	Managers can learn behaviours that are leader skills Leader skills are socially learned via lifelong differential associations Leader behaviour is symbolic, not just 'effective' or 'ineffective' Leader behaviour is culturally constructed and interpreted People managers interpret subordinate behaviour, and vice versa Managers manage meaning (tell stories) in their role as leaders
Tasks & people	A simple task focus fails to motivate diverse subordinates A purely people orientation denies workplace realities
Contingency effectiveness	Leaders need to manage multiple contingencies in order to be accepted and effective Contingencies include interpretive and perceptual processes Managers do not have complete control over their work units
Interactive motivation	Leadership is interactional, not one-way Leaders need to manage their own and their subordinates' motivations Substitutes and nullifiers need to be managed in the leadership equation
Transactional, transformational	People managers often and increasingly require transactional and transformational leader skills Both transactional and transformational leader behaviours are meaningful The management of meaning differs in these two regards Both transactional and transformational leader skills can be learned Transactional and transformational leader skills are measurable
Strategic orientation	Managers increasingly need to be strategists Managers can learn strategic behaviours to improve their leader skills People managers need to learn the skill of strategic influence Strategic leader skills are measurable
Leaders, culture & business success	Business success is an outcome of complex, multi-level variables Industry and wider environmental factors, including cultural changes and trends, influence a company's business success Business culture is oriented foremostly to profit or material wealth Leader skills are necessary but not sufficient for valued outcomes Leader effectiveness, individual success, work unit performance, and company business success are measurable

From Table 3.1, the first basic element of this thesis is that meaningful behaviours constituting learnable leader skills are important, not 'unseeables' such as traits, personality and so on. The latter are closed to empirical scrutiny, and so are useless to both theory and practice, to both researcher and manager. These leader skills are socially learned via life-long differential associations. Moreover, effectiveness issues must be balanced with social construction of reality considerations in comprehending the role of leaders in business performance. To rephrase Pfeffer (1981a, 1981b) one of the most important functions of managers as leaders is to develop common understandings about the world among organisational members. A leader must be above all an architect and engineer of meaning, a story-teller. Followers also engage in the making of meaning, and this includes especially ascription of the leader label. A leader cannot make meaning without accounting that of followers, nor do so entirely alone. This points to the importance of culture, values and beliefs in determining and understanding leader/follower behaviours.

Secondly, managers need to marry task and people issues in leadership, or they risk capture by one or the other. A focus on only one of these partialises the leadership process, providing an instrumental or relational bias to doing leadership.

Thirdly, leader effectiveness is filtered through contingency variables, including the construction and management of meaning, and this needs to be accounted in the leadership process. Smith and Peterson (1988) put a related view that

> *the contingencies which regulate relations between leaders and followers are mediated by perceptual processes (p. 156).*

Managers as leaders therefore do not wholly determine work unit processes and outcomes.

Fourthly, precisely for these reasons, people managers must nonetheless motivate subordinates, not just 'lead' them. Likewise, leaders need to understand and manage their own motivational springs within the interactional context of leadership. Here, leadership draws upon motivational processes and intersects with teamwork. Additionally, leaders are challenged to manage these and other threats working to make their leadership redundant.

Fifthly, managers may be either transactional or transformational leaders; and any particular manager may be a transactional leader in some instances, yet transformational in others. Leadership can be learned, and not just in the transactional sense (Bennis and Nanus 1985; Tichy and Devanna 1986; Bennis 1989). Transformational leadership is not mystical, but constituted by behaviours that can be learned and manipulated as skills, and as the occasion demands. The key

difference lies in the *nature of the management of meaning*, not simply in the ability to manage meaning. This is a question of type of skill governed by purpose, not superior skill deployment. The manager as leader must first decide the kind of situation confronted, then behave accordingly – in either instance, meaning is managed and reality is manipulated via symbolic interaction with others. In this sense, the Transactional/Transformational leadership distinction is a unique formulation of Contingency theory. An excellent manager, it is proposed, has high levels of skill proficiency in both transactional and transformational behaviours.

Sixthly, strategic orientation matters in the sense of both influencing followers' capacity for doing the job and contributing positively to the firm's mission. Cultural norms, artifacts, and symbols need to be understood and used to marry immediate, everyday workplace concerns with organisational issues. This thesis thus proposes excellent managers are not just leaders, but rather *strategic leaders in a dual, interrelated sense.* First, they *demonstrate strategic influence* in managing their people (Pelz 1952). Second, they *manage their work or business unit strategically*.

Lastly, as McElroy and Hunger (1988) emphasise, leadership is only one albeit important variable determining business outcomes. The role of culture, among other broad factors, cannot be ignored. Business culture is itself essentially materialist, though not exclusively so. However defined, leader effectiveness should be understood proportionately, not absolutely.

Basic assumptions of this thesis. All of these elements are important as the infrastructure of the specific theory of individualised leadership to be outlined shortly, which guides understanding how managers become more or less effective and successful in contemporary business. Briefly, it is assumed leadership at the individual level is a social phenomenon involving a complex, interactive learning process of communication, perceptions, meaningfulness, and story-telling. Ontologically, it is assumed that leadership is an intersubjective phenomenon, that it is collectively created and maintained via differential skills, and that it is objectively real in this sense, rather than something 'out there' or a mere subjective experience. Thus, leadership exists as a social construction independently of the observer and the activities of social science. It is assumed individuals, including leaders, freely adapt their conduct to accord with or to influence the views of others. In exercising their free will, however, it is assumed individuals are bounded by their interaction with others within cultural contexts of both the business world and broader society. It is further assumed individuals are constrained by the level of their learned skills and motivations concerning leadership. Epistemologically, it is assumed knowledge of the reality of leadership is achievable via theoretical concepts grounded in

intersubjectively agreed lay ideas. In terms of social science approaches, therefore, this thesis reflects primarily Interpretivism, with elements of Positivism (Blaikie 1993).

3.3 A Reality Management Theory of Leadership

The theory built upon this platform is called the **Reality Management Theory** (RMT) of individualised leadership. The writer has originated this theory based on the foregoing literature review. This theory is a micro-sociological one, and it is a mid-range theory in the sense described in the classic treatment by Merton (1968), and reiterated briefly by Kane and O'Reilly-de Brun (2001). It is now described in three steps.

First, leader behaviours commonly cited in the literatures are drawn together, and the theory states one interpretation of this broad pool of behaviours (s. 3.3.1). Individuals' particular leader skillsets may be understood within this framework. This framework provides for an instrument to measure leader skills. Secondly, major aspects of the theory are outlined, including an explanation of how managers deploy their differing leader skills to manage reality, with a classification of managers based on important outcomes of this reality management (s. 3.3.2). Thirdly, there is a discussion of the theory's dynamic aspect, the social learning of leader skills over the individual's lifetime (s. 3.3.3).

It is advanced that this learning occurs differentially, and that this largely explains why managers vary in the precise types and proficiencies of their leader skills, and hence vary in their outcomes. It is also advanced that leader skills and outcomes may be part of larger patterns among managers that include antecedents and correlates; and, if so, this could extend the theory in a corroborative fashion.

There is a summation of the theory (s. 3.4). Six propositions are drawn from this theory, and key terms are defined to facilitate understanding this thesis (s. 3.5).

3.3.1 The Leader Action Characteristics Set

This thesis contends that managers differentially learn leader behaviours in both kind and level of expertise, and that these skillsets distinguish managers in terms of their outcomes. Many writers have remarked upon the import of leader skills.

Leader skills in relevant literatures. Maier long ago argued leader skills are both necessary and learnable, (Maier 1949; Maier 1963). In this respect, however, he nominated general human relations and communication skills based in a Rogerian non-directive counselling approach. Although such competencies are important to leadership and commonly cited as leader skills, they are generic rather than definitive

elements of even a broad model of individualised leadership. Conger (1991) also discusses micro-skills of communication and interpersonal relations as the language of leadership, mastered by some business leaders, who thus manipulate cultural symbols to make meaning and craft reality. However, he limits this to inspirational leadership, without anchorage in a specific leader model.

Similarly, this thesis has points of agreement with the so-called **Skills of Leadership Model** (SLM) proffered by Hosking and Morley (1988). They argue, and this thesis concurs, that skilful leaders use the micro-skills of organising, networking, and negotiating, both within and between groups. Their model stresses interlocking cognitive, social, and political processes, and it has a strong Symbolic Interactionist aspect. Like that of Smith and Peterson (1988), it has significant heuristic value, and it is an important contribution to our understanding of leadership as a complex constructed reality. However, their thinking is not put as a coherent, well-developed theory of individualised leadership. It states general skills, and it fails to describe empirical measurement and operational procedures for testing purposes.

As outlined previously (s. 2.2.5), Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory (ICT) emphasises the importance of various technical and social competencies to the emergence and effectiveness of leaders (Hollander 1958; Hollander 1960; Hollander 1961a; Hollander 1961b; Hollander 1974). However, ICT also does not conceptualise leadership in terms of a coherent framework of identifiable, patterned leader skills that can be learned and consciously employed in ongoing interactions. Similar comments apply to the commendable theorising, modelling, and measurements reported in a recent special issue of the Leadership Quarterly (Connelly, Gilbert, Zaccaro, Threlfall, Marks and Mumford 2000; Marshall-Mies, Fleishman, Martin, Zaccaro, Baughmann and McGee 2000; Mumford et al. 2000; Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro and Reiter-Palmon 2000; Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks and Gilbert 2000; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman 2000a; Mumford, Zaccaro, Johnson, Diana, Gilbert and Threlfall 2000b; Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly and Marks 2000c). These generally focus on problem-solving skills, combined with knowledge and social judgement components, within a military context.

The Leader Action Characteristics Set. Unlike most similar efforts in the literature, Reality Management Theory (RMT) offers an *initial, systematic statement of leader skills*. Table 3.2 outlines this statement as a general framework, entitled the **Leader Action Characteristics Set** (LACS). (NOTE: The items of this statement are presented in abridged form in this electronic version of this thesis to facilitate contact with the author before readers may use the framework for research purposes).

Table 3.2 Leader Action Characteristics Set

Transactional Leader Characteristics

Traditional management: establishes clear XXX and plans; monitors performance regularly; makes sound and timely decisions; XXX and coordinates resources

Routine communication: handles XXX and XXX for the work unit

Human resource management: displays merit and equity of treatment within the work unit; motivates by XXX, supporting and XXX in a tailored manner; provides individually relevant training and development opportunities; XXX fairly and speedily; addresses conflict XXX and constructively

Personal networking: XXX, socialises with and XXX important outsiders for own XXX purposes

Transformational Leader Characteristics

Individualised relationships: XXX with work unit members, knows each by name and discusses personal interests; XXX actively and shows XXX of members' views; conveys XXX of members' efforts; promotes members' self-esteem

Work inspiration: shows confidence in members' skills; helps members to see XXX; links personal and company interests; promotes self improvement in the workplace; describes a XXX of the future workplace

Charisma: displays XXX verbal and non-verbal expressions; talks the language of listeners; clearly XXX values, beliefs, XXX and ideals; shows enthusiasm, XXX and engages emotionally; always follows up important issues; XXX brave and desirable behaviours

Strategic Leader Characteristics

Strategic influence: XXX, socialises with and XXX important outsiders to XXX the work unit

Strategic direction: envisages where company is going in long term; conveys XXX to work unit; develops XXX of work unit and members accordingly; enables members to make strategically apt contributions

The LACS is drawn from leader behaviours commonly nominated in the literature, involving a tri-step, cumulative effect, and interpreted here within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. More specifically, RMT posits individual managers'

behaviours form an identifiable pattern of leader skills displayed at various levels of integrated proficiency, and each individual skillset is interpretable within the LACS framework. This general set of skills relates partly to the fact of managers being ordinary people who strive to become transactional leaders, partly to identified features of transformational leaders, and partly to the increasing role of strategy in their kit of expertise. Unlike other leadership accounts, this skillset relates to business management specifically not management generally. This involves minimal specification to retain ease of adaptability for comparative and developmental purposes. At this point, the aim is to elucidate the conceptual underpinnings of the skills, with reference to human motivation, and to show both their anchorage in the literature as well as their unique formulation.

Transactional leader characteristics. As shown in Table 3.2, managers as transactional leaders are surmised to engage in the activities identified so convincingly by Luthans et al. (1988) as those characterising actual managers in recent times. These include traditional management, routine communication, human resource management, and personal networking, as detailed in Table 3.2 and operationally defined in Appendix C. These activities have been described as instrumental leadership supporting classical management functions (Filley et al. 1976; House and Baetz 1990). This thesis agrees these activities constitute leader behaviour, not just manager behaviour as something essentially different. That is, these are behaviours undertaken by managers in their attempts to influence others toward achievement of organisational or group goals, although possibly with some desire to develop their own careers also.

This latter possibility is of particular note, and it is reflected in the specific notion of personal networking, rather than the undifferentiated idea of networking identified by Luthans et al. (1988). Path-Goal Theory suggests how leaders themselves are motivated, as well as needing to manage motivations of others, in pursuit of organisational goals. Further, the idea managers are or ought to be entirely altruistic is considered to be neither realistic nor necessary to group achievements. Indeed, notwithstanding the nobility of self-sacrifice, personal drive and motivation can be a sound basis for leadership as well as followership. Zaleznik (1990) recognises this in his contention that personal influence is a driving force for economic prosperity and human satisfaction.

This conceptualisation of transactional leadership is thus indebted to the idea of real managers proffered by Luthans et al. (1988), but amended to emphasise managers' motivationally driven leader skills and to reflect an exchange orientation in networking, which is accordingly re-conceptualised and nominated as personal

networking. It differs substantively from that promulgated by Bass and his colleagues in their numerous publications, although it is intended to operationalise the same underlying dimension sought by their endeavours – for example, Bass and Avolio (1990b). Notably, it sees transactions as humanistic not mechanistic, and it emphasises skillbase not just important or frequently undertaken activities.

The quality unifying these behavioural skills is their tendency to preserve the status quo. These neither challenge present ways of doing things nor undermine accepted intents, goals and visions. They are instrumental and tradition-oriented. A leader employing transactional skills is concerned with the present, with familiar problems, with programmed decision situations – in short, with routine meanings. These most likely involve Stebbins' (1969) cultural and habitual definitions of the situation (s. 3.1.2.).

Transformational leader characteristics. The components of transformational leadership are anchored in concepts neglected by Luthans et al. (1988), though substantially demonstrated in studies undertaken since the early 1980's (s. 2.2.4), especially by Bass (1985); Tichy and Devanna (1986); Dunphy and Stace (1990); Kouzes and Posner (1995); and Bass (1998). These include individualised relationships, work inspiration, and charisma, as detailed in Table 3.2 and operationally defined in Appendix C. However, these components are also conceived explicitly as skills and reworked operationally to enhance measurement. The construct of work inspiration is particularly intended to reflect a more coherent dimension clearly separate from its affiliates. In contrast, as Parry and Proctor (2000) report, inspirational motivation has been argued to confound with peer concepts like intellectual stimulation or idealised influence in the Full Range of Leadership model advanced by Avolio (1994) and Bass (1998). Although work inspiration is indebted to the notion of inspirational motivation, it differs conceptually and focusses more precisely on the workplace.

Altogether, transformational leader skills are unified by their focus upon enabling if not encouraging change. Especially when employed holistically, these skills promote possibilities rather than past ways of doing things, and entice unrealised potential from others, thus augmenting performance. Yet, especially when utilised as separate behaviours, they neither provide guarantees of changed outcomes nor of realising potential in others. Indeed, enacted in fragmented fashion, or at low levels of expertise, they may do no more than transactional skills in maintaining high quality past practices and traditional ideals. A leader utilising transformational skills does so in the face of future uncertainty, unfamiliar problems, new developments, and non-programmed situations – that is, in view of innovative

meanings. Unique personal definitions of the situation are likely to be more relevant here (Stebbins 1969). This is not superiority of some sort. Different skills or different aspects of the same skillset are demanded by different situations.

Strategic leader characteristics. The strategic dimension is a novel addition aiming to update individualised leadership research to today's global realities. It entails consideration of both group and organisational levels in a reciprocal, mutually reinforcing fashion. It includes strategic direction and strategic influence, as detailed in Table 3.2 and operationally defined in Appendix C. The concept of strategic direction aims to tap leader expertise that has developed substantially since the early 1980's, as discussed ealier (s. 2.3.2). This extends the conceptual base of what makes a leader given shifts in the cutting edge of competition.

The idea of strategic influence is notable as the altruistic expression of a need for institutional power to facilitate work unit performance. It is conceptualised as a different and additive subfactor based on synergies of a united work unit, rather than on the leader's resources alone with potential retarding from unaligned work unit members. Pelz (1952) originally proffered this concept in terms of 'supervisory influence'. But the concept is derived even more from Attribution Theory, Leader-Member Exchange Theory, and Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory research, which show the power and performance differences between fragmented as opposed to unified work units (s. 2.2.5). Interestingly, it also parallels the concept of representation behaviours outlined by Baliga and Hunt (1988), although it was constructed and utilised prior to the writer's exposure to their work. Goal realisation is especially dependent in this view on the leader's ability to harness work unit energies by ensuring a communality of definitions among work unit members and the manager as leader.

The leader instrument. The foregoing tri-partite skillset is detailed as a data collection instrument in Appendices A and B, and briefly noted below (s. 4.3). It is not purported to be an empirically established measuring instrument. The field program of this thesis was designed to garner evidence and test this skillset, its components, and associated hypotheses. Some empirical shrinkage of items was anticipated due to scale validity and reliability tests. As discussed later (s. 5.2), initial scales, component skill items, and definitions of key skillsets of this thesis were revised, with theoretical re-interpretation. It was also anticipated construct validity might not be comprehensively satisfied via hypothesis testing. This is further examined in quantitative analyses (s. 5.6), where construct validity is reported as strong on a clarified theoretical basis. The table thus represents a beginning not an ending for this thesis.

3.3.2 The Management of Reality and the Manager Quad

The foregoing section outlined the initial broad model of leader skills offered by the Reality Management Theory of leadership (Table 3.2). This section describes key aspects of the theory. First, it is explained how managers manage reality by deploying their leader skills. Secondly, there is a suggested classification of managers based on two important outcomes of this reality management. Thirdly, some related theoretical inferences are promulgated.

The management of reality. The Leader Action Characteristics Set is a broad framework of leader skills. It is a convenient device and potentially fluid, representing the operational basis of a dynamic model of individualised leadership that, as argued shortly, involves interactional learning in an uncertain world. An individual manager may be more or less proficient across this skill range. Managers vary in their mastery of these leader skills in both number of learned leader skills and degree of expertise in each leader skill in their particular skill portfolio. Individual managers' specific leader skillsets are variable subsets within this broad framework.

In line with a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm, the specific leader skillsets of managers are comprised of meaningful behaviours. These are symbolically learned and interpreted leadership behaviours, or leadership actions. Individual managers vary in these skills in the sense of symbol control, not merely in terms of persuasive logic of some objective 'scientific' kind, or technical expertise, divorced from the sociocultural nature of human reality. Individual managers use these skills more or less well in their daily interactions with direct reports (and significant others). An individual manager's behaviours are translated from *just* meaningful behaviours into leader skills of import to the extent that the manager practices them into behavioural routines for defining situations.

That is, according to their degree of integrated skills, managers are more or less able to control symbols of meaning and thus to manage the socio-organisational reality in which they find themselves. They are more or less equipped for the quintessential leadership task of defining situations. To the degree they define situations, or contribute significantly to meaningfulness, they manage reality.

This management of reality is a form of social construction of meaningfulness, or uniquely human story-telling, as understood within a Symbolic Interactionist frame. It involves complex interactions among actors over time, more often than not over lengthy periods, and more so within today's organisational contexts. Within the leader-follower equation of a manager's relationships with work unit members, this

has a notable carriage. The nature and degree of a manager's leader skills are *recognised* by followers, (usually at a taken-for-granted, preconscious level), who accordingly ascribe or deny the leader mantle to the manager concerned. So followers are important, as they help construct reality, especially over the long term.

Yet the manager is predominant. Even if the poorest leader the manager has an organisational mandate, role expectation and information access to precedentially set in motion the defining of reality, and followers react, with their collective influence being felt in the longer not shorter term. More importantly, any manager is able to learn and improve his or her leader skills through social learning processes, which effectively involve 'taking (or ignoring) the hint' from followers, thereby confirming or redefining presentation of the self and social image. Given the complexity of leader skills, this interactional feedback and learning is generally protracted, indeed a lifetime exercise (s. 3.3.3), so that an individual manager is the principal actor at any point in time in terms of managing reality. To the degree of their integrated leader skills, managers can establish or rewrite scripts, thus providing themselves and others with appropriate meanings and roles. This is especially the case with members of their role set. Formal authority, information, and potential learning make managers the main actors in the leadership equation (for better or worse). To the extent that managers define situations with proficient leader skills, or contribute masterfully to meaningfulness, they stay the primary managers of reality.

The Manager Quad (MQ). Consequent to the varying abilities of individual managers to deploy their leader skills in managing reality, there is variation in managers' measured outcomes. This suggests the possibility that managers may be categorised according to their outcomes, because these outcomes result from potentially systematic differences in leader skills deployment. In this thesis, on the basis of the work undertaken by Luthans et al. (1988), two of many possible outcomes were chosen to investigate this possibility. These outcomes were individual success and leader effectiveness, which are later defined along with other key concepts like work unit performance and business success (s. 3.5). Figure 3.1 illustrates this possibility.

It is thus proposed that managers may be categorised into one or another of four outcome classes, or a quad structure termed the **Manager Quad** (MQ) (Figure 3.1), by cross-classifying the extent of each manager's individual success with the extent of his or her leader effectiveness.

The MQ is based on leader skills inputs. It is important to underline that whilst this quad structure is *expressed* in outcome terms, (viz., leader effectiveness and individual success), it is nevertheless *based* upon manager inputs – the relative

degree of integrated expertise in their behaviours. That is, it is proposed that these outcomes, and hence the classification of managers accordingly, depend upon the degree of proficiency in each and every leader skill possessed by managers. In other words, the nature and extent of leader skill proficiency determines the relative mix of leader effectiveness and individual success enjoyed by any manager, and hence whether that manager fits one quad type or another. Given its embedment in Reality Management Theory, the Manager Quad and its labels suggest empirical relationships linking skills to outcomes. Some of these are later outlined as general propositions with relevant definitions (s. 3.5).

Figure 3.1 Effectiveness and success model of managers as leaders

This Manager Quad can be further detailed within the framework of Reality Management Theory as follows. It is proposed some managers achieve *high, integrated levels of leader skill proficiency* in terms of defining situations, thus facilitating outcomes, and hence they are both effective as leaders and successful as

individuals. They are here labelled excellent managers, and it is anticipated they are relatively rare due to the significant requirements of strong skill integration. Other managers tend to be either effective or successful, rather than both, as originally found by Luthans et al. (1988). They are called achievement managers or career managers, respectively. Their *skills are lopsided in degree of integrated expertise*. Achievement managers are postulated to display especially strong strategic influence skills, whereas career managers are postulated to emphasise personal networking expertise. Achievement managers seem likely to be the most numerous given experience, learning and formal authority combines with selflessness to ensure some degree of promotion, whilst the competitive ethic combines with self-interest to result in career winners being fewer than 'also rans'. There are logically yet other managers who are neither effective nor successful. They are called student managers, *either still learning their trade, or possibly will never achieve an adequate skill base* to become effective or successful, much less excellent. The term 'student' is used to emphasise the need to learn, not to imply a lack of commitment or inability to learn, or even excel if and when learning is accomplished. Such managers are assumed to gain leader skills and promotion, or to eventually leave the management field, due to learning or not learning, respectively. For these reasons, their relative numbers are anticipated to remain low, though not so low as those of excellent managers.

An important feature of this quad is the postulated *negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success*. It results logically from two sets of considerations, with leader skills emphasised. There is the pyramidal nature of organisational hierarchy and remuneration levels, which ensures relatively few managers can accrue individual success, regardless of the age component of that concept as defined in this thesis. By contrast, direct reports are more likely than not to attribute leader effectiveness to managers due to the latters' formal authority, role, information access, and experiential learning (especially of leader skills). Expected cell frequencies reflect this relationship, which is contrary to a common though not universal belief (ss. 2.1 and 2.3). This is not to deny possible alternative explanations of this proposed negative relationship. For instance, psychic distance might be considered, but that is precluded by operational measures (ss. 4.3 and 4.4.1). However, this thesis stresses the lop-sided, unintegrated exercise of socially learned leader skills as crucial, and that explanation is explored (ss. 5.5.1 and 5.6).

Notably, Luthans et al. (1988) never identified managers in terms of this outcome matrix; they devoted a few belated pages to the possibility of what are here called excellent managers; and they were silent about the possibility of the category of student managers. They also did not examine the role of leader skills as the

possible genesis of managers' outcomes, but rather described the relative frequency of managerial activities associated with success or effectiveness in the 'real' world.

Excellent managers. Within the framework of Reality Management Theory and its associated Manager Quad, a premium is placed upon the category of excellent managers. It is proposed that an individual manager who develops appropriate leader skills is continuously able to achieve desirable outcomes such as leader effectiveness and individual success. It is excellent managers' highly integrated leader skill proficiencies concerning meaningfulness that distinguish them from other managers, not just types of behaviour, much less broad 'catch-all' characteristics or mere outcomes. Simple behaviour frequencies do not determine leader outcomes. Nor, for that matter, do skills alone, as managers invariably have some degree of leader skill. The concept of a skillset – and especially one tied to a leader's expertise with symbols and meanings – significantly differentiates present theorising from past models of individualised leadership. Past theorising has tended to focus upon leader characteristics without regard to the level of systematically integrated expertise displayed, even where behaviours or skills have been acknowledged; and without emphasis on the critical importance of human meaning making via behaviours under the practiced, systematic control of their actors.

It is postulated excellent managers are both transformational and transactional leaders, otherwise they would lose an essential capacity to relate to followers; and they are strategists in a dual sense. They appreciate the need to be symbolically attuned, constantly communicating with others, culturally aware and responsive, flexible and innovative, and prepared for change.

Organisational density of excellent managers. It is also proposed that organisational performance depends upon a firm's blend of managers. The theory predicts that excellent managers make a positive difference to their firm's fortunes. Their performance outcomes are superior to other managers in terms of leader effectiveness and work unit performance. Via these avenues, they contribute to a firm's long-term business success. The greater the density of excellent managers in a firm, the greater its likelihood of achieving prolonged business success.

Organisational dispersion. It is posited that the MQ may be found across functional areas and levels of an organisation. It does not respect formal hierarchy, though certain student managers are unlikely to rise too far up the organisational ladder. Excellent managers are far more likely to do so, although they may also be located at lower levels. Leadership does not suddenly happen at the executive level or in strategic 'thinktanks' (House 1977; Avolio and Bass 1988; Carless et al. 1996; Buhler 1998). Organisational dispersion of excellent managers is an empirical matter.

McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory. As many writers have noted, McClelland's (1961) work on motivational needs is germane to leadership and this thesis is consistent with his insights. McClelland's **Acquired Needs Theory** (ANT) is readily understood in terms of differential association processes of social learning outlined previously (s. 3.1.3). A brief review of ANT in conjunction with Differential Association Theory principles illustrates how these two theories might be combined in relation to leadership. As with ANT, the following element of RMT is not intended to be judgemental, although value judgements could be drawn in this regard.

Simply put, motivational needs can be seen as acquired differentially in the same ways as leader/follower patterns, with an excess of definitions over time favouring one or another set of needs. McClelland (1961) distinguished three forms of human motivation, these being a need for power (nPow), a need for achievement (nAch), and a need for affiliation (nAff). He further divided the need for power into two sub-forms: the need for institutional power, and the need for personal power. From a differential association perspective, it can be postulated, first, that these needs arise and are learned within small group interactions over time. Secondly, the precise motivations of individual managers are also learned in this fashion, not only or necessarily the broader motivational spectrum. Thirdly, individual managers as leaders learn to be motivated and to motivate others in a specific typical way according to the priority, frequency, duration, and intensity of their interactions carrying different motivational patterns. The earlier in life, more often and enduring, and more emotional and prestigious their interactions emphasising a specific pattern of motivational needs, the more likely they will acquire that pattern, and the more likely that pattern will work (or appear to work). Fourthly, over time and circumstance, an individual manager is exposed to an excess of definitions favouring one or another motivational need pattern, and this may be a variation of the types promulgated by McClelland (1961). Thus, each individual manager as a leader differentially acquires his or her particular pattern of motivational needs, and comes to assume others share the same pattern, and so will be motivated in the same way.

In particular, ANT describes the difference between managers motivated by a need for personal power and those motivated by a need for institutional power, both of whom acquire their typical needs in the fashion just described. The former look mainly to their own needs and careers, while the latter are more interested in their work unit's needs and achievements. ANT therefore also alerts us to the danger of leaders motivated strongly by a need for personal rather than institutional power.

This differential power motivation is theorised to underlay the skillbases of career managers versus achievement managers, being a need for personal and

institutional power, respectively. In both instances, however, the manager's motivational drive is for recognition as a leader, either as an individual (egoistically) or in concert with work unit members (altruistically). There is potentially an uneasy tension here between leader needs and work unit member needs, but one that may not always deter ascription and maintenance of the leader mantle. It is not easy for members to discern truly the motivation of the manager who is supposed to lead them. Generally, the more egoistic a manager is perceived by work unit members, the less likely they are to attribute the leader mantle, whilst the more altruistic the greater is the likely ascription of leadership. Alternatively, as theorised, the perceived egoistic motivation of a manager might earn attribution of one sort of leader skillset (personal networking), whilst the altruistic motivation of another manager might earn attribution of another sort of leader skillset (strategic influence). In this latter alternative, the specific nature and degree of overall leader skills might be important, and any tendency to view managers as discrete leader types might be irrelevant.

Broadbased theory. Importantly, therefore, the Reality Management Theory of leadership is a broadbased one, not one that is specific to, for example, charismatic leaders (s. 2.2.4), 'top' leaders (s. 2.3.2), or eminent people (s. 3.3.3). Therefore, this thesis adopts a comparative method. It does not methodologically assume a non-comparative stance, which is usual in studies focussed on CEOs or similarly 'successful' people.

Performance aggregation and moderation. Without committing the fallacy of levels (ss. 2.2.3 and 2.3.1), a final suggestion of RMT to be noted here is that leader-induced performance effects are aggregated and moderated as hierarchical factors come into play. At the group level leader skills promote identifiable, potentially positive performance effects. To the degree that they are positive, these performance effects act upon to improve the attitudinal, cognitive, and feeling aspects of those involved in the work unit. These performance effects and associated spin-offs then aggregate to work unit performance effects. In turn, these work unit effects aggregate with other work unit effects to company level effects. Further, as the hierarchy of organisational reality levels is ascended, broader factors – such as combined organisational leadership, competitor activities, or cultural change – interact with and moderate the aggregating leader-follower behaviours and their effects.

These larger factors either reinforce or counteract the effects of aggregating performance. But contradiction is more likely given external interests become evermore opposed within a competitive environment like that of free market enterprise. Hence, correlations would be expected to decline as outcome measures increasingly reflect events over which individual actors exert decreasing control. This

interactive aggregation effect is not fully appreciated by fallacy of levels and psychological reductionist arguments that characterise much of the leadership literature, including many Attribution Theory applications. For instance, analyses by Lowe, Kroek and Sivasubramanium (1996) are moot on this account.

Recent relevant research evidence. Notably, the RMT and MQ comprise a window on leadership that is compatible with recent work by Irurita (1996); Parry (1999); Parry and Proctor (2000); and Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2001), discovered after thesis formulation. Although developmental, Parry and his colleagues advance a **Social Processes of Leadership** (SPL) model and leadership scale, with reference to **Grounded Theory** (GT) method (Glaser and Strauss 1967). A key difference between this thesis and the work of Parry and his colleagues is their greater reliance on the transactional/transformational literature and indebtedness especially to the MLQ approach. Whilst not remaining wholly wedded to that school of thought, their debt is apparent and their work is shaped accordingly. Their work is not placed within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm, although it lends itself to such with appropriate conceptual modifications. There are other differences, for instance in methodological view, some of which are indicated later (ch. 4). Still, they raise a number of issues consistent with this thesis, including emphasis on interactive behavioural processes of leadership, and the need to focus more upon qualitative research without forsaking quantitative measures.

There is already some preliminary evidence for basic aspects of the quad structure and associated theory in an Australian setting. In the mid-1990s, Evans (1996) conducted two separate studies, one examining quality issues in Telstra and another looking at leadership in Shell, Sydney Electricity, and Westpac. He found:

> *Australians make important distinctions between the terms 'leader' and 'boss,' and between 'good boss' and 'bad boss' (p. 7).*

Leaders are committed to followers and involved with them. Bosses are more aloof, with a pragmatic concern for themselves. However, 'good' bosses are interested and concerned at least until their people complete tasks. 'Bad' bosses are self-centred, take credit due to others, and ignore the needs of their people. Although his work is neither inspired by nor in the terms of Luthans et al. (1988) studies, and his framework is substantially less developed than that just described, Evans' 'leaders,' and 'good' and 'bad' bosses provide some rough parallels to this thesis. His research thus suggests similar systematic differences in the activities of effective and successful managers. The quad structure articulates more fully and clearly different manager categories underpinned by leader skill proficiencies socially learned via differential associations.

Excellent Managers   99

3.3.3 The Life-long Acquisition of Leader Skills

The prior two sections have dealt mainly with static aspects of Reality Management Theory. The interactional feedback and learning between a manager and direct reports suggests one way in which leadership is conceived essentially as a process in this thesis. This section further outlines the theory's dynamic aspect, with an emphasis on the social learning of leader skills over the individual's lifetime, and consideration of how this may relate to manager's broader backgrounds.

The role of Social Learning Theory and Differential Association Theory. A key proposition of Reality Management Theory concerns how managers come to develop and maintain their leader skills, or fail to do so, over the course of their lifetime. Leader skills do not magically appear from nowhere. It is proposed that managers' specific leader skillsets arise from lifelong social learning processes involving differential associations with people, ideas, values, and culture that sponsor an excess of definitions favouring some characteristic pattern. The Leader Action Characteristics Set is a convenient summary of behaviours suggested by the literatures as associated with leadership. In the present view, all those behaviours can be learned and it is the learning process that makes managers into leaders, and that makes them into excellent managers, or into other kinds of managers in some typical fashion.

That is, it is explicitly assumed a social learning model (Bandura 1977), via lifecycle processes of differential association (Sutherland and Cressey 1969), accounts for how managers develop their expertise (s. 3.1.3). It is not just a single group situation (a manager's current work unit), nor even an additive series of small group situations (all of the manager's past and present work unit situations), that is involved in the process. Psycho-historically, for any individual manager, the process for developing a unique leader skillset involves selection, rehearsal, and retention of some particular constellation of these sorts of behaviours over that manager's lifetime of differential associations. It is whole of lifetime learning that explains why managers vary in the precise types and proficiencies of their leader skills, and hence vary in their outcomes and their quad classification.

This also clearly contradicts believing leadership is produced by genetics, personality predispositions, operant conditioning, divine ordination, or similar 'untouchables'. In other words, although affective and motivational processes, self-confidence, self-efficacy, cognitive capacities, and other factors across a range of reality planes are acknowledged as important, these constitute boundary

assumptions of this thesis' theoretical framework. Meaningful overt behaviours at the interpersonal level are considered primary determinants of leader-follower events, and these behaviours can be learned as skills during the course of life. As Bradford and Cohen (1984) state:

> *(W)e are not talking about* personality *change; we are talking about* behavior *change. A significant body of research and practice shows that most healthy individuals can change quite a bit of their behavior (original emphases, p. 268).*

Managers' antecedents and correlates. However, this life-long acquisition of leader skills, along with their outcomes, may not be isolated from other elements of managers' lives, but rather form part of some larger patterning process. That is, if skillsets and their outcomes can be thus distinguished at any point in time, then these might be associated systematically with what are broadly called here managers' antecedents and correlates.

But are there larger patterns? This is clearly an empirical question that is not answered directly by the Reality Management Theory of leadership deduced from the literatures, since that was framed initially in terms of defined leader skills and outcomes. It was decided to explore managers' antecedents and correlates, with a view to garnering quite distinct evidence to confirm, deny, or extend conceptually the initial theory or aspects of it. For this purpose, it was necessary to determine what aspects of managers' backgrounds might be of interest. Methodological issues are considered elsewhere (ss. 4.4.2 and 4.5.3). Substantive considerations are appropriate at this point, however, because of a specific gap in the literature, and because the literature is nevertheless useful for deciding relevant aspects in terms of foregoing discussions of theory and instrument.

Prior research on antecedents and correlates. Popper, Mayseless and Castelnovo (2000) note little research has been devoted to antecedents of leadership. Regarding antecedents, this thesis draws particularly from research on background characteristics of eminent people by Goertzel and Goertzel (1962) and successful people by Bennis (1989); whilst abandoning their less rigorous non-comparative assumptions and adopting a comparative approach (ss. 3.3.1 and 4.5.3). Such characteristics are potentially important antecedents of managers as leaders generally, not simply those considered eminent or successful. That is, these may not identify just eminent or successful people as supposed by those authors. Alternatively, certain characteristics may be true of managers regarding only some particular of their 'eminence', 'individual success', or, to employ this thesis' other key term, 'leader effectiveness'. The broad research question is whether there are

patterns issuing from the past and maintained contemporaneously in managers' lives that help us understand their acquisition of leader skills, and hence their individual success and/or leader effectiveness, with training and development implications.

The Goertzels' (1962) biographical study of 400 eminent men and women found common characteristics (pp. 272-274) were:

- Mostly came from farms, villages, or small cities
- Love of learning in almost all the households
- Often physical exuberance, persistent drive toward goals
- Three quarters troubled as children [poverty, broken home, finances, physical handicaps, parental dissatisfaction over school failures or career choices]
- Half of the parents were opinionated about controversial subjects
- Nearly half the fathers suffered work related trauma
- Quarter of the mothers dominating
- Wealth much more frequent than abject poverty
- Quarter of the subjects handicapped
- Homes exceptionally free of mental illness requiring hospitalisation
- As children, enjoyed being tutored, but most frequently disliked secondary school yet liked 'the prestige college'
- Three fifths were dissatisfied with schools and teachers
- Four fifths showed exceptional talent

The main variables extracted from these findings for thesis research purposes are: love of learning, physical energies, parental influence, familiarity with risk, and troubled childhood.

Similarly, Bennis (1989) provided guiding questions for each dialogue he undertook with his 29 subjects, mostly CEOs or top managers, and successful professionals (authors, lawyers, motion picture director). These questions (p. 7) were:

- What do you believe are the qualities of leadership?
- What experiences were vital to your development?
- What were the turning points in your life?
- What role has failure played in your life?
- How did you learn?
- Are there people in your life, or in general, whom you particularly admire?
- What can organisations do to encourage or stifle leaders?

These questions also help inform those asked in thesis interviews (s. 4.4.2). Their main contribution is in terms of vital developmental experiences and turning

points, familiarity with failure, learning, and role models. Again, these are mainly factors from the past rather than the present, antecedents more than correlates, although the dividing line is not always entirely clear. In sum, it is principally questions of sources of influence that are suggested by these authors.

Non-skill correlates. Thesis interviews also explored the social ideology of managers, their management and leadership orientations, and their personal concepts. These represent correlates of managers' leader skills. Even considerations of implicit leadership theories and beliefs about leader skills are just that, theories and beliefs, not the skills themselves. Interview questions in these respects were generated from quantitative findings of this thesis and the wider social science literature, but mainly from the literatures on leadership and motivation. These non-skill factors are routinely confounded with skills in 'melting pot' models of leadership. It is worth disentangling them and placing them in their proper perspective, as separate though potentially related to skills. The importance of these non-skill correlates is largely to help our comprehension of the context of individualised leadership, and to further facilitate individually tailored leader development programs. The broad research question is whether there are present patterns that help our comprehension of managers' continuing development, maintenance and use of leader skills.

A major specific research question here is whether managers are differentiated in terms of social ideology, and whether this is related to their leadership beliefs and practices. If, for example, a manager believes in blind chance as the determinant of human conduct and its consequences, then she or he is unlikely to consciously hone leader skills. Further, it might be discovered that managers who believe in born leaders are categorised distinctively from managers who believe otherwise. Another, more specific interest is whether a Symbolic Interactionist approach to understanding social life is recognised or used to any degree. This is significant because it provides the theoretical framework of this thesis, so it is valuable to know whether managers under study recognised it, and especially whether it informed their own leadership practices or helped distinguish them in these terms. Again, for instance, managers who recognise and employ a Symbolic Interactionist view might tend to group together in other respects, in contradistinction from managers who take for granted social constructions involved in everyday leadership activities.

Other major issues include the manager/leader debate, and implicit theories of leadership. Each of these is an important issue in its own right according to the literature, and it is worthwhile knowing managers' views for this reason alone. These,

Excellent Managers   103

too, might form patterns among managers as leaders. Additionally, these have been examined in current theoretical discussions and shown to play a role in the framework of this thesis (ss. 2.2.5 and 2.3). Hence, interview questions here helped to explore the thesis' position on these particular issues.

There are also the distinction between effectiveness and success, and the hypothesised leader skill areas. Each of these is central to this thesis. The first underpins the Manager Quad explored via survey, so it was highly pertinent to uncover views of managers representing each quad sector. It is possible that those views align with quad membership.

The hypothesised leader skill areas were similarly worth direct query of sampled managers. These skill areas are the core of this thesis in terms of the survey instrument and associated propositions drawn from Reality Management Theory (s. 3.5). In the case study phase, these skills were measured in an economical self-report fashion due mainly to the need for relatively speedy interviewing. For instance, questions on skills concerning transactional and transformational leadership focussed upon the key aspect of current company goal pursuit versus future competitive orientation. Managers' views concerning skills, although not the skills themselves, at least bear upon them, and those views might reflect the quad and associated postulates in some systematic manner.

Personal concept was examined in terms of communication style, self-image and energy levels. Each is an important component of how managers continuously define and orient themselves to the world. These do not exhaust the possible facets of personal concept. Rather, these are just three ways in which a personality may be holistically maintained or become potentially dysfunctional. Nonetheless, these are arguably key components of the ongoing construction and reconstruction of personality, and represent potentially important correlates of how managers sustain and develop their leader skills.

Interview schedule. For purposes of this thesis, these antecedents and correlates were broken into five broad areas of 18 subthemes, as detailed in an interview schedule (Appendix D), and briefly noted below (s. 4.4.2). These subthemes guided case interviews to discover linkages between managers' backgrounds, leader skills, and outcomes, within the Reality Management Theory framework, with possible conceptual extension as a result. They were developed subsequent to survey findings and consequent theoretical revisions.

3.4 Summation of Reality Management Theory

A summation of the Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership is now possible and timely. This specific theory fits within the Symbolic Interactionist approach outlined previously (s. 3.1.5).

Nutshell statement. The theory broadly states that managers' life-long differential social learning fosters the nature and degree of their individual leader skill proficiencies; that managers variably use these skills during symbolic interactions to define the cultural meaning of situations, to manage social reality via stories, and thus to determine outcomes like individual success and leader effectiveness; and that they may be therefore cross-classified into four groups according to those outcomes.

The Manager Quad and Reality Management Theory. The quad is a structural model framed within the current theory of individualised leadership that stresses the skilful management of social reality. Reality management involves managers being more or less well equipped with leader behaviours to discover and assert an optimal definition of the situation, and those behaviours may be enhanced as skills in the longer term by feedback from the manager's role set of significant others, including especially followers. Leader behaviours, once learned *as sufficient skills*, can be systematically deployed, altered, and re-deployed (c.f., versatility s. 2.2.2) in a *continuous social learning process* that involves both leader and followers in meaning creation. Leader skills are conceptualised in a tripartite structure reflecting the transactional, transformational, and strategic leadership dimensions evidenced in relevant literatures.

Whilst leader skills can be learned, these must be attributed mutually by a leader and his or her followers in any particular situation. That is, neither learning nor mutual attribution is sufficient alone to maintain the leader mantle over time and circumstance. However, learned leader skills are primary since these precede and help shape both the leader's self-attributions and followers' attributions. At any given time, leader skills determine outcomes, as suggested in the literatures on leadership and competency-based learning, and supported by the commonsense idea that leaders make things happen. The Leader Action Characteristics Set is a general framework for understanding and measuring leader skills.

Excellent managers. Excellent managers are leaders who (perhaps subconsciously) understand the need for continuously learning and relearning so as to stay abreast of defining the situation in ways that are informed by, sufficiently congruent with, yet appropriately challenging to significant others' views. Their highly

developed, integrated leader skillsets enable them to tell stories and manage meaning to the benefit of themselves, their work units, and their firms. Their logical opposites are called student managers, whose as yet poorly developed and non-integrated leader skillset disable their management of meaning to the detriment of themselves, their work units, and their firms. Achievement managers' leader skills are lopsided in degree of integrated expertise resulting in management of meaning more to the benefit of their work units, less to their firms, and least to themselves. Career managers' leader skills are also lopsided, but in a different way that benefits mostly themselves, and more so than their firms, and least so their work units.

Lifelong, differential leader skills development. Managers are theorised to be social actors who differentially develop leader skills during lifelong learning processes of symbolic interaction within cultural contexts (s. 3.3.3). This differential development is interrelated with managers' antecedents and correlates within their life situations, particularly within small groups, and it is summarised categorically at any given time in the quad outcomes.

3.5 Key Terms and General Propositions

The Reality Management Theory of leadership involves five key terms and it produces six general propositions.

Key terms. At this point it is convenient to define the central terms to facilitate understanding these propositions and the thesis.

(1)   *Leader skills proficiency* is represented in a set of patterned and reproducible behaviours learned by managers to high levels allowing them to systematically influence their work unit members to develop, understand, accept, and work toward achievement of company goals, without recourse to methods of domination. (Individual managers in practice variably learn both the number of skills and expertise in each).

(2)   *Individual success* means a manager's career progress as determined by his or her age-related organisational and remuneration levels.

(3)   *Leader effectiveness* refers to the extent managers enable job satisfaction and commitment; morale and team spirit; task efficiency and goal achievement; and overall work unit performance, as judged by work unit members. This is the manager's direct contribution to work unit business life.

(4)   *Work unit performance*, on the other hand, more broadly means the extent of job satisfaction and commitment; morale and team spirit; task efficiency and goal achievement; and overall work unit performance, regardless of motivational source, as judged by work unit members.

(5)   *Company business success* refers to the extent a commercial firm has an ongoing basis for generating income, repaying debt, securing investment monies, and providing returns to its principals.

The initial operational measures of these key terms are located in Appendix C and their revised operational forms are detailed in Chapter Five.

General propositions. Given these key definitions, general propositions derived from the theory can be stated. Collectively, the first five of these propositions are a way of indicating the impact of managers' leader skills according to Reality Management Theory. These enable clarifying and developing the theory by testing a range of affiliated operational hypotheses enumerated later (s. 5.5). Statistical testing is undertaken on an exploratory basis. Notably, the fourth proposition logically follows from demonstration of the preceding ones, and it is empirically examined in terms of descriptive and inferential statistical evidence, framed within a deductive-probabistic argument (s. 5.5.4). Its separate statement is worthwhile because it encapsulates a vital part of this thesis. It has significant implications for management training and development generally, and for Australian managers specifically.

Proposition 1 – Managers may be categorised into four groups according to the degree to which they are effective as leaders and/or successful as individuals. (The Manager Quad outcomes proposition).

Proposition 2 – The outcomes of individual success and leader effectiveness constituting the Manager Quad are functions of the nature and level of leader skills. (The leader skills proposition).

Proposition 3 – Work unit performance is a function of leader skills. (The work unit performance proposition).

Proposition 4 – If managers display uniformly high levels of proficiency across the identified leader skillsets, then leader effectiveness, individual success, and work unit performance will accrue accordingly. (The excellent managers proposition).

Proposition 5 – The more a company is characterised by excellent managers, the greater will be its identifiable business success. (The business success proposition).

A sixth research proposition is within the ambit of the case studies. It is postulated that managers are characterised by a common set of patterned life and learning experiences according to each quad category. This proposition is a way of approaching the acquisition of leader skills, albeit indirectly given research program parameters. It is not formulated for statistical testing purposes, but thematic, interpretive analysis of interview evidence is undertaken to examine its tenability. Notably, there is no preconception as to the precise nature of any distinctive patterning here; and the empirical evidence might reveal no patterns at all. This proposition is even more tentative than the first five, which, though exploratory, are more grounded in the extant literature.

Proposition 6 – Managers may be categorised according to four distinct patterns of antecedents and correlates. (The Manager Quad pattern proposition).

Limited scope. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to exhaust research propositions that can be generated from the theory outlined above. The general propositions serve mainly to 'launch' RMT and its associated model, to reach beyond pure description and to test in an exploratory manner what is essentially a new direction in leadership thinking, although starting from well-trod ground.

Operationalisation of the theory is also partial in representing only the leader side of the equation. An expanded construction would include a set of behaviours characterising followers. Contrary to formulations found in the literatures, a fuller operationalisation of leadership can encompass this follower side of the equation, and in a longitudinal fashion reflecting the dynamics of a protracted interactional learning process. From such a formulation, a much richer set of propositions could be described and tested. Yet this would require a far more elaborate research design, involving multi-angulated methods of observation, interview, survey, and a strong time-series component. This is envisaged as a future research program over a ten-year period, but it is beyond current resources and theoretical development.

The methodology and methods selected to investigate the foregoing propositions are explained in the following chapter.

4 Methodology and Techniques

It is good medicine, we think, for researchers to make their preferences clear. To know how a researcher construes the shape of the social world and aims to give us a credible account of it is to know our conversational partner. If a critical realist, a critical theorist, and a social phenomenologist are competing for our attention, we need to know where each is coming from. Each will have diverse views of what is real, what can be known, and how these social facts can be faithfully rendered (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 4)

The methodological premises of a research design are integral to the subsequent field program and findings (Fletcher 1974; Blaikie 1993; Bryman 2001). Leadership research is commonly deficient in this regard, in that there is no clear ontological and epistemological statement concerning methods, making it hard to judge results adequately. Accordingly, this chapter is devoted both to clarifying methodology and describing methods in relation to this thesis (Sarantakos 1998).

4.1 Epistemology and Design

A pantheistic epistemological position. The fieldwork design of this thesis draws from both Positivist and Phenomenological paradigms (Blaikie 1993; Hussey and Hussey 1997). The kind of creative anarchy Feyerabend (1978) saw underlying scientific progress is accepted in lieu of an unrealistic ideal of rational procedures. Social science is considered a dynamic interchange of theory and empirical observation, oscillating between deduction and induction (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Wallace 1971; Rubinstein, Laughlin and McMannis 1984). A pantheistic position is adopted across the extremes of logic of social inquiry: social reality is seen neither as wholly independent of observers, nor as simply conceptualisations of the social scientist (Blaikie 1993). It is neither a question of the top down imposition of the researcher's ideas, or the bottom-up acceptance of only how subjects conceive their reality. Social research is a complex admixture (Bryman 2001).

Primacy of the Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. Despite this pantheistic inclination in the design and conduct of thesis research, primacy is given to one epistemological framework following the advice of Glaser and Strauss (1967). Symbolic Interactionism is the main framework adopted in this basically exploratory study. Causality is neither embraced in the mechanical sense of the 'unity of scientific method', nor negated as impossible in social life, but conceived in terms of meaningful facilitation of the construction of social reality. Human beings collectively cause things to happen in the social world through their symbolic interactions and

interpretations of events. Individuals are more or less potent in this social causation. This is not just a matter of rule-guided behaviour as Winch (1958) suggests, for social actors both devise and disobey rules in their determination of what should and what should not happen, and what ultimately does happen. It is rather a matter of the relative expertise of various actors in defining the situation, in developing or enforcing rules. Such causal relationships are to be found at group, organisational, and societal levels; and they are constructed as meaningful, more or less shared realities. The fieldwork for this thesis is thus fundamentally informed by the notion of an intersubjective reality as understood within the Symbolic Interactionist approach described earlier in theory construction (s. 3.1).

Research design in brief. A quasi-triangulation strategy was adopted in this research, (Denzin 1975; Patton 1987; Yin 1994; Hussey and Hussey 1997); following frequent recommendations for more leadership studies to use multiple, complementary methods (Yukl 1981; Boal and Bryson 1988; Bass 1990; Conger 1998; Avolio, Bass and Jung 1999; Parry and Proctor-Thomson 2001). The research proceeded in two stages. First, survey data were collected and analysed for managers and work unit members. Then, an embedded, multiple-case design was employed regarding only managers, but as units within the conceptual cases of the Manager Quad (Yin 1994), or as cases within the quad categories (Eisenhardt 1989) (Appendix M). Thus, the research utilised both quantitative and qualitative data collection and associated analytical techniques (Parry 1998). This combined strategy was employed to provide a better picture, attending to both structural and process issues, checking results for validity, and facilitating interpretations (Punch 2000).

4.2 Research Location, Study Units, and Sampling Procedures

Initially, the research field was located in the six Council areas of the western suburbs of Melbourne. The units of research were managers and their subordinates in businesses meeting certain operational criteria.

Sampling criteria. Firms with fewer than 50 employees were omitted from the sampling frame. This requirement ensured the study group would include managers with experience, career paths, and reasonable spans of control. The minimum employee criterion also helped to include only people managers, (not program managers, administrators and so on), and to ensure they were dispersed throughout organisational functions and hierarchy. It further ensured that each manager would have a sufficient sample of work unit members able to reflect on their leader's

behaviour. Firms were required also to have been in business for at least five years excluding 'fly-by-night' organisations.

These criteria reduced the number of companies and respondents, which was advisable given the estimated 19,407 businesses in the western suburbs of Melbourne by the Western Region Economic Development Organisation (WREDO) (McLure 1999).

The population was not easily listed, and the sample was intended to represent various management levels and areas (Babbie 1995). Multistage cluster and stratified sampling procedures were envisaged to select first companies, then managers and work unit members. Primary sampling was from businesses listed in an electronic database of the Office for Research, Victoria University of Technology, which contained records of 4995 'businesses' in the western suburbs of Melbourne. This list was sorted for profit making firms only. A random sample of companies was to be drawn according to industry type and firm size (employee numbers). From returns of willing and eligible companies, a list of managers was to be compiled and stratified according to four levels: supervisor, junior manager, senior manager, and executive manager. A random sample was to be drawn from this list. The field program surveyed managers and work unit members, using matched questionnaires (Appendices A and B), with follow-up interviews of willing managers (Appendix G).

Sampling procedures: survey. When the database was sorted for appropriate firms, 110 companies were discovered to fit the criteria. Telephone contact, mail, and email to the selected businesses invited participation in the research and sought information regarding operational criteria. Due to difficulties experienced in first obtaining a commitment to be involved in the research, and then in obtaining questionnaire returns, the main field of participating firms was widened to companies operating beyond the western region of Melbourne. This produced an essentially convenience sample, which is usual in studies of organisations (Mitchell 1985) and leadership (Avolio et al. 1999). Sampling issues are discussed below (s. 4.5.1).

The survey sample. Seventeen companies provided viable work unit returns. In 12 firms, these were from work units operating exclusively within the western suburbs. Two firms provided returns mainly from within the region, with some returns from other parts of Melbourne. Three firms provided returns predominantly from work units outside the western region. A total of 49 work units were studied. Forty-three questionnaire returns were received from managers. A total of 185 questionnaires were completed and returned by work unit members. Section 5.1 describes the research participants, with accompanying tables.

Selection of managers for interview. Managers were selected for interview on the basis of their cross-classification concerning individual success and leader effectiveness. Based on the idea of theoretical sampling, this second sampling procedure involved four criteria. First, all four excellent managers were chosen given their small numbers. Secondly, an equal number was taken from each other sector for balance. Thirdly, optimal representation was sought of each category, which meant selecting as far as possible career managers with the highest 'individual success' scores; achievement managers with highest 'leader effectiveness' scores; and student managers with lowest success and effectiveness scores. Fourthly, optimal representation was sought from each industry segment, company, function, and organisational level. These criteria facilitated comparative analysis.

This multiple-case design fits the criteria discussed by Eisenhardt (1989), Yin (1994), and Miles and Huberman (1994). Pragmatically, manager's unavailability restricted selection, especially in the student sector. Three student managers were unavailable due to illness, leave, or employment severance. Two achievement managers were unavailable due to work obligations or transfer.

4.3 Measurement

> *The assumption that there is, or at least could be, a simple and uncontentious way of measuring success is one that researchers have been slow to relinquish, no doubt because it makes their task that much harder (Smith and Peterson 1988, p.72).*

Social science measures are contentious for many reasons, not least being there are always numerous ways of conceptualising and then measuring phenomena of interest, and these are often related to some underlying theory chosen to illuminate the research problem at hand. Moreover, as Dainty and Anderson (1996) note, 'hard measures' like financial targets, output, profit, share price, market share are problematic in not being directly attributable to individuals, nor allowing easy comparison across companies and industries. In this thesis, quantitative measures relied upon data obtained via a manager questionnaire and a work unit member questionnaire (s. 4.4.1).

The independent variables of leader skill proficiency. The main independent variable is leader skill proficiency, which was measured initially by a total of 59 clustered items rated by subordinates on a Likert type summated scale (Phillips 1971; Zikmund 1997; Cavana, Delahaye and Sekaran 2001). The resulting

4 Methodology and Techniques

instrument is discussed further in the next section. It is reproduced as part of the matched questionnaires in appendices one and two.

The broad variable of leader skill proficiency was broken down into more specific scale measures. The design range of original scales and associated measures is incorporated as Appendix C. The original scales were subjected to factor analyses to produce new scales, nominated as interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills (s. 5.2). The new scales allowed interval level measurement due to number of items and response categories, and instructions to respondents, in accord with current convention (Bryman and Cramer 1999).

Dependent variables. There are four main dependent variables.

Leader effectiveness and work unit performance. The first two are leader effectiveness and work unit performance. These were also measured on Likert type scales rated by members concerning several sub-factors *in the work unit context*: job satisfaction, job commitment, morale, team spirit, task efficiency and goal achievement, and overall work unit performance (Appendix C).

Individual success. Individual success is a third dependent variable. A tripartite measure was achieved by asking managers their age, remuneration, and organisational level. Remuneration was defined as the total compensation package earned by a manager in annual dollar terms. Organisational level was calculated as the manager's level divided by the total number of hierarchical levels. The highest level was ascribed as one. This comprises an index that neutralises age bias and manages the mathematics of the financial part of the equation. The formula is:

1) Organisational Level = z ratio

2) Age = y years and months

3) Annual Remuneration = A\$ x ÷ 10,000

4) Individual Success Index (ISI) = (x ÷ 10,000) divided by (z multiplied by y)

In casting the questionnaire responses into SPSS terms, this formula translates to:

(q. 77/10000) / ((q76a/q.76b) x (q82a + q82b/12))

A manager is more successful as the ISI increases. This indicator has no theoretical limits, but research data establish a floor and ceiling.

Company business success. Company business success is the last major dependent variable. Return on capital (ROK) ratio was adopted as a measure of company success (Hill and Jones 1998), along with percentage revenue increase (RI). Both ROK and RI were collected for the preceding year and as an average for the past five years. The formula is:

4 Methodology and Techniques

1) ROK (past year) = x %

2) ROK (5 year average) = y %

3) RI (past year) = w %

4) RI (5 year average) = z %

5) Company Business Success Index (CBSI) = X+Y+W+Z ÷ 4 = CBSI %

Operationalisation procedures. Data collected from the work unit member questionnaire were used to calculate mean responses for each scale variable. These means were then transposed as scores to the corresponding manager. New variables for the managers were created as appropriate by the SPSS computation and recoding procedures. For example, take the division of managers into more or less effective categories, which was necessary for description and analyses reported in chapter five. For each work unit, the mean of leader effectiveness scores was calculated. Each mean was then transposed as the score for leader effectiveness to the relevant manager. (These two steps in the procedure were employed for all other scale measures). All the scores of leader effectiveness were then split at the mean via recoding to create the two groups of more effective and less effective managers. The variable values of individual success, on the other hand, were directly calculated from data each manager provided on age, remuneration, and relative organisation level using the above formula. A consolidated database was developed from responses to both questionnaires.

Important measurement issues. Issues of same source bias and response scale tautologies among skill and outcome measures are important (Lowe, Kroek and Sivasubramanium 1996; Hooijberg and Choi 2000). These are addressed in several ways. There is a physical separation of measures within the questionnaire format. This involves a visual barrier between questionnaire items measuring skills as independent variables and those measuring effectiveness outcomes as dependent variables. This is reinforced by clear instructions to respondents within each section of the questionnaire. Additionally, scale terminology differs between skills and outcomes to further emphasise to respondents the distinct nature of each. Similarly, although leader effectiveness and work unit performance are measured by items within the same questionnaire section, these items are grouped separately and terminological differences underline their distinction. Finally, leader skill is measured by work unit member responses, whereas individual success and company business success are measured separately by manager responses. These procedures reduce

rather than eliminate measurement problems. Construct validation of measures is demonstrated via hypothesis testing (s. 5.6).

A significant methodological premise underlies interpretation of the 'do not know' response of the Likert scale relating to leader skills, as measured by averaged work unit member responses *concerning their manager, and only their manager*. The Symbolic Interactionist theory developed here emphasises the crucial importance of followers to bestowing and preserving the leadership mantle on managers (ss. 3.2 and 3.3). Theoretically, a manager's leader skills are *re-cognised* by subordinates, and hence constituted continuously (or not) in interactional processes with them as followers. Contrary to arguments by Kerr and Schriesheim (1974) and Conger (1998), the collectively agreed perception of followers is the behavioural reality, yet this depends upon the extent of a manager's management of that reality (s. 3.3.2).

Consistent with this, where work unit members declared a lack of knowledge of how well their manager leads in any respect, this was considered a lack of leader skill of the manager, an inability to demonstrate leadership in that particular. Notably, this is also consistent with notions of ingroups and outgroups evidenced in LMX research. It was accordingly scored zero. Similar reasoning underlies application of the work unit empirical mean for items where there is a missing value. Of course, many interpretations can be construed here, including ignorance of work unit member(s) concerned, or reluctance to record an evaluation for various reasons. The one proffered is theory based, and it was supported by clear instructions to respondents concerning the survey instrument, its skills focus, and issues of confidentiality. As usual in survey research, the 'do not know' response is a source of unknown error in thesis findings, and it is an important measurement issue.

The preceding theoretical argument cannot be applied to the Likert scale 'no response' category in determining both leader effectiveness and, even more so, work unit performance, as followers are not evaluating leader skills, and there are clearly other factors involved. Whilst, within current theory, leader skill is inextricably a matter of followers' collective definition of the situation, there are many acceptable measures of effectiveness. Here, a 'do not know' response was scored as the scale average. The scale average was also applied for 'do not know' responses and missing values concerning the survey of managers.

4.4 Data Collection Methods

Two principal data-collection methods were used in this thesis. These were a broad survey of managers and their work unit members in the several participating companies, and the subsequent interviewing of selected managers. These methods are now described in greater detail, with reference to what particularises them in this thesis. One of the aims of the thesis was to provide a contribution at the methodological level concerning the substantive field of leadership studies. Hence, certain particulars are important to methodological understanding of the thesis, and this requires more than a simple statement of specific methods.

4.4.1 The Survey

The thesis survey incorporated an instrument to measure leader behaviours, described initially in terms of the Leader Action Characteristics Set (Appendices A and B). As Riley (1988) states, this structured individuals' activities into a limited number of metabehaviours or categories of behaviour, often involving an evaluative component, rather than described the specific physical conduct of individuals in its myriad manifestations. This instrument differed significantly from past major leadership instruments in four main ways (Schriesheim and Kerr 1977; Bass and Avolio 1990b; Kouzes and Posner 1995; Bass 1998).

Observable behaviours. First, it included only items framed in terms of observable behaviours, not reputed conduct nor inferred internal states. As Conger (1998) notes, this nonetheless risks measurement of attitudes or perceptions concerning behaviour, rather than of behaviour itself. Yet even observation of behaviour risks the observer's cognitive filtering of the actual behaviour, with problems of inference and interaction, rather than some pure measurement (Madge 1967). The approach here at least involved those observers most relevant to the study phenomenon, with balancing of cognitive biases by multiple observers, and, importantly, with the perception of the behaviour *being* the behaviour in accord with Reality Management Theory (ss. 3.4 and 4.3). Lastly, the intent of measurement was emphasised clearly in written instructions to survey respondents, and it was reinforced in the researcher's company contacts.

It thus also reduced the confounding of attitudinal, emotional, and personality variables such as found in the main Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) instrument (Bass and Avolio 1993a; Bass and Avolio 1997; Densten and Sarros 1997; Bass 1998). This focus on overt behaviour also distinguished the thesis from

those competency approaches that similarly confuse factors belonging to different orders of reality (Spencer and Spencer 1993; Dainty and Anderson 1996). Sashkin (1992) has remarked that this is typically a critical flaw in competency approaches:

> *(S)kills and knowledge are, for the most part, learnable, often with relatively little effort, while characteristics may or may not be modifiable and traits are typically thought of as relatively fixed aspects of individuals' personality structures (p. 141).*

Likewise, the criticism applies generally to the SST approach to leadership that relies upon the cognitive capacity construct, which remains inadequately operationalised as observed by House (1992).

Leader skills. A second important feature of the thesis instrument was that it measured skills. Skills were defined in the sense of practiced, self-directed, and repeatable behaviours of managers as leaders that are matters of degree not all or none, and that enhance the contributions of employees to company outcomes such as task performance, product manufacture, service provision, or goal attainment. These were conceptualised, moreover, as a coherent set of complex skills that are socially learned, and hence amenable to continuous development, not only in the more narrow sense of standard competencies of a static, discretely separate, applied learning sort (Conger 1992; Ling 2000). These subsumed rather than explicitly nominated the micro-skills of communication, and those of organising, networking, and negotiating, and in the sense of interlocking cognitive, social, and political processes argued by Hosking and Morley (1988). Leader skills were considered learnable, therefore, partly via step-by-step instruction and demonstration, and more so by conceptual explanation, case studies, in-basket exercises, and laboratory role-playing and practice supported by feedback (Camp et al. 1986). Importantly, as Bradford and Cohen (1984) observe, this involves degrees of proficiency rather than a simplistic notion of mastery across all leader skills.

This thesis promises a stronger theoretical basis for management education training in leader skills compared to that usually available. In order for leader skills to be taught adequately, they must first be clearly measured both before and after any training input, and ideally at the level of a leadership model that underpins the training program. Typically, leader training and development programs do not focus on skills, and, where they do so, there are measurement deficiencies that begin with a poorly defined conceptual framework (Conger 1992). So, such programs commonly lack a sound theoretical and empirical foundation. The coherent leader skill model of this thesis advances the possibility of a theoretical basis supported by empirical evidence for training programs.

Leader skill scales. Skill scales were used in this research, asking respondents *how well* a manager does various activities, not how often, nor how much, nor simply what was done. Again, this was stressed in written instructions and reiterated during the researcher's company contacts. In contrast, simple frequency scales are commonly used in leadership instruments. Notable examples include the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and its revised version the LBDQ-XII, (Bass 1990); the main Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass and Avolio 1990b; Bass 1998); the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes and Posner 1995); and the C-K Charismatic Leadership Scale (Conger, Kanungo, Menon and Mathur 1997). By design, these instruments do not measure how well a manager undertakes leader behaviours. Yukl (1981) has observed that use of the critical incident method assumes *frequently mentioned* types of behaviour are *important.* Similarly, frequent characteristics of leaders are assumed important, and, although the weight of historical evidence is persuasive in this regard, the next step commonly is to confuse these characteristics as leader skills, thus suggesting skill evidence concerning models of individualised leadership when there is actually a lack of it.

Here is an instance of this confusion. Conger (1992) reports on skill-building approaches to leader training, and describes the Forum Company's leadership program as a prime example. But this program falls short of adequate leader skill training due largely to a failure to adequately conceptualise and operationalise the notion of leader skill and to construct the underlying model of leadership as a skillset. Thus, what are really objectives as well as activities are included in the 20 nominated practices that comprise Forum's model of leadership. Additionally, whilst emphasising the importance of how well practices are done (skills emphasis), there is no obvious measure of how well participants undertake the practices beyond unspecified initial workplace feedback reports, with patchy and partial feedback from fellow participants. An overall skill emphasis is belied by insufficient measures in terms of both underlying model and specific training components, notwithstanding a claimed focus on concrete experiences and teachable skills. Such criticism applies generally to training programs reviewed by Conger (1992).

This lack of clear skill measurement is another crucial, though largely unremarked bias of major leadership instruments to date, and of training and development programs even when these are built upon research evidence. Aside from efforts like Forum's, this bias has been recognised in observations by Martinko and Gardner that it may not be "so much what managers do but how they do it" that matters (reported in Smith 1988, p. 67); and by Sayles (1979) emphasising managers' interactional leadership skills. House and Baetz (1990) are among the

most aware of this issue, stating a need to look at leader competence, although their concern seems only with technical or social skills in a supplementary fashion, rather than integral to a leadership model itself. The thesis research instrument measured clearly transferable skills (Bryman 1992), and hence allowed for learning leadership, with potential for strongly articulated, coherent leader skill training and development programs.

A skills focus was undertaken in this thesis largely due to the fact that, for the most part, the literature amply demonstrates what considerations are important in leadership, and increasingly so over the last two decades. Whether broader competency approaches or more specific leadership models are concerned, similar sets of factors are constantly reiterated, sometimes via comprehensive and costly research programmes. For instance, the LPI alone has accumulated evidence to the extent of a database of some 60,000 respondents (Kouzes and Posner 1995). There are issues around the precise conceptualisation and measurement of the primary recognised factors but, as Bass (1999) notes, these should not deter scholarly effort toward identification and research.

This argues for attempts to reconceptualise and/or to improve operationalisation of concepts, rather than simply repeat or discard them entirely. For example, Densten and Sarros (1997) discovered first-order factors underlying the main variables of the MLQ; and (Parry and Proctor-Thomson 2001) have made interesting theoretical developments on the basis of the MLQ and Grounded Theory. Similar attempts were the thrust of the thesis instrument, which measured three sets of skills comprising a total of nine dimensions as described in Table 3.2, discussed in Section 3.3.2, and operationally detailed in Appendices A and B. There is also an issue of ensuring models or approaches are contemporary, as with the thesis inclusion of a strategic component.

The importance of work unit members' ratings. A third distinctive feature of the thesis instrument was that it tapped the views of a manager's work unit members (i.e., direct reports) *as being essential to re-constructing a manager's meaningful behaviours*, and hence leader skills. This contrasts with leadership studies that use only ratings from the managers of leaders, which assess views concerning leaders' followership or like-mindedness to superiors, such as Proctor-Thomson and Parry (2000); or managers themselves, which reveal only implicit theories of leadership not leader skills, such as Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2001).

Followers' views are the very stuff of what constitutes a manager's expertise as a leader, irrespective of credentials like certificates. It is precisely the interpretation of how well a people manager actually manages his or her people

(direct reports), as judged by those very people, which is critical to the leadership task and its outcomes. There is no easy alternative criterion embedded in some 'objective' standard that suits this purpose, although approximations may be achieved via feedback from co-participants in laboratory practice sessions, and although the views of peers, superiors, suppliers, and contractors are important in a 360-degree fashion (Salancik, Calder, Rowland, Leblebici and Conway 1975; Hooijberg and Choi 2000). Moreover, work unit member views were taken only *as a group*, so no sole member ratings were sought or utilised. This eschews the common application of leadership instruments in a dyadic context, where the leader-follower relationship is conceived as a singularity rather than an essential multiplicity, in accord with the Symbolic Interactionist theoretical framework of the thesis.

Survey versus other methods. In regard to this Symbolic Interactionist frame, it was unfortunate the thesis pursued initially a survey approach. A more appropriate approach might be observation combined with interviews (Stebbins 1969). Such techniques allow greater concentration on Symbolic Interactionist material, thus delineating the processes of leader-follower interrelationships within an organisational context. Indeed, Conger (1998) argues qualitative research is the methodology of choice for leadership, which concerns contextually rich events. A more purely case study strategy might therefore seem warranted, as undertaken in the second research phase described shortly.

However, there were several reasons for the general strategy adopted here. First, the overall research focus was indeed broader than excellent managers, they being of key interest but in contradistinction to other logically deduced types of managers, as originally implied by Luthans et al. (1988). Other manager types were studied as a foil for excellent managers, yet they were also of interest in their own right. Secondly, it was necessary to identify managers who could be categorised as excellent before they could be specifically studied in the second research phase. This thesis did not assume reputed or top leaders deserved automatic recognition, as many past studies have done, including Goertzel and Goertzel (1962); and Bennis (1989). The approach of this thesis was to treat the issue of excellence as an empirical question, widening the net of potential candidates and allowing a comparative basis. Thirdly, there was the related thesis proposition that excellent managers may be found dispersed broadly throughout companies of various kinds, which required a survey method. Fourthly, as Yin (1994) points out, the survey method does not contradict but rather complements other techniques such as the case study, and hence these methods have been employed often in leadership research (Kouzes and Posner 1995; Bass 1998). This thesis follows suit. Finally,

thesis resource restraints disallowed additional qualitative research terchniques, especially observation, which would have permitted fuller triangulation with its benefits. This has been necessarily left to the future (s. 8.4).

Commercial orientation. The fourth way in which the thesis instrument differed from preceding ones was its explicit commercial orientation. It was designed to tap leadership in business, not in the military, religious, educational, public sector or other fields. Although many leadership researchers have undertaken broader context investigations, there were sound reasons for not following their example. For instance, Conger (1992) points out that the Center for Creative Leadership adopts a general definition of leadership that is

> *quite humanistic – after all the Center is staffed largely by psychologists, not business people – and participants challenge the idealism (p. 115).*

There are very real differences that make these arenas of human endeavour distinct as worlds, not merely in name – differences of ideology, culture, and pragmatic matters. A welfare agency pursues people outcomes, not financial ones. Religious organisations have a timeframe that reaches beyond that of corporeal reality altogether. In both cases, the motivational springs of employees and managers alike are based upon values, ethics, and rewards that differ vastly from those of business managers and employees. Court (1994) explicitly states that a business model is inappropriate to the management of schools due to

> *an organisational culture antithetical to the maintenance of democratic and socially just educational institutions (p. 34).*

Military settings differ from civilian ones in, for example, both the potential downside of poor decisions – thousands of lives lost versus millions of dollars lost – and the nature of labour markets available for recruitment of top managers – internal versus Fortune 500 companies (Segal 1992). The general acceptance of contingency theory in management and in leadership practice reflects these considerations.

So, research for this thesis paid attention to contingency theory at the level of methodology aligned to theoretical framework. The proffered instrument was contingency-based in being commercially designed. This was achieved in terms of item descriptions and an explicit strategic component, which was itself novel. Together, these features update and specify the measurement of leadership in today's competitive, global marketplace.

The value of prior work concerning leadership. The thesis instrument was built upon predecessors and associated research. Its unique design was made possible by our knowledge of what is important leader behaviour and how that

behaviour is principally constituted in dimensional terms. It was thus constructed of items grounded in prior concepts and a strong theoretical base, but these items more directly and concisely measured leader behaviours as skills. Still, the instrument was not a universal one even in a business context, given its linkage mainly to the Transactional/Transformational genre viewed from a Symbolic Interactionist perspective. For instance, it neglected important considerations in leadership theorising such as those related to gender issues, among others.

4.4.2 The Interviews

The second stage devoted to follow-up interviewing of managers was intended primarily to explore how those identified as excellent continuously acquire the skillbase underpinning their accomplishments, compared to managers in other categories; and secondarily to supplement and clarify survey results. The main intent was to discover how managers might become excellent, to find what sets them apart from less effective and less successful colleagues. This primary intent has been noted specifically as a deficit of the leadership research literature (Avolio and Bass 1988). A comparative approach was taken by way of interviews of managers representative of each quad sector.

The depth interview. The major relevant method was the depth interview (Zikmund 1997). The interviews explored survey findings to inquire about antecedents and correlates of excellent managers, as compared with those from other quad sectors. An interview schedule (Appendix D) was developed as discussed earlier (s. 3.3.3), in accord with arguments concerning prior instrumentation canvassed by Miles and Huberman (1994). Major areas of interest included sources of influence, social ideology, management perspective, leadership view, and personal concept. Although guided by theoretical lines of inquiry, (Goertzel and Goertzel 1962; Stebbins 1969; Zaleznik 1977; Avolio and Gibbons 1988; Bennis 1989; Zaleznik 1990; Conger 1992), interviewees were encouraged to speak freely, relatively unguided. The interviews were semi-structured. Data were recorded in voice and written forms (Appendix G). The approach was qualitative, but with largely pre-structured themes, sub-themes, and associated codes (Cavana et al. 2001).

Interview duration averaged 45 minutes, with a range from 30 minutes to two and a half hours. Interviews were normally undertaken within the participant's office, occasionally in a modest sized conference room or small meeting room, and once in the participant's home. All interviews were recorded by audiotape and transcribed verbatim as nearly as possible. Supplementary written notes were made as soon as

practicable following each interview, and usually within a few hours. These described the location, verbal and non-verbal presentation, and general atmosphere.

A solo case study protocol. A case study protocol (Appendix F) shows generalities of interview questions, their anticipated relationship to study issues, analytic generalisation linkages, and procedural details (Yin 1994). This protocol was adopted for the research as a means of strengthening scholarship at the level of reporting clear and understandable findings, since it provides useful information additional to the body of a text. It thus enhances research reliability and validity, and promotes replication, especially in conjunction with a case study database as described in the next section.

4.5 Data Analysis Techniques

There were two strands of data analysis: statistical applications to survey responses and qualitative interpretations of interview answers.

4.5.1 Survey Analysis

Statistical analyses were utilised to examine leader skill and outcome measures, and to test *initially* the generalisability of hypotheses in a business context. Statistical analysis relies on an idea about how collected data represent a universe of observations worthy of attention, and to which extrapolation is thus desired. This thesis focused on what Galtung (1967) calls a 'hypothetical' universe – despite his objections to this – since data collection failed to provide a well-delimited empirical universe. This hypothetical universe was defined broadly as the business world and its associated profit-making culture within an Australian setting.

Greenfields approach to well-trod ground. Statistical techniques were employed in view of the level of theoretical development and empirical background of the thesis. On the one hand, there is solid prior theory and clear factors of importance concerning leadership evident in the literature. On the other hand, the literature is deficient in specific, important regards as shown in the previous section and earlier review (ch. 2). For this thesis, known factors concerning leadership were recast into skill terms within a coherent individualised theory that was itself an adaptive amalgam. Reality Management Theory was thus informed yet novel, so the model generated testable hypotheses, whilst the skill scales required exploration and development. Hence, exploratory rather than confirmatory factor analysis was appropriate, as suggested by Conger et al. (1997), and Avolio et al. (1999); and specific hypothesis tests were conducted within the overall exploratory framework.

4 Methodology and Techniques

Exploratory research and sampling issues. This thesis was exploratory, resulting in suggestive rather than definitive explanation. Sample size and procedure were not so compelling as in the case of a thesis seeking explanatory power based upon a well-developed theoretical framework grounded in empirical studies of its own kind. The sample size was considered adequate in view of assumptions underlying specific statistical techniques, and the variability of sample size requirements according to actual data descriptions – for instance, the number of high loading marker variables in factor analysis – as evident in the train of statistical analyses in the next chapter (Babbie 1995; Bryman and Cramer 1999; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996).

Debates about sampling remain complex and unresolved, as with significance testing and statistical power analysis (Zickar 1999). The current view follows that of organisational researchers who forsake a strong Logical Positivist position on the issues (Davis 1971; Mitchell 1985; Bryman and Cramer 1999; Hooijberg and Choi 2000; Tejeda et al. 2001). For instance, Parry and Proctor (2000) assume their findings are representative of New Zealand managers with a 22.5 % response rate from a sample drawn from member lists of the New Zealand Institute of Management and the New Zealand Institute of Public Administration. In their study and this thesis, reasonable steps were taken to maximise representativeness and there is a clear basis for judging the worth of statistical analyses and associated findings. The results of this thesis are proffered as exploratory.

Davis (1971) argues that parametric statistical testing can proceed even in the case of arbitrary or convenience sampling, provided extrapolations are not inferred from non-significant relationships. As Bryman and Cramer (1999) state, this position is tenable provided attention is paid to certain exceptions documented in research on the issue. These exceptions concern instances where both size of samples and variances are unequal, both distribution of scores are non-normal, or sample size is below 15; and even then there is a case for conducting corroborative non-parametric and parametric tests, rather than simply relying upon the former or avoiding tests altogether. The assumptions of specific statistical tests are not necessarily honoured, although there is an awareness of these and why they may be ignored. Ultimately, the decision to conduct statistical tests rests upon the fundamental approach taken to issues of knowledge and reality within social science, as canvassed earlier (ss. 3.1.1 and 3.1.2). This thesis adopts the arguments of Davis (1971), and Bryman and Cramer (1999).

Diversity. Since random sampling was precluded by data collection impediments, an approximation was achieved by seeking participation from

companies engaged in a range of commercial activities, and across levels and functions. Diversity was the key criterion given the interest in leader skills as a broad business phenomenon. It was assumed that diversity facilitated data collection along a normal distribution, and that the sample would thus reasonably represent the larger business world, allowing application of parametric statistical tests where otherwise appropriate. This assumption and related argument are demonstrated later (s. 5.1).

Main statistical techniques. Testing was approached in a number of ways, employing several statistical tests of significance. Both tests of differences and relationships were utilised to examine different aspects of the variables concerned. Statistical techniques included mainly exploratory factor analysis, analysis of variance, t-tests, and regression analysis (Bryman 1999; Freund 1970; Langley 1973; Meyer 1993; Runyon and Haber 1984; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). For example, factor analysis rationalised the scales for tapping key research dimensions. Analysis of variance determined whether there were significant differences between categories of managers suggested by the proffered theory, and therefore helped show whether we are entitled to claim excellent managers, as conceptualised, exist in the real world. Regression analysis demonstrated strength of linkages between independent and dependent variables. This helped decide, for instance, the amount of variance in leader effectiveness explained by different sorts of leader skills.

Factor analyses. Since this thesis was exploratory regarding theory, model, and instruments, factor analyses for purposes of discerning coherent and discrete scales adopted Principal Components Analysis as the extraction method, and Varimax with Kaizer Normalisation as the rotation method (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Throughout, the covariance matrix method was used in calculation of Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for internal consistency of items comprising scales. As expected, factor analyses produced revised scales. It also suggested new ways of conceptualising the leader skills.

Dual criteria in factor analyses of scales. Notably, a strong stance was adopted in this thesis on the issue of determining which items to use and which to ignore in interpreting a factor in factor analysis. This issue is especially important to scale development as it concerns operational definition of relevant underlying dimensions, and hence whether or not dimensions are measured viably according to espoused theory. This affects reliability, construct validity, and parsimony of measurement. Bryman and Cramer (1999) state that the 0.3 criterion is often the only one applied by researchers in determining the meaning of a factor. This convention omits items correlating less than 0.3 with a factor, as only a small amount of variance is thus explained.

> *An alternative criterion to use is the correlation above which no item correlates highly with more than one factor. The advantage of this rule is that factors are interpreted in terms of items unique to them. Consequently their meaning should be less ambiguous… The use of these two conventions in conjunction engenders a highly stringent set of criteria (Bryman and Cramer 1999, p. 280).*

The addition of the second criterion ensures variables are not implicated in more than one factor. Each factor is measured clearly, theoretical interpretation is facilitated, and confidence in the meaning of findings is strengthened considerably. This thesis adopted the stringent dual criteria test.

One-way versus two-way tests. The several debates within the larger statistical test controversy include that of the utility of one-way versus two-way tests. In his treatment of issues in this controversy, Abelson (1995) distinguishes a number of styles of approach to statistics. Among these, he cites:

> *A liberal style emphasises exploration of and speculation about data. It is looser, more subjective, and more adventurous. A conservative style is tighter, more codified, and more cautious. In statistics as in politics, either style can be defended, and there are individual differences in preference (p. 57, original emphases)*

In this thesis, a liberal stance is adopted. Given the complexity of the debates, however, it is worthwhile justifying the use of one-way tests in this thesis. For this purpose, an appendix is included detailing the main variants of this specific part of the wider controversy in relation to this thesis (Appendix L); and the justification is now considered briefly.

There are four main reasons for employing one-way tests in this thesis. First, according to Reality Management Theory the predominant relationship is that leader skills result in outcomes (s. 3.3.2). The precise sense is not elaborated in which leader skills 'cause' outcomes, since such would require a separate and comprehensive philosophical argument that is outside the scope of this thesis. Secondly, this directional relationship is arguably the single most agreed upon notion in the otherwise manifold views recorded in the leadership literature. In one way or another, writers almost unanimously agree that leaders make things happen, and that *that* is the essence of leadership, irrespective of whether it is considered a matter of personality, hereditary, meaning-making, or whatever. Thirdly, this idea of leadership determinancy is also at the heart of that part of the competency literature concerning leadership. Leadership competencies are considered learnable and worthwhile to learn precisely because these are supposed to enable managers to better do their jobs, to influence not simply command their subordinates toward organisational goal achievement. Fourthly, that leaders make things happen and not

the reverse is clearly the common sense view, and, as such, it is the basis of the popular interest in leaders and leadership.

On these grounds, it is contended that there is a positive relationship between leader skills and outcomes; and hence, that one-way tests are necessary, not convenient, nor dispensable. Further, since leader skills are employed in a lopsided fashion to produce the outcomes of leader effectiveness and individual success, there is a *negative* directional relationship between those particular outcomes (s. 3.3.2), which theoretically requires one-way tests.

4.5.2 Survey: Validity and Reliability

Statistical analysis proceeded on data produced via matched questionnaires administered to managers and their direct reports. These questionnaires were concerned mainly with obtaining responses that were then cast into indices and Likert type scale measures.

In the latter regard especially, the issue of validity arose in connection with the intermediate position here adopted on the question of what is social science. Here, rather than discovery of absolute truth (Positivism), or description of ephemeral reality (Negativism), validity was considered a matter of relatively enduring, shared definitions of the situation (Interpretivism) (Blaikie 1993). This third kind of validity was theoretically specified in terms of a shared social reality managed by leader skills as attributed by followers. These skills were thus measured appropriately via intersubjective agreements displayed in work unit members' ratings. These agreements served as the empirical determination of validity. Such ratings may not be the only form of measurement, but they were the most important in the context of this thesis. Validity was therefore inextricably tied to the theoretical framework of the thesis and its position in the complex debate about approaches to social science. As Altheide and Johnson (1998) show, there are many positions on validity within that debate, and it is possible to adopt only one.

Reliability and validity issues concerning the questionnaires are further examined in the next chapter on survey data analysis. There, replication is facilitated in three ways, by describing the relative uses of each questionnaire, indicating appropriate SPSS procedures, and disclosing how major variables were transformed to allow statistical testing. Reliability of the main scale measures was determined in terms of inter-item consistency employing Cronbach's coefficient alpha. In crucial respects, statistical testing provided construct validation, which was the core concern of this exploratory thesis.

4.5.3 Case Study Analysis

> *The analysis of case study evidence is one of the least developed*
> *and most difficult aspects of doing case studies (Yin 1994, p. 102).*

Although a great deal has been written about case study analysis, as exemplified in Miles and Huberman (1994) and Hurworth (2000), the above quoted view remains true in terms of its systematic development and lack of consensus on what this involves (Appendix M). Indeed, the plethora of available techniques and strategies demands their selective use within any single study, especially one of modest means. From the outset, therefore, it is emphasised that although case study analysis in this thesis draws from Grounded Theory, it does not follow exactly the exposition by Glasser and Strauss (1967), and it draws significantly from other accounts of qualitative research. Appendix M contains a more substantial explanation of how and why qualitative research in a case study mode was pursued in the second phase of this thesis. This section aims to describe briefly the chosen strategy and methods of case study analysis.

Case study strategy. This phase of the field program used a case study strategy within an Interpretive framework. Two sorts of cases were distinguished: the individual manager, and the quad collection of managers, with the latter of main interest. Notably, the design focus was on conceptual (not empirical) cases, with a particular application of theoretical sampling. None of the 17 companies or 48 work units was investigated as a case. It was unnecessary to revisit the field as often done in case study research, especially in a Grounded Theory frame. The import of conceptual cases and theoretical sampling are explained further in Appendix M.

In contrast to statistical generalisation from surveys to populations or universes, Yin (1994) argues analytic generalisation is the intent of the case study approach. Analytic generalisation aims to expand and generalise theories, not to simply enumerate frequencies. As the basis of the case study of this thesis, interviews inquired about antecedents and correlates of excellent managers regarding leader skills acquisition, comparative to other quad types. This deepened understanding of questionnaire results and generated potential lines of investigation. Interview accounts demanded process tasks in the Constructivist or Phenomenological tradition (Hussey and Hussey 1997), rather than the statistical analysis of a Positivist orientation.

Description and theory. Strauss and Corbin (1990) distinguish between theory and description in the following way. Description involves little if any interpretation,

with data organised according to themes. Themes may be conceptualisations of data but are likely to be only summaries of words taken directly from the data. There is no attempt to form a conceptual scheme. On the other hand, theory uses concepts – similar data are grouped and assigned conceptual labels – that is, interpretations are placed on the data. Subsequently, statements of relationships may be made about the concepts. This distinction between description and theory generally accords with the view taken in this thesis, and it largely explains the difference between the reports of Chapters Six and Seven, respectively. That is, Chapter Six concerns mainly predetermined themes and descriptive data analysis, with modest inference; whereas Chapter Seven is substantially more interpretive in its focus on further developing the conceptual basis of theory, (stopping short of added relational statements), and extrapolating some important educational and policy inferences.

Qualitative analysis. In this thesis, follow-up interviews and associated observations relied on qualitative analysis (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Fletcher 1974; Yin 1994; Miles and Huberman 1994; Conger 1998; Hurworth 2000). Qualitative analysis is diverse in approach and specific methods, so any research piece, including this thesis, must adopt a particular stance within its broad purview (Appendix M). Thus, Eisenhardt (1989) states "there is no standard format for such analysis" (p. 540); there are a number of tactics that include selecting dimensions or themes suggested by the research problem or the literature (s. 3.3.3 and Appendix N); and detailed write-ups are often purely descriptions in the first instance (Appendix I and Chapter Six), summarised in tabular displays (Appendix H). Further, she writes, such analysis potentially builds first concepts then relationships from patterns discovered in the data, within and across cases, and thus iterates toward the development or extension of theory (Chapter Seven). Her account complements others in the qualitative research literature, such as those just referenced.

In this thesis, qualitative analysis was undertaken in two steps, following the two analytic strategies outlined by Yin (1994). These steps aimed to discover any additional patterns with reference to the Manager Quad model, given that the model had been demonstrated quantitatively concerning leader skills and outcomes in the first phase of thesis research, and given that there were significant themes identified in relevant literatures. There was no presumption that the data would necessarily support further patterns, either at a descriptive level or a conceptual level.

In the first step, based mainly on the tabulations of Appendix H and the interim analyses of Appendix I, and reported in Chapter Six, the principal objective was to discover descriptive patterns concerning managers generally, the effectiveness/success distinction, and the quad. This first step involved interview

answers that were coded initially according to major preselected question or theme, and related probes or subthemes, like the pre-fieldwork creation of phrase codes discussed by Miles and Huberman (1994). Further coding occurred during data analysis as commonalities were discovered, in accord with the descriptive codes discussed by Miles and Huberman (1994). In the first step, this second layer of coding concerned responses *within and across the initial themes and subthemes.* But the aim was still to elicit descriptions within the terms of the abundant literature on leadership and thesis quantitative results. These terms were themselves important and so merited attention. Description was also undertaken to show some of the depth of responses and to clarify overall response patterns (Appendix I).

However, qualitative analysis in this thesis was restricted neither to description, nor to the initially identified themes and interests from the literature and quantitative results. In the second step, reported in Chapter Seven, the focus was on interpretation and conceptual development in relation to the Manager Quad. Reality Management Theory was important to analysis in this second step. Qualitative analysis looked for repeated themes and issues, common threads of meaning, and shared assumptions, values and beliefs, as well as significant differences in these terms, among managers. Hence, in the second step, secondary coding accorded mainly with the interpretive and pattern codes discussed by Miles and Huberman (1994). This also concerned responses *within and across the initial themes and subthemes.* But now the question was what 'parts' of the original themes were meaningful to generating new patterns, if any, that would conceptually extend the Manager Quad model, not merely descriptively clarify it? In this respect, Eisenhardt (1989), discussing the synergies of combining data types in case studies, makes the pertinent observation that

> *qualitative data are useful for understanding the rationale or theory underlying relationships revealed in the quantitative data … (p. 538)*

Thus, the responses to initial themes were examined first for mostly descriptive purposes, and secondly those responses were interrogated to seek new themes for conceptual development. A key reason for providing a largely descriptive analysis was, as Eisenhardt (1989) discusses, to avoid 'data asphyxiation' (Chapter Six) and to thus facilitate theoretical insights (Chapter Seven). In the first descriptive aspect, analysis sought primarily to discover data repetitions, with modest inference. In the second conceptual aspect, it was essentially an interpretive analysis of the descriptive patterns. The intent in this second regard was deliberately to extend the original model in a conceptual fashion if possible, with some inferences concerning

related educational and policy matters. Importantly, Chapter Seven depends upon Chapter Six, and these two chapters are offered in this conjunction.

Interpretive variability occurred to a degree, since verbal and nonverbal aspects of interviews, inconsistencies within and among cases, and nuances and ambiguities, all formed part of the process of data analysis, and these often demanded selective emphasis of data to make sense. Sometimes, a manager's response was belied or confounded by another one, not always within the same area of query, and the researcher had to determine overall meaning and intent. Likewise, the discovery of meanings across managers presented interpretive challenges. Interpretation thus was assisted through content analysis of case materials that included selective processing and highlighting in a search for congruence, though mindful of genuine ambivalence.

Altogether, the qualitative data analysis of this thesis was a form of story-telling that sought understanding in discovery of case data details, the optimal merger and rationalisation of those details, and the potential blocking of them into distinctive patterns. Like managers, researchers tell stories. Thus, in the second step of this analysis reported in Chapter Seven, the discovered story was an interpretation of the data items, inducing concepts from data commonalities, in accord with the constant comparative method (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Eisenhardt 1989).

Principal analytical techniques and tactics. Grid displays, pattern-matching, and iterative explanation-building were the principal techniques in this thesis, using replication logic for multiple cases not sampling logic (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Campbell 1975; Trochim 1989; Eisenhardt 1989; Yin 1994; Hurworth 2000). The grid displays follow Hurworth (2000) particularly, subsequent to the earlier work of Miles and Huberman (1984), and these are detailed in Appendix H.

The pattern-matching technique follows the expositions given by several authors, including Trochim (1989), Eisenhardt (1989), Yin (1994), Miles and Huberman (1994), and Hurworth (2000). Yin (1994), for example, describes its use in examining theoretical propositions, and this is a common use (Sarantakos 1998). However, as Hurworth (2000) demonstrates, pattern-matching is equally useful for developing concepts from characteristics or values that are unique to one case comparative to others in grid displays, and it is thus employed in this thesis.

Similarly, the employment of iterative explanation-building in this thesis follows Yin (1994) and Hurworth (2000), though without Yin's emphasis on causal explanation, and consistent with the exposition of replication logic provided by Glaser and Strauss (1967), and Eisenhardt (1989).

4 Methodology and Techniques

Pattern-matching and iteration focussed upon conceptual development of the quad, *not on verifying predicted patterns and building propositions*. In these respects, the case study phase was linked in specific ways to the initial survey phase of research, rather than comprising a separate study with its own intents of theory development from the qualitative data alone (Appendix M).

Miles and Huberman (1994) describe a number of specific tactics for generating meaning, many of which were used in this thesis, such as plausibility, metaphor, noting patterns and themes, clustering, subsuming particulars into the general, counting, comparing/contrasting, and factoring (Appendix N). Some of their tactics that were not relevant to this thesis were those concerning relationships between variables, (although these are envisaged for post thesis work).

Notably, most of these techniques and tactics are cognate to the constant comparison method (Glaser and Strauss 1967). These techniques and tactics were utilised to provide the analyses reported in Chapters Six and Seven.

Durations of analytic thinking. In this thesis, there were five definable durations of analytical thinking about the qualitative data. First, it occurred during the interview process itself, as questions were put and answers were probed for clarification, and shortly afterward as notes were made about the interview (s. 4.4.2 and Appendix G). Secondly, it occurred during transcription of voice records to computer-based records, and thirdly during tabulation according to the quad structure cross-referenced to major issues, both steps necessary to facilitate data reduction into manageable information chunks. Fourthly, using mainly tables thus generated (Appendix H), it occurred during different levels of comparative pattern analysis (including Appendix I), focussed upon final write-up and textual story-telling. At this point, there was considerable oscillation between tables and transcripts, and, to a lesser extent, voice records and brief interview notes; and across specific records within each of these media. Finally, there was much recursive analysis and rewriting of the main text in concluding Chapter Six and preparing Chapter Seven. Constant comparison and iterative explanation-building were evident especially in the final two durations.

The penultimate duration, the heart of grid analysis, is most evident in write-up. But the others were very significant, as altogether these immersed the analyst in data on respondents' lives to aid understanding their worldviews. Importantly, this multiple iterative process included construction of meaning from non-verbal aspects of interviews.

Tri-level analysis. Patterns were explored at three levels in this thesis. First, did managers as a whole have common characteristics? This was essentially a non-

comparative level of analysis, since non-managers were not used as a foil. In Yin's (1994) view this does not involve a case study approach, since the data are effectively pooled across all the managers. Secondly, there was the level of effectiveness versus success. Did more effective managers share characteristics different from those who were less effective, and similarly regarding degree of success? Finally, there was the level of quad sectors. Did managers in specific sectors share characteristics in contradistinction to those in other sectors?

The latter two levels are truly comparative, but notably neither used non-managers as a foil in this thesis. (This is left for future research programs mainly because of resource constraints). However, analysis was more rigorous and penetrating than often undertaken in relevant major studies, such as the Goertzels (1962), Bennis (1989), and typical Upper Echelon Theory and Stratified Systems Theory studies (ss. 2.3 and 3.3.3).

Such a tri-level analysis offers a potentially powerful method for examining managers' antecedents and correlates, amplifying the utility of each quantum of collected data in analysis.

Summarily, qualitative research was undertaken, first for descriptive and secondly for interpretive purposes, within and across five durations and three levels of analysis. Patterns were matched accordingly, especially with the use of the grid displays contained in Appendix H and the intermediate analyses included in Appendix I. The units of analysis were individual managers and quad categories, with emphasis on the latter, giving a critical design focus on conceptual cases. Qualitative analysis was driven by abundant literature, a definite theory, and first phase quantitative findings. Replication logic, theoretical sampling, constant comparison, and iterative concept-building were adapted to thesis intents (Appendix M).

4.5.4 Case Study: Validity and Reliability

According to Yin (1994), assessing validity and reliability in a case study strategy involves convergent sources of evidence, the construction of a case study database, and a clear chain of evidence. These three elements are worth brief consideration.

Multiple sources of evidence. Multiple evidentiary sources provide two or more measures of the same phenomenon, hence addressing construct validity. As Yin (1994) writes:

> *"(A)ny finding or conclusion in a case study is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information, following a corroborative mode." (P. 92).*

4 Methodology and Techniques

The aim of triangulation (Denzin 1975) here was to examine initially the fit of interview results among the various cases to the survey data, with reference to theoretical expectations. If the researcher's interpretation of qualitative data was seriously at odds with quantitative, statistical analysis, then one or the other might be deemed untrustworthy or require modification. Alternatively, if findings were congruent as a whole, or otherwise satisfying in logical explanation, then their construction would appear acceptable.

The theoretical consistency of qualitative data among the quad sectors, and from these to statistical test results, suggests the degree of support there was for the relationships implied by the quad. Notably, the case study phase focussed upon conceptual development rather than additional theoretical propositions.

The main intent of the case study phase was to explore further the initial construct validity of the Manager Quad as a complex conceptual model, rather than to devise or test new hypotheses or to examine its broader applicability. This was undertaken given the vexed nature of validity issues in qualitative research (Altheide and Johnson 1998).

Case study database, protocol, and chain of evidence. Case study reliability was enhanced by establishment of a database (Appendix E), accessible to independent scholars (Yin 1994), in lieu of an exhaustive design description (Cavana et al. 2001). This involves records of interviews, associated observations, and other relevant material; and in a form allowing others to verify and potentially use the collected information. In this thesis, records include voice tapes of all interviews, transcripts of these, and brief notes about interview environs and respondents' presentations. The database incorporates an index system and clearly identifiable files; with dates, venues, and subjects of interviews; unedited contents of voice tapes etc.; and signed permission clearances. Additionally, a case study protocol (Appendix F) is included, along with tabular materials in preliminary analysis connecting raw data to case study issues (Appendix H), plus intermediate qualitative analysis (Appendix I). Thus, construct validity and reliability are underpinned by a strong chain of evidence traceable in both directions between initial research questions, data collection and analysis, and case study conclusions (Yin 1994).

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Consistent with accepted business research practice (Zikmund 1997; Cavana et al. 2001), practices were adopted in this thesis to manage several ethical issues. Access to materials in the case study database is governed by confidentiality

agreements with interviewees. Essentially, this means that third parties cannot view those materials without clearance from the University's Ethics Committee, which approved thesis research as Project No. BHREC 99/29 on 6th April, 2000. Consent procedures used when approaching interviewees are described in Appendix F.

The research findings are reported anonymously and this constrains the type of information available to the academic world. For example, it would have been interesting to analyse relationships between industry type and leader skills, but this was precluded because it would have enabled identification of companies and managers in relation to particular data and findings. For these reasons, acknowledgements are also carefully worded.

On a number of occasions, managers revealed frankly disparaging views about their companies. They sometimes gave highly personal information. Given confidentiality undertakings, this material is unreported.

With these ethical considerations in mind, the following three chapters report findings of the fieldwork program of this thesis.

5 Leader Skills and their Impacts

This chapter presents an analysis of survey data collected over the period April-October 2000 (Appendices A and B). It explores research questions focused upon measurement and impact of leader skills in a business context. All analyses were undertaken using the SPSS Release 10 software package.

Section 5.1 provides a description of the companies, work units, and individual participants. These descriptive statistical data indicate the sample is reasonably representative of the broader Australian business world (s. 4.2).

Section 5.2 presents an analysis of results concerning operational measures of the key concepts defined in s. 3.5, including reliability testing of the main scales. This section involves mainly factor analyses, using the stringent dual criteria recommended by Bryman and Cramer (1999) to ensure factors are interpreted in terms of unique items only (s. 4.5.1). The section also presents analyses of data on indices employing the formulae detailed in s. 4.3.

Section 5.3 reports on descriptive statistics concerning the key variables originally intended for hypothesis testing.

Section 5.4 provides a brief descriptive (not inferential) statistical analysis of data concerning the two outcome dimensions of the Manager Quad.

Section 5.5 is devoted to a range of statistical analyses and related argument concerning hypotheses. These hypotheses are drawn from the general propositions outlined in s. 3.5. These hypotheses are enumerated initially to facilitate following the statistical argument advanced in this section.

Section 5.6 concludes with a discussion and summary of findings.

5.1 Participants

Altogether, 17 companies participated in the survey research program. Confidentiality undertakings preclude specific identification of their individual contributions. The following overall description demonstrates sufficient sample diversity to permit exploratory statistical analyses of data concerning the broadbased theory posited in this thesis (s. 4.5.1).

5.1.1 Companies and Work Units

Companies are described in terms of relative numbers of participant work units, industry sector, functional areas, and organisational levels (Tables 5.1 to 5.4).

5 Leader Skills and their Impacts

Table 5.1 shows the contribution of participant work units by each company. Company number seven made a comparatively large contribution of 16 work units, or 32.7% of the total contribution. However, three other companies together made an equal contribution. Most companies provided one or two work units.

Table 5.1 Relative contributions of companies to the research program

Company Number	Number of Work Units	Percent
1	2	4.1
2	1	2.0
3	2	4.1
4	1	2.0
5	1	2.0
6	1	2.0
7	16	32.7
8	1	2.0
9	3	6.1
10	1	2.0
11	5	10.2
12	1	2.0
13	1	2.0
14	6	12.2
15	1	2.0
16	5	10.2
17	1	2.0
Total	49	100.0

Table 5.2 Industry sectors covered by the research program

Agricultural Products
Banking Retail
Clothing Manufacture
Clothing Retail
Cold Storage
Electric Power
Food Retail
Gas & Fuel
Infrastructure
Mineral Resources
Publishing
Security Services
Stevedore
Employment Services
Water

Table 5.2 shows a spread across many industry sectors. A total of 22 work units in three companies were involved in different retail sectors. The remaining work units were spread principally over utilities, manufacturing, security, and infrastructure sectors, although several were in disparate additional sectors. No firms specialised in 'new economy' pursuits.

Table 5.3 outlines the functional areas covered by research. The reported areas are amended from the raw data in a number of instances to reflect conventional terms for generic functions. The table illustrates an emphasis on customer services and sales associated with the retail sector, which comprised some 42.9% of the total. Notably, though, some of these work units were not in retail companies, but reflect the diversity of business activity undertaken by many firms. The table shows a good coverage of the generic functions of businesses.

Table 5.3 Functional areas covered by the research program

Function	Number of Work Units	Percent
Corporate Services	2	4.1
Marketing/Customer Services	21	42.9
Technical Services	6	12.2
Facilities	1	2.0
Finance	3	6.1
Human Resources/Payroll	6	12.2
Information Services	2	4.1
Materials & Merchandise	3	6.1
Production/Operations	5	10.2
Total	49	100.0

Table 5.4 indicates the spread across organisational levels. Table 5.4 is constructed from absolute values calculated from raw data, which was collected in terms of each manager's level relative to the number of levels in the employer organisation. This results in a hierarchy of 10 levels in the Weberian sense of an ideal-type, rather than a strict representation of empirical reality. The actual range of levels was from a minimum of five to a maximum of 12. This ideal-typical company construct allows an appreciation of work unit spread across organisational levels despite the empirical variability from 'flat' to 'tall' hierarchical structures.

Table 5.4 shows relative percentages of levels sampled from the top level of one to the bottom level of 10 for managers. The lowest level was thus 11, where employees had no direct reports. This reveals work units from all levels, though with

some bias towards middle and senior management units, as reflected in a positive skew value of 0.406. There is a close correspondence between the median and the mean, with values of 0.50 and 0.52 respectively. One unit was headed by a Chief Executive Officer.

Table 5.4 Organisational levels of work units covered by the research program

Absolute Value of Organisational Level	Constructed Level of Organisation	Number of Work Units	Percent
.20	1	1	2.3
.33	2	2	4.5
.40	3	12	27.3
.42	4	4	9.1
.50	5	4	9.1
.56	6	1	2.3
.57	7	5	11.4
.60	8	8	18.2
.71	9	2	4.5
.80	10	5	11.4
Total		44	100.0

Note: Five respondents indicated no organisational level details.

Figure 5.1 Distribution of work units across organisational levels

Organisational Level Absolute Value
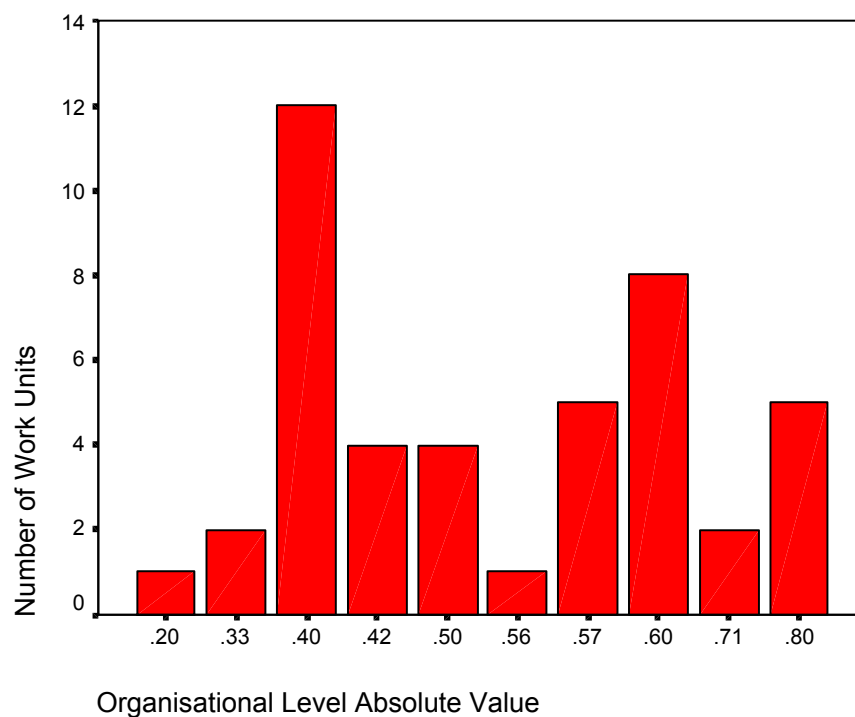
5 Leader Skills and their Impacts

Figure 5.1 demonstrates more clearly that work units were dispersed up and down the ideal-typical company structure.

5.1.2 Managers

Managers are described in terms of age, gender, supervisory experience, and remuneration.

Table 5.5 illustrates the age distribution of managers. Almost 40% were in their thirties, and another 28.6% in their forties. That is, the great majority was aged between 30 and 50 years. Only one person was aged less than 30, and only two were more than 60 years of age. A caveat is that almost 20% of these respondents declined to stipulate their age.

Table 5.5 Age distribution of managers

Age Range	Frequency	Percent
20-29.99	1	2.0
30-39.99	19	38.8
40-49.99	14	28.6
50-59.99	4	8.2
60 or more	2	4.1
Missing	9	18.4
Total	49	100.0

Table 5.6 indicates the gender distribution. There was a slightly less than 70/30 split favouring males as employees with supervisory responsibilities. From this and the previous tables, it can be seen managers were most likely to be 30 to 50 year old males.

Table 5.6 Gender distribution of managers

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	14	28.6
Male	34	69.4
Missing	1	2.0
Total	49	100.0

Excellent Managers   140

Table 5.7 shows levels of supervisory experience. Evidently, the surveyed managers had a great deal of such experience. Work unit members normally were assured of being supervised by someone with at least five years of experience, and in most cases this assurance was of 10 or more years of experience. A qualifier is that slightly over 20% of respondents failed to nominate the level of their supervisory experience. Even with this qualifier, the likely level of supervisory experience was a minimum of five years for almost 70% of managers.

Table 5.7 Supervisory experience of managers

Years of Experience	Frequency	Percent
.00-4.99	4	8.2
5.00-9.99	8	16.3
10.00-14.99	8	16.3
15.00-19.99	9	18.4
20.00-24.99	5	10.2
25.00-29.99	2	4.1
30.00 or more	2	4.1
Missing	11	22.4
Total	49	100.0

Table 5.8 categorises remuneration levels. The most common remuneration range was between $A50 - 100K, including all dollar compensations such as superannuation and other benefits. Only one person reported less than the $A50K bracket, and only one other reported in excess of $A200K. Generally, these data are consistent with the above noted organisational level distributions. However, almost a quarter of respondents declined to state their level of remuneration.

Table 5.8 Remuneration levels of managers

Remuneration Bracket	Frequency	Percent
49999 and below	1	2.0
50000-99999	23	46.9
100000-149999	9	18.4
150000-199999	3	6.1
200000-249999	1	2.0
Missing	12	24.5
Total	49	100.0

Note: Remuneration is defined at Q. 77 in Appendix B.

5.1.3 Work Unit Members

Work unit members are described in terms of their age and gender. Tables 5.9 and 5.10 show members were more likely than not to be 20 to 40 year old females. However, almost 14% of these respondents declined to mention their age.

Table 5.9 Age distribution of work unit members

Age Range	Frequency	Percent
.00-19.99	5	2.7
20.00-29.99	45	24.3
30.00-39.99	57	30.8
40.00-49.99	31	16.8
50.00-59.99	21	11.4
60 or more	1	.5
Missing	25	13.5
Total	185	100.0

Table 5.10 Gender distribution of work unit members

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	97	52.4
Male	79	42.7
Missing	9	4.9
Total	185	100.0

5.2 Measures

This section is devoted to analysis of findings on the postulated operational measures, including both scales and indices, all of which are detailed in Appendix C. Important issues concerning measurement and factor analyses were discussed earlier (s. 4.3 and s. 4.5.1, respectively).

The section proceeds first with an analysis and presentation of reliabilities of the originally conceptualised scales concerning both leader skills and effectiveness outcomes (s. 5.2.1). Then, findings of factor analyses on the leader skill scales are presented, together with their revisions, relevant reconceptualisations, and reliabilities (ss. 5.2.2 and 5.2.3). Results are then examined regarding major outcome variables, including the leader effectiveness and work unit performance scales, and the individual success and company success indices (s. 5.2.4).

5.2.1 Original Scales: Reliability Coefficients

Table 5.11 shows calculated reliabilities for each of the original scales separately considered and prior to factor analysis. That is, if each scale were to be employed alone, without considering how they interacted and whether they were confounded in any way, then the associated reliabilities were as indicated. In the case of multi-item variables, Bryman and Cramer (1999) say that a coefficient of at least 0.80 is taken normally to indicate a reliable measure, and Nunnaly (1978) argues 0.70 is sufficient for new scales.

Table 5.11 Original scales and their reliability coefficients		

Scale Type	Scale	Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient
Leader Skill Proficiency	Traditional Management	.8669
	Routine Communication	.7572
	Human Resource Management	.8423
	Personal Networking	.8152
	Individualised Relationships	.8654
	Work Inspiration	.8774
	Charisma	.8502
	Strategic Influence	.8003
	Strategic Direction	.8681
Effectiveness Outcome	Leader Effectiveness	.9381
	Work Unit Performance	.9122

By comparison, reliabilities for the original scales of this thesis were shown of an acceptable and generally high order, excepting the routine communication scale Cronbach alpha of 0.76. It is especially interesting that the strategic leadership subscales of strategic influence and strategic direction were found to be of acceptable orders of reliability. However, the thesis research intent was to conduct factor analyses to determine the most parsimonious, valid, reliable, and coherent scales for purposes of exploratory hypothesis testing.

5.2.2 Leader Skills Scales: Factor Analysis

The main findings of factor analysis conducted on data concerning the leader skills of managers are presented in Tables 5.12, 5.13, and 5.14. For reasons that will become clear, analysis proceeds first in regard to Table 5.12, then in respect to Table 5.13 in this section; and Table 5.14 is considered separately in the next subsection.

Re-conceptualisation of leader skills. These analyses resulted in new concepts concerning the original formulation of leader skills. Hence, some terms differ from the initial concepts drawn from Table 3.2 and detailed in Appendix C. These newly named leader skills are conceptualised as more specific than those suggested indirectly in the literature on defined models of individualised leadership. (NOTE: Scale items are abridged in this electronic form for the reasons stated in s. 3.3.1).

Table 5.12 Leader Interaction Skills Inventory

Subscale	Item	Rotated component matrix loadings		
Interactive leader skills	Q1 Discusses and describes …………….……... for the work unit	.830		
	Q2 Helps work unit members to clearly see how ….. work unit's short term goals and plans	.827		
	Q4 Provides performance feedback to ensure the work unit is doing the job	.786		
	Q5 Makes sound ……. decisions	.681		
	Q8 Gives information to work unit members at the right time	.722		
	Q14 Gives work that suits each member's abilities	.621		
	Q15 Gives work that …………	.732		
	Q52 Shows work unit members where the company ………...	.713		
Interformative leader skills	Q19 Clearly and quickly tells a member who is not working well, …………………………….…, without making it worse		.696	
	Q30 Helps members to see how to work differently and better		.766	
	Q31 Convinces members they can do their jobs better than they thought possible		.765	
	Q32 Shows clearly …………….………………….… by doing their jobs better than they thought possible		.753	
	Q35 Persuades members ……………………… best efforts		.752	
	Q56 Shows and/or encourages new ways to …………... of company products and services		.438	
	Q57 Shows and/or encourages ……………….……… of company products and services		.471	
Strategic Influence	Q45 Socialises with customers, subcontractors, suppliers, senior managers and others who are important to the work unit			.753
	Q46 Talks to and ………… from important outsiders about ……………….……………..……………. enhance its performance			.865
	Q47 Talks to important outsiders with the aim of getting what the work unit needs to succeed (budget monies, equipment, training, and other resources)			.810
	Q49 Influences important outsiders to ……… the work unit			.827

Note: Cronbach alpha coefficients for each subscale reading down the table are 0.9137, 0.8530, and 0.8524. Only loadings above 0.30 are displayed

Factor analysis report. Table 5.12 displays the results of the SPSS output obtained from factor analysis of data concerning leader skills. Following advice from Pallant (2001), and from Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), these results are reported as follows. Items were subjected to principal components analysis after assessing whether data were suitable for factor analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of most coefficients of 0.3 and above, and many were substantially higher. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.787, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance ($p = 0.01$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of three components, with fewer items measuring each than conceptualised originally (Appendix C). These components were subsequently named as the subscales listed in Table 5.12. Reading down the table, these components had initial eigenvalues of 7.876, 2.459, and 1.416, explaining 41.45 per cent, 12.95 per cent, and 7.45 per cent of the total variance, respectively. Inspection of the screeplot showed a clear break after the third component. Varimax rotation was performed to help interpretation of these three components. The rotation solution still showed the presence of a tripartite structure, with the three components showing generally excellent loadings, with two items showing only fair loadings (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). All items loaded on only one component. With this solution, the number of high (> 0.80) and relatively high loading marker variables reassures that the otherwise fairly lean sample size was sufficient, and more so since the research intent was exploratory.

The three factor solution explained a total of 61.85 per cent of the variance. However, the distribution of the variance explained was adjusted after rotation. Reading down the table, the components now contributed 26.31 per cent, 20.30 per cent, and 15.24 per cent of the explained variance. The results of this analysis support the use of the three sets of items as separate leader skill subscales. The interpretation of the three components was consistent with the Reality Management Theory of leadership proffered in this thesis (ss. 3.3 and 3.4).

Leader Interaction Skills Inventory. Table 5.12 is therefore an SPSS output table showing an overall tripartite scale of leader skills, where each subscale operationally measures a discrete leaderskill dimension, and where the items comprising each subscale do not overlap with those of the other two scales in accord with the dual criteria mentioned at the start of this chapter and explained earlier (s. 4.5.1). That is, a key

finding of factor analysis was that interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills are *independent* dimensions, based on the stringent 0.30 and uniqueness criteria. *Multicollinearity was not a problem.* Taken together, the corresponding subscales comprise a larger instrument for measuring leader skills in a business context. This instrument is named the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI) to distinguish it from other scales in the literature and from its parent described as the Leader Action Characteristics Set (s. 3.3.1). Although considered exploratory, the LISI demonstrates initially respectable reliability coefficients, and, as shown shortly (s. 5.5), sound construct validity.

Interactive leader skills. Table 5.12 shows scale information in operational terms regarding a new skillset named interactive leader skills. This is considered a specific skillset associated with transactional leadership within a business context. It replaces the transactional leader skillset adduced from the literature. Interactive leader skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are attributed with regard to present business realities via mutual definition of the situation by leader and followers, and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

Interformative leader skills. Table 5.12 also summarises relevant scale data on the newly named interformative leader skills, which are seen as associated with transformational leadership within a business environment. This replaces the transformational leader skillset. Interformative leader skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are attributed with respect to future business realities via mutual definition of the situation by leader and followers, and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

Strategic influence leader skills. Table 5.12 further shows a modified item cluster measured strategic influence. These are leader skills to the extent that they impact upon attribution of the leader mantle. Contrary to interactive and interformative leader skills, however, this skillset does not directly involve interactions of leader and followers. The interactive aspect is de-emphasised accordingly, as this relates to externally significant others. Strategic influence skills are defined as a coherent set of leader skills that are imputed by followers regarding definitions of the situation in the external environment on behalf of the business work unit (at least putatively), *but with implicit career enhancement potential and/or purposes,* and that may be learned and displayed differentially by individuals.

5 Leader Skills and their Impacts

Strategic influence and personal networking skills. Tables 5.12 and 5.13 contain relevant data on strategic influence skills and personal networking skills, including quite acceptable Cronbach alphas of 0.8524 and 0.8152, respectively. These data are considered jointly to explain a decision to omit personal networking in favour of strategic influence in subsequent statistical analyses.

Table 5.13 Personal networking leader skills scale	
Item	**Rotated component matrix loadings**
Q 20 'Plays politics' within the company to benefit my manager's own career	.845
Q 21 Socialises with customers, subcontractors, suppliers, senior managers and others outside the work unit who are important to my manager's own career	.705
Q22 Influences important outsiders to benefit my manager's own career	.758

Note: Cronbach alpha is 0.8152. This table contains results that are an alternative to the third tier of strategic influence results reported in Table 5.12. See the text addressing this table for further explanation

Overlapping measures. Table 5.13 shows the theorised cluster measured personal networking (Appendix C). It is important to stress that both personal networking and strategic influence skill subsets separated out as distinct components from the interactive and interformative skillsets, *but only did so when factor analysis was conducted using each separately.* When factor analysis was conducted across all Leader Action Characterisitcs Set (LACS) skill data, it resulted in reduction to all four components, but items measuring strategic influence confounded with those measuring personal networking. Specifically, items 21, 22, and 49 measured both personal networking and strategic influence. Item 20 was found to measure personal networking alone, and items 45, 46, and 47 were found to measure strategic influence alone. In short, these two factors overlapped in measurement items.

There are many possible explanations of these overlapping results. The proposed skills, however precisely conceptualised, simply may not exist in reality, denoting a fundamental theoretical flaw. The theoretical construction of the leader skill

concepts may be faulty. The leader skill operational measures may be defective. The sample of respondents may have provided biased data. Thus, the empirical reality of the leader skills may not concur with the theory, with one or more of the particular constructs, with one or more of the operational measures, with one or more of the collected data sets, or a combination of these. Ultimately, as with social science research generally, it is not possible to draw definitive conclusions about the nature and extent of any error.

Yet it is possible to make an informed judgement based on present theory. It is surmised that these two subscales reflect two interdependent skill dimensions, in accord with the earlier noted difficulty of disentangling the crucial motivational underlays of these two skillsets (s. 3.3.2). It is thus supposed the scales inadequately operationalised what *might be* distinct motivationally driven skillsets.

Retention of strategic influence. Accordingly, the concept of strategic influence was retained alone for hypothesis testing (s. 5.5). The retention of strategic influence was preferred to personal networking because the tripartite structure thus remained largely intact as constructed originally. That is, strategic influence was initially conceptualised within the third tier of LACS, whereas personal networking was seen as an exchange element of transactional leadership. There was therefore only the loss of additional conceptual clarity, rather than a more basic alteration of the thesis. Notably, this does not destroy the the theoretical argument for a negative relationship between the outcomes of leader effectiveness and individual success, since the lopsided exercise of leader skills remains (s. 3.3.2), although this is now confined to strategic influence. Further, it has an established referent in the literature arising from Pelz's (1952) study, although recast in terms of leader skills in this thesis. Without being too cumbersome, it also has a sufficient number and diversity of items to provide a sound measure. Finally, it has a stronger internal reliability coefficient.

5.2.3 Strategic Leader Skills Scales: Factor Analysis

Table 5.14 shows results concerning the postulated strategic leader skills *taken separately to the larger skills data set*. This isolation is interesting due to the original expectation that strategic leader skills would be found to form a third layer of overall leader skills (s. 3.3.1). This finding failed to eventuate fully and, instead, some of the strategic skills collapsed to integrate with the interactive and interformative skill subsets, whilst strategic influence separated out, as indicated in the preceding section.

Table 5.14 Strategic leader skills scales

Subscale	Item	Rotated component matrix loadings		
Strategic Influence	Q45 Socialises with customers, subcontractors, suppliers, senior managers and others who are important to the work unit	.733		
	Q46 Talks to and ……… from important outsiders about ……………….… and enhance its performance	.873		
	Q47 Talks to important outsiders with the aim of getting what the work unit needs to succeed (budget monies, equipment, training, and other resources)	.815		
	Q49 Influences important outsiders to …… the work unit	.817		
Strategic Direction	Q52 Shows work unit members where the company ………………		.853	
	Q53 Shows members how the work unit can contribute to the company's long term plans and goals		.847	
	Q54 Develops long term plans and goals for the work unit that keep it important to the company		.808	
	Q55 Helps each member to make long term plans and goals that fit with the company's long term plans and goals		.849	
Strategic Innovation	Q56 Shows and/or encourages new ways to …………………….. of company products and services			.729
	Q57 Shows and/or encourages …………………….. of company products and services			.802
	Q58 Shows and/or encourages new ways (systems, processes, policies, products or services) to better meet customer needs			.791

Note: Cronbach alpha coefficients for each subscale reading down the table are 0.8524, 0.9107, and 0.7643. Only loadings above 0.30 are displayed. Items are abridged in electronic form for the reasons stated in s.3.3.1

Factor analysis report. As with the earlier factor analysis on the larger skills data set, items were subjected to principal components analysis after data were assessed as suitable for factor analysis. Only items formulated to measure strategic leader skills were

involved in this analysis (questions 45 to 59 inclusive, Appendix C). Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.663, which exceeded the recommended value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p = 0.01), supporting factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis showed three components, contrary to original theoretical expectations of only two, and these were subsequently named as the scales listed in Table 5.14. Reading down the table, these components had initial eigenvalues of 4.937, 2.051, and 1.051, explaining 44.88 per cent, 18.65 per cent, and 9.56 per cent of the total variance, respectively. Inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the third component. Varimax rotation was performed to aid interpretation of these three components. The rotation still revealed a tripartite structure, with the three components demonstrating even stronger loadings than the broader LISI discovered in the preceding analysis (s. 5.2.2), and all variables loaded on only one component. The number of high loading marker variables in this solution further reassures an already adequate sample size.

The three factor solution explained a total of 73.08 per cent of the variance. After rotation, reading down Table 5.14, the redistributed variance explained was 28.47 per cent, 25.13 per cent, and 19.49 per cent. The results of this analysis support the use of the three sets of items as separate subscales of a larger strategic leader skills instrument, although this possibility had not been anticipated theoretically.

As a distinct scale, strategic leader skills therefore comprise three independent subdimensions, those of strategic influence and strategic direction as conceptualised originally, although both were measured by a reduced number of items, with strategic innovation separating out as a revision. Respective Cronbach alphas were found to be 0.8524, 0.9107, and 0.7643. The strategic direction subscale is most noteworthy because of the strength of its reliability coefficient. The strategic innovation subscale is interesting in its own right, although it has a slightly lean reliability coefficient.

Once again, several explanations might be advanced about these results. Aside from those mentioned about personal networking and strategic influence measurements, one possibility is that strategic leader skills are indeed highly context dependent, and thus might be employed independently of generalised leader skills. That is, although aspects of strategic leader skills are generally expected of managers in business life, especially at a supplementary level, there remains an especial need for these as

assumed in the literature devoted to strategic leadership. This breaks down to the notion that emergent strategic leader skills are germane to generalised leader skills, yet represent an area of specialisation in the roles of managers as leaders. This possibility is compatible with a complex, everchanging business world.

5.2.4 Outcome Measures: Factor Analyses and Indices

Tables 5.15 and 5.16 show findings on leader effectiveness and work unit performance scales.

Factor analysis reports. The same procedures were adopted as for factor analyses reported in the previous two sections. Hence, items were subjected to principal components analysis after data were assessed as suitable for factor analysis. Only items formulated to measure leader effectiveness and work unit performance were involved in these analyses (Appendix C, questions 60 to 65 inclusive, and questions 66 to 71, inclusive, respectively). Data concerning these scales were subjected to separate factor analyses, because the scales were theoretically assumed to measure distinct dimensions and data-collection procedures emphasised the distinction (s. 4.3).

Table 5.15 Leader effectiveness scale

Item	Item-Total Correlation
Q60 My manager's effectiveness in gaining job satisfaction for members in my work unit	.8554
Q61 My manager's effectiveness in ensuring members' job commitment	.8319
Q62 My manager's effectiveness in promoting the morale of members	.8125
Q63 My manager's effectiveness in building team spirit among members	.8369
Q64 My manager's effectiveness in developing the work unit's speed, quality and low cost of doing tasks and meeting goals	.7739
Q65 My manager's effectiveness in developing the work unit's overall performance	.7953

Note: Cronbach alpha is 0.9381

Table 5.15 displays relevant data on the leader effectiveness scale. Regarding leader effectiveness, inspection of the correlation matrix revealed all coefficients of 0.3

and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.903, which exceeded the recommended value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p = 0.01), supporting factorability of the correlation matrix. As expected, principal components analysis showed only one component, which was confirmed by inspection of the scree plot, and this component had an eigenvalue of 4.603, explaining 76.724 per cent of the total variance. This solution could not be rotated given the extraction of a single component. This scale demonstrated a strong reliability coefficient, along with sound parsimony.

Table 5.16 displays relevant data on the work unit performance scale.

Table 5.16 Work unit performance scale

Item	Item-Total Correlation
Q66 The job satisfaction of members in my work unit	.7026
Q67 Members' job commitment	.8057
Q68 The morale of members	.8685
Q69 Team spirit among members	.8282
Q70 My work unit's speed, quality and low cost of doing tasks and meeting goals	.6267
Q71 My work unit's overall performance	.7293

Note: Cronbach alpha is 0.9122

Regarding Table 5.16, inspection of the correlation matrix revealed all coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.780, which exceeded the recommended value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p = 0.01), supporting factorability of the correlation matrix. As expected, principal components analysis showed only one component, which was confirmed by inspection of the scree plot, and this component had an eigenvalue of 4.219, explaining 70.310 per cent of the total variance. This solution could not be rotated given the extraction of a single component. This scale demonstrated a strong reliability coefficient, along with sound parsimony.

Indices. Data on the two indices are presented in Tables 5.17 and 5.18. From Table 5.17, the data show only five pairs of individuals from the total of 31 respondents achieving the same raw score. It is concluded from this wide spread of frequencies that

the individual success index was highly sensitive, as might be expected given the three components of the measure (s. 4.3).

Table 5.17 Individual success index

Raw Score	2 Frequency	Percent
.13	1	2.0
.16	1	2.0
.17	1	2.0
.21	1	2.0
.24	2	4.0
.27	1	2.0
.29	1	2.0
.31	2	4.0
.32	1	2.0
.33	1	2.0
.34	1	2.0
.37	2	4.0
.38	1	2.0
.40	1	2.0
.41	1	2.0
.43	1	2.0
.49	2	4.0
.55	2	4.0
.60	1	2.0
.66	1	2.0
.74	1	2.0
.80	1	2.0
.82	1	2.0
1.07	1	2.0
1.10	1	2.0
1.12	1	2.0
Missing	18	36.7
Total	49	100.0

Omission of company business success. From table 5.18 the most significant finding was the large number of missing responses. Although not immediately obvious from that table, there was also a lack of clear connection between reported company success data and work units involved in research. The relatively large number of single work unit companies reported in Table 5.1 suggests this more clearly. This thwarted the original intent to obtain sufficient work units that were both well dispersed within companies and clearly linked to index data. Whilst the index demonstrated potential

sensitivity of measurement in raw scores, 11 of the 15 responses (arising from only two of the 17 companies) were bunched onto two scores. This also reflected the deficient linkage between work units and company level index. Consequently, it was a questionable endeavour to examine empirically the fifth proposition that relative density of excellent managers was positively related to company business success (s. 3.5). *Therefore, this proposition was omitted from testing.*

Table 5.18 Company business success index

Raw Score	Frequency	Percent
1.25	2	4.1
5.00	6	12.2
9.00	1	2.0
9.35	1	2.0
10.70	5	10.2
Missing	34	69.4
Total	49	100.0

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

Table 5.19 presents descriptive statistical data concerning the main variables of this thesis for which statistical testing was envisaged originally. All reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) exceeded 0.70. Most notably, interactive and interformative leader skill measures show a fairly high correlation at a statistically significant level, which suggests the possibility of multicollinearity, but this concern was not demonstrated in later statistical analyses (s. 5.5.2). Further, Tabachnick and Fidell (1996, pp. 84-86) say a bivariate correlation that is too high shows up as 0.90+ in the correlation matrix, which is substantially above that found in this case. The possible redundancy in this case is therefore not considered an important threat, especially given the exploratory intent of this thesis. Similarly, the logical problems indicated by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) are considered less important than the potential gain in exploratory insight.

Table 5.19 Descriptive Statistics: Means, Standard Deviations, Bivariate Correlation Coefficients, and Reliability Coefficients

Variable	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interactive leader skillset	49	5.0698	.7668	*.9137*						
2. Interformative leader skillset	49	4.6700	.8540	.724 .000* .000**	*.8530*					
3. Strategic Influence leader skillset	49	3.6637	1.2975	.232	.213	*.8524*				
4. Personal networking leader skillset	49	2.4710	1.4295	-.233	-.067	.559 .000* .000**	*.8152*			
5. Leader effectiveness	49	5.0781	.8427	.828 .000* .000**	.773 .000* .000**	.209	-.249 .042*	*.9381*		
6. Work unit performance	49	5.2737	.6996	.736 .000* .000**	.609 .000* .000**	.178	-.219	.784 .000* .000**	*.9122*	
7. Individual success	31	.6628	.1874	-.348 .028*	-.214	.477 .003* .007**	.427 .008* .017*	-.372 .020* .039**	-.194	
8. Company business success	15	6.9575	3.4658	.107	-.256	.111	-.060	-.001	.471 .038*	-.080

Notes: N is the number of managers for whom data were available on the variables. A total of 185 work unit members provided data concerning variables one to six inclusive. Managers provided data concerning the remaining two variables.
Exact SPSS output probabilities are reported to the .05 level
*one-tailed test **two-tailed test
Cronbach's α values are reported in bold italics on the diagonal, where applicable: variables number seven and eight were measured by indices

Several other observations from Table 5.19 are pertinent. The statistically significant correlation between strategic influence and personal networking skills is much smaller and it became irrelevant in view of the decision not to proceed with the latter variable in statistical tests (s. 5.2.2). The statistically significant correlations between the interactive leader skillset variable and leader effectiveness, and between the outcome variables of leader effectiveness and work unit performance potentially qualify inferences

drawn below (ss. 5.5.3 and 5.5.4), although these are somewhat lower than 0.90 (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Again, the threat is accepted for the just stated reasons. The statistically significant modest negative correlation between leader effectiveness and individual success is interesting in view of arguments canvassed below (s. 5.5.1). Finally, there is the statistically significant modest correlation between work unit performance and company business success. As discussed in s. 5.2.4, the latter variable was omitted from statistical analysis due to data deficiencies.

5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Manager Quad Data

Proposition 1 – Managers may be categorised into four groups according to the degree to which they are effective as leaders and/or successful as individuals. (The Manager Quad outcomes proposition). (s. 3.5).

Before proceeding to inferential statistics, the basic proposition of a Manager Quad is examined using *descriptive* statistics.

Table 5.20 The Manager Quad: Leader effectiveness and individual success

		Leader Effectiveness		
		Less Effective	More Effective	Total
Individual Success	More Successful	**Career Managers**	**Excellent Managers**	
		8 (53.3%)	4 (25.0%)	12 (38.7%)
	Less Successful	**Student Managers**	**Achievement Managers**	
		7 (46.7%)	12 (75.0%)	19 (61.3%)
	Total	15 (100.0%)	16 (100.0%)	31 (100.0%)

Notes: n = 31; expected cell frequencies are > 5

Table 5.20 displays data that categorises managers according to the extent of their leader effectiveness and individual success. The four categories of managers were created by cross-tabulation of count data on leader effectiveness and individual success after splitting each at its mean. Notably, leader effectiveness was measured from work unit member responses, and individual success from manager responses.

Heuristic description. It should be borne in mind that, since these categories were developed on the basis of averages, it is not inferred that all managers in the student category were ineffective and unsuccessful in some absolute sense, but rather that they were relatively so. Moreover, individual 'student' managers are more or less likely to learn leader skills, and thus to be mobile over time among the described categories. The same holds for the other groups of managers (s. 3.3.2). The terms 'more effective', 'less effective', 'more successful', and 'less successful' are employed as heuristic approximations for analytical purposes.

Descriptive statistical support for Reality Management Theory. Table 5.20 shows four distinct groups of managers along the lines postulated from Reality Management Theory of leadership (s. 3.3). Importantly, *the relative frequencies of managers in the cells are as anticipated by the theory*. Thus, the least number of managers were in the theoretical category of excellent managers, who tended to be both effective as leaders and successful as individuals. The second lowest numbers were of student managers, who tended to be neither effective nor successful. The third smallest numbers were of career managers, who tended to be successful not effective. The largest numbers were of achievement managers who tended to be effective not successful. Inferential statistical evidence relating to the results in Table 5.20 is presented shortly under hypothesis two (s. 5.5.1).

5.5 Hypotheses and Deductive-Probabilistic Argument

In this section, evidence is presented relating to the main propositions outlined earlier (s. 3.5). Subsequent to the foregoing analyses of measures, and in accord with Reality Management Theory, a limited number of research hypotheses were drawn from these propositions for statistical testing. These hypotheses therefore formed part of a theoretical web, and were not hypotheses of convenience to discover statistical significance through chance fluctuations (Freund 1970; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). A deductive-probabilistic argument is advanced in relation to these hypotheses and descriptive statistical evidence (s. 5.5.4). Findings on these hypotheses are gathered

together for ease of review in Table 5.28 below along with the deductive–probabilistic argument (s. 5.6). It is emphasised that the intention is to clarify and develop Reality Management Theory in an exploratory fashion.

Statistical testing and sampling issues. Given this exploratory intent, SPSS default exact probabilities are reported and relied upon, and a Bonferroni correction applied where appropriate on the basis of an alpha level of 0.05. Freund (1970) notes that a choice is possible between rejecting outright a research hypothesis and stating the result is not statistically significant. The latter was chosen below where the theoretical proposition was supported partially. Hypothesis formulation and specific test depended on which aspect was being emphasised in the larger theory. There is a range of statistical tests, which are highlighted via italicised in-text headings as appropriate. The SPSS procedure for listwise deletion was employed to produce statistics only on those cases for which data were available. The following assumes the earlier discussion of survey analysis, especially concerning sampling issues and one-way tests (s. 4.5.1).

Data screening. Prior to statistical analysis, data were screened for all relevant variables according to the advice and procedures given by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) and by Pallant (2001). Variables involved were interactive leader skills, interformative leader skills, strategic influence leader skills, personal networking leader skills, leader effectiveness, work unit performance, individual success, and company business success. Data screening examined issues of accuracy of data files; missing data; outliers; normality, linearity, and homocedasticity; and multicollinearity and singularity. Generally data screening was unproblematic, with issues readily resolved, and only those most significant are discussed at appropriate points in the forthcoming analysis. At this point, it is recalled that personal networking leader skills and company business success were deleted, as indicated above (s. 5.2.2 and s. 5.2.4, respectively). Also, square root transformation was applied to improve the normality of distribution of the individual success variable.

Enumeration of hypotheses. It is useful to enumerate the hypotheses under each general proposition to help guide the reader through subsequent statistical analyses and arguments, which follow the order of enumeration.

> **Proposition 1 – Managers may be categorised into four groups according to the degree to which they are effective as leaders and/or successful as individuals. (The Manager Quad outcomes proposition). (s. 3.5).**

Hypothesis 1: The groups of managers differ with a generally negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success.

Hypothesis 2: Managers who are more effective as leaders tend to be less successful as individuals than managers who are less effective as leaders.

Proposition 2 – The outcomes of individual success and leader effectiveness constituting the Manager Quad are functions of the nature and level of leader skills. (The leader skills proposition). (s. 3.5).

Hypothesis 3: The groups of managers differ in terms of the leader skillsets.

Hypothesis 4: Managers who have higher interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills are more effective as leaders and more successful as individuals than managers who have lower such skills.

Hypothesis 5: Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain the leader effectiveness of managers in that order.

Hypothesis 6: Strategic influence skills help explain the individual success of managers.

Proposition 3 – Work unit performance is a function of leader skills. (The work unit performance proposition). (s. 3.5).

Hypothesis 7: Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain work unit performance in that order.

Hypothesis 8: Interactive leader skills help explain work unit performance via the leader effectiveness of managers.

Proposition 4 – If managers display uniformly high levels of proficiency across the identified leader skillsets, then leader effectiveness, individual success, and work unit performance will accrue accordingly. (The excellent managers proposition). (s. 3.5).

Deductive-probabilisitic argument: Descriptive and inferential statistical results are combined regarding this proposition.

5.5.1 Manager Quad Outcomes: Phi-coefficient, t-test, and Mann-Whitney U test

Proposition 1 – Managers may be categorised into four groups according to the degree to which they are effective as leaders and/or successful as individuals. (The Manager Quad outcomes proposition). (s. 3.5).

Statistical tests were conducted regarding only the 31 managers for whom data were available to identify a position in the quad, as displayed in Table 5.20 above (s. 5.4). The proposed methods of statistical testing effectively combined bivariate tests of differences and of relationships. This reflects the observation by Bryman and Cramer (1999) that if members of groups differ regarding a variable then this suggests a relationship between the variable and the characteristic defining the groups, so that

there is no hard-and-fast distinction between the exploration of differences and of relationships (p. 64).

Leader effectiveness versus individual success. Leader effectiveness was treated as the independent or comparison variable, with individual success treated as the dependent or criterion variable. It is often though not always assumed that effective leaders *generally* become successful, so the relationship is thought to be positive – hence the frequent equation of effectiveness and success (ss. 2.1 and 2.3.1). However, this thesis proposes that *generally* the managers who are more effective as leaders are less successful as individuals, so there is a *negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success* (s. 3.3.2).

Hypothesis 1: The groups of managers differ with a generally negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success.

Phi-coefficient for a nominal by nominal, 2x2 contingency table. Statistical analysis of the first hypothesis proceeded with this test. (Although a chi-square test for two independent samples might have been used given the expected cell frequencies shown in Table 5.20, it was not chosen since phi provides an indication of the strength of the relationship, as discussed by Pallant (2000)). Both comparison and criterion variables were categorical, involving frequencies, with unrelated comparison groups since the managers were cast discretely into one or another category on the cross-

tabulation of the bifurcated variables (both split at the mean). The finding was Φ = -0.291, p = 0.053 (one-tailed).

Given the marginal elevation of the exact probability above the conventional 0.05 significance level, this result was inferred to support a statistically significant negative (not positive) relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success. This is consistent with the exploratory nature of this thesis, and with the advice for protecting against Type II error given by Pallant (2000, pp. 172 - 173).

Conclusion: Hypothesis 1 accepted

The quad was supported from the viewpoint of statistically testing a key associated hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Managers who are more effective as leaders tend to be less successful as individuals than managers who are less effective as leaders.

One-tailed t-test for two unrelated means. Statistical analysis of the second hypothesis employed initially a one-tailed t-test for two unrelated means. As a parametric test, this assumes that the level of measurement was at least equal interval, there was a normal distribution of population scores, and variances of both variables were equal or homogeneous. Bryman and Cramer (1999) challenge the first of these assumptions, although it was satisfied in thesis research. For purposes of this test, managers were again grouped according to leader effectiveness split at the mean; and individual success remained the test variable, however the latter was measured at ratio level. Levene's test for equality of variances on success between the two groups showed these were not statistically significant at 0.801, so equal variances were assumed and the pooled variance estimate (not the separate variance estimate) was used to calculate the *t* value. There was a slight positive skew of 0.127 for leader effectiveness; and a moderate (corrected) positive skew of 0.660 for individual success, which some might say questions the legitimacy of the t-test, however Pallant (2000) says this is non-problematic for 30+ sample sizes.

According to the collected data, more effective managers had a mean of 0.6025 for success (SD = 0.1822), whereas less effective managers had a mean of 0.7271 for success (SD = 0.1764). That is, on average, more effective managers were less successful than less effective managers. This clearly supported the substantive direction of the proposed relationship.

Furthermore, the difference between means of more effective managers and less effective managers regarding success was statistically significant, t (31) = 1.932, p = 0.031(one-tailed).

Mann-Whitney U test for two unrelated samples. As a check on use of the parametric test here, the Mann-Whitney U test for two unrelated samples was employed to determine whether statistical significance still pertained under non-parametric assumptions, as advised by Bryman and Cramer (1999). In general, the Mann-Whitney test is reportedly 95% as powerful as the t-test, which means the latter requires 5% fewer participants than the former to reject a false null hypothesis (or accept a true research hypothesis) (Siegel 1956; Bryman and Cramer 1999). This test compared number of times a success score from the group of less effective managers was ranked higher than a success score from the more effective managers group.

It confirmed results with more effective managers (M = 0.6025, SD = 0.1822) showing statistically lesser success as individuals than did less effective managers (M = 0.7271, SD = 0.1764), given U = 71.00, p = 0.027 (one-tailed).

Conclusion: Hypothesis 2 accepted.

The quad was again supported in terms of both direction of group averages, and statistical significance of the proposed negative relationship, concerning leader effectiveness and success.

Overall, there was statistical support for the two hypotheses relating to the proposition of a manager quad. The general finding at this point was that the manager quad was evidenced at the level of outcomes. That is, *the core proposition of this thesis was supported by statistical analysis of relevant survey data.* However, statistical tests thus far have focused upon whether managers might be appropriately classified by outcomes into a quad structure, without addressing the question of why managers might be more or less successful as individuals or effective as leaders. In this thesis, the question of why is proposed as one of leader skills.

5.5.2 Leader Skills: MANOVA and Multiple Regression Analysis

Proposition 2 – The outcomes of individual success and leader effectiveness constituting the Manager Quad are functions of the nature and level of leader skills. (The leader skills proposition). (s. 3.5).

Proposition two concerning managers' leader skills was examined next. Given the acknowledged limits of research, it is again stressed that statistical testing was exploratory, not intended to be definitive. Personal networking skills were omitted in line with earlier discussion (s. 5.2.2). It is possible to draw from proposition two a number of different hypotheses that, in turn, involve particular requirements for statistical testing purposes.

To begin, this quad aspect was tested at the broadest level of differences before proceeding to more focused analyses and then testing of relationships. A MANOVA approach was used, which has a number of advantages (Bryman and Cramer 1999). It helps discover whether groups differ on a number of measures jointly examined. It is also a more sensitive measure of the effects of the independent variables. Further, although not a primary concern in this thesis, it reduces the probability of Type I errors when making a number of comparisons. Basic principles are similar to other parametric tests (Bryman and Cramer 1999; Pallant 2000). A brief yet comprehensive review of requirements is found in Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) (pp. 412-415). MANOVA statistical tests were conducted only in respect to data available for the 31 managers identified in the quad.

Most broadly, proposition two states that the outcomes differentiation of managers is due to the exercise of leader skills. Hence, it can be expected that managers categorised into the different quads will also differ in leader skills.

Hypothesis 3: The groups of managers differ in terms of the leader skillsets.

Two-way MANOVA: Multiple measures, factorial design with a Type III least squares method. This particular method was used to test hypothesis three following the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) that it is most appropriate for non-experimental designs with unequal numbers of cases in cells. Leader effectiveness and individual success split at the mean were cross-classified to provide the factors in accord with the quad groups. This meant comparing managers who were more effective as leaders with those who were less effective; as well as comparing managers who were

more successful as individuals with those who were less successful. Interactive, interformative, and strategic influence skills measured by the Likert-type scales were the dependent variables. The two-way design allows testing for both the main effect for each independent variable and exploring for any interaction effect. As Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) discuss, comparative factors and their effects were distinguished in a fashion convenient to appropriate statistical testing, as independent variables and dependent variables are simply labels given to the two sides of the statistical equation. Therefore, given differences rather than relationships were being investigated and theoretical directionality is not important in this case, the SPSS default settings were relied upon without one-way testing.

Bartlett's test of sphericity provided a significance of 0.0005, which indicated that the dependent variables were correlated, so multivariate tests rather than tests of between-subjects effects were appropriate in the first instance (Bryman and Cramer 1999). Box's M test provided a significance of 0.028, which meant the covariance matrices for the dependent variables were dissimilar among the groups. Strictly applied, this result queried the use of factorial testing of the hypothesis. However, Levene's test of equality of error variances provided significance levels of 0.113, 0.203, and 0.250 for interactive, interformative, and strategic influence skills, respectively. This supported equality of error variance across the groups for these dependent variables, and thus indicated factorial testing was permissible. Therefore, whilst recognising justifiable reservations, factorial testing was seen as a worthwhile exploratory analysis.

Table 5.21 summarises relevant statistical data regarding the four outcome groups of managers based on high and low values of the two factors and compared in terms of the skillsets collectively.

Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) discuss the applications and advantages of the four multivariate statistics supplied along with the F statistic by the SPSS software package. There were no discrepancies among these, so there was no concern about which result was believable. Statistical significance was achieved in all instances, so there was no need to rely on any one such as Pillai's trace, which is the criterion of choice given the research design was not ideal (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). For leader effectiveness, $F(3, 25) = 7.979$, ($p = 0.001$); and for individual success, $F(3, 25) = 3.587$, ($p = 0.21$). Further, for leader effectiveness and individual success, eta squared = 0.489 and 0.316, respectively, which indicates a large proportion of variance was explained on both counts. No interaction effects reached statistical significance $F(3, 25) = 0.247$, ($p =$

0.862), for Pillai's trace = 0.029. These results demonstrated the quad groups were statistically different on the basis of all three skillsets taken together.

Table 5.21 Multivariate tests of significance for the Manager Quad groups compared in terms of the collective leader skillsets

Factor	Name of statistic	Value	F statistic value	p value
Leader effectiveness	**Pillai's Trace**	.489	7.979	.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.511	7.979	.001
	Hotelling's Trace	.957	7.979	.001
	Roy's Largest Root	.957	7.979	.001
Individual success	**Pillai's Trace**	.316	3.587	.021
	Wilks' Lambda	.684	3.587	.021
	Hotelling's Trace	.463	3.587	.021
	Roy's Largest Root	.463	3.587	.021

Note: n = 31; minimum required cell frequency = 3, actual minimum = 4

Between-subjects effects. Table 5.22 presents statistical data on tests of between-subjects effects concerning the quad and leader skillsets. The data in Table 5.22 are presented because proposition two further advances that the quad groups differ in the *nature* of leader skills, not just in leader skills generally. The question was whether the quad outcome groups differed on the leader skillsets when these were analysed separately. To explore this more specific aspect, notwithstanding the just mentioned contrary indication of Bartlett's test of sphericity, it was considered worthwhile to further investigate the between-subjects effects. Pallant (2000) says this is permitted in view of a significant finding on the multivariate tests.

Table 5.22 Tests of between-subjects effects for the Manager Quad and leader skillsets

Factor	Skillset	F statistic Value	*p* value
Leader effectiveness	Interactive	17.714	.000
	Interformative	22.159	.000
	Strategic Influence	1.179	.287
Individual success	Interactive	.039	.845
	Interformative	.099	.755
	Strategic Influence	11.645	.002

Note: n = 31

Table 5.22 shows that when the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, three of the six differences reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.008. More effective managers differed from less effective managers on interactive leader skills $F(1, 27)$ = 17.714, (p = 0.000), and on interformative leader skills $F(1, 27)$ = 22.159, (p = 0.000). Also, more successful managers differed from less successful managers on strategic influence skills $F(1, 27)$ = 11.645, (p = 0.002). An inspection of the mean scores indicated that more effective managers rated considerably higher levels of interactive leader skills (M = 5.7294, SD = 0.5986) and similarly higher levels of interformative leader skills (M = 5.3519, SD = 0.7153), than less effective managers (M = 4.6280, SD = 0.6636) and (M = 4.0993, SD = 0.6575), respectively. Regarding strategic influence skills, more successful managers rated even higher comparative levels (M = 4.6542, SD = 0.7762) than less successful managers (M = 3.1500, SD = 1.4545), along with noticeably greater dispersion. So, whilst the multivariate tests were more appropriate statistically, their findings were reinforced by tests of between-subject effects. That is, the latter tests suggested the quad groups were distinct in terms of specific types of leader skills. These results also raised the possibility of clarifying Reality Management Theory.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 3 accepted.

Another more precise inference was drawn from proposition two, in accord with Reality Management Theory. Thus, it was suggested that managers are more or less effective as leaders and successful as individuals in consequence of their integrated degree of proficiency in *each and all* of the three skillsets, not just in consequence of their degree of overall leader skill. It was supposed to be not simply a matter of accumulated degree of skill across the sets to some overall level, regardless of whether some skills are deficient and compensated by superior levels in other skills. Overall leader skill proficiency produces outcomes, yet higher expertise in all leader skillsets was thought necessary for strong outcomes generally.

This inference reversed nomination of the variables, so that the distinct leader skills became the independent variables and the two outcomes became the dependent variables, which is logically more satisfying as well as being consistent with the casting of another, more precise hypothesis. It is noted that the precision at this stage of analysis does not extend to inferring which leader skills might determine which outcomes and hence classification into which quad group. So, acknowledging justifiable reservations, the SPSS default settings were relied upon without one-way testing since directionality was theoretically relevant only in terms of broad high/low differences rather than more precise relationships. (It may be recalled that all the hypotheses were formulated prior to any inferential statistical analyses concerning them).

Hypothesis 4: Managers who have higher interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills are more effective as leaders and more successful as individuals than managers who have lower such skills.

Multiple measures, factorial design with a sequential method. This particular MANOVA model was employed to test hypothesis four. Interactive, interformative and strategic influence skills split at the mean provided the factors in that order, as determined by Reality Management Theory. The sequential method was adopted because of this clear theoretical basis for order of factor entry. Leader effectiveness and individual success split at the mean were the dependent variables.

Table 5.23 summarises statistical data on leader skillsets relating to Manager Quad outcomes. Regarding Table 5.23, Bartlett's test of sphericity provided a significance of 0.510, which indicated that the dependent variables were uncorrelated, so tests of between-subjects effects rather than multivariate tests were appropriate (Bryman and Cramer 1999). Box's M test provided a significance of 0.784, which meant the covariance matrices for the dependent variables were similar among the groups.

Levene's test of equality of error variances provided a significance of 0.123 for leader effectiveness, and this supported the equality of error variance across the groups for this dependent variable. However, Levene's test provided a significance of 0.000 for individual success, which indicated the error variance of this dependent variable was unequal across the groups. Strictly applied, this last result bans use of factorial testing of the hypothesis in respect to success.

Table 5.23 Tests of between-subjects effects for the leader skillsets as distinct independent variables and Manager Quad outcomes

Leader skillset (independent variable)	Manager Quad outcome (dependent variable)	F statistic value	p value
Interactive	Leader effectiveness	12.102	.002
	Individual success	.052	.822
Interformative	Leader effectiveness	7.319	.012
	Individual success	.471	.499
Strategic influence	Leader effectiveness	2.227	.148
	Individual success	9.597	.005

Note: n = 31; minimum required cell frequency = 2, actual minimum = 3

Yet inspection of Table 5.23 shows a clear pattern of interactive and interformative skills differentiating managers in terms of leader effectiveness, (p = 0.002 and p = 0.012, respectively), though not individual success, (p = 0.822 and p = 0.499, respectively); whereas strategic influence skills differentiated them in terms of success (p = 0.005) but not leader effectiveness, (p = 0.148).

A more detailed presentation of results is as follows. There was a statistically significant difference on the dependent variable of leader effectiveness between managers who rated high versus low interactive leader skills $F(1, 25)$ = 12.102, (p = 0.002), eta squared = 0.326; and between managers who rated high versus low on interformative leader skills $F(1, 25)$ = 7.319, (p = 0.012), eta squared = 0.226. On individual success, there was a statistically significant difference between managers who

rated high versus low on strategic influence skills $F(1, 25) = 9.597$, ($p = 0.005$), eta squared = 0.277. An inspection of the mean scores indicated that managers with higher levels of interactive leader skills rated noticeably more effective ($M = 1.7000$, $SD = 0.4702$) than managers with lower interactive skills ($M = 1.1818$, $SD = 0.4045$). Similarly, managers with higher levels of interformative leader skills rated noticeably more effective ($M = 1.8571$, $SD = 0.3631$) than managers with lower interformative skills ($M = 1.2353$, $SD = 0.4372$). By contrast, managers with higher levels of strategic influence leader skills rated somewhat more successful ($M = 1.4000$, $SD = 0.5026$) than managers with lower strategic influence skills ($M = 1.0909$, $SD = 0.3015$), along with noticeably greater dispersion.

Accordingly, a major finding of a hypothetical kind can be logically induced from this evidence: *Managers who have relatively high interactive and interformative skills tend to be more effective as leaders, whilst managers who have comparatively high strategic influence skills tend to be more successful as individuals.* This finding concurs with the statistical evidence concerning between-subjects effects relating to hypothesis three, and together these results remain generally consistent with Reality Management Theory. Therefore, the evidence was interpreted as clarifying more precisely how leader skills determined the outcomes used to construct the Manager Quad.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 4 received partial support from the statistical evidence.

To this point, the hypotheses have been framed in terms of differences among the quad groups inferred in respect to proposition two. Now, statistical analysis is turned to examining possible relationships in regard to proposition two. The precision of inference at this stage of analysis extends to stating which leader skills might determine which outcomes and hence classification into which quad group. Directionality is theorised as important so that one-way tests are relevant.

Multivariate regression analysis. Multivariate regression analysis was utilised to further examine the theory by testing the relative contributions of leader skills to explaining the amount of change in leader effectiveness and individual success.

Analysis was undertaken in two steps, first examining leader effectiveness as the dependent variable with all 49 of the managers, and then looking at individual success as the dependent variable with the 31 managers of the smaller sample. It is noted that sample size requirements were deficient, strictly speaking, for the envisaged regression analysis, and this was undertaken only to explore possibilities. In both instances, all

variables were measured at least at interval level, thus meeting an important assumption of Pearson's *r* that underlies this regression technique. Hence, interactive, interformative, and strategic influence skills, as well as leader effectiveness, were measured in terms of scale means, whilst individual success was measured by the ratio index (s. 4.3).

It may be recalled that, according to Reality Management Theory, the exercise of leader skills produces outcomes such as leader effectiveness and individual success in a tri-step fashion: the leader skills associated with transactional leadership first, those associated with transformational leadership secondly, and those of strategic influence thirdly determining outcomes (ss. 3.3 and 3.4). Also, in particular, the lopsided exercise of strategic influence leader skills produces individual success rather than leader effectiveness, given the omission of personal networking as a confounding subset (s. 5.2.2). Hence, it is further inferred in relation to proposition two that interactive and interformative leader skills are primarily and secondarily important to the outcome of leader effectiveness, respectively; whereas those of strategic influence are singularly important to the outcome of individual success. Hypotheses five and six were formulated accordingly.

Stepwise multiple regression. Notwithstanding the theoretical aspects cited in the preceding paragraph, it was considered best to approach statistical analysis concerning these hypotheses in the same spirit of exploration as adopted elsewhere in this thesis. This meant its predictions (other than directionality) would be statistically ignored in the first instance, as befitting a greenfields theory. Further, there is some controversy concerning the use of versions of the regression procedure, and the advice of Tabachnick and Fidell (1996, p.150) is taken regarding the optimal one in this thesis. Thus, the specific technique adopted was that of stepwise (not standard or sequential) multiple regression (Pallant 2000).

Hypothesis 5: Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain the leader effectiveness of managers in that order.

Although strategic influence skills were excluded overtly from hypothesis five, this exclusion was examined by entering data on this skillset into the statistical test model. Theoretically, the first entry was for interactive skills, and the second was for interformative skills. That is, consistent with Reality Management Theory against the background literature concerning transactional and tranformational leadership, it was supposed that interactive leader skills would explain the greatest magnitude of change in

leader effectiveness, augmented by a smaller amount of change due to interformative leader skills. However, the order of statistical entry of all three variables was determined by the SPSS program's default criteria. Table 5.24 presents relevant statistical results.

Table 5.24 Stepwise multiple regression analysis showing relative contributions of leader skills to explaining leader effectiveness

Leader skill proficiency set(s) (independent variables)	Correlations between dependent variable of leader effectiveness and independent variables (R)	R square	p value
Interactive skillset alone	.828	.686	.000
Interactive and interformative skillsets combined	.865	.749	.001

Note: n = 49

From table 5.24, the R square column shows that interactive skills explained 68.6% of the variance in leader effectiveness. The addition of interformative skills explained an extra 6.3% of the variance in leader effectiveness. That is, under one-tailed conditions, after step 1, with interactive skills in the equation, R^2 = 0.686, $F(1, 47)$ = 102.59, (p = 0.000); and after step 2, with interformative skills added, R^2 = 0.749, $F(2, 46)$ = 11.56, (p = 0.001). A very sizeable total of 74.9% of the variance in leader effectiveness was explained by the combination of interactive and interformative leader skills, R^2 = 0.749, $F(2, 46)$ = 68.59, (p = 0.000). Strategic influence skills were omitted by the statistical model as not predicting change in the dependent variable of leader effectiveness. That is, interactive skills were statistically entered by the SPSS stepwise method ahead of interformative skills, with strategic influence skills eliminated by the program's default criteria.

A range of supplementary statistical data is omitted from Table 5.24 to focus analysis on the key issues of interest. However, three extra points are noteworthy (Bryman and Cramer 1999). The adjusted R square made minimal difference to the amounts of variance in the dependent variable explained by the leader skills, with 67.9%

and 5.9% respectively showing for interactive and interformative skills. The standardised regression coefficients for interactive and interformative leader skills were consistent with the inference of the main analysis (ß = 0.56 and 0.36, respectively), so it was unnecessary to account for any anomaly in those respects. There was a tolerance value of 0.476 in the cases of both interactive and interformative leader skills, which suggested little threat of multicollinearity, with its associated problems of unidimensionality and possibly unstable regression coefficients.

Thus, the statistical analysis supported the theory and expectation from the literature regarding order of importance of the skillsets, and it corroborated the irrelevance of the redefined strategic leader skills to leader effectiveness.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 5 accepted.

Next, individual success was taken as the dependent variable.

Hypothesis 6: Strategic influence skills help explain the individual success of managers.

Stepwise multiple regression. As with the previous hypothesis, stepwise multiple regression was the chosen procedure, and one-way tests were applied. Although interactive and interformative leader skills were excluded overtly from hypotheses, these omissions were examined by entering data on the skillsets into the statistical test model. Theoretically, the only entry was for strategic influence skills.

Table 5.25 displays relevant data.

From the R Square column of Table 5.25, the most prominent finding was that strategic influence skills alone accounted for 22.7% of the variance in individual success. The table shows the addition of interactive leader skills explained a further 17.5% of the variance in individual success. That is, after step 1, with strategic influence skills in the equation, $R^2 = 0.227$, $F(1, 29) = 8.53$, ($p = 0.007$); and after step 2, with interactive leader skills in the equation, $R^2 = 0.402$, $F(1, 29) = 8.19$, ($p = 0.008$). A substantial total of 40.2% of the variance in individual success was explained by the combination of strategic influence and interactive leader skills, $R^2 = 0.402$, $F(2, 28) = 9.42$, ($p = 0.001$).

The standardised regression coefficients were particularly interesting. For strategic influence ß = 0.54, which indicated a positive relationship with individual success as expected. For interactive leader skills ß = -0.42, which demonstrated a negative relationship. Although no relationship had been anticipated in this latter regard, this result is inferred to show that the exercise of interactive leader skills negates individual success, or, conversely, the lack of exercise of interactive leader skills

facilitates individual success. The adjusted *R* square made little difference to the amounts of variance in the dependent variable explained by the leader skills, with 20.1% and 15.8% respectively showing for strategic influence and interactive leader skills. Multicollinearity was unproblematic with a tolerance value of 0.981 in each case. Interformative skills were omitted by the statistical model as not predicting change in the dependent variable of individual success, as anticipated theoretically.

Table 5.25 Stepwise multiple regression analysis showing relative contributions of leader skills to explaining individual success

Leader skill proficiency set(s) (independent variables)	Correlation between dependent variable of individual success and independent variables (R)	3	R square	Þ value
Strategic influence skillset alone	.477		.227	.007
Strategic Influence and interactive skillsets combined	.634		.402	.008

Note: n = 31

Thus, statistical determination followed that implied by the theory regarding the relative importance of strategic influence skills to individual success, and the exclusion of interformative skills as irrelevant. It added another interesting detail by including interactive leader skills, if exercised, as of almost equal importance to negating individual success.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 6 accepted.

Notably these two regression analyses together support the distinction between leader effectiveness and individual success, as suggested originally by Luthans et al. (1988), and developed within this thesis in the context of leader skills.

5.5.3 Work Unit Performance: Multiple Regression and Mediation Analysis

Proposition 3 – Work unit performance is a function of leader skills. (The work unit performance proposition). (s. 3.5).

Similar theoretical reasoning applied concerning inferred relationships in respect to proposition three as in the case of proposition two. The difference was that proposition three emphasised the dependent variable of work unit performance. That variable was measured in terms of the scale mean, and relevant continuous variables employed in the preceding regression analyses were utilised.

Hypothesis 7: Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain work unit performance in that order.

Stepwise multiple regression. This procedure was chosen for the reasons stated regarding hypothesis five. Statistical analysis aimed to explore the theory by testing the contributions of leader skills to explaining the amount of change in work unit performance. Statistical testing was one-way. Theoretically, the first entry was for interactive skills, and the second was for interformative skills. Again, although strategic influence skills were excluded overtly from the hypotheses, this exclusion was examined by entering data on this skillset into the statistical test model.

Table 5.26 presents the main statistical results.

From Table 5.26, the data indicate that interactive leader skills alone were statistically determined as predicting variance in work unit performance. That is, interformative skills as well as strategic influence skills were selected out of the regression equation by the SPSS program's default selection criteria. The R Square value shows interactive skills explained 54.2% of the variance in work unit performance. That is, with strategic influence skills in the equation, $R^2 = 0.542$, $F(1, 47) = 55.65$, ($p = 0.000$), under one-tailed conditions. There was thus an important degree of explanation offered by leader skill proficiencies associated with transactional leadership. The adjusted R square of 0.532 made minimal difference to the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by interactive leader skills. As analysis isolated a single independent variable, there were no issues of multicollinearity nor standardised regression coefficient anomalies.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 7 was not supported fully by the statistical evidence.

Table 5.26 Stepwise multiple regression analysis showing the contribution of interactive leader skills to explaining work unit performance

Correlation between the interactive leader skillset and work unit performance (R)	R square	Þ value
.736	.542	.000

Note: n = 49

Once again, however, the evidence was consistent with and further clarified Reality Management Theory. That is, statistical determination of the relationship followed that of the theory regarding importance of leader skills, but restricted this importance to one set. Regarding work unit performance (as distinct from leader effectiveness) this analysis rejected the notion of an augmented leadership model established in the literature, at least in terms of leader skills rather than broad leader characteristics as the explanatory variable.

Work unit performance, leader effectiveness, and interactive leader skills. Additional clarification of the theory was sought through statistical investigation of the relationship between leader skills, leader effectiveness, and work unit performance. Bryman and Cramer (1999) argue it is a theoretical not statistical decision to distinguish between moderator and mediator variables (Baron and Kenny 1986). The difficulty of such decisions concerning leadership is illustrated by the Contingency approach generally and by Yukl's model particularly (s. 2.2.3). Given Reality Management Theory, along with considerations of levels of reality and analysis (s. 3.3.2), none of these three variables was considered a moderator, and the theorised and most logical postulate was that leader effectiveness operated as an intervening variable between interactive leader skills and work unit performance.

Mediation analysis. This question was approached through mediation testing via regression equations (Baron and Kenny 1986). Mediation is established if statistical significance is shown in regression equations for the mediator on the independent variable; for the dependent variable on the independent variable; and for the dependent

variable on the mediator, where this third regression equation includes the independent variable. Under all three conditions in the predicted direction, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be greater in the second equation than in the third equation. Theoretical directionality required one-sided tests.

Hypothesis 8: Interactive leader skills help explain work unit performance via the leader effectiveness of managers.

Concerning this eighth hypothesis, the first equation regressed leader effectiveness on interactive leader skills, R^2 = 0.686, $F(1, 47)$ = 102.591, (p = 0.000), and ß = 0.828. That is, a statistically significant 68.6% of variance in the theorised intervening variable of leader effectiveness was explained by the independent variable of interactive leader skills. This met the first requirement for mediation.

For the second equation, work unit performance was regressed on interactive leader skills R^2 = 0.542, $F(1, 47)$ = 55.651, (p = 0.000), and ß = 0.736. A statistically significant 54.2% of variance in the dependent variable of work unit performance was explained by the theorised independent variable of interactive leader skills. This met the second requirement.

For the third equation, work unit performance was regressed on both interactive leader skills and leader effectiveness R^2 = 0.639, $F(2, 46)$ = 40.709, (p = 0.000). A statistically significant 63.9% of variance in the dependent variable was explained by the combination of the independent and mediator variables. For leader effectiveness $t(2, 46)$ = 3.513, (p = 0.001), and ß = 0.555; and for interactive leader skills $t(2, 46)$ = 1.750, (p = 0.043), and ß = 0.277. These values indicate that the proposed mediator of leader effectiveness affected the dependent variable of work unit performance, and contributed twice more than interactive leader skills in explaining its variation. The effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was greater in the second equation than in the third equation. Without leader effectiveness as the intervening variable, the data suggested a quite small relationship between interactive leader skills and work unit performance. The third condition was satisfied.

Regarding this third equation, three further points are noteworthy (Bryman and Cramer 1999). The adjusted R square made minimal difference to the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by interactive leader skills, showing 62.3%. The standardised regression coefficients for interactive leader skills and work unit performance were consistent with the inference of the main analysis, so it was unnecessary to account for any anomaly in those respects. There was a tolerance value

of 0.314 in the cases of both interactive leader skills and leader effectiveness, which indicated multicollinearity was not a threat.

The statistical evidence shows that all required conditions were met to establish leader effectiveness as a strong intervening variable between interactive leader skills and work unit performance.

Conclusion: Hypothesis 8 accepted

Moreover, it may be recalled that leader effectiveness was found to be a function of both interactive and interformative skills, with a total of 74.9% of its variance explained by these combined skillsets (Table 5.24, s. 5.5.2). Work unit performance had only 54.2% of its variance explained as a function of interactive skills alone (Table 5.26). The standardised regression coefficients for interactive and interformative leader skills were consistent $ß = 0.56$ and 0.36, respectively. It was inferred that interformative leader skills therefore contributed a smaller but important part of the variance in leader effectiveness, which then contributed to work unit performance.

As expected from the principal thrust of this particular Symbolic Interactionist theory of leadership, whilst acknowledging legitimate reservations, the statistical findings favoured the view that interactive leader skills impact leader effectiveness, which in turn impacts work unit performance. These exploratory inferences are qualified by earlier noted statistically significant correlations (s. 5.3).

Figure 5.2 summarises the inferred causal model, given theoretical interpretation of the foregoing statistical evidence. The final postulated effect upon company business success is indicated for the sake of theoretical completion.

Figure 5.2 Hypothetical causal relationships among key variables of the Reality Management Theory of leadership, given the statistical evidence
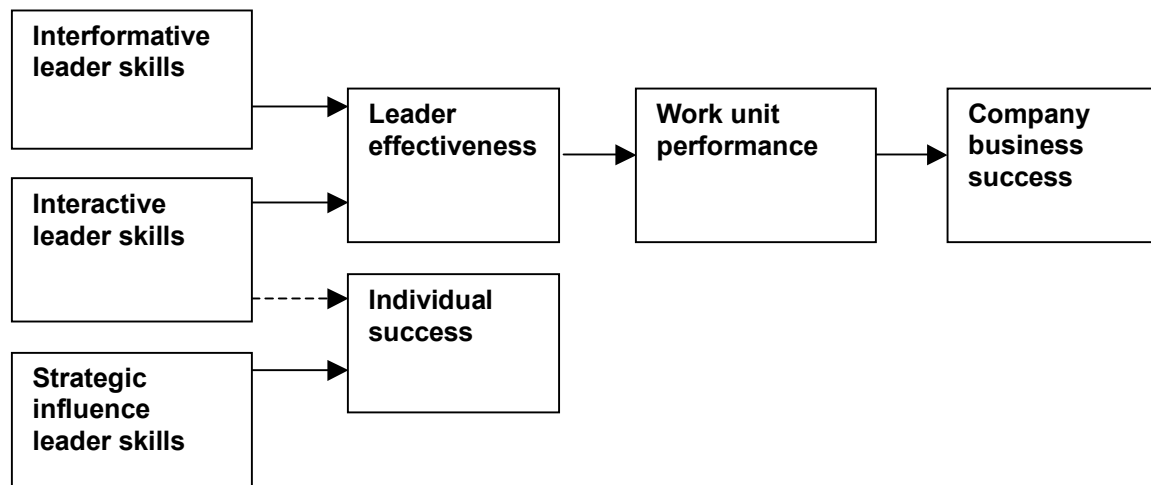
Note: Arrows indicate positive relationships, except the dashed arrow shows a negative relationship

5.5.4 Excellent Managers: Descriptive Statistics and Deductive-Probabilistic Argument

Proposition 4 – If managers display uniformly high levels of proficiency across the identified leader skillsets, then leader effectiveness, individual success, and work unit performance will accrue accordingly. (The excellent managers proposition). (s. 3.5)

The excellent managers proposition focused upon the quad cell containing managers who were found to be both effective as leaders and successful as individuals. By definition, their performance was superior in these terms. The question arose whether this was due to the relatively high level of their leader skills. There was also the question of whether their work units performed at superior levels compared to those of managers in other quad categories.

This part of the thesis was approached in two steps. First, the quad groups of managers were described in terms of key statistics. Secondly, statistical analyses were combined with these descriptions into a deductive-probabilistic argument.

Table 5.27 Distribution of mean scores for skills and outcomes among the quad groups of managers

Skills and outcomes	Student	Career	Achievement	Excellent
Interactive	4.5929	4.6588	5.7708	5.6050
Interformative	4.1014	4.0975	5.3075	5.4850
Strategic Influence	2.7243	4.5275	3.3983	4.9075
Individual Success	.3344	.7530	.2792	.7389
Leader Effectiveness	4.5329	4.4488	5.9275	5.8650
Work Unit Performance	4.9786	5.0163	5.7917	5.8225

Note: n = 31

Descriptive statistical data. Table 5.27 displays mean scores for skill and outcome variables among the quad categories of managers. Student managers scored lowest on skills and outcomes, except for interformative skills and leader effectiveness where career managers scored lowest, and individual success where achievement managers scored lowest; and even on these they scored second lowest. By contrast, excellent managers scored highest on interformative and strategic influence skills, marginally second on interactive skills, highest on work unit performance, and marginally second on both leader effectiveness and individual success. Career managers scored highest only on individual success, then marginally so, and lowest on interformative skills and leader effectiveness. Achievement managers scored marginally highest on interactive skills and leader effectiveness, and lowest on individual success. These scores fundamentally reflect the thesis with some interesting and readily understandable features. The pattern is clearest in the sizable differences on all skills and outcomes favouring excellent managers against student managers.

Deductive-probabilistic argument. Secondly, the proposition concerning excellent managers can be demonstrated via a deductive-probabilistic argument premised on the joint statistical findings of descriptive and inferential analyses.

Major premise 1: Four groups of managers were identified by cross-classification in terms of leader effectiveness and individual success.

Major premise 2: Excellent managers were defined by comparatively high leader effectiveness and individual success.

Major premise 3: Excellent managers were characterised by comparatively high leader skill proficiencies.

Minor premise 1: High leader effectiveness was statistically associated with high interactive and interformative leader skills.

Minor premise 2: High individual success was statistically associated with high strategic influence leader skills.

Minor premise 3: High work unit performance was statistically associated with high interactive leader skills.

Conclusion: Excellent managers were characterised by relatively high interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills; and in consequence they enjoyed comparatively high levels of individual success, leader effectiveness, and work unit performance. This conclusion supports the fourth proposition.

5.6 Conclusion

Concluding commentary follows generally the order of material presented in previous sections to facilitate reference back to the analyses and findings.

Representativeness. Altogether, the research program involved 17 companies, 49 work units, 43 managers, and 185 work unit members, from 15 industry sectors. Four companies provided 65.3% of the participant work units. A total of 22 work units were drawn from the retail sector. Therefore, although there was some bias in terms of four companies and the retail industry, there was still a sound spread across a number of companies and industries. Also, there was strong coverage of generic functions and organisational levels. Almost 70% of managers/supervisors were aged in the 30s and 40s, with a 20% non-response rate in this regard. Virtually 70% were also male. Generally, they had many years of supervisory experience, with $A50K+ remuneration levels. Work unit members were generally 20 to 40 year old females. Overall, it is

reasonable to assume the field program represented adequately the broader business population.

The Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI). Exploratory factor analyses reduced the original scales to an eight-item interactive leader skill scale with a reliability coefficient of 0.9137; a seven-item interformative leader skill scale with a reliability coefficient of 0.8530; and a four-item strategic influence scale with a reliability coefficient of 0.8524. These scales measure independent behavioural dimensions within a Symbolic Interactionist frame. Whilst the interactive and interformative scales measure more specific leader skillsets than initially conceptualised, they remain linked with the Transactional/Transformational leadership distinction canvassed in the literature. Although personal networking had an acceptable scale reliability of 0.8152, it confounded with strategic influence on several items. Strategic influence was reconceptualised in terms of work unit orientation *and* career advancement, and it was retained in lieu of personal networking. Furthermore, scale items remained coherent as measures as originally conceptualised even though truncation extinguished some of the formerly construed subscales, such as the individualised relationships subscale, and relocated some items, such as item 19. Collectively, therefore, the revised leader skill scales comprised a three-tiered leader skill instrument called the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI).

Comparisons with other scales. Comparative to major contemporary measures of individualised leadership, the LISI displayed some especially notable features. For instance, in regard to *reliability*, at a far more advanced stage of cumulative research, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was reported with alpha values of 0.88 for charismatic leadership, 0.83 for intellectual stimulation, 0.86 for individualised consideration, 0.78 for contingent reward, and 0.67 for management-by-exception (Avolio and Bass 1988). The MLQ/FRL was more recently cited with alpha values of 0.89 for idealised influence (charismatic leadership), 0.76 for inspirational motivation, 0.86 for intellectual stimulation, 0.89 for individualised consideration, 0.89 for contingent reward, 0.73 for management-by-exception, and 0.79 for laissez-faire leadership (Bass 1998). After ten years of research studies, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) measure of transformational leadership was reported with alpha values ranging between 0.81 and 0.91 for its five transformational leadership factors (Kouzes and Posner 1995). These are the two most cited and used of the broadbased instruments for measuring

individualised leadership. LISI reliability coefficients were therefore shown as comparatively strong.

Validity. Unlike that of the MLQ, which is arguably the most well known and utilised of present models, the LISI did not involve multicollinearity and construct validity problems (Yukl 1999; Parry and Proctor 2000). There was no basic compromise of its component measures of distinct variables. Promising face validity was achieved by a thorough examination of the literature and reliance upon prior research. This promise was borne out as detailed below in discussion of major research findings summarised in Table 5.28, where construct validity was demonstrated at highly integrated levels of hypothesis testing.

Parsimony. The LISI was also comparatively very parsimonious, with a total of 19 items. For instance, the main MLQ/FRL model retains some 70 items to measure transactional and transformational leadership (Bass 1998), 80 items in the Form 5X (Avolio et al. 1999), or 90 items in its most recent form (Tejeda et al. 2001). The more parsimonious LPI measure of transformational leadership contains some 30 statements covering its five factors (Kouzes and Posner 1995).

Further, the LISI provided an updated tripartite measure of individualised leadership, whereas the MLQ/FRL is essentially a bipartite overall scale, (since its third component measures non-leadership), and the LPI is a singular transformational scale. The LISI also measured learnable leader skills, rather than a mixture of realities.

Interestingly, Avolio et al. (1999) show increased awareness of MLQ defects in recent efforts to reduce factor cross-loadings and to produce a shorter research tool of 36 items. By contrast, the LISI appeared a strong explanatory tool at this initial research stage. These findings were particularly important in view of the amount of attention to leadership scales in the literature.

Inferences concerning item relocations. Inspection of Table 5.12 (s. 5.2.2) shows some interesting item relocations from the original scales (Appendix C). Item 52 relocated from strategic direction to interactive leader skill. This item states that managers show work unit members where the company is going in the long term. Since this item is relocated to an exchange leader skill, correlating with other obviously exchange behaviours, this suggests managers as leaders are now expected to routinely inform employees of company strategic direction, and hence strategic leadership in this limited sense is now more expected of managers generally. It further suggests long term planning is no longer imposed upon employees, but rather a matter of everyday interest

to them, and to this extent less restricted to upper management. It is consistent with current widespread concerns for employment security. This is unsurprising given long term plans have percolated down the hierarchical structure of contemporary firms. Notably, however, this is a matter of strategy implementation, not strategy formulation.

Both items 56 and 57 relocated from strategic direction to interformative leader skill. These items concerned managers showing and encouraging new ways of achieving cost reductions and quality improvements, with an implied greater importance attached to cooperative change efforts among work unit members. This suggests that aspects of what was conceived from relevant literature as strategic leadership in the sense of strategy formulation may integrate into a more generalised leader skillset in terms of its future-oriented component, instead of forming part of a third tier. Again, these can be understood readily as part of an interformative skill cluster, as they strengthen a work unit's capacity to thrive at the cutting-edge.

On the other hand, item 19 relocated from what was thought part of human resource management in an exchange sense to being integral to interformative leader skill associated with change and improvement. This item concerned constructive disciplinary intervention by managers with underperforming employees. This relocation is not so surprising in hindsight given the crucial need for work unit members to go forward together in today's rapidly changing business environment. Any degree of individual deficit can quickly reduce work unit performance and thus threaten other members' interests. Hence, there is strong leader credit for the manager who is skilful in clearly, quickly and constructively facilitating an individual's work performance when necessary.

Strategic leader skills. There was one other noteworthy leader skill scale consideration. Despite implications of some of the foregoing comments, there was an argument for considering strategic leader skills independent of generalised leader skills at the individual level. As a specialty area of managers, strategic leader skills were measured by a tripartite scale with sound reliability coefficients.

Outcome measures. Like the leader skills scales, outcome measures generally met expectations. Leader effectiveness and work unit performance were both measured by parsimonious scales. These had strong reliabilities of 0.9381 and 0.9122, respectively. The individual success index displayed very fine measurement sensitivity. All three of these dependent variable measures showed construct validity. However, the

company business success index was prey to significant non-responses and obscure linkages that precluded its further analysis.

Aside from development of measures, this thesis was further explored with descriptive statistics, statistical inferences, and deductive-probabilistic argument.

The Manager Quad. Data displayed in Table 5.20 demonstrates support for the notion of a Manager Quad at the descriptive level of outcomes (s. 5.4). It is possible that these groups might not have been so well defined empirically in accord with Reality Management Theory *even at a descriptive level*. For instance, the data might have shown, contrary to the theory, that 'exellent' managers were quite common, even more common perhaps than those in any other category. Or the data might have shown that 'achievement' managers were the least frequent in number, and so on. This descriptive support is especially notable in view of the two measures being derived from separate data sources, thus excluding any bias on that count. This Manager Quad was based upon cross-classifying averaged outcomes for leader effectiveness and individual success. Its details were as predicted by the Reality Management Theory of leadership.

Table 5.27 contains further noteworthy descriptive statistics consistent with the theoretical thrust of the Manager Quad (s. 5.5.4). On average, excellent managers had the highest performing work units and student managers had the lowest performing work units. Also, on average, career managers had only marginally better performing work units than student managers, whilst achievement managers had only marginally poorer performing work units than excellent managers.

Research hypotheses. Table 5.28 summarises results on the research hypotheses collected according to key area of deduction from Reality Management Theory. Hypothesis testing proceeded with only the reinterpreted strategic influence subscale as a measure of the third, independent tier of leader skills, and without company business success due to measurement failure. It is noted that most hypotheses were accepted in part or whole; and those with partial support helped clarify this thesis. The overview of this pattern is strongly supportive of the exploratory direction of this thesis.

Leader effectiveness versus individual success. From Table 5.28, the result of a broadly negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success (hypothesis one, s. 5.5.1) was particularly interesting because it was contrary to what is sometimes considered the conventional belief, yet consistent with a central tenet of this thesis (s. 3.3.2). The measures of individual success and leader effectiveness preclude

psychic distance as a possible alternative explanation for this negative relationship. This supported and clarified the distinction between effectiveness and success made by Luthans et al. (1988). A manager who was effective as a leader was unlikely to be successful in terms of age-related remuneration and seniority levels, and vice versa.

Table 5.28: Research hypotheses findings

Key area of deduction	Hypothesis	4 Finding
Quad: proposition 1	**1**. The groups of managers differ with a generally negative relationship between leader effectiveness and individual success.	Accepted.
	2. Managers who are more effective as leaders tend to be less successful as individuals than managers who are less effective as leaders.	Accepted.
Skills: proposition 2	**3.** The groups of managers differ in terms of the leader skillsets.	Accepted.
	4. Managers who have higher interactive, interformative and strategic influence leader skills are more effective as leaders and more successful as individuals than managers who have lower such skills.	Partial support: interactive and interformative skills distinguish managers on leader effectiveness; and strategic influence skills distinguish managers on individual success.
	5. Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain the leader effectiveness of managers in that order.	Accepted.
	6. Strategic influence skills help explain the individual success of managers.	Accepted. Added negation by interactive skills.
Work unit performance: proposition 3	**7.** Interactive and interformative leader skills help explain work unit performance in that order.	Not supported fully. Only interactive leader skills.
	8. Interactive leader skills help explain work unit performance via the leader effectiveness of managers.	Accepted.

The Manager Quad and leader skills. The results reported in Table 5.28 concerning the first two hypotheses demonstrate support for the Manager Quad in terms

of outcomes (s. 5.5.1). Further, the remaining tabulated statistical evidence support the thesis that the quad groups of managers were determined by leader skillsets in the general manner anticipated by the theory, with clarification concerning peripheral rather than central aspects. Broadly, the groups of managers were shown to differ statistically in respect to leader skillsets (hypothesis three, s. 5.5.2). This provided statistical support for the existence of a Manager Quad in terms of not only the outcomes of leader effectiveness and individual success, but also in terms of leader skillsets producing those outcomes.

Several other findings from Table 5.28 merit discussion in terms of relating leader skills to outcomes, with reference to Reality Management Theory. For instance, leader effectiveness was found to be a function of interactive and interformative skills, whereas individual success was a function of strategic influence skills (hypothesis four, s. 5.5.2). That is, managers who had high interactive leader skills were also more effective as leaders, compared to those who had low interactive skills who were also less effective as leaders. However, those who had high interactive skills were no more likely to be successful as individuals than those with low interactive skills. The same pattern held for differentiating managers in terms of interformative skills. Again, these results support the theoretical expectations of this thesis.

But the findings suggest strategic influence skills earmark managers who are successful as individuals, rather than managers who are effective as leaders. That is, work unit members attributed strategic influence skills regarding individual success, not leader effectiveness. It may be recalled that Reality Management Theory predicts that the exercise of particular leader skills generates individual success (s. 3.3.2). The theory suggested that the skillset emphasised in this respect was that of personal networking as originally conceptualised. However, given the failure of the personal networking measure and the corresponding acceptance of the redefined strategic influence measure (s. 5.2.2), this interpretation of individual success being a product of the lopsided exercise of leader skills still made sense. That is, the theory is clarified conceptually in replacing personal networking skills with the redefined strategic influence skills.

Furthermore, statistical evidence was adduced to show the degree to which different outcomes could be explained by different skillsets. Regression analyses showed that the leader effectiveness of managers was explained substantially by interactive leader skills and secondarily by interformative skills (hypothesis five, s.5.5.2); whereas individual success was explained modestly by strategic influence skills and to a

lesser degree by the absence of interactive skills (hypothesis six, s. 5.5.2). Both these sets of findings remain consistent with the theory, although providing further clarification in the latter instance.

Evidently a manager who used strategic influence skills made modest inroads into individual success, whereas interactive leader skills were counterproductive and hence to be avoided for that purpose. This can be understood within the terms of the theory. The inference here is that interactive leader skills are relevant to followers not outsiders, especially important outsiders who hold sway over managers' individual success. The use of interactive leader skills with such outsiders inappropriately treats them as followers at an exchange level. So this result remains consistent with the theory, serving to clarify rather than deny it.

Regarding hypotheses five and six, moreover, the relevant leader skills explained much more variance in leader effectiveness than in individual success (s. 5.5.2), which suggests these are indeed separate outcomes and thus not interchangeable terms meaning much the same thing as commonly assumed in the literature (s. 2.1). Hence, taken together, the regression analyses of data concerning hypotheses five and six further validated the distinction between effectiveness and success as suggested originally by Luthans et al. (1988), and developed within this thesis in the context of leader skills. Additionally, these analyses corroborate the negative relationship between these outcomes specified as leader effectiveness and individual success.

Work unit performance was demonstrated to be a function of interactive leader skills alone, without the anticipated augmentation from interformative leader skills (hypothesis seven, s. 5.5.3). The theorised irrelevance of strategic leader skills to explaining work unit performance was supported by the statistical analyses. Further, work unit performance was statistically concluded to depend upon leader effectiveness, which, in turn, depended upon interactive leader skills primarily and interformative leader skills secondarily (hypotheses five, seven, and eight; ss. 5.5.2 and 5.5.3). Again, this evidence largely fits Reality Management Theory, with clarification of detail rather than denial of key expectations.

Summarily, Reality Management Theory was illuminated more than disputed by statistical testing, at an exploratory level. The statistical evidence of this thesis shows that, as theoretically expected, the nature and level of leader skills do determine the outcomes comprising the Manager Quad. Data analysis clarified more precisely the functioning and relative importance of the different leader skills to the different outcomes.

Deductive-probabilistic argument. Additionally, deductive-probabilistic argument brought together the statistical description and the statistical inference material to bear upon the quad classification of managers, linking outcomes to skills (s. 5.5.4). Arguably, the excellent managers balanced outcomes by reason of their uniformly high skill levels across all three areas. Career managers were inclined to individual success more than leader effectiveness, and this imbalance arose from relatively high strategic influence skills, with comparatively low interformative and interactive leader skills. Achievement managers were inclined to be effective as leaders rather than successful as individuals, and this imbalance was due to comparatively high interactive and interformative leader skills, with relatively low strategic influence skills. Generally, student managers were neither effective as leaders nor successful as individuals because they lacked relatively developed skills across all three skillsets.

Excellent managers. Reality Management Theory explains that excellent managers' superior leader effectiveness and individual success result from greater overall leader skills, and their work units perform at superior levels accordingly. A central finding was that there were indeed a comparatively small number of managers who were effective as leaders as well as individually successful, with relatively highly performing work units. The existence of these excellent managers was substantiated in terms of outcomes *and skills* by theoretically guided interpretation of the statistical data, together with deductive-probabilistic argument. *Excellent managers have the most highly developed leader skillsets and consequently their definitions of the situation are most germane to commonly beneficial outcomes.*

Overall, therefore, the statistical evidence and argument demonstrate strong initial support for and clarification of Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership, the Manager Quad model, and associated operational tools, including the Leader Interaction Skill Inventory. The strength of the theory and its key concepts are indicated especially by the absence of any basic revision due to hypothesis failure.

A more complete testing of the theory and model awaits further research using, for example, longitudinal, observational, and experimental methods. This also accords with legitimate reservations concerning the exploratory use of statistical tests and some related inferences drawn above. Meanwhile, the second phase of the thesis research program concerned acquisition of leader skills and accordingly what it means to be a manager who is a leader, and this is reported in the following two chapters.

6 Acquiring Leader Skills

This chapter draws from predominantly qualitative data collected from case interviews over the period 5th March to 3rd May 2001. It is based mainly upon the interview schedule (Appendix D), associated tabulation of managers' responses (Appendix H), and intermediate qualitative data analyses (Appendix I). It addresses research questions focused upon managers' antecedents and correlates, and particularly concerning acquisition of their leader skills displayed in a business environment. This chapter reports managers' views on a range of themes, in a non-judgemental fashion, and prepares the groundwork for the following chapter.

As explained earlier (s. 4.5.3), this chapter concerns mainly descriptive data analysis, with modest inference; and it is written with a view to being considered in conjunction with the next chapter, where the emphasis is on interpretations of material summarised here.

Data analyses used the fixed grid technique (Hurworth 2000), in concert with replication logic (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Eisenhardt 1989) and pattern-matching (Yin 1994), across individual managers and the quad categories considered as cases. Drawing upon mainly the work of Miles and Huberman (1994), several specific tactics of qualitative analysis were employed to provide the material reported in this and the next chapter (Appendix N). A greater number of these tactics were employed regarding the next chapter, where they focussed upon generating meaning at more abstract and conceptual levels.

Patterns were explored at three levels. First, there is the level of managers as a whole. Do they have common characteristics? Secondly, there is the level of effectiveness versus success. Do more effective managers display characteristics different from those who are less effective, and similarly regarding degree of success? Finally, there is the level of quad sectors. Do managers in specific sectors share characteristics in contradistinction to those in other sectors?

Sections generally follow the interview schedule format (Appendix D). Thus, material in each section is initially coded by the broad case interview themes, with response details further coded by subthematic probes. This format is adopted deliberately, since these are significant themes in themselves, being taken from relevant literatures and earlier survey findings, and since the objective in this chapter is mainly to describe, leaving interpretive analysis to the next chapter. This format also facilitates the

reader's ability to construct interpretations alternative to those of the researcher, which is further enabled through the intermediate data analyses contained in Appendix I. That appendix is significant accordingly.

Section 6.1 is an account of participants and interviews that provides a context for subsequent analyses.

Section 6.2 starts with managers' reports of sources of influence upon them in their journey through life to becoming managers and, for many at least, leaders. It also examines whether they appear to have developed a social ideology informing and sustaining their leader skills. It further provides an analysis of management perspectives, followed by an examination of leadership views. Together, these explore manager/leader debate issues relating to leader skills. Patterns in managers' personal concept are then investigated. The section concludes with a tabulated profile, and associated summary and discussion.

Sections 6.3, 6.4, and 6.5 follow a similar analytical path regarding more versus less successful managers, more versus less effective managers, and the quad categories of managers, respectively.

Section 6.6 provides an overall discussion.

6.1 Interview Participants

Material was mainly from interviews of 16 managers. The choice of 16 managers and sampling procedure were discussed earlier (s. 4.2).

Table 6.1 summarises key descriptive data concerning interview participants. These interviewees provided representation from ten of the 15 surveyed industries, 12 of 17 companies, six of nine functions, and seven of nine managerial levels. Their average age was 40 years, and there was a male/female ratio of 11 to five. The gender split parallelled that of the survey. The age distribution was similar for 30 year olds, with a greater representation of 40 year olds of 44% comparative to 28.6%. Table 6.1 suggests interviewees were largely representative of surveyed managers.

Table 6.1 Interview participants: Industry, title/function, organisational level, age, gender, and quad category

Participant + Case Number + Industry Sector	Title/Function + Organisational Level	Age in years	Gender	Quad Category
Kate (15), Clothing Retail	Marketing Manager, 2 of 5 levels	42.6	F	Excellent
Vlad (45), Security Services	Operations Manager, 5 of 12 levels	37.4	M	Excellent
Roisin (17), Clothing Retail	Human Resources Manager, 2 of 5 levels	31.9	F	Excellent
Russell (6), Clothing Manufacture	Human Resources Manager, 2 of 6 levels	57.2	M	Excellent
Paula (28), Banking Retail	Customer Service Manager, 5 of 10 levels	30.4	F	Achievement
Lindy (20), Clothing Retail	Payroll Manager, 3 of 5 levels	31.3	F	Achievement
Michael (26), Employment Services	Branch Manager, 5 of 9 levels	37.5	M	Achievement
Walter (47), Security Services	Operations Manager, 5 of 12 levels	43.5	M	Achievement
Anton (16), Clothing Retail	Chief Executive Officer, 1 of 5 levels	41	M	Career
Bernie (44), Security Services	State Manager, Operations, 4 of 12 levels	42.8	M	Career
Adam (4), Agricultural Products	Manufacturing Manager, 3 of 6 levels	40.1	M	Career
Patrick (49), Publishing	Publishing Manager, 2 of 5 levels	31.1	M	Career
Stephen (27), Gas & Fuel	Senior Network Consultant, 4 of 8 levels	35.6	M	Student
John (30), Banking Retail	Branch Manager, 6 of 10 levels	40	M	Student
Gerard (37), Infrastructure Services	Manager, Metering Services, 4 of 7 levels	42.8	M	Student
Jennifer (8), Cold Storage	Human Resources Manager, 2 of 5 levels	54.3	F	Student

6.2 Managers as a Whole

The first question of analysis was whether managers as a whole displayed common characteristics? Intermedite data analyses supported such a descriptive profile of managers generally (Appendix I). Replication logic in the narrow sense is emphasised in this first analysis (Appendix M), the results of which are now reported.

Sources of influence. Managers' antecedents were explored in terms of five broad influences on their initial acquisition of leader skills. They were evenly divided on experiential streams versus identifiable events as formative influences, normally remembered positively albeit often enough negatively. They frequently mentioned deficient quality time with hard-working, money-conscious parents. Childhoods were usually characterised by adversity, challenge, independence, strictness, love of learning, lack of felt home support, maternal significance, community ties, and migrant background. Adversity took many forms and it was almost always credited with character development. They were inclined to nominate a specific person as a role model, but responses were fairly often ambiguous and varied. Ten managers cited a critical career incident from which they drew an important lesson for their commercial lives. Managers normally had multiple motives for seeking higher positions, most often money, challenge, variety, people, and career. However, they rarely embarked to be a manager, rather becoming so pursuant to career or field of endeavour.

Social ideology. Regarding social ideology, the first area of correlates of leader skill acquisition, managers expressed disparate views on the relative importance of the individual and group to organised human effort. These views focussed mostly upon the group member not leader. They saw society as more complex and symbolically meaningful than nature. They acknowledged collective definitions in social life, along with private purviews. Human free will was generally seen as bounded by various social constructions. Thus, managers validated the theoretical paradigm of this thesis. They decried an increasing selfishness in society, associated with commercial survivalism. Overall, beliefs about society and people were fluid and qualified, being couched in a sense of endemic historical change.

Management perspectives. Management perspectives comprised generally more stable though not necessarily cohesive belief systems. Managers rated themselves highly on company and industry knowledge, albeit often lacking breadth of industry experience, and sometimes with change induced uncertainty. Various business

principles were espoused, with a "fair go" being most common, and with an evident ethical base, but usually no cohesive philosophy. Respondents unanimously endorsed the distinction between effectiveness and success, and almost unanimously that managers could be effective or successful or both. Promotion resulted from the specific, valuable skill of managing images for oneself and one's company within often negative, conflictual interactions of personalities and organisational politics. They generally believed people learned to become managers and leaders, across a spectrum of views, including some important qualification concerning leaders.

Implicit theories of leadership. Implicit leadership theories similarly illustrated a richness of opinion. Respondents' views varied from the born and essentially different leader, through a born and made leader identical to a manager, to the born or made leader who was possibly not necessarily different to a manager. Leaders were nonetheless generally conceptualised as promoters and managers as implementers of a vision, à la the Transformational versus Transactional distinction (s. 2.2.4). Leaders were mainly thought of as born or partly born, but no different necessarily from managers, yet often with a rider that learning could be quite significant. Respondents were almost equally divided about leaders and followers differing radically or varying situationally. Skill was stressed as critical to leadership, and learnable, with personal qualities important to a lesser degree. Leaders were normally seen as emerging electively from interaction – although some respondents emphasised stamping by leaders – and decision catalysts rather than decision makers. The issue was considered one of behaviours, leading versus managing, not simply leader versus manager.

Overall, this argues for a genetic template/situational view of leaders and managers, with leader skill development via learning. The born leader needed to acquire skills through learning, especially those of group persuasion. People, including managers, emerged as leaders when their particular learned leader skills were situationally apposite.

Surveyed leader skills. The four surveyed leader skill areas were examined for corroborative validity and level of self-espoused proficiency. Managers usually believed they needed and used both interactive and interformative skills at fairly good levels. Personal networking in the hypothesised sense was not wrong or unreal. Rather careers depended on team performance. Personal networking was thus redundant, not normally pursued, and hence difficult to measure for this reason. Strategic influence was unanimously affirmed, though utilised unskilfully or organisationally constrained.

Combined with redundancy of personal networking, this endorsement clarified the nature of strategic influence skills as both work unit focussed yet potentially career enhancing (s. 5.2.2).

Personal concept. Finally, managers' personal concept was explored as a correlate of leader skill acquisition. Managers reported positively an open, direct, two-way communication style, and undertook public speaking as a necessary, strongly disliked chore. Their self-image was a sports loving, family-oriented, sociable, evenly balanced, and outcome-focussed extrovert. They were highly energetic, sleep efficient, and healthy.

Tabulated profile. Table 6.2 facilitates understanding the process of revealing descriptive patterns from the data in Appendices H and I. That table summarises managers' responses as a whole, according to the themes that showed similarities across a majority of managers regardless of either the distinction between effectiveness and success or quad sector. Thus, items of similarity rather than difference are included in the table. This follows the second tactic of analysis suggested by Eisenhardt (1989), as well as being consistent with the general logic of replication. Whilst the foregoing discussion more fully describes managers as a whole, Table 6.2 enables extracting their general profile at a single glance.

Summary and discussion. Generally, therefore, managers appeared to have a definite profile regarding most of the explored themes, and, of particular interest, the leader skills were supported in the fashion demonstrated in the quantitative evidence of the previous chapter. Regarding their general profile, for example, childhood adversity laced with parenting deficits seemed characteristic, yet given a generally positive hue, along with career crises engendering lessons for commercial life. Also, notably, many specific results are interesting, such as fortuitously becoming a manager, dismay at a perceived increasing selfishness in society, espoused ethics in business dealings, the challenge of public speaking, and the relatively low average hours of sleep reported by managers generally. However, themes varied frequently in one fashion or another, and this richness was glossed over the more replication logic in the narrow sense was emphasised to extract the main profile (Appendix M). Notably, also, this level of analysis was non-comparative, which is common in the literature (s. 4.5.3). So it is inconclusive whether the same profile may not fit specific groupings of managers, or work unit members, or people from other non-manager populations. This non-comparative aspect is addressed partly in the next section.

Table 6.2 General descriptive profile of managers according to managers' interview responses

Sources of influence	**Formative experiences:** *deficient quality time with hard-working, money-conscious parents* **Role model(s):** *a specific person* **Childhood**: *character developing adversity, challenge, independence, strictness, love of learning, lack of felt home support, maternal significance, community ties, and migrant background* **Critical career incident(s):** *a critical career incident provided important lessons for business life* **Motivation to be a manager:** *multiple motives for seeking higher positions, but became a manager unintentionally*
Social ideology	**Organised human effort:** *focuses upon the group member not leader* **Society and people:** *society is more complex and symbolically meaningful than nature, with endemic historical change. There are collective definitions in social life, along with private purviews. Human free will is bounded. Increasing selfishness decried*
Management perspective	**Industry and company knowledge:** *rated themselves highly on both* **Business values and orientation:** *a "fair go" and strong ethical base* **Effectiveness versus success:** *a real distinction in business life, and managers can be effective or successful or both. Promotion results from the skill of managing images within negative interactions of personalities and organisational politics* **Training and development:** *people learn to become managers and leaders. Leadership skill is learnable*
Leadership view	**Implicit theory of leadership:** *leaders are promoters and managers implementers of a vision. Skill is critical to leadership. Leaders emerge electively from interaction. Leaders catalyse decisions* **Personal networking skills:** *redundant. Careers depend on team performance* **Strategic influence skills:** *affirmed, but constrained in practice* **Interactive and interformative skills**: *need and use both at fairly good levels*
Personal concept	**Communication style:** *an open, direct, two-way communication style. Public speaking is a necessary, strongly disliked chore* **Self-image:** *a sports loving, family-oriented, sociable, evenly balanced, and outcome-focussed extrovert* **Energy levels and health:** *highly energetic, sleep efficient, and healthy*

6.3 More Versus Less Successful Managers

Turning to the effectiveness/success distinction, the same analysis path is followed from antecedents to the last of the correlates, first for more (versus less) successful managers, then for more (versus less) effective managers. *Distinctive aspects are emphasised,* consistent with the logic of differentiation (Appendix M). Notably, if such distinctive aspects amounted to little in the data, then the categories would fail to be supported empirically, even at a descriptive level.

Thus, the second question was whether more and less successful managers were differentiated in descriptive profiles? Qualitative data analyses demonstrated this (Appendices H and I).

Managers' antecedents. Regarding sources of influence, more successful managers tended to remember positive experiential streams, without emphasising work ethic or financial responsibility. They were more likely to have been influenced by businessperson role models, and unlikely by familial ones. Childhoods were comparatively inclined to reflect independence, material security, and deficits of home support and community ties. They indicated greater gains for amount of pain suffered in critical career incidents. Within a 32 percent larger motivational base, career itself was twice more often a reason for pursuing promotion as a manager.

Social ideology. Aspects of their social ideology were different. Regarding organised human effort, their main view was that the individual member and the group were equally significant and complementary, not that the member was more important. They saw society as similarly simple to nature not different and complex, were more optimistic concerning people, and believed more in bounded or nonexistent free will.

Management and leadership views. Their management perspective and leadership view each differed in important particulars. Comparatively, they claimed superior company knowledge, but inferior industry knowledge. Their business orientation was to clarity, control, and task values, as opposed to mutually supportive relationships and people values. Their views were inclined to be either quite negative or neutral/positive, instead of ambivalent, on the issue of promotion (or successful managers). They were disposed to believe in born leaders and nurtured managers, rather than a learning theory view of both. They thought the innately different leader stamped leadership yet could improve by learning people management skills, and was not a manager much less follower in different situations.

Personal concept. Finally, their personal concept varied interestingly. They liked public speaking, yet preferred writing to verbal contact inhouse. Paradoxically to the former but consistent with the latter, they saw themselves as relatively less extroverted, and both task and people focussed, not mainly people focussed. They declared notably superior energy and sleep patterns.

Table 6.3 Comparative descriptive profile of more successful managers according to managers' interview responses

Sources of influence	**Formative experiences:** *positive experiential streams, without emphasising work ethic or financial responsibility* **Role model(s):** *influenced by businesspeople (not family members)* **Childhood:** *independence, material security, and deficits of home support and community ties* **Critical career incident(s):** *greater gains for amount of pain suffered* **Motivation to be a manager:** *significantly larger motivational base, with career far more often a reason for pursuing managerial promotion*
Social ideology	**Organised human effort:** *individual member and the group were equally significant and complementary* **Society and people:** *society and nature similarly simple, more optimistic concerning people, and believed more in bounded or nonexistent free will*
Management perspective	**Industry and company knowledge:** *claimed superior company knowledge, but inferior industry knowledge* **Business values and orientation:** *clarity, control, and task values* **Effectiveness versus success: evenly** *divided between quite negative or neutral/positive views on the issue of promotion* **Training and development:** *leaders are born, yet leaders can improve by learning people management skills*
Leadership view	**Implicit theory of leadership:** *leadership is stamped, and a leader is not a manager much less follower in different situations* **Personal networking skills:** *non-distinctive* **Strategic influence skills:** *non-distinctive* **Interactive and interformative skills:** *interactive skills non-distinctive, and only marginally more likely to report a future orientation*
Personal concept	**Communication style:** *liked public speaking, but preferred writing inhouse* **Self-image:** *relatively less extroverted, and both task and people focussed* **Energy levels and health:** *notably superior energy and sleep patterns*

Summary and discussion. As in the case of managers as a whole, the foregoing verbal description can be abbreviated to show the main pattern as in Table 6.3. There were systematic differences between more versus less successful managers. Therefore it may be inferred that managers who are more successful are not accidentally so. That is, it may be inferred that there are reasons for their greater success. From this comparative evidence, those reasons seem unrelated to professed leader skills, and more related to recalled childhood experiences and ensuing business life events, belief and value systems, knowledge and communication preferences, self-image, and energy and health levels. Moreover, although not immediately obvious from their abstracted profile, more successful managers were inclined to clearer, sharper views about management and leadership (Appendices H and I).

It is apparent that the profile of more successful managers does not concur with that of managers as a whole. This is an important finding in itself. Further, the details of this discrepancy are of some interest. Most prominently, unlike managers generally, more successful managers reported positive experiential streams; childhood material security; a view of society and nature as similarly simple; a skew toward company not industry knowledge; clarity, control, and task values; a belief in born leaders who are not the same as managers, much less followers; and a liking for public speaking.

6.4 More Versus Less Effective Managers

More effective managers were also clearly distinguishable from less effective managers in terms of qualitative descriptions (Appendices H and I).

Managers' antecedents. Regarding sources of influence, they inclined to positive recollections of work ethic or financial management incidents, stressing acceptance of responsibility not personal coping. They were evenly divided on specific role models or none, in contrast to strong identifications. Their childhoods featured greater independence, companionship, and love of learning. They experienced relatively fewer and more personally productive career crises. In seeking promotion as a manager, they were twice more inclined to mention people motives, and thrice as likely enjoyed good support from bosses.

Social ideology. Regarding social ideology, they had limited differences. They were more pessimistic about society and people, and believed more in free will. They thought people lived in either private or public worlds, as much as both, (instead of only both).

Management and leadership views. There were significant differences in both their management perspective and leadership view. Their business values oriented to gaining positive commitment from their people, rather than being divided between company messages and understanding subordinates. Concerning successful managers (or the issue of promotion), they inclined to negative judgements as distinct from a range of views. They split evenly on nature versus nurture views of leaders and similarly of managers, as opposed to predominantly favouring a learning theory view of both. Whilst they divided equally in their implicit theories of leadership on the born/made and leader/manager issues, leader skill was deemed essential and interaction was said to determine emergence. This contrasted to their less effective counterparts emphasising made leaders (with a hereditary element) not necessarily different to managers, a mixture of leadership essentials, and equal division on interactional emergence and stamping. They were also inclined against personal networking in a career promotion sense, rather than being evenly divided on its use.

Personal concept. Lastly, their personal concept was distinctive. They conveyed a forthright communication style of inhouse showing, instead of writing and talking, with less likelihood of self-criticism. Their self-image was inclined to that of a gregarious leisure seeker, and less workplace-oriented.

Summary and discussion. Table 6.4 presents an abbreviation of this verbal profile. There were systematic differences between more versus less effective managers. Therefore it may be inferred that managers who are more effective also are not accidentally so. That is, it may be inferred that there are reasons for their greater effectiveness. From this comparative evidence, those reasons again seem unrelated to professed leader skills. The reasons are more related to recalled childhood experiences and ensuing business life events, belief and value systems, communication preferences, and self-image. Further, more effective managers were inclined to clearer, sharper views about management and leadership (Appendices H and I).

The profile of more effective managers differs from that of managers as a whole. Unlike managers generally, more effective managers reported positive formative incidents concerning work or finances, emphasising responsibility; childhood independence, companionship, and love of learning; more people specific motivations and boss support for becoming a manager; a belief in human free will; negative views on promotion; and an even split on nature/nurture views of leaders and managers.

> **Table 6.4 Comparative descriptive profile of more effective managers according to managers' interview responses**

Sources of influence	**Formative experiences:** *positive recollections of work ethic or financial management incidents, stressing acceptance of responsibility not personal coping* **Role model(s):** *evenly divided on specific role models or none, in contrast to strong identifications* **Childhood:** *greater independence, companionship, and love of learning* **Critical career incident(s):** *fewer, more personally productive career crises* **Motivation to be a manager:** *twice more inclined to mention people motives, and thrice as likely enjoyed good support from bosses*
Social ideology	**Organised human effort:** *non-distinctive* **Society and people:** *more pessimistic about society and people, and believed more in free will*
Management perspective	**Industry and company knowledge:** *non-distinctive* **Business values and orientation:** *gaining positive commitment from their people* **Effectiveness versus success:** *inclined to negative judgements concerning promotion* **Training and development:** *split evenly on nature versus nurture views of leaders and managers, as opposed to a predominant learning theory view of both*
Leadership view	**Implicit theory of leadership: leader skill essential.** *Emergence of leaders determined through interaction* **Personal networking skills:** *inclined against personal networking in a career promotion sense* **Strategic influence skills:** *non-distinctive* **Interactive and interformative skills:** *non-distinctive*
Personal concept	**Communication style:** *forthright inhouse showing, instead of self-critical writing and talking* **Self-image:** *more leisurely gregarious and less workplace-oriented* **Energy levels and health:** *non-distinctive*

However, perhaps most interesting is a comparison of the distinctive profiles of more successful versus more effective managers. This comparison suggests that the reasons for greater effectiveness are not wholly the same as those for greater success. This involves contrasting the two groupings of managers on the basis of already contrasted features against their 'lesser' counterparts. Hence, whereas more and less

successful managers differed on themes of knowledge preferences, and energy and health levels; more and less effective managers did not. Further, apparent thematic commonalities concealed *very different particulars*. For instance, the profiles of more successful managers versus more effective managers, respectively, included experiential streams versus specific events; support deficits versus companionship; career versus people motives; optimism versus pessimism about people; absence versus presence of free will; clarity, control, and task values versus gaining positive commitment from their people; leadership is stamped versus leaders emerge through interactions; and inhouse writing versus inhouse showing. As Luthans et al. (1988) found, more successful managers are not the same as more effective managers, despite this common assumption in the literature.

6.5 Describing the Manager Quad

The qualitative data showed that excellent, achievement, career, and student managers were also distinguished in terms of antecedents and correlates (Appendices H and I). The aim now is to consolidate these distinctions into a pattern description of each sector as a case prior to interpretation in the following chapter.

Achievement managers. Achievement managers were distinctive in many ways. Starting with antecedents, they tended to recollect specific childhood incidents stressing a work ethic or money management, and they twice cited groups as role models. Their formative years were characterised by support networks and material stringencies. They were inclined to being directly affected by career crises and gained moderate long-run wisdom from these. People-oriented motivations and encouragement from bosses especially characterised achievement managers.

In terms of correlates, achievement managers were also distinct. Their social ideology saw them uniformly pessimistic about people, and they believed in meaningfulness and human free will. Management perspective offered further distinctions. They declared a very sound knowledge of both industry and company. Their business values and orientation primarily emphasised their people, valuing empathy, support, fairness, respect, and empowerment. They also demonstrated a clear secondary emphasis on leading by example. That is, they focussed on work relationships whilst leading by example. In respect to the promotion issue, they were divided between negation and ambivalence. They were disposed to a learning theory

view of both managers and leaders. They emphasised the made, not especially different leader; and agreed unanimously on skills as essential to leadership, with some variability on other components. Personal concept was further illuminating. They strongly preferred talking, though as likely as not with showing. They held a moderately sociable self-image, and they had variable energy and sleeping habits.

Career managers. Career managers displayed a separate case pattern. They were inclined to streamlike, fairly innocuous childhood memories, and they tended to vacillate among role model options. They had rather bland lives and enjoyed material comfort during their formative years. They tended to be observers of career crises, yet derived at least moderate long-term wisdom from such events. They were twice more likely than their less successful counterparts to be career motivated in becoming a manager.

Career managers tended to believe in meaningful social life, and they uniformly held a concept of bounded human free will. They were biased toward knowing the company, not the industry. Moreover, their business values and orientation strongly stressed the company, product and planning values being emphasised, combined with fairness to their people. They were company-oriented with teamwork used as a tool for furthering company interests. They were evenly split between neutral or positive on the promotion issue. All of them believed becoming a manager was a matter of learning, but they were divided equally on natural or learned leaders. They inclined mainly to the born, intrinsically different leader, who could improve through learning. They tended to see both personal qualities and experience as essential to leadership. Regarding personal concept, they were writers, saw themselves as workplace doers, and enjoyed the highest energy levels.

Student managers. Student managers presented another distinctive pattern. They all remembered specific formative events, normally related to coping with parent related personal problems. They were clearly the worst off as children in terms of emotional and material impoverishment. Yet they unanimously nominated strong familial models. Regarding career crises, they tended to be directly and negatively affected as passive objects, with the least obvious benefits. Their motivational base involved little support by senior managers.

Student managers' thoughts on society and people were quite unsophisticated and they often freely conceded not having contemplated such issues. They nevertheless helped validate a Symbolic Interactionist view. They had a biased knowledgebase, with

excellent industry knowledge but only fair company knowledge. Their core business values and orientation immersed them in the life of their group, as captive listeners in pursuit of understanding, peace, and belonging. They were mainly ambivalent about managers who were relatively good at gaining promotion, each respondent tending to put both positive and negative views on the issue. They uniformly adopted a learning theory view of both managers and leaders. Their implicit leadership theories stressed the born and/or made, not radically different leader; and they unanimously considered skills as critical to leadership, with personal qualities also being important. They were most likely to see themselves as talkers, nurturers in workplace and home, with medium to high energy levels.

Excellent managers. Excellent managers' exhibited a fourth descriptive pattern. They were disposed to recall a positive stream of formative experience with some work ethic emphasis. Their childhood was characterised by self-sufficiency due to deficient home support and community ties. They were neatly divided between nobody and an early manager as a role model. They were proactive or quickly reactive to career crises, taking control and converting these into opportunities, with significant near-term and enduring benefits. Like career managers, they were twice more likely to be career motivated.

In respect to correlates they were further differentiated. They were uniformly optimistic about people, but believed society and nature were both a fairly meaningless series of survival events. Thus, they eschewed a Symbolic Interactionist perspective. In terms of management perspective, they tended to have a very good or excellent industry and company knowledgebase. Their business values and orientation stressed balancing company and employee interests via empowerment. They were liable to negate managers who actively sold themselves to seek promotion, viewing them as manipulative organisational politicians. They inclined to a trait account of both leaders and managers. Their implicit leadership theories strongly emphasised leaders as born to be radically different to managers and followers; but they held disparate opinions concerning essential leadership components. They preferred showing complemented with writing, most inclined to a highly sociable self-image, with medium to high energy levels.

Table 6.5 Comparative thumbnail descriptive profiles of managers classified by quad sector, according to managers' interview responses

Theme	Sub-themes	Achievement Managers	Career Managers	Student Managers	Excellent Managers
Sources of infuence	*Formative experiences:*	Specific work ethic, money incidents	Innocuous streams	Specific personal problems	Positive streams
	Role model(s):	Groups x 2	Vacillation	Strong family models	Nobody or early boss
	Childhood:	Support networks, modest material hardship	Bland lives, material comfort	Clearly most impoverished, emotionally & materially	Self-sufficient, support lacks, some material hardship
	Critical career incident(s):	Directly affected, moderate long run wisdom	Observers, at least moderate long run gains	Directly affected, passive objects, non-beneficial	Proactive or quick to react, significant benefits
	Motivation to be a manager:	People motives, boss supports	Career motives twice as likely	Little senior encouragement	Career motives twice as likely
Social ideology	*Organised human effort:*	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive
	Society and people:	Pessimistic about people. Belief in free will, meaning	Bounded free will. Belief in social meaning	Most uncertain, no considered thoughts.	Optimistic about people. Society and nature similar, both a series of events
Management perspective	*Industry and company knowledge:*	Sound knowledge of both	Excellent on company, not on industry	Excellent on industry, not on company	Very good or excellent on both
	Business values and orientation:	Mainly people, leader example	Company focus, team a tool, fair	Peaceful group immersion	People, company, balancing interests
	Effectiveness versus success:	Split: negation, ambivalence	Split: neutral, positive	Mainly ambivalent	Negative on issue of promotion
	Training and development:	Learning Theory view of leaders and managers	Managers learn. Split: leaders natural, learned	Learning Theory view of leaders and managers	Trait view of leaders and managers
Leadership view	*Implicit theory of leadership:*	Leader not different, skills essential	Leader different intrinsically, but can improve	Not different, born and/or made, skills critical	Leader born radically different
	Personal networking:	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive
	Strategic influence skills:	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive
	Interactive and interformative skills:	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive	Non-distinctive
Personal concept	*Communication style:*	Talking, with showing likely	Writing	Talking	Showing, writing complementary
	Self-image:	Fairly sociable	Work doers	Nurturers	Sociable, leisure
	Energy levels and health:	Variable energy, irregular sleep	Highest energy levels	Medium to high energy levels	Medium to high energy levels

Summary and discussion. Table 6.5 presents a descriptive sketch of quad categories comparative to each other. This permits ready comparison across each and all of the original themes regarding the quad categories, and similar tri-level comparison with reference to Tables 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4. As with earlier tables, this is an abstraction, and more so because it is so abbreviated to allow visual ease and to highlight differences between the quad categories. Tabulation is a tool for exercising the discipline of metaphor, directing analytical attention mainly to what the data indicate really matters in descriptively profiling managers. The profiles are themselves stories, although static and abstract, not evolving and interactional; conceptual and typical, not personal and idiosyncratic; predominantly descriptive not interpretive; and told by the researcher based on the stories told by managers (s. 7.1.1). In this abridged form, there are very clear distinctive patterns (stories) that differ substantially from those described earlier at other analytical levels, despite some expected similarities given a common respondent pool. Tabulation also provides a ready reckoner for interpretation in the next chapter.

The thesis research found evidence for the quad distinctions in terms of antecedents and correlates. The categories were therefore not only skill/outcome based as demonstrated in Chapter Five. Each also evidently represented a case in the sense of *describing* a type of manager. Notably, the empirical data might not have shown descriptive patterns that coincided with the skill/outcome basis of the quad categories. Additional to description, more abstract and conceptual meaning was produced through systematic interpretation, as reported in the following chapter. For this reason, further commentary on the quad is left to that chapter.

6.6 Conclusion

The foregoing tri-level analysis demonstrates that managers' views differ according to whether those views are considered in terms of managers generally, the distinction between effective versus successful managers, or the categorisation of managers into the quad cells. Those views are reported descriptively and objectively, even when there appears to be a judgemental element such as that relating to the success issue, which is most evident in the overall view of excellent managers liking successful managers to manipulative organisational politicians.

A general descriptive profile of managers. In general, managers remembered formative and childhood experiences were of deficient quality time with hard-working and money-conscious parents, offset by community ties, along with character developing

adversities. They normally became managers in the course of career and endeavour pursuits, lamented a sense of growing antisocial survivalism, and conveyed a strong personal concept. They tended to be highly energetic, sleep efficient, and healthy. These sorts of findings are interesting even at a largely descriptive level.

Some inferences. Managers' implicit leadership theories are inferred to draw from the notion of 'true' leaders as transformational leaders and managers as transactional leaders. These implicit leadership theories presented a genetic template/situational view of leaders. Respondents broadly supported a Symbolic Interactionist perspective emphasising differential association processes, Social Learning Theory, and the effectiveness/success distinction underpinning this thesis.

The views expressed by managers suggest leader skills were acquired via social learning as theorised, perhaps within a genetic template, with situational triggering. The social learning process typically involved various initial adversities that managers generally said strengthened their character. Social learning was further reflected in the relative importance assigned to role models and critical career incidents. It was evident in the general affirmation of a Symbolic Interactionist view of society and people. Learnable skills were emphasised as crucial to leadership, and there was corroboration of the hypothesised leader skills, save for the original notion of personal networking. In summary, managers supported the view that social learning was real and significant, and it may be inferred that they considered leader skills were thus acquired over lengthy periods. These results are consistent with the Reality Management Theory of leadership.

The effectiveness/success distinction. Reality Management Theory is further supported in respect to the effectiveness versus success distinction. Although also largely descriptive, this support is quite convincing, for as Eisenhardt (1989) states:

> *When a pattern from one data source is corroborated by the evidence from another, the finding is stronger and better grounded (p. 541).*

The effectiveness/success distinction was initially supported by statistical analyses of quantitative data from the surveys (ch. 5), and it was confirmed further by clear descriptive profiles emerging on the basis of the qualitative evidence from the interviews. More successful and more effective managers were distinguished from the less successful and less effective, respectively, on a range of characteristics across the major themes. It is further concluded that more successful managers tended to hold clearer, sharper views on management and leadership than their counterparts. The

same was true for more versus less effective managers. The evidence for this distinction was therefore compelling in this thesis.

In addition, the more successful and more effective managers were largely distinguished from each other, despite sharing a common subset of excellent managers. Generally, they either held different views on the same aspect, or highlighted a different aspect. For example, more successful managers recalled positive experiential streams without emphasising a work ethic or financial responsibility, materially secure childhoods, and career motivations. More effective managers remembered specific work ethic or financial management incidents, childhood companionship, and people motives. Again, more successful managers were disposed to consider leader skills acquisition in limited terms of improvement, a matter of learning people management skills, since the innately different leader was someone who stamped their leadership. More effective managers were inclined to view leader skills acquisition as essential to leadership, as the leader emerged during interaction. So, more successful managers and more effective managers differed substantially in descriptive terms.

The descriptive evidence from the thesis research corroborates the findings by Luthans et al. (1988). There do appear to be systematic differences between (more) successful managers and (more) effective managers; not only in terms of what they do and how often they do it (Luthans et al, 1988), but also in terms of both how well they do things (phase one thesis findings); and, as now found, what is reflected in their descriptive life history profiles.

Descriptive quad distinctions. A final important inference drawn here is that the effectiveness/success distinction overlays others, since the descriptive interview data showed many thematic regularities at the third, quad level of analysis. Although interesting, these quad descriptive regularities were not the only or even main concern, but were a necessary basis for further analysis. The next chapter reports on quad structure interpretive analyses, along with other significant extrapolations concerning the leadership education, development, and image of Australian managers.

7 The Meaning of Managers as Leaders

This chapter builds upon the foundations of the previous one to mainly summarise, interpret, and discuss the qualitative interview results about managers according to the quad structure. It focuses on what separates managers into the different sectors, and what may keep them distinct, with an emphasis on the excellent category. Whilst it is intended to 'get behind' the statistical analyses, there is also reference to the skill and outcome findings of Chapter Five. Findings are analysed with regard to the Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership, emphasising the ideas of differential association and defining the situation – that is, within a Symbolic Interactionist theoretical framework – and in relation to leader skills.

It is argued that the meaning of managers as leaders varies according to quad category, with excellent managers as leaders being especially worthy of emulation. As explained earlier (s. 4.5.3), this chapter is substantially interpretive in its focus on further developing theory and extrapolating important inferences. Its point of departure is from the material concerning the quad included in Appendix H, and related findings reported in Chapter Six. It particularly depends upon appreciating the position of this thesis on doing qualitative research in a case study mode (Appendix M).

As with earlier analyses (s. 6.5), *distinctive aspects are emphasised,* consistent with the logic of differentiation (Appendix M). If these distinctive aspects were unfounded empirically, then the categories would fail at descriptive and interpretive levels.

In section 7.1, the previously described distinctive patterns (s. 6.5) are interpreted and related to leader skills. This section includes brief reference to statistical results (s. 7.1.2) and to alternative explanations (s. 7.1.3).

Section 7.2 further considers excellent managers particularly, in terms of both who they were and who they were not.

Section 7.3 discusses implications of thesis evidence about enhancing manager performance.

Section 7.4 revisits the issue of Australian managers' performance in light of preceding data and analyses.

Section 7.5 provides concluding comment.

7.1 Interpreting the Manager Quad

This section *infers and interprets* the central pattern for each case from the earlier descriptions (s. 6.5), and then considers these in relation to leader skills and outcomes, before going on to suggest just who were the excellent managers in the subsequent section. In this regard, it is worth referring to and comparing Figures 3.1 (s. 3.3) and 7.1 (s. 7.1.1) as discussion proceeds. Interpretation is based in the Symbolic Interactionist paradigm, and more particularly the Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership, with reference to differential association, the definition of the situation, and Social Learning Theory. Interpretation is achieved using many of the specific tactics described by Miles and Huberman (1994) (Appendix N), with reference to the broader grid technique advanced by Hurworth (2000) (Appendix H).

7.1.1 Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns

Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns. Figure 7.1 reproduces the Manager Quad in light of the interpreted case descriptions advanced in this section. This nominates Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs) according to quad sectors. *The DILPs theoretically connect qualitative case descriptions, leader skillsets, and outcomes.*

The DILPs are conceptualised according to whether managers are typically self-oriented to their personal circumstances, other-oriented to the circumstances of people around them, or both; typically concerned with their work unit or with the overall company, or both, and whether that concern is self-serving or altruistic; the degree and nature of their leader skills; and the cross-relationships of these with the outcomes of individual success and leader effectiveness initially used to construct the Manager Quad. So two new interrelated sub-dimensions are identified, that of self/other orientation and that of work unit versus company focus. These two dimensions were induced from case descriptions (s. 6.5) based upon the tabulations of Appendix H. In effect, Appendix H details the measures and helps preserve the meaning of the qualitative data in these two regards (Eisenhardt 1989).

Four types of business identity or workplace self in the organisational environment are constructed from these two sub-dimensions and the leader skills. These two dimensions thus represent important conceptual additions to the Manager Quad, extending it theoretically, beyond the quantitative construction from leader skills related to business outcomes, to achieve analytic generalisation (Yin 1994; Miles and

Huberman 1994). The DILPs are seen as combinations of these types of self with unique outcomes. That is, the DILPs summarily state the typical association of business outcomes with business identities comprising leader skills, self/other orientation, and focal level, where those identities arise through social learning processes over lifetime differential associations. Given that identity formation including skills acquisition occur over long periods, any evidence is necessarily indirect, and this is true of the thesis research, which relies upon the recollections and self-reports of managers. Nonetheless, clear patterns may be inferred from those responses (Mason 1994).

Figure 7.1 Effectiveness and success model of managers as leaders, displaying Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns

High		
	CAREER MANAGERS **The Company-extended Self** Self-oriented Company focus Relatively high Strategic Influence skills	EXCELLENT MANAGERS **The Balanced, Masterful Self** Self/Other-oriented Company/work unit focus Integrated, proficient leader skills
	STUDENT MANAGERS **The Needful Self** Self-oriented Work unit focus Non-integrated, deficient leader skills	ACHIEVEMENT MANAGERS **The Work Unit Self** Other-oriented Work unit focus Relatively low Strategic Influence skills

Individual Success (vertical axis, Low to High)

Low — High

Leader Effectiveness

Achievement managers and the work unit self. Achievement managers' childhood memories of support networks and intimate groups as role models heralded differential associations valuing the small collective, and an excess of definitions along these lines persisted into their adult years. Their small group attachments provided succour in both early material hardship and later personalised career crises, being thus rehearsed and reinforced over time. This was compatible with their people-oriented motivations. Their pessimistic view of people could be best understood, therefore, as a distrust of freely willed individuals in favour of the small group as mutual support structure, both socially and materially. Hence, their sound knowledge of company and industry fitted a need to help master material circumstance and contribute to the welfare of the intimate, supportive group. Business values that focussed upon people, empowerment, work relationships, and leading by example were consistent with this interpretation.

So too was their learning theory view of managers and leaders, with an implicit leadership theory stressing leader skills and leaders being basically similar to others, since these concurred with notions of empowerment and mutual support structures at a localised level. Their preference for talking as a communication style, and their fairly sociable self-image fitted into the pattern. Their variable energy and sleeping habits, understandably related to childhood hardships and career crises, suggested a continuing sympathy if not identification with others, especially within a close-knit work setting.

In brief, these antecedents and correlates of achievement managers provided an excess of definitions emphasising an other-orientation to the small, closely-knit group in the workplace. The work unit became crucial to their business identity.

Career managers and the company-extended self. By contrast, career managers' streamlike, innocuous childhoods and indistinct role models suggested differential associations that never fastened onto either individuals or groups for supportive identifications. Their values and perceptions were informed by a stable, carefree, materially secure existence. This left them to float easily and independently along the river of life, thus fostering disassociation from specific events and people. This dissociative pattern became dominant as an excess of definitions favouring it accumulated in later life. For instance, they were similarly detached from career crises, since they felt secure and needed nobody, which reinforced the general tendency towards distantiation. This translated into a strong self-identification with the company, an entity created and sustained by people at a level that relied upon neither the

individual nor the small group, which thus stressed career motivation. The apparent paradox of career managers in their beliefs of meaningful social life and bounded free will could be explained accordingly. Meaningfulness was best construed at an abstract level of existence, that of broad structures and organisational symbols, not that of intimate groups much less fallible individuals. Hence, their bias toward knowing company better than industry made sense, as did their business values emphasising company interests of production, planning, and legal fairness, and use of the team as a tool in its service. Their comparatively accepting stance on promotion, although suggesting some reserve, also fitted this construction. A self-reinforcing dialectic became further established as definitions favouring material success and abstracted relationships continued accumulating over time.

Again, this interpretation accorded with their learning theory view of managers, and their implicit leadership theory that stressed the born, intrinsically different leader who needed at most to improve through learning, with leadership being essentially comprised of personal qualities and experience. It was easy to see the confidence bred by their childhood material comfort shoring-up their leadership, and becoming installed in their personalities as a seemingly inevitable product of their inheritance. Lastly, their personal concept dovetailed into this understanding, with their preferred communication style of the impersonal written word divorced from individuals and group intimacies, a self-image of workplace doers compatible with company identification, and the highest energy levels as a legacy of a worry-free life.

Career managers were thus a fine example of a self-fulfilling prophecy. Success bred success. Briefly, their antecedents and correlates involved an excess of definitions encouraging comparatively carefree materialism with dissociation from interpersonal dynamics and consequent inner-orientation. The abstract company readily became an extension of their workplace self.

Student managers and the needful self. Student managers also evinced a focal pattern. In their case it was predominantly a matter of needing to be accepted and protected at an interpersonal level, by family and other intimates, including the small workplace group. Their recollections of early formative events stressed differential associations of a relatively extreme kind, concerning lack of emotional support, material poverty, and strong familial identifications. They were directly and negatively impacted by later, uncontrolled career crises, with a lack of encouragement from senior managers. Thus, childhood needs remained unresolved and reinforced in adult business life.

Likewise, the depth of their personal needs promoted immersion in primary workgroup life, seeking support and succour. Their fairly unsophisticated worldviews could be understood as retarded development due to continuing, deeply entrenched personal problems. The mutually reinforcing absence of senior manager support and lack of company knowledgebase were also explicable along these lines. Their excellent industry knowledge might well result from scanning for options in the face of poor company prospects.

Similarly, their ambivalence concerning promotion, learning theory views of managers and leaders, and belief in leader skills, all fitted the construction formulated here. It was capped off with their personal concept of being talkers and nurturers, where this reflected their needs not those of others.

Their lives were characterised by an excess of definitions favouring a strong self-orientation due to deep personal needs for acceptance and support. Hence, they became distinguished as needfully wedded to the work unit.

Excellent managers and the balanced, masterful self. Excellent managers manifested another distinctive pattern, and they differed especially from student managers. The underlying pattern showed them as masterful, balanced, and other-oriented. Their early and later differential associations were mainly integrative experiences. They recalled positive childhood experiential streams related to a work ethic, self-sufficiency, and either a businessperson role model or none. Thus, mastery was evinced in their formative years where support deficits were met with constructive responses. Similarly, later career crises were moulded quickly into opportunities and benefits, instilling career motives, and their optimism concerning people stressed survival in the face of meaningless events. Hence, they routinely defined favourable situations for themselves and significant others. Balance was evidenced in very sound knowledge of both company and industry, and in business values focussed on tying together company and employee interests. Likewise, their other-orientation was illustrated in empowerment efforts and negative regard for active self-selling as redundant in view of team performance.

Their trait view of managers and leaders, with leaders being emphasised as born radically different, also fitted the interpretation advanced here. Hence, their masterful reactions to childhood and career obstacles translated into seemingly inevitable leadership destinies. Their preferred communication style of showing complemented by writing again suggested balancing close encounters with reaching broader audiences,

bridging personal and abstract levels. Their sociable, leisure activity self-images were compatible with balancing and mastering life pursuits within an other-oriented frame.

Altogether, antecedents and correlates combined into a pattern reflecting how they unconsciously but consistently urged themselves and others toward mutually rewarding, collective endeavours. Their life-long learning experiences saw an excess of definitions almost diametrically opposite to those of student managers. They became balanced and masterful in business identity at work unit and company levels.

Business identities, outcomes, and the DILPs. Importantly, each business identity is conceptualised in terms of the two dimensions and leader skills, because all three components characterise the manager as leader, as distinct from outcomes that arise externally in the business environment. However, the DILPs include typical outcomes precisely because these become associated with the different types of workplace self. That is, whenever a particular identity is apprehended in social situations, the typical outcome is expected to occur, so it becomes part of the larger definition of the situation. Whereas the workplace self is foremostly a matter of social learning, subject to an individual manager's free will, typical business outcomes are subject to both manager inputs and the will of significant others. A manager may take action to alter his or her business identity, acquiring new leader skills or levels of proficiency, and projecting a new image. However, he or she still needs to persuade others before these self-modifications translate into changed business outcomes.

Social Learning Theory and differential leader skills development. Moreover, on a Social Learning Theory basis, it is inferred managers' leader skills were differentially developed according to quad category, and hence according to each particular pattern of antecedents and correlates. For example, the early small group emphasis of achievement managers persisted into their worklives to foster leader skills oriented to benefiting the work unit. Contrary to this, career managers' comfortably depersonalised lives spawned a leader skills focus on promoting their company as an extension of themselves, or themselves as an embodiment of the company, which are the same thing as far as they are concerned. Student managers were overwhelmed by childhood emotional and material poverty crippling ego capacities, with negative reinforcements in their adult careers, leaving them to search continuously for affirmation and support. Their leader skills were consequently stunted and skewed into self-absorbed displays. This starkly contrasted with the case of excellent managers who were not crushed by early adversity, but rather overcame somewhat lesser though challenging formative

circumstances and later career crises. Their leader skills developed in accord with masterful, balanced, and other-oriented life rehearsals.

Story-telling. Consistent with Social Learning Theory, it is also emphasised that the foregoing patterns are plausible stories. In this respect, metaphor is dominant. Each of the quad categories is associated with a distinctive business self via interpretive reconstructions, within a Symbolic Interactionist framework. Without that paradigm, the stories told in these respects would not necessarily make sense, or at least not necessarily the same sense. It is stressed that these are not just descriptive profiles, nor simply Social Learning Theory accounts, but interpretive patterns. Further, these are conceptual stories about lifetime patterns, or, more accurately, patterns that are developed and sustained over long periods, and subject to erosion from various environmental forces including significant others, or reconstruction by individual managers, accordingly.

Unique cases, marginal managers, and statistical outliers. The metaphorical story of each quad sector, moreover, should not be confused as the story of each and every manager who may be empirically assigned to the category. This is like a statistical generalisation, where it is inappropriate to treat each and every person concerned as if he or she were the norm. The story of each manager is unique, involving specific leader skills and other characteristics. Some managers are marginal to their category, and so would not be the best example of that category. Yin's (1994) differentiation of cases as critical, extreme or unique, and revelatory is important in this respect. His extreme case is the one that particularly exemplifies some 'syndrome' or rare condition.

Hence, for instance, the four managers classified as excellent by thesis data were more or less so, and one of them was more successful and more effective than any other, including those also categorised in that sector. As the statistical outlier on thesis outcome evidence, that manager most represented the excellent category, and, in that sense, comprised a unique case in Yin's (1994) terms. This is not problematic, as it reflects the reality of a complex social world, and the collapsing of continuous data measurements to discrete ones to provide the categories. The manager concerned was simply the most typical of the class (based on outcomes), and the same applies concerning specific managers in the other categories. In future, it can be expected that the quad metaphors will be discovered in greater and more reliable detail as research data accumulate on increasingly greater numbers of managers and their unique stories.

Tactics of meaning generation. Several meaning generation tactics were employed within the Symbolic Interactionist framework to construct these stories, and to thus develop the quad at a more abstract, conceptual level than achieved in the original formulation of Reality Management Theory. The dimensions of self/other orientation, and work unit versus company focus, were induced using such tactics. The overall technique of pattern-matching interwove these tactics in iteratively examining audiotape records of interviews, transcripts (Appendix G), grid displays (Appendix H), interim analyses (Appendix I), and earlier writeups (Chapter Six).

Importantly, these tactics were employed not to confirm theoretical expectations, but to elicit *characteristics* of the differing categories of managers, *if such characterisation could be reasonably supported by interpretation of the data*. Differential characterisation was possible despite the overlaps that show similarities among managers as a whole, and among more versus less successful/effective managers; and despite contraindications that can be gleaned from the evidence concerning the quad. Such contraindications are similar data (combinations) shared by managers in different conceptual categories, or dissimilar data (combinations) found among managers in the same conceptual category. If characterisation in this way had proven unfruitful, then that would have been interesting and worthwhile to analyse and report, especially given the thesis emphasis on leader skills and the already discovered quantitative results in that respect. These tactics are illustrated substantially in Appendix N to bolster confidence in findings.

7.1.2 Comparing the Interpretive Analyses and Statistical Evidence

Additional to the confidence in results provided by illustrating key specific methods of qualitative analysis, the above interpretation of the quad can be further examined by comparison with the earlier statistical evidence. The question is how well the statistical and interpretive findings fit together. This question is addressed by looking at a few examples.

Career and achievement managers. For instance, the statistical evidence can be related to the interpretive evidence concerning differences between career and achievement managers. Statistical analysis supported the notion of individual success being positively related to strategic influence skills, and negatively related to interactive leader skills (Table 5.25, s. 5.5.2). There, career managers' strategic influence skills were comparatively high and those of achievement managers were relatively low (Table

5.27, s. 5.5.4). The leader skills of strategic influence, it may be recalled, involved interfacing and influencing important people outside the work unit (Table 5.12, s. 5.5.2). These statistical results were compatible with career managers' pattern of antecedents and correlates showing carefree materialism associated with abstract relationships, with leader skills thus centred on selling the company as themselves to outsiders. These results were likewise consistent with achievement managers' pattern of emphasising small group mutual support, with leader skills thus oriented internally to bettering the work unit. Thus, the statistical and interpretive results showed similar systematic differences between the career and achievement managers.

Achievement and excellent managers. Again, the statistical evidence can be related to the interpretive evidence concerning differences between achievement and excellent managers. In this regard, there was statistical evidence of work unit performance as a function of interactive leader skills, via leader effectiveness (s. 5.5.3). It is recalled that interactive leader skills focussed on daily interactions with work unit members concerning work goals, task assignments, performance feedback, and the like (Table 5.12, s. 5.5.2). A key difference was excellent managers' highly integrated leader skills compared to achievement managers' less integrated skills (s. 5.5.4). These statistical findings fitted the differentially developed leader skills of excellent managers stressing employee empowerment balanced with company interests, and achievement managers emphasising work unit enhancement. The statistical and interpretive results again demonstrated differences along similar lines between the achievement and excellent managers.

Student, career, and achievement managers. Another example is afforded by comparison of student, career, and achievement managers concerning the statistical and interpretive evidence. Collective statistical data were inferred to support the view that student managers' leader effectiveness and individual success deficits were a function of their poorly developed leader skillsets (s. 5.5.2; and Table 5.27, s. 5.5.4). This was understandable in terms of their pattern of self-absorbed leader skill development due to unmet personal needs, as induced from the qualitative data. Notably, career managers demonstrated poorer interformative skills and leader effectiveness, and achievement managers displayed poorer individual success, than even student managers (Table 5.27, s. 5.5.4). Even these observations fit the main interpretive patterns of career and achievement managers on a comparative basis. In

these respects, too, the statistical and interpretive evidence were consistent concerning differences among the quad cases.

Statistical corroboration from survey results. Summarily, the interpretation of results in relation to both quad patterns and associated leader skills is consistent with the statistical analyses presented in Chapter Five. That is, the differential development along the lines argued above (s. 7.1.1) is supported by the previous skill postulate findings (s. 5.6). This comparative fit was not predeterminable. This further suggests leader skills are a systematic part of the Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns.

7.1.3 Alternative Theories and Interpretations

Many authors have noted the potential importance of rival explanations for strengthening internal validity. A theory is strengthened if it is shown as better suited to the evidence than its rivals. Yin (1994) discusses this in terms of pattern-matching with mutually exclusive independent variables (pp.108-109). Pattern-matching of this kind is less applicable here, since the intent was to further conceptually develop the quad model of Reality Management Theory in an exploratory manner, rather than generate additional propositions from qualitative data for theory testing purposes.

Nonetheless, reference to alternative theories and interpretations provides another means of inspecting the above conceptual extension of the quad. This can be achieved by revisiting briefly some relevant competitive ideas from the literature on leadership. In keeping with an exploratory emphasis on conceptual development, this is done broadly, not with specific relationships. This is also illustrative not exhaustive, given the huge range of available alternatives, and those concerning strategic leadership are omitted due to their more specific focus. This shows some of the ways the meanings constructed from the qualitative data into conceptual extension of the quad fit other frameworks, and the closeness of these fits, bearing in mind the overlaps due to integration of elements from those frameworks into the particular theory of this thesis. This represents a limited examination of construct validity further to that provided by illustrating methods and fitting statistical results to interpretive analyses.

Alternative Symbolic Interactionist accounts. The Event Management Model. First, some alternative explanations in the Symbolic Interactionist paradigm may be considered. For instance, the Event Management Model was discussed earlier as especially relevant to this thesis (s. 3.1.4). In the EVM, individuals are supposed, unrealistically, to engage in complicated acts of mental juggling on a daily basis. So, for

example, the EVM would presumably account for the self-oriented, company focus of career managers as a deliberate attempt by them to manipulate reality in their own interests. This accords with its psychological reductionist bent. The conceptually extended quad entails the more realistic idea that such managers *typically* engage in self-serving behaviours due to well-worn life practices, at a taken-for-granted level of routine definitions of the situation, either cultural or habitual (s. 3.1.2). This accords with its microsociological inclination to socially structured habits of mind and behaviour. Unless or until they choose to engage in challenging processes of redefining the particulars of their life situations, career managers remain more or less bound by the metaphors of their pattern. Similar comments apply for the other categories of managers identified in the quad.

Attribution Theory. Much of Attribution Theory also fails to account very well for the qualitative interpretations represented in the quad. This is especially so for the cognitive branch of Attribution Theory, and for similar reasons as for the EVM, viz., the tendency to reduce explanation of social phenomena to psychological factors. Thus, whilst the stories told by managers differ according to quad sector, these are metaphorical stories, not ones that belong to each and every member of the category. The story of excellent managers, for example, represents a typical life history, and any specific individual's story is a variant, more or less well attuned to the overall metaphor. That is, the generated meanings are valid where the story is regarded appropriately as a social fact, not as necessarily true for all concerned individuals. Cognitive Attribution Theory tends to either ignore typical life stories, or treat each individual's life story as if it is the same as the typical life story (and vice versa), because it deals in individual cognitions not in social processes.

However, aspects of Attribution Theory are incorporated into the quad analyses in micro-sociological terms. So, the quad stories suggest managers who make internal attributions of poor performance resulting in programmed decisions of direct punishment, or external attributions producing further situation diagnosis to discover or detail the cause (s. 2.2.5), likely do so based on typical life patterns incorporating leader skills. For instance, career managers would be disposed to punitive actions directed at work unit members who, even if trying to protect the work unit, fail company interests; and enforcement can be expected due to their strategic influence skills of persuading significant others in the wider company environment.

Most importantly, the quad stories involve attributed social meanings or definitions of the situation. That is, attributions are shared in social space, with managers deploying their leader skills to facilitate a collective definition of the situation, which may or may not involve convincing followers to accept an idiosyncratic definition of the situation. Hence, for example, a typical career manager does not alone construct any social reality of punishing members who fail the company, but rather does so within collective expectations developed over time that 'this is what failure means in this work unit, and such is the consequence'. A crucial element in the typical career manager's definition prevailing in this way is nevertheless his or her strategic influence leader skills, which intimate power within the broader firm not just within the work unit, and which can help as well as hinder work unit interests (s. 2.2.5). Thus, Attribution Theory is relevant to the extended quad to the degree that it is applied at a micro-sociological level.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory. As one type of Attribution Theory, and in the sociological genre, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory therefore could ably account for much of the interpretive evidence relating to the quad, and it is a strong competitor to the Reality Management Theory (RMT) version. For instance, LMX could explain the relationships between a manager and his or her followers, whether a career, achievement, student, or excellent manager was concerned. The explanation would be according to quad profile, the dynamics of the particular group, attributional biases like the compatibility of leader authority and member affiliation values, and the degree to which managers recognise members' acceptance of their leadership, all considered at a microsociological not psychological level.

So, student managers could be typically explained as attempting to self-indulgently develop ingroup relationships with all members of the work unit regardless of circumstances. Similarly, excellent managers could be explained as using integrated leader skills to develop masterful ingroup relationships that meet the needs of both employees and firm. Career managers might develop either ingroup or outgroup relationships, with the critical determinants being attributions of company allegiance and corporate goal accomplishments. Achievement managers could similarly develop either ingroup or outgroup relationships, but with the determinants being effort and commitment for the work unit's sake.

A major drawback for LMX in regard to the interpretive evidence of the quad is that it makes no specific provision for lifetime differential associations. Hence, if LMX were used to tell the typical stories of the quad, it would not do so in quite the same way.

Rather, it is disposed to telling stories of typical managers in a lifehistory vacuum, as if their stories begin and end with their current organisational work situations. Like the EVM, it thus does not account as well as RMT for thesis evidence concerning the quad categories. Nevertheless, with appropriate riders, RMT could be considered a LMX theory of leadership.

Social Identity Theory. The Social Identity Theory (SIT) of leadership could be advanced as another explanation regarding at least some of the preceding interpretive results. This theory is especially apt to the achievement manager category, where the work unit oriented self is reminiscent of the importance of prototypicality. As a group, the work unit has its own prototype(s), or context specific, multidimensional sets of characteristics that define and distinguish it from others. In this respect, according to SIT, the achievement manager is presumed to knowingly belong to the work unit, attach emotional and value significance to membership, and allow group characteristics to influence his or her leadership. These requirements are compatible with the quad and related qualitative evidence of this thesis at an interpretive level. However, prototypicality seems less able to explain the other quad categories of managers, and most especially the career manager, whose typical company-extended self is abstracted from the small group level and favours the manager's inner orientation in a particularly non-altruistic way. On the thesis evidence, the career manager lacks grounding in any small group, the source of basic social identity requirements.

Without exhaustively reviewing other Symbolic Interactionist theories of leadership, these arguably often have a similar partial ability to account for the interpretive quad results. According to Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory managers acquire and maintain the leader mantle by earning credibility with their constituents, and this insight is compatible with the quad interpretive patterns. Thus, for instance, student managers fail on this count by focusing on their own needs instead of those of the work unit as a whole. In terms of Implicit Leadership Theory, the managers' stories reflect typical leader profiles that tend to vary with their story rather than with information about a particular leader or group performance. So, although many Symbolic Interactionist Theories resonate with the interpretive patterns of the quad in some way, none tend to account for more than parts of the overall profiles.

Trait/Grand Person. There is an element of destiny in the views of career and excellent managers, and this might be supposed to counter thesis interpretations of the quad. The trait beliefs of excellent managers are of particular note. Yet, these form part

of their interpretive profile, rather than provide a competing way of understanding that profile and the larger quad story. Their beliefs in this respect do not constitute evidence that leadership is genetically inherited, nor therefore that the profiles are better understood from a trait viewpoint. That is, trait accounts like those of excellent managers are meanings that help organise social reality, allowing them a way of understanding their own leadership. Their trait beliefs permit rationalisations for such things as mastery and balance in their case, in lieu of recognising the importance of their leader skills and how they have differentially developed those skills over time. Trait Theory is a part of their story, not an alternative to it.

So, these are only beliefs, rather than the kind of direct evidence required to establish the status of the genetic viewpoint. Indeed, a significant difficulty of Trait Theory is the impossibility of proof in the absence of being able to identify a gene for leadership. Further, these remain beliefs only of some managers. Ironically, if all managers were similarly disposed to trait thinking then their stories would not be differentiated on that count, and it would cease to have significance.

Transactional and Transformational leadership. Similarly, regarding managers' typical stories, the Transactional versus Transformational distinction is reflected at best in limited terms. Only excellent managers appear to exercise interformative leader skills in any significant manner, and then in conjunction with other leader skills, thus suggesting a blend of transactional and transformational leadership. Achievement managers' work unit focus parallels use of interactive leader skills, but only in conjunction with a lack of strategic influence skills, and hence transactional leadership might be thought exhibited in a lopsided way. Career managers and student managers, respectively, emphasise strategic influence skills and general skill deficiencies, and hence neither show much in terms of the transactional and transformational distinction. In short, the Transactional versus Transformational leadership distinction does not fit the interpretive profiles particularly well. Instead, the interpretive data of this thesis are consistent with the earlier suggested (s. 2.2.4) idea that managers need to be heroic or postheroic according to the demands of the occasion, and that excellent managers are the most capable in this respect.

Contingency approach. Theories in the Situational approach have some viability as alternative explanations of the data concerning the quad. Most notably, the definition of situations by managers as leaders provides for the sorts of factors most often directly related to the core of Contingency thinking. It is also notable, for instance, that excellent

and achievement managers value the role of subordinates in the leadership process, with leaders seen as facilitating rather than making decisions, which is suggestive of the broad Situational approach. In these senses, Reality Management Theory could be seen as another specific Situational framework.

Yet, other quad categories are less easily accounted within a Contingency frame, and the role of subordinates is more readily explained as part of recognising how leaders emerge from symbolic interactions and thus depend upon significant others, rather than indicating the dependence of leaders upon numerous situational factors for their impact. Furthermore, unlike the quad, Contingency theories generally do not emphasise the central importance of leader skills and learning of the same, and of symbols and meaningfulness, which are reflected in the conjoining of the quantitative and qualitative data in this thesis.

Still, excellent managers are especially reminiscent of the central tenet of Path-Goal Theory (P-G T), which is to marry the interests of employees and the company, where the effective leader clarifies subordinates' goals and shows how these can be achieved (paths) in concert with the firm's competitive directions (s. 2.2.3). However, P-G T does not apply so satisfactorily to other quad categories. Neither do the four P-G T nominated leadership styles fit neatly the qualitative evidence garnered and interpreted in this thesis. Again, like so much other leadership thought, in accord with a Positivist paradigm, P-G T also tends to regard human behaviour as unproblematic in meaning, as if all actors in any situation share the same basic cultural definition of it, so that only communication obstacles and the like need to be resolved, rather than more fundamental epistemological ones. The interpreted quad data suggest otherwise, showing distinct lifestories and related variability in defining situations. Although views of managers themselves, and interpreted within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm, that data are strongly coherent and far more compatible with Reality Management Theory, which emphasises meaningfulness, potentially fluid meanings, and the leader's skills in managing meaning.

Style approach. Once again, the Style approach to leadership does not adequately cover explanation via the quad categories. The quad patterns are more than styles of leadership or management. Each is a distinct profile of typical backgrounds, leader skills, and outcomes. The typical backgrounds are comprised of a range of antecedents and correlates shown as important by relevant literatures, including that on leadership before and after the Style approach became popular. The backgrounds and

skills are interpretively summarised, furthermore, into the bidimensional concept of a business identity, not behavioural styles. Hence, a style interpretation of the quad is redundant, being at best a part of its larger picture.

There is also the critical flaw of the Style approach, broadly considered, viz., that it randomly mixes behaviours together with all sorts of other phenomena, such as personality factors, genetic attributes, and so on. Of course, the extended Manager Quad also explores other territory, but it does so more systematically, with a limited additional purview of business identity, and with a clear aim to conceptually extend the quad whilst keeping its skill emphasis. In contrast to style perspectives, the quad profiles are constructed from three distinct layers of evidence: the statistical data on outcomes and leader skills; the qualitative interview descriptions of antecedents and correlates; and the interpretive analyses conjoining the first two layers. Thus, there begins the possibility of deliberate linkage among epistemological levels, rather than the unintended and confused intermingling characterising style models of leadership. So, not only is the quad a larger picture than typical style models, it is also a more integrated, systematic, and epistemological sound one.

In these respects, there are defined connections between outcome, leader skill, and background components of the quad. The quantitative and qualitative data are conjoined in highly transparent ways (Mason 1994). There is no doubt concerning the status of the central concepts of the quad and of the different forms of data employed to generate meaning. Although the fallacy of levels is a potential threat that must be kept in mind, the quad is conceptually extended in a planned way.

Tasks versus people. It remains of interest that the focus on tasks versus relationships, in its various prior theoretical forms, such as the Managerial or Leadership Grid (Blake and Mouton 1964; Blake and McCanse 1991), might provide an alternative way of explaining to the Manager Quad. Indeed, it could be thought that the quad was merely that grid in another guise.

Yet this is not the case. *All* of the quad categories allow for ambivalence between people and production, and there is no mathematical (geometric) gradient between these two factors according to quad sector, unlike with the Leadership Grid and similar models. It is not just a matter of shifting along one or the other axis to find (interactively) increasing amounts of attention to people or to tasks. This is partly because quad axes reflect outcomes of leader effectiveness and individual success, not concerns for people

and production. There is no equation of the success and effectiveness outcomes to a production versus people focus.

More importantly, the quad emphasises leader skills not simply behaviours. There is even less identification of the nature and levels of leader skills with the bifocal emphasis in earlier literatures. Also, the Leadership Grid itself is actually anchored in attitudes not behaviours (s. 2.2.2).

Perhaps most significantly, however, earlier frameworks like the Leadership Grid do not give a central place to lifetime differential learning in small groups, as does the Manager Quad. Like the LMX model, such frameworks tend to tell typical stories of managers in a social lifehistory vacuum. Equally important is the related failure of style formulations to clarify whether learning is mechanistic and 'black box' (involuntary) like that of rats; or whether it is meaningful and self-willed (voluntary) like that of sentient beings, as clearly stated in Reality Management Theory.

Thus, as conceptually extended in this thesis, the Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns bear little resemblance to task/people models exemplified in the studies associated with the Leadership Grid; the University of Michigan (job-centred versus employee-centred leaders); the Ohio State University (initiating structure versus consideration); or like approaches to leadership.

Hence, for instance, achievement managers do not attend necessarily to their people's needs with a comfortable work tempo, as do managers practicing country club management in the Grid model. Work efforts are at whatever tempo is commensurate to ensuring work unit welfare. Their people emphasis is an important part of their story, but it is not the whole story. That story includes material things like getting results, especially at a localised level. The level and nature of their leader skills are directed toward doing so more than adequately, though not so well as excellent managers. The work unit self of achievement managers is not equivalent to stressing people, relationships, or employee development at the expense of tasks, work methods, goals, or production, which are the more simple emphases of Style models generally. Achievement managers are other-oriented, not self-oriented, but this not mean an exclusive emphasis on their people.

By contrast, student managers do appear to be overly concerned with their people. But this is in a shallow sense, since they are basically self-oriented, not other-oriented. Their idea of nurturing is to meet their own unresolved needs rather than those of their people. One inference here is that if attention to planning, goal, and production

issues were to meet their own needs, then managers in the student sector would emphasise such instead and at the cost of their people's needs. It is readily inferred that their work unit members are attuned to these realities, and that is why such managers are attributed to be relatively ineffective leaders. Thus, they do not neatly adopt the impoverished management style of the Managerial Grid, even though that is likely, since they lack the leader skills required to do better.

Likewise, career managers are unconcerned with their people except to the point that it serves their own, company equated interests. It is also easily inferred that if their interests were not seen as identical with those of the company, then career managers would be equally unconcerned with the company's welfare. Along with the nature and level of leader skills, the difference between a self-orientation and an other-orientation is largely missing in the Managerial Grid and similar formulations.

On the other hand, at first glance, excellent managers do seem to fit the notion of a 9,9 leader, since they balance committed people and work accomplishments at very high levels. Yet even they cannot be so equated, since excellent managers supposedly reflect the best of leadership, whereas the 9,9 leader is qualified as not always being the most appropriate (s. 2.2.2). Again, the fit is via the very different mechanism of leader skills not mere behavioural style (much less attitudes). In this respect, ironically, excellent managers are considered to reflect an application of the idea of versatility (Blake and Mouton 1964, 1982), in that they judiciously utilise the correct mix of leader skills according to each occasion.

Indeed, the quad is fundamentally distinguished from other grid formulations by this emphasis on leader skills, with leaders conceived as variably deploying those skills to make symbols and manage meaning; and, in its extended version, by a particular bidimensional notion of business identity; and, in both respects, by the explicit inclusion of lifetime differential social learning as a key component.

Parsimony. Even so, the DILP model remains arguably more parsimonious than those in the Style and other approaches. It does not suffer from a confusion of levels, and it has a relatively small number of central concepts, even though it extends the Manager Quad in both ways. Despite extension, it is conceptually more clean and concise than typical competing frameworks. Aside from those already mentioned directly above, for instance, the Situational Leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard (1982), and the Least Preferred Co-worker model of Fiedler (1967, 1978, 1987), both are more complex and suffer internal validity threats due to fallacy of levels problems. Notably, in

future studies examining the Manager Quad with fresh data, the conceptual extension itself can be omitted, included, or separated out for testing in its own right.

McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory. Lastly, although strictly speaking a theory of human motivation rather than of leadership, it is also worth briefly re-examining McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory (ANT), both because motivation theory is related to leadership theory generally, and because McClelland's theory was considered in the initial formulation of Reality Management Theory (s. 3.3.2). In this respect, ANT remains potentially relevant, although in a different way to that first considered.

Thus, it could be argued that, with the replacement of personal networking skills by the reformulation of strategic influence skills (s. 5.2.2), and the latter's incorporation concerning the distinct selves associated with career and achievement managers (s. 7.1.1), McClelland's concepts of a need for personal power and a need for institutional power may relate to career and achievement managers, respectively. Coincidentally, it might also be surmised that achievement managers have an affinity with achievement needs in McClelland's sense. Further, his need for affiliation seems especially apt to achievement managers. It remains the case that, from a differential association perspective, these needs arise via lifetime small group learning.

However, his theory does not readily fit the empirically extended quad in other ways. So, affiliation needs also seem to be highly relevant to the needful self of student managers, although in a specifically self-oriented fashion that is not evinced in McClelland's conceptualization. Most importantly, the balanced, masterful self of the excellent manager seems best understood to reflect the range of human motivations, and hence, in terms of McClelland's theory, such managers have needs for institutional and personal power, for achievement, and for affiliation. Future research on the quad would benefit from further consideration of motivation theory generally and ANT particularly.

A final comment. The foregoing discussion of rival theoretical frameworks is necessarily limited, given the enormous number of alternatives canvassed in relevant research literatures, and that no specific propositions were advanced for the scrutiny of alternative explanations. The aim has been only to provide a thumbnail sketch of the comparative worth of the extended Manager Quad.

This sketch indicates that, although there are understandable overlaps with other Symbolic Interactionist accounts, Reality Management Theory offers a superior theoretical frame for interpreting the qualitative data and thus extending conceptually the

Manager Quad. The competing broad approaches to leadership also provide overlaps, since many of their elements were selectively integrated into RMT, but considered separately these are even less satisfactory in theoretically accounting for the qualitative evidence of this study. Specific elements of leadership theory, as well as Acquired Needs Theory of motivation, warrant further consideration in future RMT research. This brief comparison suggests the interpreted quad model potentially provides insights into business leadership that are not readily obtained from existing ideas in the literature.

7.1.4 Summary

The processes of pattern-matching and interpretation demonstrated distinctions among managers not only in descriptive terms but also in theoretical terms. These were named Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs), to distinguish them from the purely descriptive distinctions demonstrated in the data, and to emphasise they were interpretive in terms of Reality Management Theory. Appended illustration of some specific methods clarified how the patterns were developed from the data, enhancing confidence in the interpretive results. Additional confidence was gained by exemplifying the fit between these interpretive findings and earlier statistical results, thus also embellishing the patterns through ready association with distinct leader skill developments. The joint use of survey and case interview data corroborated the Manager Quad. The quad approach was strengthened further by consideration of alternative theories regarding the conceptual extension of this thesis.

7.2 Who were the Excellent Managers?

This brings us to consider further who were the excellent managers. Notably, consistent with postmodernist emphases on the 'other', they were not characterised in the same ways as managers who were categorised into the other sectors. Nor were their defining features shared by other quad sectors. This dual faceted comprehension was largely demonstrated in the DILPs, which complied with the Reality Management Theory of leadership.

Deploying leader skills to manage social reality. As elicited in the above interpretation of quad patterns, excellent managers became masterful and balanced in their business identity. Social learning processes in their case involved behavioural routines concerned foremostly with the management of reality for both the manager and

significant others. Among other things, this meant they were distinguished in terms of expressed behaviours, not just inner qualities or personality. It was excellent managers' leader behavioural expertise that was acknowledged by other actors.

Interestingly, though, these behaviours were typically not practiced in a conscious, intentional manner. Excellent managers normally never recognised Symbolic Interactionism, because symbol mastery was embedded in their taken-for-granted everyday lives. Rehearsal nevertheless increasingly enhanced ease and accuracy of repetition of their focal behavioural patterns. Thus, these focussed behaviours were translated into proficient leader skills. Excellent managers were people whose life experiences exposed them to differential associations favouring leader skills that enabled them to manage social realities and define themselves accordingly, and hence to induce others to affirm their leader mantle.

Subtle differentiation. Even so, there were sometimes quite fine, but important life differentials between excellent managers and others. For instance, excellent managers were *more* sociable than achievement managers, and they placed greater stress on leisure pursuits. Also, for example, contrary to career managers, their sense of inevitable leadership arose from mastery of poor circumstances not the blessing of material comforts. Again, unlike the negation of student managers, from an early age their responses to adversity were consistently positive. Yet neither were they as unfortunate as student managers. Thus, to understand who were the excellent managers, it is necessary to understand whom they were not as well, and to appreciate occasionally subtle, yet real, related distinctions. Both obvious and fine distinctions were involved in their differentially learning leader skills that defined them against other manager types.

Statistical and qualitative evidence. Again, this construction concerning excellent managers' leader skillsets aligns with earlier statistical analyses and deductive-probabilistic argument (ss. 5.5.4 and 5.6). The statistical evidence and associated argument demonstrated excellent managers possessed high-order interactive, interformative, and strategic influence skills, which facilitated leader effectiveness, work unit performance, and individual success. This was compatible with the qualitative evidence of excellent managers developing masterful and balanced behaviours, and hence displaying leader skills oriented to a marriage of employees' and company interests.

Shared characteristics and their import. However, they did share characteristics and degrees of characteristics with other types of managers. Hence, whilst there were

comparatively few gaps in the patterns, none of the quad categories of managers were distinctive regarding their beliefs about either organised human effort or the hypothesised leader skillsets. Further, unlike achievement and student managers, excellent and career managers were not motivationally distinctive concerning their relatively greater career emphasis and related greater success. Again, both excellent and student managers reported medium to high energy levels, and consistent sleep. Thus, along with the other categories, excellent managers helped define managers generally.

These points might appear obvious and, on face value, of little import. Yet their significance could hardly be more compelling. Excellent managers were not achievement, career, nor student managers, and the latter were not excellent managers, but together they all constituted managers as a whole. Thus, excellent managers differed in some important respects, but they nonetheless shared characteristics with other sorts of managers. They were not super people or heroic leaders in the sense of being a breed apart from normal folk. Training and development programs must ignore neither the characteristics definitive of each category nor those common to managers. As ordinary individuals, excellent managers could both teach and learn from others.

Not only 'top' managers. Finally, this thesis suggests excellent managers were not simply 'top' managers like CEOs or executive managers, much less in multinational firms, as so often intimated in the literature (s. 2.3). Indeed, the CEO involved in this thesis was categorised into the career sector, obviously successful but not so effective relative to many other managers. Further, the excellent managers here included a middle manager. Two of the other three managers in the excellent category were executives in medium-sized firms, with one executive in a large, multinational company. Confidentiality agreements preclude further identifying these managers (s. 4.6).

In sum. Excellent managers were masters of their own destiny and pro-social exemplars in this respect. Unsurprisingly, they were reminiscent of the visionary leader. But, as indicated by some of the managers interviewed, visionary or charismatic leader skills are learnable, although the process may be slow, commonly unconscious, and concealed among life's events. Above all, excellent managers were ordinary people, at various organisational levels, who learned leader skill proficiencies focussed on managing social reality. Finally, the distinctive quad patterns and associated differential leader skills acquisition and outcomes, with excellent managers as the exemplar, have

important further implications for management education and the issue of poor performance by Australian managers.

7.3 Enhancing Manager Performance

It was earlier posited that, with insight, managers can consciously change their behavioural patterns (s. 3.1.3), and the following is based on this learning theory assumption. Research findings substantiated the quad in terms of Differential Interpreted Life Patterns, with related leader skillsets and performance outcomes. This suggests two sorts of considerations for enhancing manager performance. First, there are broad implications for leader training and development programs. Second, there are particular educational implications for the different quad categories.

Leader training and development programs: Leader skill diagnostic tools. In the first respect, a set of theoretically framed diagnostic tools was derived from research results. These tools permit analysis of leader skill learning needs for individuals and firms. Framed by Reality Management Theory (RMT) of individualised leadership within a Symbolic Interactionist approach, these tools comprise the Manager Quad based on outcome measures, the Leader Action Charactersitics Set (LACS), the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI), and the Differential Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs) (ss. 3.3.2, 5.2.2, and 7.1).

Assigning managers to quad sectors. A manager can be assigned to a quad sector according to work unit member and manager questionnaire measures of the manager's leader effectiveness and individual success. Alternatively, a manager can be assigned to a sector according to interview details on antecedents and correlates of leadership that identify the manager's DILP. A manager's leader skillset (LISI) measures can be calculated from the work unit member questionnaire scales. The two methods of assignment and LISI serve as a triple checking mechanism, as these should be consistent theoretically. That is, each assignment method should place a manager in the same quad sector, and this should be generally confirmed by the nature and level of LISI measured leader skills.

Future research modifications. Future research findings can be compared against thesis results to verify, modify, or refute them. In view of this thesis' exploratory nature, it is advisable initially to continue using LACS for basic research to further assure development of the Reality Management Theory and the diagnostic framework. However, given the strength of results, this may be expected to modify at most the

diagnostic framework. Nonetheless, LACS items define a greater number of specific leader behaviours that are educationally useful, compared to LISI where many are correlationally redundant for measurement purposes.

Customised training solutions. Thesis findings therefore allow diagnosis of managers' leader skills, of a firm's mix of manager types, and of the associated leader skills profile for a firm (ss. 5.6 and 7.1.1). This facilitates strengthening each manager's leader skillset in a highly specific fashion according to his or her particular lifestory, within the company context. Programs can be tailored to include personal counselling where appropriate and agreed, and these can be readily structured for confidentiality. Customised training and development options thus avoid wasteful and potentially useless or even counterproductive off-the-shelf approaches that are so commonly employed in today's business world.

The skill development focus would help motivate managers to engage in leadership enhancement, especially where personal issues are involved, as these can be wrapped into the program as an ancillary rather than highlighted as a potential personality threat. The skill focus also has crucial stand-alone value, as it is very useful for training and development objectives, allowing concrete, measurable, and relevant achievement criteria. This contrasts with reliance upon vague leader skills, or leader skills confounded with generalised manager competencies, or (admittedly valuable) basic communication and interpersonal skills that alone are not well targeted to leadership.

Therefore, it is possible to obtain quite specific diagnoses with thesis tools and hence establish highly individualised training and development programs. There are also training and development implications according to quad sector (ss. 5.6 and 7.1.1).

Educational programs and quad sectors. Student managers. Take student managers for example. They are clearly in management positions requiring the exercise of leadership and the motivation of direct reports towards company missions. Yet, thesis data intimated they are ill-equipped with leader skills to undertake their leadership role. There are two solutions to this hiatus. These managers can be replaced. However, usually this involves considerable costs, and their replacements may be deficient. The second solution is to make a relatively small investment in leader training and development with the real possibility of substantial human resource gains.

In their case, the thesis findings present strong recommendations. For instance, there is an apparent need to address deep-seated personal issues as part of their

enhancement program. Mentors are especially indicated, as the absence of strong business role models was distinctive in their DILP. However, mentoring student managers would require considerable understanding and tact, so it is unlikely career managers would be suited to this task and they should consequently be avoided for the purpose. Excellent managers would be fine, but so may achievement managers in view of their characteristic people emphasis.

Career challenges can be set to encourage student managers to proactively and positively respond, with active mentor guidance. They could be encouraged also to excise enmeshment with their work unit via a series of seminars and exercises dealing with appropriate business relationships. Last but not least, student managers generally require leader skill development across the nominated skillsets, and this can be tailored even more finely for each manager through LACS/LISI administration.

Career managers. Career managers also have distinct learning needs as a quad category. The overall objective would be to upgrade career managers' leader effectiveness to balance their individual success. The data suggested, for example, that they could be introduced fruitfully to small group dynamics in laboratory practice workshops with two-way mirrors and/or audio-visual playback facilities. These would focus upon micro-skills of empathic listening and engagement of group members at a more personal level than characteristic of career managers. Mentoring with excellent managers could be useful. The leader skills likely to be of greatest import to career managers in training and development programs are those related to transactional and transformational leadership. These interactive and interformative leader skills could be more finely tuned into a customised enhancement program with data collection via the aforementioned diagnostic tools.

Achievement managers. Achievement managers would benefit categorically, for example, from a training and development emphasis upon a broader purview of the company scene. Thesis evidence implied a characteristic need for strategic influence leader skills. They require input permitting them to be more self-oriented and showing how to pursue career development without surrendering their people motivations. Again, a mentoring scheme could be very useful, involving excellent managers or career managers. A values-based discussion seminar series could also be profitable if designed to challenge their tendency to be exclusively other-oriented. Additionally, diagnostic finetuning could help tailor an enhancement program in terms of interactive and interformative leader skills.

Excellent managers. Excellent managers could also profit from leader skill enhancement interventions. Perhaps most particularly, they could be exposed to interventions aiming to uncover their taken-for-granted assumptions about leadership, to demonstrate how they themselves are symbol masters, and how therefore they might become even more proficient leaders through conscious practice. This would involve explicating their implicit leadership theories and challenging these. A series of lectures and seminars might be most useful, given their overall leader skill proficiencies. Nonetheless, these could be supplemented with specific leader skill interventions on-the-job, designed after diagnostic applications.

The general inference here is that quad-based categorical management education programs provide a middle option to currently popular broad off-the-shelf programs or personal counselling for managers. That is, four quite distinct programs can be developed on a MQ/RMT basis. This middle option, however, remains highly flexible both in adaptation to a particular company or group of managers, and in adjunct programs tailored to specific managers' needs.

Concluding remarks. The above discussion is indicative not exhaustive, drawing out only some of the management education implications of thesis research for illustration. In all cases, moreover, leader skill training could be greatly enhanced by on-the-job before and after interventions. That is, diagnostics could be applied prior to leader skill training, with subsequent real-life practice in work unit and company contexts, then again in follow-up skill improvement feedback. Also, the Symbolic Interactionist approach along with RMT of leadership, the diagnostic tools, and leader skill learning implications, could be part of a larger program of enhanced manager performance.

To summarise, it is inferred from thesis evidence that there are strong gains to be made in management education regarding leader skills development and performance outcomes. These gains concern diagnostic tools, the DILPs, and customised enhancement programs for individuals and firms. Such management education considerations are suggestive concerning the general reputation of Australian managers, as well as future research.

7.4 Australian Managers Revisited

The implications of this thesis for Australian managers are now highlighted, including the role of image and the need for image reconstruction in Australian

enterprise efforts at the levels of governments and their agencies, peak business bodies, companies, and the broader community.

Excellent managers in the State of Victoria, Australia. The 'pinnacle of success' denotes all of what it means to be both successful and effective in one's endeavours or chosen career. Although it can be misplaced as a description of CEOs, executive managers, departmental heads, and so on, as it presumes effectiveness as well as success, it was an appropriate descriptor of four managers studied in this thesis. The foregoing arguments and evidence showed excellent managers actually exist. They were found in the western suburbs of Melbourne, and more broadly in the State of Victoria.

As expected, they were comparatively scarce. Furthermore, they did not reside only at the organisational summit, as sometimes implied by researchers, especially on strategic leadership within the Stratified Systems Theory framework (Jacobs and Lewis 1992; Sashkin 1992), and on organisational change (Bennis 1989). Rather they were found more widely dispersed as inferred by other writers (Tichy and Devanna 1986; Kouzes and Posner 1995; Bass 1998), and hypothesised from Reality Management Theory. Also, along with these excellent managers, both career and achievement managers were discovered to have worthwhile leader skills.

An image of Australian managers. In these respects, some inferences can be drawn concerning Australian managers' image, especially overseas. For example, career managers might not be most appropriate to cross-cultural business efforts. Within Australia's multicultural business environment, career managers were identified as selling-oriented rather than empathic, and, hence, their leader skills appeared not optimally suited to appreciating overseas cultural emphases and needs. On the other hand, both excellent and achievement managers had implied capacities in cross-cultural understandings, since both demonstrated altruistic leader skills in Australia's multicultural business context, so they could be fruitfully employed in overseas business contexts. Achievement managers, however, would require internal company recognition before their leader skills could be appropriately enlisted for this purpose.

Yet Australian managers lack competitive leader skills and even awareness of the need, according to the Karpin (1995) report commissioned by the then Federal Government (s. 1.1). Much subsequent Australian management education, government policy, and business strategy has been premised upon this belief. It may remain so in certain instances, perhaps highlighted by high-profile cases (Ashkanasy 2000). This

thesis suggests this is an unwarranted generalisation, fostered perhaps by the company-interested selling bias of career managers and the self-engrossed ineptitude of student managers. Accordingly, government policy, business strategies, and management programs based upon it are likely to be amiss.

Nonetheless, whilst not entirely deserved according to this thesis, Australian managers have an image problem. Indeed, this may have been exacerbated by apparent legitimation from earlier research and government efforts to assist Australian managers to identify and rectify perceived widespread leader skill deficits.

The challenge of image reconstruction. Although Karpin (1994) did not intend exacerbating this stereotype of poor leadership, the challenge now is to reconstruct the image of Australian managers as leaders, to remedy the untruth as well as address the truth of their leader skill deficits. This can be done only if additional research follows this thesis to more precisely discover, and then promulgate, patterns and implications concerning Australian managers and their leader skillsets. Yet such dedicated basic research alone is inadequate. It requires support from businesses, governments, and the wider community, and this begins with the belief that there are indeed excellent managers dispersed in our midst.

Real managers and their typical stories. The question arises as to the status of these excellent managers, and that of their quad colleagues. For instance, are they the 'ideal manager', as described by a set of characteristics given by reputed Australian leaders in management thinking (Wawm and Green 1995)? Or, Sinclair (1998) says leadership is

> *a social construction, a relationship that requires constant demonstration and legitimation. I propose the concept of leadership as an archetype… (p. 16) in the Jungian sense of a*
>
> *…powerful image or understanding which exists in the collective unconscious of people (p. 30).*

Do excellent managers represent an archetypal leader? It is argued these managers were *empirically* demonstrated to be excellent, unlike the 'ideal manager' or 'leader as archetype'. That is, the concept of 'excellent manager' is neither an ideal aspiration nor guiding cultural myth. It is not ideationally divorced from the real world of today's business life. It is an ideal type in the Weberian sense of a metaphor drawn from the real business world, with features abstracted from that world yet firmly anchored in it.

More generally, The Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns described 'real managers' like those studied by Luthans et al. (1988), which were the progenitors of this

thesis (s. 1.1). Although the DILPs represent typical life stories, rather than being equivalent to the story of each and every manager, each DILP metaphor is empirically based, and therefore can serve as a practical guide for policy actions and business strategies in leadership development.

Summarily, this thesis suggests Australian managers, due to lifelong social learning, are differentiated in terms of culturally based business identities (including leader skillsets) and outcomes; and these are not simply understood by reference to popular businessperson success stories. There is a need for greater recognition of different categories of managers and associated leader skills in management education, government policy, and business strategy. The quad, associated theory, and diagnostic framework provide one empirically promising approach.

7.5 Conclusion

Meanings and methods. To conclude, the meaning of managers as leaders varied according to quad category. This was not merely descriptive variation. Managers' different patterns of antecedents and correlates were interpreted in relation to leader skills and performance outcomes. So, although initially generated from Reality Management Theory through deduction based in extant literature, the Manager Quad was elaborated through induction. This employed broad qualitative analysis techniques plus several specific meaning generation tactics within a Symbolic Interactionist paradigm. Consideration of both earlier statistical findings and alternative theories and interpretations further strengthened analysis. This shows the power of a conjoint quantitative and qualitative methodology.

Conceptual extension of the quad. Notably, the intent in this thesis was limited to extending conceptually the Manager Quad, rather than suggesting new propositions and shaping additional hypotheses. The latter are reserved for future research programs. The interpretive process conceptually extended the Manager Quad and further validated Reality Management Theory.

Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns. Four types of workplace self were constructed from the qualitative interview data, and these were integrated with corresponding outcome differentials based on the quantitative survey evidence. Elaboration concerned each of the different selves as a cross-referencing of inner/other orientations, work unit/company focus, and leader skills, to outcomes. From this it was possible to infer extensions of the quad that were meaningful and not just statistical in

import. These extensions were collectively called Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPS).

These distinctive patterns (DILPs) were clear. Achievement managers displayed a work unit self, characterised by an other-orientation, work unit focus, relatively low strategic influence skills, and greater leader effectiveness compared to individual success. Career managers displayed a company-extended self, characterised by a self-orientation, company focus, relatively high strategic influence skills, and greater individual success compared to leader effectiveness. Student managers displayed a needful self, characterised by a self-orientation, work unit focus, non-integrated and deficient leader skills, and comparatively low levels of both leader effectiveness and individual success. Excellent managers displayed a balanced and masterful self, characterised by blending self/other-orientation and work unit/company focus, by integrated and proficient leader skills, and by comparatively high levels of both leader effectiveness and individual success. DILPs were inferred to arise from life-long social learning processes that systematically differentiated managers' leader skillsets, and their relationships to significant others within work unit and wider company. DILPs were inferred to distinguish managers' abilities to define situations, thus obtaining desirable business outcomes.

Diagnostic tools. This thesis also suggested a set of theoretically framed diagnostic tools comprising the Manager Quad based on outcome measures, the Leader Action Characteristics Set, the Leader Interaction Skills Inventory, and the DILPs. It is suggested that these tools permit analysis of leader skill learning needs for individuals and firms. In turn, this will facilitate construction of efficacious intervention programs appropriate to individual managers' specific circumstances and leader skillsets, within a company's needs, and in relation to quad categories.

Some final implications. The meaning of managers as leaders therefore may be altered through customised training and development programs that offer the promise of Australian managers generally emulating excellent managers. This involves learning leader skills to high proficiency levels, thus enhancing managers' performance and contribution to work units, companies, and nation. Evidently, moreover, there are Australian managers who can be classified as excellent, and the image of Australians as poorly performing leaders is a stereotype requiring redress.

8 Conclusion: Defining Managers as Leaders

Inspiration of this thesis. Inspired by Luthans et al., (1988), this thesis began with the intriguing question of why managers who were *both* effective and successful displayed the same activities profile as managers generally, despite activities distinguishing effective from successful managers. A review of literatures suggested the answer related to leader skill proficiencies producing effectiveness/success outcomes, and allowing division of managers into four categories accordingly. Antecedents and correlates of managers as leaders also seemed important, although less directly so. This thesis focussed upon the problem of whether effective managers are the same as successful managers. This involved investigating leadership as a continuing key business concern within the broader manager/leader debate.

Australian context. Research for this thesis proceeded within an Australian business context. This defined the problem more particularly as one of whether there were Australian business managers whose *leader skills* made them both effective and successful in contradistinction to others, and, if so, what the implications were for the perceived relative poor performance of Australian managers (Smith and Peterson 1988; Buhler 1998; Ashkanasy 2000). Consequently, this thesis explored the acquisition, measurement, and impact of leader skills in an Australian business context.

Dual, exploratory contribution. This thesis aimed to make both empirical and conceptual contributions to understanding leadership in relation to business management. This dual contribution was conceived as an exploratory exercise, since the theory was original rather than an established one, and the research design involved methodological innovations.

The following shows the aims of this thesis were achieved largely, with notable exceptions and revisions.

8.1 Symbolic Interactionism: A Balanced Skillset

A previously unidentified paradigm. An established approach in sociology, and framing various reflections on the management of meaning in the general management literature, this thesis argued Symbolic Interactionism is a previously unidentified paradigm of leadership. Initial explication of this paradigm was itself an important though unanticipated contribution to the literature on leadership.

8 Conclusion: Defining Managers as Leaders

Reality Management Theory and the Manager Quad. Within a Symbolic Interactionist framework, this thesis developed a Manager Quad model within a Reality Management Theory of individualised leadership. Broadly, RMT states that managers learn leader skills during life-long differential associations; that these skills are therefore differential in both nature and degree, and variably employed by managers to define the cultural meaning of situations, manage social reality, and determine outcomes like individual success and leader effectiveness; and that managers may be cross-classified accordingly into four outcome groups (the quad). This framework effectively described the story of managers in terms of effectiveness/success outcomes due to leader skills accrued from differential, life-long social learning. This was the key originally intended conceptual contribution to leadership thought.

Leader skills emphasis. The field program's quantitative phase examined *how well* a manager undertakes leader activities. That is, the focus was upon leader skills. Past studies concerning individualised leader models have examined *what* activities are critical and/or *how often* managers engage in these activities. Very often, such models have also included a variety of non-behavioural factors. Skill measurement was a central thesis theme in exploring contemporary business leadership. This skill emphasis was another original aspect of this thesis in theoretical and methodological terms.

In this thesis, leader skill was explored along three key dimensions. The transactional and transformational dimensions are well documented in the literatures, although not in strictly skill terms as applied here. Strategy represents a more newly recognised leadership requirement for 21st Century people managers. Even so, strategic leadership thinkers have tended to refrain from linking strategy to individual leaders in a general sense, preferring to consider it in terms of larger planning processes at the organisational level, or considering individual strategic leaders divorced from everyday operations. Normally, that is, strategy has been located esoterically in company leadership activities. In this thesis, a strategic component was built into a general model of individualised leadership. These three dimensions collectively promised a balanced leader skillset within an established theoretical approach.

General leader skill findings and inferences. This promise was confirmed by field data, but not entirely as expected. Quantitative research results supported a three-tiered model of interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skills, within a Symbolic Interactionist framework. The first two skillsets reflected the commonly acknowledged transactional and transformational leader distinction, and the last

reflected a modification of what Pelz (1952) identifies as supervisory influence. It was found that strategic influence was imputed by followers in terms of leader behaviours in the external environment for the work unit's benefit, yet related to what could be seen as personal networking for career advancement purposes.

Strategy formulation collapsed to elements of transformational leader skills. In this formulative sense, it was also found that strategic leadership appears now expected of managers generally, and no longer *solely* an upper echelon prerogative, if ever it was so. The main inference is that strategy was a component of a broadbased leader skill model in terms of future-oriented company concerns, yet nonetheless related to managers at various levels and functions of business life. However, a strong, reliable scale separately measured strategic leader skills, suggesting these may remain a specialty area of managers, additional to broad leader skills. Thesis findings thus supported but extended mainstream strategic leadership thought.

The Leader Interaction Skills Inventory. The interactive, interformative, and strategic influence leader skill scales were found to comprise a highly parsimonious Leader Interaction Skills Inventory (LISI). This instrument was drawn from parent behavioural characteristics described in the Leader Action Characteristics Set (LACS). It measured leader skills in a business context, and it is distinct from other scales described in the literature. The LISI was shown to have respectable reliability coefficients, sound construct validity, and absence of multicollinearity problems, within the constraints of this exploratory thesis. *Notably, these features of the LISI held strongly in comparison to extant leadership scales,* especially in view of its early stage of development and research evidence.

As a methodological instrument, the LISI is another conceptual contribution of this thesis, and one that, if supported by additional research, may be of substantial, even ground-breaking significance to the leadership field.

Statistical results concerning the main propositions. Statistical exploration of the impact of leader skill proficiencies supported several major hypotheses, and, hence, key propositions of Reality Management Theory, with modest revisions. These skill proficiencies were demonstrated as systematically related to managers' leader effectiveness, individual success, and work unit performance. Results thus supported the effectiveness/success distinction, and in relation to leader skills. Company business success was omitted from analyses due to data deficiencies (s. 5.2.4).

In particular, statistical evidence showed managers' leader effectiveness was explained substantially by interactive leader skills and secondarily by interformative skills; individual success was explained moderately by strategic influence skills and less so by absence of interactive skills; and work unit performance was explained by interactive skills, working through the intervening variable of leader effectiveness.

In sum, statistical analyses demonstrated four identifiable types of managers, (the quad), according to the nature and level of their leader skills producing outcomes, thus empirically addressing the central research problem, and as theorised. The evidence generally supported a balanced skillset in Symbolic Interactionist terms.

8.2 The Manager Quad and Excellent Managers

Additional to survey and hypothesis findings, the Manager Quad was subsequently confirmed and elaborated by qualitative case interview data separately garnered on managers' antecedents and correlates. This conceptually extended the quad stories in terms of self/other orientation and work unit versus company focus, which concurred with the originally theorised, and statistically supported, leader skill and outcome distinctions. Although there could have been contrary results, quantitative and qualitative data coincided, and thus together provided compelling support for the conceptual framework of this thesis. Alternative theoretical frameworks were considered, and it was concluded that these were inadequate, or provided only partial accounts, or were incorporated more satisfactorily into this thesis' framework.

Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns. Qualitative data analyses showed the quad sectors involve Differential, Interpreted Life Patterns (DILPs). These DILPs further detail the conceptual and empirical contributions of this thesis.

DILPs were stressed as interpretive regarding RMT with its emphasis on concepts of differential association and the definition of the situation. DILPs refer to life-long social learning processes systematically differentiating managers' leader skillsets, their abilities to define situations interactively with others, to shape their significant relationships, and to thus obtain desirable business outcomes. DILPs are a micro-sociological expression of attributions within leader/member exchanges. They represent an empirical heuristic for exploring and understanding leadership in terms of meaningful behaviours. As such, they involve metaphors, typical life stories, and business identities.

The four DILPs were named as student, career, achievement, and excellent manager categories, first on an outcomes and skills basis, and later described

additionally by antecedents and correlates. Student managers were found to have a business identity that was needfully self-oriented at the work unit level and poorly developed across leader skillsets; and so they were typically neither effective as leaders nor successful as individuals. Career managers were self-oriented with a company focus, strong in strategic influence skills, and more successful as individuals than effective as leaders. Achievement managers were other-oriented and work unit-focussed, weak in strategic influence leader skills, and relatively effective as leaders but less successful as individuals. Excellent managers were balanced and masterful in their business identity. They were oriented to self and others, focussed at both company and work unit levels, and uniformly proficient across leader skillsets. Hence, they were typically both effective as leaders and successful as individuals.

Excellent managers and leader skills in Australia. As expected, excellent managers were relatively rare, yet they were found in the State of Victoria. The inference was that, contrary to the popular, unintended impression created by the Karpin report (1995), Australia has a reasonable proportion of business managers with highly proficient leader skills. It also meant the issue of leader skill is not all or none, but relative, with many other Australian managers possessing very sound though incomplete if not skewed leader skills. Promulgation of these findings may help rejuvenate the image and confidence of Australian managers, with positive flow-on effects to Australia's international business reputation and economy. This is an important public and business education inference from this thesis' empirical contributions.

Avoiding past research problems. The discovery of excellent managers, furthermore, was via the unusual approach of searching across disparate companies and industries, and across organisational levels and functional areas, within a single field program. This eschewed two common problems of leadership research, and thus represented another methodological contribution of this thesis.

Normally, researchers focus upon either top leaders, or first-line leaders, or specialist leaders, or some other niche. This results in suboptimal reliance upon literature reviews and meta-analyses to piece together broader possibilities (Russell and Gilliland 1995). Questions remain as to generalisability of any underlying theory, model, and findings. This thesis tested a broadbased theory and model at an exploratory level without external reliance.

A related difficulty of leadership research is to commonly presume excellence is defined by fame, fortune, or CEO status. However, this thesis found managers' leader

skill proficiencies, and associated business outcomes, were spread widely within companies. This reinforced findings that excellent managers cannot be equated with successful managers, and that CEOs are not necessarily the best of leaders, as so often assumed in the literature. Ordinary people become excellent managers in the sense of skilled leaders who get the best out of their people to obtain the best results, and they are not always found at the organisational apex.

Qualitative research innovations. Additionally, there were innovations in the case study phase of this thesis' field program. Such innovations are consistent with both the diversity of qualitative research principles and practices, and qualitative researchers' common encouragement of flexibility and creativity. Innovations in this thesis involved a design focus upon conceptual rather than empirical cases; a particular conjoining of qualitative and quantitative methods; and specific applications of meaning generation tactics, replication logic, theoretical sampling, constant comparison, and iterative concept-building. It is hoped these contributions demonstrate and encourage the growth of qualitative research methodology.

An optimistic message. Generally, the Manager Quad facilitates understanding the broad social learning, skill, and outcome linkages of business leadership. It also illuminates the nature and widespread location of leader skills within companies, and the relationship between excellent managers and leader skill proficiencies, within an Australian context. It thereby helps provide a positive response to an unfair, destructive image of Australia's managers as leaders. Australian business people can take heart from this cheerful message.

8.3 Management Education and Leader Development

A need for wholistic interventions. An important part of this message concerns management education and leader development. Conger (1992) provides an account of several programs encompassing four approaches to leadership training: personal growth, conceptual, feedback, and skills. He argues the future of leadership training involves programs that incorporate elements of all four approaches. The crux of his suggestions is the realisation that leadership training and development is not a 'quick fix', but rather a substantial process, sometimes requiring lengthy intervention and evaluation, a point supported strongly by Celinski (1998).

Conger's (1992) principal arguments were not disputed in this thesis. It is apparent from qualitative findings on antecedents and correlates especially that

managers as leaders are whole persons, and they cannot be dissected easily into trainable parts. They are not just a bundle of behaviours and skills. They hold disparate views, including quite variable implicit theories of leadership, and they have emotional and other strong characteristics that inform their lives generally and their leader roles specifically. It is therefore wise to pursue multi-pronged efforts to enhance managers' leadership abilities and knowledge.

Some limits of existing programs. Nonetheless, many nominal leadership development programs are really broad management development programs. Although this is not necessarily a drawback (Craig and Yetton 1995), a lack of focus may result in learning anything but leadership when that is the principal objective. Also, like the LPI based leadership challenge workshop (Conger 1992), even better focussed programs often suffer inadequate follow-up, bias toward transformational leaders, and lack of strong skillbase measurement. The competitive advantage of firms arises not only from knowledge, technical skills and broad interpersonal skills, but from leadership critically, and not from genetically or otherwise pre-ordained leadership, but from leader skills learnable by ordinary employees. Clearly focused leader skills programs are vital.

Remedial suggestions. This thesis suggests leader skills must be a primary intent of management development programs addressing leadership issues. These programs also must meet business leader's total learning requirements, rather than focus on change leadership alone. Additionally, leader training and development will be enhanced by more accurate and valid measurement of leader skills not just broad attributes. This is especially so at the level of theory and model, not only subsequent training designs. Training programs are governed by the strength of their theoretical foundations to maximise intervention benefits. Thus, the conceptual and empirical contributions of this thesis merge to address practical issues of leader education and development.

Acquiring competitive leader skills. Thus, this thesis examined antecedents and correlates of managers, and excellent managers especially, partly to identify what managers might do to acquire leader skills in today's competitive business world. Generally, managers would benefit from exposure to Symbolic Interactionist theories of leadership, including RMT. This thesis took a Social Learning Theory approach, which suggests the optimal leader skillset is learnable, and which was consistent with the views of interviewed managers generally.

The Manager Quad and leader skill development. This thesis also showed leader skills and related training needs and development modes varied according to quad

sector. Each DILP was inferred to have its own strengths and weaknesses concerning leader skills, although student and excellent managers were respectively the least and most useful in this regard. Hence, for instance, student managers might be replaced at some cost, or rejuvenated via skills training supplemented with personal issue resolution. If the latter, a number of specific learning objectives could be anticipated, and mentors other than career managers would be advisable. The DILPs were linked to particular training and development modes.

Diagnostic tools and customised interventions. This thesis described tools for diagnosing leader skill learning needs, allowing customised intervention programs within a coherent theoretical framework. A skill focus facilitates measurable learning objectives, and helps motivate managers, particularly in cases requiring personal counselling. Such programs promise more Australian managers emulating excellent managers.

8.4 Future Research

To facilitate development of such programs, and thus contribute further to management education and leader development in an Australian business context, research can proceed in a number of directions.

Additional DILP research. Future research might profit from further exploring, testing, modifying, and extending the DILPs. The quad is a potentially powerful analytical tool for management education, government policy, and business practice. If the DILPs can be refined and developed, linking leader skills, manager types, and business outcomes in more systematic and detailed fashion, there may be far-reaching rewards.

For instance, research can profitably further examine whether career managers are suboptimal as cultural brokers, whereas excellent and achievement managers have leader skills suited to multicultural business pursuits (s. 7.4). If upheld, these findings promise pay-offs in Australia's domestic and global business dealings. For example, identified career managers might be carefully placed until their leader skills are aptly enhanced, the poor reputation of Australian business managers could be redressed, and management education providers could offer a valuable service to expatriate managers.

Human Resource Management interventions. Moreover, unlike much past leadership research, this thesis has not tried to 'pick winners' via its diagnostic tools. It has rather emphasised existing managers as leaders, with further development of their leader skills. The well-known social science problem of 'false positives' advises against relying solely upon various psychological tests and management procedures that identify

this employee as a potential leader and another as a follower. Human Resource Management interventions may be enhanced with leader development programs that reduce wasteful severance exercises. By not 'picking winners', the thesis framework offers a research alternative for facilitating systematic leader development that is constructive, creative, and beneficial to all concerned. Future applied research efforts, especially sponsored by companies and commercial associations, could be fruitfully directed toward building specific interventions that redress the leader skill deficits of different quad sectors.

Effectiveness versus success. The distinction between effectiveness and success drawn by Luthans, Hodgetts et al. (1988) deserves greater attention than it has received to date. This has been shown as promising, with a negative relationship, and its ready confirmation by all interviewed managers testifies to its resonance in the real world of business aside from any theoretical construction applied by this thesis. Future research may find other uses for this distinction and for the quad built upon it.

Removing masculinist bias in research. So, for example, gender issues may be illuminated by studies adopting this thesis' framework. It reduces the masculinist bias of approaches assuming success equates with effectiveness. Those approaches choose CEOs and other 'successful' managers, who are disproportionately male due to historical gender discrimination. The quad's multiple foci – success and effectiveness criteria, and across levels and functions – removes at least some of the assumptions encouraging gender biased results.

Further methodological work. Still, the methodology of this thesis remains open to improvement. Outcome measures could be fruitfully explored further or tested against other operational criteria. For instance, would results differ if the quad were examined with different formulations of leader effectiveness, especially ones with even less if any same source bias? What might be found with data derived from various company and industry measures of competitive advantage, and especially with data on company business success? Given the exploratory nature of thesis research, validity and reliability of leader measures could be further examined via replication and alternate formulation. For example, different leader skill calibrations might be examined and results compared against those reported here. Strategic influence leader skills particularly warrant further research to disentangle motivational underlays that confound with personal networking.

Also methodologically, there is a need to apply other statistical analyses to new data gathered within this thesis' framework. Given the exploratory promise of theory and

model, further research may be undertaken with a view to structural equation modelling. More costly, larger scale survey research appears attractive at this stage. Statistical linkage of qualitative and quantitative data via software packages, precluded by current resource constraints, would also be interesting.

Research design reversal and elaboration. Other future research can be front-end rather than back-end, beginning with qualitative interviews to identify managers in terms of DILPs then investigating their skills and outcomes, along with more longitudinal observations of leadership as a micro-social process. This was infeasible here given those who were 'successful' were not assumed 'effective' and vice versa. Outcome data needed first to demonstrate the potential bona fides of the quad and identify which managers could be classified into which quad sector, before enabling manager interviews to discover more fully the patterns later constructed as DILPs. With this exploratory work done, research can now follow a reverse and logically more satisfying path to discover the predictive value of the DILPs, and to utilise observational methods to examine dynamic processes of leader/follower interactions. Future success in this regard would even more compellingly validate RMT.

Explicating research assumptions. An important suggestion for future research is the desirability of explicating ontological and epistemological assumptions. For the most part, leadership research has proceeded as if its underlying view of reality was undebatable and unrelated to constituting knowledge. However, as Blaikie (1993) has argued so ably, it is no longer sufficient to stand simplistically on the correctness of either a single 'scientific method' or the claims of its numerous opponents. This thesis assumed a Symbolic Interactionist view of reality that moulded findings. This explicit statement empowers readers to better judge the worth of research.

Theoretical and methodological sophistication. Similarly, much leadership research has involved highly selective, and indeed, quite simple empirical models. There have been surprisingly few efforts to tie together theory and method within a larger paradigm of social science enquiry, as attempted here. The field of leadership consequently remains fragmented and ill-defined, notwithstanding its importance and many superlative contributions. Future research would profit from a greater level of interwoven theory and methodology. Leadership theory and research need to come of age, and to begin articulating more clearly the foundations of a distinct field of knowledge, on a par at least with cross-disciplines such as Management, Social Work, and Criminology.

8.5 Defining the Situation: A Final Comment

> *The successful leader, then, is one who is able to attach him or herself to successes and dissociate him or herself from failures (McElroy and Hunger 1988, p.178)*

McElroy and Hunger's 'successful' leader does exist. That leader is the one who lies shadowlike behind the career-oriented manager, the leader whose skills are perhaps too focussed upon personal and company promotion objectives comparative to other concerns. But that leader is certainly not the only sort, much less the most notable.

The Manager Quad identifies others, and it suggests a quite different way of thinking about managers as leaders. It suggests a novel view of the manager/leader debate, and of the issues that surround the relationship between a leader and followers. Reality Management Theory was supported by thesis research evidence. Yet it did not, nor was it expected to distil, a definitive, all-encompassing view of managers as leaders. It is original. It is potentially useful. It is also, hopefully, sufficiently complex to mirror the diversity of managers as leaders, and to dispel stereotypes and simple solutions.

It is not the 'holy grail' of leadership. Perhaps it is time leadership researchers accepted there is none, agreed to disagree where necessary, and appreciated that leadership research is itself a contest of definitions of the situation that come and go, providing various insights into a vital, fluid event in human affairs. Leadership has been contemplated from numerous viewpoints, including that of expanded consciousness amenable to techniques like transcendental meditation (Harung, Heaton, and Alexander 1995). As Bennis (1997) states, it is a vast and complex subject that can only be explored. An internet search reinforces this, producing 4,330,000 results on the keyword of leadership, and 1,830,000 results for business leadership (Google 2001), and then 13,400,000 and 4,000,000, respectively, just two years later (Google 2003).

This thesis explored terrain of ongoing, singular importance to business management. As an exploratory effort, its claims are modest though promising, supported by initial evidence, and further investigation is required. Its contribution has been in both conceptual and empirical terms. It has sought to offer a new definition of the leadership situation, appropriate to the needs of business managers, government policy analysts, and management educators in today's global context, with particular reference to Australia's recent concerns in this arena.

References

Abdel-Halim, A. A. (1983). "Power equalization, participative decision-making and individual differences." Human Relations 36: 683-704.

Abelson, R. P. (1995). Statistics as Principled Argument. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Abramson, M. A. (1997). Developing Leaders for the 21st century, Leadership Inc. 2000.

Ackerman, L. (1985). "Leadership vs. Managership." Leadership & Organization Development Journal 6(2): 17-20.

Altheide, David L. and Johnson, John M (1998). Criteria for Assessing Interpretive Validity in Qualitative Research. Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials. N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln. London, Sage Publications: 283-312.

Andrewartha, G., M. Correll, and L. Pickett (1996). Benchmarking of leadership and management skills of meat processing organisations in Australia. Sydney, Prepared on behalf of the Meat Research Corporation, and Leadership Development Group.

Argyle, M., G. Gardner, and F. Coiffi (1957). "The measurement of supervisory methods." Human Relations 10: 295-313.

Armstrong, A. (1998). Accommodating the Needs of Public Sector Managers by Integrating Competencies into Management Education. 12th ANZAM International Conference, Adelaide, South Auatralia, Australiam and New Zealand Academy of Management.

Ashkanasy, N. M. (2000). "Managing in Australia." The Academy of Management Executive, Ada 14(3): 140-141.

Ashkanasy, N. M. and C. Gallois (1994). "Leader attributions and evaluations: Effects of locus of control, supervisory control, and task control." Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes 59(1): 27-51.

Ashkanasy, N. M. and C. O'Connor (1997). "Value congruence in leader-member exchange." Journal of Social Psychology 137(5): 647-663.

Ashour, A. S. (1973). "The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: An evaluation." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 9: 339-355.

Ashour, A. S. and G. Johns (1983). "Leader influence through operant principles: A theoretical and methodological framework." Human Relations 36: 603-626.

Atwater, L. E. and D. C. Atwater (1994). Organizational Transformation: Strategies for Change and Improvement. Improving Organizational Effectiveness Through Transformational Leadership. B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio. London, Sage Publications, Inc: 146-172.

Avolio, B. J. (1994). The Alliance of Total Quality and the Full Range of Leadership. Improving Organizational Effectiveness Through Transformational Leadership. B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio. London, Sage Publications, Inc: 121-145.

Avolio, B. J. (1996). What's All the Karping About Down Under? Transforming Australia's Leadership Systems for the Twenty-first Century. Leadership Research and Practice. K. W. Parry. South Melbourne, Australia, Pitman Publishing: 3-15.

Avolio, B. J. and B. M. Bass (1988). Transformational leadership, charisma, and beyond. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Massachusetts, Lexington Books: 29-49.

Avolio, B. J., B. M. Bass, and D. I. Jung (1999). "Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire." Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology 72: 441-462.

References

Avolio, B. J. and T. C. Gibbons (1988). Developing transformational leaders: a life span approach. Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organisational Effectiveness. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kanungo. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Babbie, E. (1995). The Practice of Social Research. Belmont, CA, Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Baliga, B. R. and J. G. Hunt (1988). An Organisational Life Cycle Approach to Leadership. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 129-149.

Bandura, A. (1977). Social Learning Theory. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall.

Barker, R. A. (1997). "How can we train leaders if we do not know what leadership is?" Human Relations 50(4): 343-362.

Barnes, T. (1996). Kaizen Strategies for Successful Leadership. London, Pitman Publishing.

Baron, R. M. and D. A. Kenny (1986). "The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 51: 1173-1182.

Bartlett, C. and S. Ghoshal (1994). "Changing the Role of Top Management: Beyond Strategy to Purpose." Harvard Business Review 72(6, November/December): 79-88.

Bartol, K., D. Martin, M. Tein, and G. Matthews (1998). Management: A Pacific Rim Focus. Sydney, McGraw-Hill Book Company Australia Pty Limited.

Bartölke, K. (1988). Leadership: Nothing but Constructing Reality by Negotiations? Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington MA, Lexington Books: 151-157.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York, Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Applications. New York, The Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1998). Transformational Leadership: Industrial, Military, and Educational Impact. Mahwah, New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Bass, B. M. (1999). "Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership." European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology 8(1): 9-32.

Bass, B. M. and B. J. Avolio (1990a). "Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond." Journal of European Industrial Training 14: 21-7.

Bass, B. M. and B. J. Avolio (1990b). Transformational Leadership Development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Palo Alto, California, Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bass, B. M. and B. J. Avolio (1993a). Transformational Leadership: A Response to Critiques. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press: 49 - 80

Bass, B. M. and B. J. Avolio (1993b). "Transformational Leadership and the Organisational Culture." Public Administration Quarterly 17: 112-122

Bass, B. M. and B. J. Avolio (1997). Shatter the Glass Ceiling: Women May Make Better Managers. Leadership: Classical, Contemporary, and Critical Approaches. K. Grint. Oxford, Oxford University Press: 199-210.

Bennis, W. (1989). On Becoming a Leader. New York, Addison-Wesley.

Bennis, W. (1997). Managing People is Like Herding Cats. Provo, UT, Executive Excellence Publishing.

Bennis, W. G. and B. Nanus (1985). Leaders: the Strategies for Taking Charge. New York, Harper & Row.

References

Berger, P. L. (1973). Invitation to Sociology. Ringwood, Victoria, Penguin Books.

Beyer, J. M., P. Chattopadhyay, E. George, W. H. Glick, D. T. Ogilvie, and D. Pugliese (1997). "The selective perception of managers revisited." Academy of Management Journal 40: 716-737

Bizman, A. and S. Fox (1984). "Managers' Perceptions of the Stability of Workers' Positive and Negative Behaviors." Journal of Applied Psychology 63: 40-43.

Blaikie, N. (1993). Approaches to Social Enquiry. Cambridge, Polity Press.

Blair, J. D. and J. B. Rivera (1992). A Stakeholder Management Perspective on Strategic L eadership. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 81-98.

Blake, R. A. and A. A. McCanse (1991). Leadership Dilemmas: Grid Solutions. Houston, Gulf Publising Company.

Blake, R. R. and J. S. Mouton (1964). The Managerial Grid. Houston, Gulf Publishing Company.

Blake, R. R. and J. S. Mouton (1978). The New Managerial Grid. Houston, Gulf Publishing Company.

Blake, R. R. and J. S. Mouton (1982). "Theory and research for developing a science of leadership." Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 18: 275-292.

Blumer, H. (1972). Society as Symbolic Interaction. Symbolic Interaction: a reader in social psychology. J. G. Manis and B. N. Meltzer. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.: 145-154.

Boal, K. B. (2000). "Strategic leadership research: moving on." Leadership Quarterly 11(4): 515-550.

Boal, K. B. and J. M. Bryson (1988). Charismatic Leadership: A Phenomenological and Structural Approach. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 11-28.

Boal, K. B. and C. J. Whitehead (1992). A Critique and Extension of the Stratified System Theory Perspective. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 237-253.

Bower, M. (1997). The Will to Lead: Running a business with a network of leaders. Boston, Harvard Business School Press.

Bowers, D. G. and S. E. Seashore (1966). "Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four -factor theory of leadership." Administrative Science Quarterly 11: 238-263.

Bradford, D. and A. Cohen (1984). Managing for Excellence. New York, John Wiley.

Brewis, J., M. P. Hampton, and S. Linstead (1997). "Unpacking Priscilla: Subjectivity and identity in the organization of gendered appearance." Human Relations 50(10): 1275-1304.

Brower, H. H., F. D. Schoorman, and H. T. Hwee (2000). "A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader-member exchange." Leadership Quarterly 11(2): 227-251.

Bryman, A. (1986). Leadership and Organizations. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bryman, A. (1992). Charisma and Leadership in Organisations. London, Sage.

Bryman, A. (2001). Social Research Methods. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and R. Burgess, Eds. (1994a). Analysing Qualitative Data. London, Routledge.

Bryman, A. and R. Burgess (1994b). Reflections on qualitative data analysis. Analyzing Qualitative Data. A. Bryman and R. Burgess. London, Routledge: 216-226.

Bryman, A. and D. Cramer (1999). Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS Release 8 for Windows. London, Routledge.

References

Buhler, P. M. (1998). "Managing in the 90s: The evolving leader of today." Supervision 59(12): 16-18.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York, Harper & Row.

Calás, M. B. (1993). "Deconstructing Charismatic Leadership: Re-reading Weber from the Darker Side." Leadership Quarterly 4(3/4): 305-328.

Calás, M. B. and L. Smircich (1988). Reading Leadership as a Form of Cultural Analysis. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 201-226.

Calás, M. B. and L. Smircich, Eds. (1997a). Postmodern Management Theory. History of Management Thought. Brookfield, Vermont, Ashgate Publishing Company.

Calás, M. B. and L. Smircich (1997b). Voicing Seduction to Silence Leadership. Leadership: Classical, Contemporary, and Critical Approaches. K. Grint. Oxford, Oxford University Press: 338-376.

Calder, B. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. New Directions in Organizational Behavior. B. M. Staw and G. R. Salanick. Chicago, St. Clair Press: 179-204.

Calonious, E. (1990). "How Top Managers Manage Their Time." Fortune 121(13): 250-255.

Camp, R. R., P. N. Blanchard, and G. E. Huszczo (1986). Toward a More Organizationally Effective Training Strategy & Practice. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Campbell, D. T. (1975). "Degrees of freedom and the case study." Comparative Political Studies 8: 178-193.

Campbell, R. R. (1997). Leadership: Getting It Done, University of Missouri. 1999.

Carless, S. A., L. Mann, and A. J. Wearing (1996). Transformational Leadership and Teams. Leadership Research and Practice: Emerging Themes and New Challenges. K. W. Parry. Melbourne, Pitman Publishing: 77-90.

Cattell, R. (1951). "New concepts for measuring leadership in terms of group syntality." Human Relations 4: 161-184.

Cavana, R. Y., B. L. Delahaye, and U. Sekaran (2001). Applied Business Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methods. Milton, Queensland, John Wiley & Sons Australia.

Celinski, D. (1998). Training. The Gower Handbook of Management. D. Lock. Aldershot, Hampshire, Gower Publishing limited: 1074-1089.

Chemers, M. M. and R. Ayman, Eds. (1993a). Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. London, Academic Press.

Chemers, M. M. and R. Ayman (1993b). Directions for Leadership Research. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press: 321 - 332.

Chemers, M. M. and G. J. Skrzypek (1972). "An experimental test of the contingency model of leadership effectiveness." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 24: 171-177.

Christensen, C. M. (1997). "Making strategy: learning by doing." Harvard Business Review 75(6): 141-146.

Clancy, D. and R. Webber (1995). Roses and Rust: Redefining the essence of leadership in a new age. Sydney, Business & Professional Publishing Pty Ltd.

Coch, L. and J. R. P. French, Jr. (1948). "Overcoming resistance to change." Human Relations 1: 512-532.

Comrey, A. L., J. M. Pfiffner and W. S. High (1954). Factors influencing organizational effectiveness: A final report. Los Angeles, University of Southern California.

Conger, J. (1992). Learning to Lead: The Art of Transforming Managers into Leaders. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

References

Conger, J. A. (1991). "Inspiring Others: The Language of Leadership." The Executive, Ada 5(1): 31.

Conger, J. A. (1993a). "Training Leaders for the Twenty-First Century." Human Resource Management Review 3(3).

Conger, J. A. (1993b). "The brave new world of leadership training." Organizational Dynamics 21(3): 46-59

Conger, J. A. (1997). "The generation game." Management 44(9): 72-73.

Conger, J. A. (1998). "Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership." Leadership Quarterly 9(1): 107-121.

Conger, J. A. and R. N. Kanungo (1987). "Towards a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational setting." Academy of Management Review 12: 637-647.

Conger, J. A. and R. N. Kanungo, Eds. (1988a). Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organisational Effectiveness. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J. A. and R. N. Kanungo (1988b). Behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership. Charismatic leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organisational Effectiveness. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kanungo. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass: 78-97.

Conger, J. A. and R. N. Kanungo (1994). "Charismatic leadership in organizations: Perceived behavioral attributes and their measurement." Journal of Organizational Behavior, IS: 439-452.

Conger, J. A., R. N. Kanungo, S.T. Menon, and P. Mathur (1997). "Measuring charisma: Dimensionality and validity of the Conger-Kanungo scale of charismatic leadership." Canadian journal of administrative sciences 14(3): 290-302.

Connelly, M. S., J. A. Gilbert, S. J. Zaccaro, K. V. Gilbert, M. A. Marks and M .D Mumford (2000). "Exploring the relationship of leadership skills and knowledge to leader performance." Leadership Quarterly 11(1): 65-86.

Cooper, R. and G. Burrell (1988). "Modernism, Postmodernism and Organizational Analysis: An Introduction." Organization Studies 9(1): 91-112.

Cooper, R. K. (2000). "A new neuroscience of leadership: bringing out more of the best in people." Strategy & Leadership 28(6): 11-15.

Court, M. (1994). "Removing Macho Management: Lessons from the Field of Education." Gender, Work and Organization 1(1): 33-49.

Cowan, D. A., C. M. Fiol, and J. P. Walsh (1992). A Midrange Theory of Strategic Choice Processes. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 63-79.

Craig, J. and P. Yetton (1995). Leadership Theory, Trends and Training: Summary Review of Leadership Research. Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century. D. Karpin. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service. 2: 1183-1221.

Crosby, P. B. (1990). Leading: The Art of Becoming an Executive. Sydney, McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Cummins, R. C. (1972). "Leader-member relations as a moderator of the effects of leader behavior and attitude." Personnel Psychology 25: 655-660.

Daily, C. M., S. T. Certo, and D. R. Dalton (1999). "Entrepreneurial ventures as an avenue to the top?: Assessing the advancement of female CEOs and directors in the Inc. 100." Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship 4(1): 19-32.

Dainty, P. H. and M. Anderson (1996). The Capable Executive: Effective Performance in Senior Managment. London, Macmillan Press Ltd.

Danserau Jr. F., J. Cashman, and W. J. Hager (1975). "A Vertical Dyad Linkage Approach to Leadership within Formal Organizations: A Longitudinal

References

Investigation of the Role-making Process." <u>Organizational Behavior and Human Performance</u> 10(1): 184-200.

Dansereau, F. and F. J. Yammarino, Eds. (1998). <u>Leadership: The multiple level approaches</u>. Stamford, CT, JAI Press.

Davidhizar, R. and R. Shearer (1993). "Soft-spoken managers: A blend of communication styles." <u>Nursing Management</u> 24(7): 112.

Davis, J. A. (1971). <u>Elementary Survey Analysis</u>. Sydney, Prentice-Hall.

Davis, R. C. (1954). <u>Fundamentals of top management</u>, Harper & Row.

Den Hartog, D. N., R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, S. A. Ruiz-Quintanilla, and P. W. Dorfman (1999). "Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implict leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed?" <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 10(2): 219-257.

Denison, D. R., R. Hooijberg, and R. E. Quinn (1995). "Paradox and performance: a theory of behavioral complexity in leadership." <u>Organization Science</u> 6(5): 524-541.

Densten, I. and J. Sarros (1997). Re-Thinking Transformational Leadership Factors. Melbourne, Monash University Faculty of Business & Economics**:** 1-8.

Denzin, N. K. (1975). <u>The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods</u>. Chicago, Aldine Publishing Company.

Denzin, N. K. and Y. S. Lincoln, Eds. (1998). <u>Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials</u>. London, Sage Publications.

Dessler, G. and E. R. Valenzi (1977). "Initiation of structure and subordinate satisfaction - a path analysis test of path goal theory." <u>Academy of Management Journal</u> 20(2): 251.

Dewey, J. (1972a). Communication, Individual and Society. <u>Symbolic Interaction: a reader in social psychology</u>. J. G. Manis and B. N. Meltzer. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.**:** 154-157.

Dewey, J. (1972b). Mind, Experience, and Behaviour. <u>Symbolic Interaction: A Reader in Social Psychology</u>. J. G. Manis and B. N. Meltzer. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.**:** 328-330.

Drucker, P. F. (1986). <u>The Frontiers of Management</u>. New York, Dutton.

Drucker, P. F. (1988). Leadership: More doing than dash. <u>Wall Street Journal</u>**:** 16.

Dunford, R. W. (1992). <u>Organisational Behaviour</u>. Sydney, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Dunphy, D. and D. Stace (1990). <u>Under New Management: Australian Organisations in Transition</u>. Sydney, McGraw-Hill.

Durkheim, E. (1938). <u>The Rules of Sociological Method</u>. New York, The Free Press.

Dyer, W. G. and A. L. Wilkins (1991). "Better stories, not better constructs, to generate better theory: A rejoinder to Eisenhardt." <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 16(3): 613-619.

Eden, D. and U. Leviatan (1975). "Implicit Leadership Theory as a Determinant of the Factor Structure Underlying Supervisory Behavior Scales." <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u> 60: 736-741.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). "Building Theories from Case Study Research." <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 14(4): 532-550.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1991). "Better stories and better constructs: the case for rigor and comparative logic." <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 16(3): 620-627.

Evans, J. (1996). "Leaders in Australia: The Australian cultural imprint for leadership." <u>Unpublished paper</u>: 1-17.

Evans, M. G. (1970). "The effects of supervisory behaviour on the path-goal relationship." <u>Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance</u> 5: 277-98.

References

Evans, M. G. (1973). "A leaders ability to differentiate, the subordinates perception of the leader, and the subordinates performance." Personnel Psychology 26(3): 385.

Fagiano, D. (1997). "Managers vs. leaders." Management Review 86(10): 5.

Feldman, J. (1981). "Beyond Attribution Theory: Cognitive Processes in Performance Appraisal." Journal of Applied Psychology 70: 777-781.

Feldman, S. P. (1996). Management in Context: Culture and Organizational Change. Understanding Management. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications**:** 113-129.

Festinger, L. (1954). "A Theory of Social Comparison Processes." Human Relations 7: 117-140.

Feyerabend, P. K. (1978). Against Method: Outline of an Anarchistic Theory of Knowledge. London, Verso.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (1972). "The effects of leadership training and experience, a contingency model interpretation." Admininstrative Science Quarterly 17(4): 453.

Fiedler, F. E. (1978). The contingency model and the dynamics of the leadership process. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology. L. Berkowitz. New York, Academic Press. 11: 59-112.

Fiedler, F. E. (1993). The Leadership Situation and the Black Box in Contingency Theories. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press**:** 1 - 28.

Fiedler, F. E. (1997). Situational Control and a Dynamic Theory of Leadership. Leadership: Classical, Contemporary, and Critical Approaches. K. Grint. Oxford, Oxford University Press**:** 126-148.

Fiedler, F. E., M. M. Chemers, and L. Mahar (1977). Improving Leadership Effectiveness. New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Fiedler, F. E. and J. E. Garcia (1987). New Approaches to Organisational Effectiveness. New York, John Wiley.

Field, R. H. G. (1982). "A test of the Vroom-Yetton normative model of leadership." Journal of Applied Psychology 67: 523-532.

Filley, A. C., R. J. House, and S. Kerr (1976). Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior. Glenview, Ill., Scott, Foresman and Company.

Fleishman, E. (1953). "The description of supervisory behavior." Personnel Psychology 37: 1-6.

Fleishman, E. A. (1957). A leader behaviour description for industry. Leader behavior: Its description and measurement. R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons. Columbus, Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.

Fleishman, E. A. (1960). Leadership opinion questionnaire. Chicago, Science Research Associates.

Fleishman, E. A. (1998). "Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover: Some post hoc reflections." Personnel Psychology 51(4): 825-834.

Fleishman, E. A. and E. F. Harris (1962). "Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover." Personnel Psychology 15: 43-56.

Fleishman, E. A., E. G. Harris, and H. E. Burt (1955). Leadership and Supervision in Industry. Columbus, Oh., Ohio State University.

Fleishman, E. A. and J. G. Hunt, Eds. (1973). Current Developments in the Study of Leadership. Carbondale, IL, Southern Illinois University Press.

Fleming, D. (2001). "Narrative leadership: Using the power of stories." Strategy & Leadership 29(4): 34-36.

References

Fletcher, C. (1974). Beneath the surface: An account of three styles of sociological research. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Foti, R. J., S. L. Fraser, and R. G. Lord (1982). "Effects of Leadership Labels and Prototypes on Perceptions of Political Leaders." Journal of Applied Psychology 67: 326-333.

French, J. R. P. (1950). Field experiments: Changing group productivity. Experiments in social process. J. G. Miller. New York, McGraw-Hill.

French, J. R. P., J. Israel, and D. As (1960). "An experiment in participation in a Norwegian factory." Human Relations 13: 3-19.

French, R. L. (1949). Morale and leadership: Human Factors in Undersea Warfare, National Research Council.

Freund, J. E. (1970). Statistics: A First Course. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Fulop, L. and S. Linstead, Eds. (1999). Management: A Critical Text. Melbourne, Macmillan Education Australia Pty Ltd.

Gadiesh, O. and L. Gilbert (1998). "Profit pools, a fresh look at strategy." Harvard Business Review 76(5): 131-143.

Galton, F. (1870). Hereditary Genius. New York, Appleton.

Galtung, J. (1967). Theory and Methods of Social Research. London, George Allen & Unwin Ltd.

Gardner, W. L. and J. R. Schermerhorn Jr. (1992). Strategic Operational Leadership and the Management of Supportive Work Environments. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 99-117.

Glaser, B. (1978). Theoretical Sensitivity. Mill Valley, CA, Sociology Press.

Glaser, B. G. and A. L. Strauss (1967). The Discovery of Grounded Theory. London, Weidenfeld & Nicolson.

Goertzel, V. and M. G. Goertzel (1962). Cradles of Eminence. London, Constable and Company Ltd.

Goffman, E. (1959). The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life. Harmondsworth, Penguin Books Ltd.

Golding, D. (1996). Management Rituals: Maintaining Simplicity in the Chain of Command. Understanding Management. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications: 78-93.

Google (2001). Keywords 'Leadership', 'Business Leadership', Google Search Engine. http://www.google.com/ [13 March, 2001].

Google (2003). Keywords 'Leadership', 'Business Leadership'. Google Search Engine. http:www.google.com/ [30 May, 2003].

Gowler, D. and K. Legge (1996). The Meaning of Management and the Management of Meaning. Understanding Management. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications: 34-50.

Graen, G. (1976). Role Making Processes within Complex Organizations. Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. M. D. Dunnette. Chicago, Rand McNally and Company: 1201-1245.

Graen, G., K. M. Alvares, J. B. Orris and J. A. Martella (1970). "Contingency model of leadership effectiveness: Antecedents and evidential results." Psychological Bulletin 74: 285-296.

Graen, G. and J. F. Cashman (1975). A Role-making Model of Leadership in Formal Organizations: A Developmental Approach. Leadership Frontiers. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Kent, Ohio, Kent State University Press.

References

Graen, G. B., J. F. Cashman, S. Ginsburgh and W. Schiemann (1978). "Effects of Linking-pin Quality upon the Quality of Working Life of Lower Participants: A Longitudinal Investigation of the Managerial Understructure." Administrative Science Quarterly 22: 491-504.

Graen, G. B. and T. A. Scandura (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organising. Research in organisational behaviour. L. L. Cummings and B. M. Staw. Greenwich, CT, JAI Press: 175-208.

Green, S. G. and R. C. Liden (1980). "Conextual and Attributional Influences on Control Decisions." Journal of Applied Psychology 65: 453-458.

Green, S. G. and T. R. Mitchell (1979). "Attributional Processes of Leaders in Leader-Member Interactions." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 23: 429-458.

Grint, K., Ed. (1997). Leadership: Classical, Contemporary, and Critical Approaches. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Hagen, A. F., M. T. Hassan, and S. G. Amin (1998). "Critical strategic leadership components: An empirical investigation." S.A.M. Advanced Management Journal 63(3): 39-44.

Halpin, A. W. and B. J. Winer (1957). A factorial study of the leader behavior descriptions. Leader Behavior: Its description and measurement. R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons. Columbus, Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.

Hambleton, R. K. and R. Gumpert (1982). "The validity of Hersey and Blanchard's theory of leader effectiveness." Group and Organization Studies 7: 225-242.

Hambrick, D. C. (1989). "Putting Top Managers Back in the Strategy Picture." Strategic Management Journal 10(Special Issue, Summer).

Hambrick, D. C. and P. A. Mason (1984). "Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers." Academy of Management Review 9(2): 193-206.

Hamel, G. and C. K. Prahalad (1989). "Strategic Intent." Harvard Business Review 67(3): 63-76.

Hammer, T. H. and H. P. Dachler (1973). The process of supervision in the context of motivation theory, Department of Psychology, University of Maryland.

Harung, H. S., D. P. Heaton, and C. N. Alexander (1995). "A unified theory of leadership: Experiences of higher states of consciousness in world-class leaders." Leadership & Organization Development Journal 16(7): 14-60.

Harvey, D. (1991). "Flexibility: Threat or Opportunity?" Socialist Review 21: 65-77.

Hemphill, J. K. and A. E. Coons (1957). Development of the leader behaviour description questionnaire. Leader Behaviour: Its Description and Measurement. R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons. Columbus, OH, The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research.

Herold, D. M. (1977). "Two-way Influence Processes in Leader-Follower Dyads." Academy of Management Journal 20(2): 224-237.

Hersey, P. and K. H. Blanchard (1982). Management of Organisational Behaviour: Utilising Human Resources. Englewood Cliffs NJ, Prentice-Hall.

Hewson, R. (1997). "New dimensions in strategic leadership." Strategy & Leadership(Sep/Oct): 42-47.

Hickman, C. R. and M. A. Silva (1984). Creating Excellence: Managing Corporate Culture, Strategy, and Change in the New Age. Sydney, George Allen & Unwin.

Hill, C. W. L. and G. R. Jones (1998). Strategic Management: An integrated approach. New York, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Hill, J. B. (1998). "10 strategies of successful managers." Supervision 59(6): 14-16.

References

Hitt, M. A. and B. W. Keats (1992). Strategic Leadership and Restructuring: A Reciprocal Interdependence. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 45-61.

Hofstede, G. (1980). "Motivation, leadership, and organization: Do American theories apply abroad?" Organizational Dynamics Summer: 42-63.

Hogg, M. A. (2001). "A Social Identity Theory of Leadership." Personality and Social Psychology Review 5(3): 184-200.

Hogg, M. A. and S. A. Reid (2001). Social identity, leadership, and power. The use and abuse of power: Multiple perspectives on the causes of corruption. A. Y. Lee-Chai and J. A. Bargh. Philadelphia, Psychology Press: 159-180.

Hollander, E. P. (1958). "Conformity, status, and idiosyncrasy credit." Psychological Review 65: 117-127.

Hollander, E. P. (1960). "Competence and conformity in the acceptance of influence." Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology 61: 361-365.

Hollander, E. P. (1961a). Emergent Leadership and Social Influence. Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior. L. Petrullo and B. M. Bass. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Hollander, E. P. (1961b). "Some effects of perceived status on responses to innovative behaviour." Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology 63: 247-250

Hollander, E. P. (1974). "Processes of leadership emergence." Journal of Contemporary Business 34: 19-33.

Hollander, E. P. (1978). Leaders, groups, and influence. New York, Oxford University Press.

Hollander, E. P. (1993). Legitimacy, Power, and Influence: A Perspective on Relational Features of Leadership. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press: 29 - 47.

Hooijberg, R. and J. Choi (2000). "Which leadership roles matter to whom? An examination of rater effects on perceptions of effectiveness." Leadership Quarterly 11(3): 341-364.

Hooijberg, R. and R. E. Quinn (1992). Behavioral Complexity and the Development of Effective Managers. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 161-175.

Hosking, D.-M. and I. E. Morley (1988). The Skills of Leadership. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 88-106.

House, R. J. (1971). "A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness." Administrative Science Quarterly 16: 321-38.

House, R. J. (1974). Leader initiating structure and subordinate performance, satisfaction, and motivation: A review and a theoretical interpretation.

House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership. Leadership: The cutting edge. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Carbondale: Southern Illinois, Southern Illinois University Press: 189-207.

House, R. J. (1992). Afterword: Stratified Systems Theory and Leadership: Where We Go From Here. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 267-274.

House, R. J. and M. L. Baetz (1990). Leadership: Some Empirical Generalizations and New Research Directions. Leadership, Participation, and Group Behavior. L. L. Cummings and B. M. Staw. London, JAI Press Inc: 1-83.

References

House, R. J. and G. Dessler (1974). The path-goal of leadership: Some post hoc and a priori tests. Contingency Approaches to Leadership. J. Hunt and L. Larson. Carbondale, Southern Illinois University.

House, R. J., A. C. Filley, and S. Kerr (1971). "Relation of leader consideration and initiating structure to R & D subordinates' satisfaction." Administrative Science Quarterly 16: 19-30.

House, R. J. and T. R. Mitchell (1974). "Path-goal theory of leadership." Journal of Contemporary Business 3: 81-97.

House, R. J. and B. Shamir (1993). Toward the Integration of Transformational, Charismatic, and Visionary Theories. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press: 81 - 107.

Hunt, J. G. (1999). "Transformational/charismatic leadership's transformation of the field: An historical essay." Leadership Quarterly 10: 129-144.

Hunt, J. G. and L. L. Larson (1977). Diverse Perspectives: Can They Be Reconciled? Leadership: The Cutting Edge. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Carbondale, Southern Illinois, Southern Illinois University Press: 116-118.

Hunt, J. G. and R. L. Phillips (1992). Some Concluding Thoughts. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 255-266.

Hurworth, R. (2000). Analysing Qualitative Data, Footscray Park Campus, Victoria University of Technology, Victoria, Australia.

Hussey, J. and R. Hussey (1997). Business Research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students. London, Macmillan Press Ltd.

Indik, B. P., S. E. Seashore, and B. S. Georgopoulos (1960). "Relations among criteria of job performance." Journal of Applied Psychology 44: 195-202.

Irurita, V. F. (1996). Optimising: A leadership process for transforming mediocrity to excellence. Leadership Research and Practice: Emerging Themes and New Challenges. K. W. Parry. Melbourne, Pitman Publishing.

Jacobs, T. O. and P. Lewis (1992). Leadership Requirements in Stratified Systems. Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books: 16-25.

James, L. R. and J. F. White (1983). "Cross-Situational Specificity in Managers' Perceptions of Subordinate Performance, Attributions, and Leader Behaviors." Personnel Psychology 36: 809-856.

Jaques, E. (1986). "The development of intellectual capacity." Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 22: 361-383.

Jaques, E. and S. D. Clement (1991). Executive Leadership: A Practical Guide to Managing Complexity. Arlington, Virginia, Cason Hall & Co., Publishers.

Jauch, L. R. and W. F. Glueck (1988). Business Policy and Strategic Management. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Jeffcutt, P. (1996). Between Managers and the Managed: the Processes of Organizational Transition. Understanding Management. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications: 172-192.

Jennings, D. (2001). Benchmarking best practices may not be the best practice for your company. Ebn: 47.

Jermier, J. M. (1985). "'When the Sleeper Wakes': A Short Story Extending Themes in Radical Organization Theory." Journal of Management 11(2): 67-80.

Kane, E. and M. O'Reilly-de Brun (2001). Doing Your Own Research. London, Marion Boyars.

References

Karpin, D. (1994). Developing Australia's Leadership and Management Skills. Education and Industry in Partnership. G. Mulroney and L. Shnookal. Melbourne, Victorian Industry Education Partnerships. 1.

Karpin, D. S. (1995). Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century. Report of the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service.

Katz, D. and R. Kahn (1965). The Social Psychology of Organizations. New York, Wiley.

Katz, D., N. Maccoby, G. Gurin and L. Floor (1951). Productivity, supervision, and morale among railroad workers. Ann Arbor, Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

Katz, D., N. Maccoby, and N. Morse (1950). Productivity, supervision, and morale in an office situation. Ann Arbor, Michigan, Institute for Social Research.

Kelley, H. H. (1973). "The Processes of Causal Attribution." American Psychologist 28: 107-128.

Kerr, S. (1976). Substitutes for Leadership, Ohio State University.

Kerr, S. and J. M. Jermier (1978). "Substitutes for leadership: their meaning and measurement." Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance 22: 375-403.

Kerr, S. and C. Schriesheim (1974). "Consideration, initiating structure, and organizational criteria: An update of Korman's 1966 review." Personnel Psychology 27: 555-568.

Kerr, S., C. Schriesheim, C. J. Murphy, and R. M. Stogdill (1974). "Toward a contingency theory of leadership based upon the consideration and initiating structure literature." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 12: 62-82.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (1997). The Leadership Mystique. Leadership: Classical, Contemporary, and Critical Approaches. K. Grint. Oxford, Oxford University Press: 250-271.

Kim, W. C. and R. Mauborgne (1999). "Creating new market space." Harvard Business Review 77(1): 83-93.

Kipnis, D., S. Schmidt, K. Price, and C. Stitt (1981). "Why Do I like Thee: Is It Your Performance or My Orders?" Journal of Applied Psychology 66: 324-328.

Klapp, O. E. (1964). Symbolic Leaders. U.S.A, Minerva Press.

Koestler, A. (1967). The Ghost in the Machine. London, Pan Books Ltd.

Korman, A. K. (1966). "Consideration, initiating structure and organizational criteria: A review." Personnel Psychology 19: 349-362.

Korman, A. K. and R. Tanofsky (1975). "Statistical problems of contingency models in organizational behavior." Academy of Management Journal 18(2): 393.

Kotter, J. P. (1990). A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management. New York, Free Press.

Kouzes, J. M. and B. Z. Posner (1995). The Leadership Challenge. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Kuhn, T. S. (1970). The Structure of Scientific Revolutions. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press.

Lakatos, I. (1970). Falsification and the Methodology of Scientifc Research Programmes. Criticism and the Growth of Knowledge. I. Lakatos and A. Musgrave. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press: 91-230.

Landry, J. T. (1999). "First, Break All the Rules: What the World's Greatest Managers Do Differently." Harvard Business Review 77(4): 173.

Langley, R. (1970). Practical Statistics. Newton Abbott Devon, David and Charles Limited.

References

Larson Jr., J. R. (1982). "Cognitive Mechanisms Mediating the Impact of Implicit Theories of Leader Behavior on Leader Behavior Ratings." <u>Organizational Behavior and Human Performance</u> 29: 129-140.

Larson Jr., J. R. (1984). "The performance feedback process: A preliminary model." <u>Organizational Behavior and Human Peformance</u> 29: 42-76.

Lewin, K. and R. Lippitt (1938). "An experimental approach to the study of autocracy and democracy: A preliminary note." <u>Sociometry</u> 1: 292-300.

Lewin, K., R. Lippitt, and R. K. White (1939). "Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climates." <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u> 10: 271-301.

Lewis, P. and T. O. Jacobs (1992). Individual Differences in Strategic Leadership Capacity: A Constructive/Developmental View. <u>Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective</u>. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books**:** 121-137.

Liden, R. C. and T. R. Mitchell (1983). "The Effects of Group Interdepence on Supervisor Performance Evaluations." <u>Personnel Psychology</u> 36: 289-299.

Likert, R. (1961). <u>New Patterns of Management</u>. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Likert, R. (1967). <u>The Human Organisation</u>. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Ling, P. (2000). Assessing competency, Centre for Educational Development, Victoria University of Technology. 2000.

Linstead, S. (1993). "From postmodern anthropology to deconstructive ethnography." <u>Human Relations</u> 46(1): 97.

Linstead, S. (1996). Understanding Management: Culture, Critique and Change. <u>Understanding Management</u>. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications**:** 11- 33.

Linstead, S. (1997). "The social anthropology of management." <u>British Journal of Management</u> 8(1): 85-98.

Linstead, S. (2000). "Gender blindness or gender suppression? A comment of Fiona Wilson's." <u>Organization Studies</u> 21(1): 297-303.

Linstead, S., R. G. Small, and P. Jeffcutt (1996). Editor's Introduction. <u>Understanding Management</u>. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications**:** 1-9.

Lippitt, R. (1940). "An experimental study of the effect of democratic and authoritarian group atmospheres." <u>University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare</u> 16: 43-95.

Lipshitz, R. and B. Nevo (1992). "Who is a 'good manager'?" <u>Leadership & Organization Development Journal</u> 13(6): 3-8.

Locke, K. (2001). <u>Grounded Theory in Management Research</u>. London, Sage Publications Ltd.

Lord, R. G. and K. Maher (1989). Perceptions in leadership and their implications. <u>Applied social psychology and organisational settings</u>. J. Carroll. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Earlbaum Associates. 4: 129-154.

Lowe, K. B. (2000). "Ten years of the *Leadership Quarterly:* Contributions and challenges for the future." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(4): 459-515.

Lowe, K. B., K. G. Kroek, and N. Sivasubramanium (1996). "Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 7(3): 385-425.

Lowin, A., W. J. Hrapchak, and M. J. Kavanagh (1969). "Consideration and initiating structure: An experimental investigation of leadership traits." <u>Administrative Science Quarterly</u> 14: 238-253.

Luthans, F., R. M. Hodgetts, and S. A. Rosenkrantz (1988). <u>Real Managers</u>. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Ballinger Publishing Company.

References

Madge, J. (1967). The Tools of Social Science. London, Longmans Green and Co. Ltd.

Maier, N. R. F. (1949). Improving supervision through training. Psychology of labor-management relations. A. Kornhauser. Champaign, Ill, Industrial Relations Research Association.

Maier, N. R. F. (1963). Problem-solving Discussions and Conferences: Leadership Methods and Skills, McGraw-Hill.

Maier, N. R. F. (1970). Problem solving and creativity in individuals and groups, Brooks-Cole.

Maier, N. R. F. and G. C. Verser (1982). Psychology in Industrial Organizations. London, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Maines, D. R. (1996). "On Postmodernism, Pragmatism, and Plasterers: Some Interactionist Thoughts and Queries." Symbolic Interaction 19(4): 323-41.

Mann, F. C. and J. Dent (1954). "The supervisor: Member of two organizational families." Harvard Business Review 32(6): 241-270.

March, J. G. and H. A. Simon (1958). Organizations. New York, Wiley.

Marshall-Mies, J. C., E. A. Fleishman, J. A. Martin, S. J. Zaccaro, W. A. Baughman and M. L. McGee (2000). "Development and evaluation of cognitive and metacognitive measures for predicting leadership potential." Leadership Quarterly 11(1): 135-154.

Martin, J. (1990). "Deconstructing organizational taboos: The suppression of gender conflict in organizations." Organization Science 1(4): 339-359.

Martinko, M. J. and S. C. Douglas (1999). "Culture and expatriate failure: An attributional explication." International Journal of Organizational Analysis 7(3): 265-293.

Martinko, M. J. and W. L. Gardner (1982). "Learned Helplessness: An Alternative Explanation for Performance Deficits." Academy of Management Review 7: 195-204.

Martinko, M. J. and W. L. Gardner (1987). "The Leader/Member Attribution Process." Academy of Management Review 12: 235-249.

Mason, J. (1994). Linking qualitative and quantitative data analysis. Analyzing Qualitative Data. A. Bryman and R. Burgess. London, Routledge: 89-110.

Mawhinney, T. C. and J. D. Ford (1977). "The Path Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness: An Operant Interpretation." The Academy of Management Review 2: 398-411.

McCall, W. M., M. M. Lombardo, and A. M. Morrison (1988). The Lessons of Experience. Lexington, Massachusetts, Lexington Press.

McClelland, D. C. (1961). The Achieving Society. Princeton, N. J., D. Van Nostrand.

McElroy, J. C. and J. D. Hunger (1988). Leadership Theory as Causal Attributions of Performance. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 169-182.

McGregor, D. (1949). Toward a theory of organised human effort in industry. Psychology of Labor-Management Relations. A. Kornhauser. Champaign, Ill., Industrial Relations Research Association: 111-122.

McLure, B. (1999). WREDO News, Western Melbourne Regional Economic Development Organsiation. 1999.

Meade, R. D. (1967). "An Experimental Study of Leadership in India." Journal of Social Psychology 72: 35-43.

Meindl, J. R., B. Ehrlich, J. M. Dukerich (1985). "The romance of leadership." Administrative Science Quarterly 30: 78-102.

Meindl, J. R. and S. B. Ehrlich (1987). "The Romance of Leadership and the Evaluation of Organizational Performance." Academy of Managment Journal 30: 91-109.

Merton, R. K. (1968). Social Theory and Social Structure. New York, The Free Press.

References

Meyer, G. E. (1993). <u>SPSS: A Minimilist Approach</u>. Sydney, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Miles, M. B. and A. M. Huberman (1984). <u>Analyzing qualitative data: A source book for new methods</u>. Beverly Hills, CA, Sage.

Miles, M. B. and M. A. Huberman (1994). <u>Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook</u>. London, Sage Publications.

Miller, M. (1999). "Emotional intelligence helps managers succeed." <u>Credit Union Magazine</u> 65(7): 25-26.

Mintzberg, H. (1987). "Crafting Strategy." <u>Harvard Business Review</u>(July-August): 66-75.

Misumi, J. (1985). <u>The Behavioural Science of Leadership</u>. Ann Arbor, Michigan, University of Michigan Press.

Mitchell, T. R. (1985). "An evaluation of the validity of correlational research conducted in organizations." <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 10: 192-205.

Mitchell, T. R. and L. S. Kalb (1982). "Effects of Job Experience on Supervisor Attributions for a Subordinate's Poor Performance." <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u> 67: 181-188.

Mitchell, T. R. and R. C. Liden (1982). "The Effects of Social Context on Performance Evaluations." <u>Organizational Behavior and Human Performance</u> 29: 241-256.

Morgenson, G. (1998). <u>Forbes Great Minds of Business</u>. New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Morse, N. C. and E. Reimer (1956). "The experimental change of a major organizational variable." <u>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</u> 52: 120-129.

Mumford, M. D., F. Dansereau, and F. J. Yammarino (2000). "Followers, motivations, and levels of analysis: The case of individualized leadership." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(3): 313-340.

Mumford, M. D., M. A. Marks, M. S. Connelly, S. J. Zaccaro, and R. Reiter-Palmon (2000). "Development of leadership skills: Experience and timing." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(1): 87-114.

Mumford, M. D., S. J. Zaccaro, F. D. Harding, T. O. Jacobs, and E. A. Fleishman (2000a). "Leadership skills for a changing world: solving complex social problems." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(1): 11-36.

Mumford, M. D., S. J. Zaccaro, J. F. Johnson, M. Diana, J.A. Gilbert, and K. V. Threlfall (2000b). "Patterns of leader characteristics: Implications for performance and development." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(1): 115-134.

Mumford, M. D., S. J. Zaccaro, M. S. Connelly, and M. A. Marks (2000c). "Leadership skills: Conclusions and future directions." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(1): 155-171.

Nadler, D. A. and M. L. Tushman (1990). "Beyond the charismatic leader: leadership and organisational change." <u>California Management Review</u> 32(2, Winter): 77-97.

Neef, D. (1999). "Making the case for knowledge management: the bigger picture." <u>Management Decision</u> 37(1): 72-78.

Neuman, W. L. (2000). <u>Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches</u>. Boston, Allyn and Bacon.

Nisbett, R. E. and L. Ross (1980). <u>Human Inference</u>. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall.

Nunnaly, J. C. (1978). <u>Psychometric Theory</u>. New York, McGraw Hill.

Oaklander, H. and E. A. Fleishman (1964). "Patterns of leadership related to organizational stress in hospital settings." <u>Admininstrative Science Quarterly</u> 9: 520.

Ohmae, K. (1988). "Getting Back To Strategy." <u>Harvard Business Review</u>(November-December): 149-156.

Pallant, J. (2000). <u>SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS</u>. Sydney, Allen & Unwin.

References

Palmer, W. J. (1974). "Management effectiveness as a function of personality traits of the manager." Personnel Psychology 27(2): 183.

Parry, K. W. (1998). "Grounded Theory and Social Process: A new direction for leadership research." Leadership Quarterly 9(1): 85-106.

Parry, K. W. (1999). "Enhancing adaptability: leadership strategies to accommodate change in local government settings." Journal of Organizational Change Management 12(2): 134-156.

Parry, K. W. and S. B. Proctor (2000). The New Zealand Leadership Survey 1999. Wellington, New Zealand, Centre for the Study of Leadership.

Parry, K. W. and S. B. Proctor-Thomson (2001). The social process of leadership (SPL): From qualitative to quantitative analyses. ANZAM, Auckland, New Zealand.

Patton, M. Q. (1987). How to use qualitative methods in evaluation. Newbury Park, CA, Sage.

Pearse, R. F. and M. M. Bear (1998). "Career success in different corporate cultures." Compensation & Benefits Management 14(1): 26-35.

Pelz, D. C. (1951). "Leadership Within a Hierarchical Organization." Journal of Social Issues **7**: 49-55.

Pelz, D. C. (1952). "Influence: a key to effective leadership in the first line supervisor." Personnel 29: 209-17.

Peters, T. (1987). Thriving on Chaos. New York, Knopf.

Peters, T. and N. Austin (1985). A Passion for Excellence. New York, Random House.

Peterson, M. F. and P. B. Smith (1988). Gleanings from a Frustrated Process Analysis of Leadership Research Stakeholders. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books**:** 183-199.

Pfeffer, J. (1977). "The ambiguity of leadership." Academy of Management Review 2: 104-12.

Pfeffer, J. (1981a). Power in Organizations. London, Pitman Publishing Inc.

Pfeffer, J. (1981b). "Management as symbolic action: the creation and maintenance of organisational paradigms." Research in Organisational Behaviour 3: 1-52.

Pfeffer, J. (1985). Organizations and Organization Theory. Handbook of Social Psychology. G. Lindzey and E. Aronson. New York, Random House**:** 379-440.

Phillips, B. S. (1971). Social Research: strategy and tactics. New York, The Macmillan Company.

Phillips, J. S. and R. G. Lord (1981). "Causal Attributions and Perceptions of Leadership." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 28: 143-163.

Phillips, R. L. and J. G. Hunt, Eds. (1992). Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-Level Perspective. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books.

Pigors, P. (1935). Leadership or Domination. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin.

Podsakoff, P. M. (1982). "Determinants of a supervisor's use of rewards and punishments: A literature review and suggestions for further research." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 29: 58-83.

Podsakoff, P. M., S. B. Mackenzie, M. Ahearne, and W. H. Bommer (1995). "Searching for a needle in a haystack: Trying to identify the illusive moderators of leadership behaviors." Journal of Management 21(3): 4232-471.

Podsakoff, P. M. and C. A. Schriesheim (1985). Leader reward and punishment behaviour: A methodological and substantive review. Research in organizational behaviour. B. Staw and L. L. Cummings. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Pondy, L. R. (1978). Leadership is a language game. Leadership: Where Else Can We Go? M. W. McCall Jr. and M. M. Lombardo. Durham, NC, Duke University Press.

References

Popper, M., O. Mayseless, and O. Castelnovo (2000). "Transformational leadership and attachment." Leadership Quarterly 11(2).

Porter, M. E. (1996). "What Is Strategy?" Harvard Business Review 74(6): 61-80.

Potter, J. and M. Wetherell (1994). Analyzing Discourse. Analyzing Qualitative Data. A. Bryman and R. Burgess. London, Routledge: 47-66.

Proctor-Thomson, S. B. and K. W. Parry (2000). What the Best Leaders Look Like ... Leadership in the Antipodes. K. W. Parry. Wellington, New Zealand, Institute of Policy Studies, Victoria University of Wellington: 166-191.

Punch, K. F. (2000). Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches. London, Sage Publications.

Quinn, J. B. (1988). Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Ragins, B. R., B. Townsend, and M. Mattis (1998). "Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and Female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling." The Academy of Management Executive 12(1): 28-42.

Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial Effectiveness. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Rice, R. W. (1978). "Construct Validity of the Least Preferred Coworker Score." Psychological Bulletin 85: 1199-1237.

Riley, P. (1988). The Merger of Macro and Micro Levels of Leadership. Emerging Leadership Vistas. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books: 80-83.

Ross, Jr. W. H., D. E. Conlon, E. A. Lind (1990). "The Mediator as Leader: Effects of Behavioral Style and Deadline." Group & Organization Management 15(1): 105-125.

Rothman, J. and M. Stewart-Weeks (1995). Stock-take of Management Development Practices in Medium and Large Companies. Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century, Research Report. D. S. Karpin. Canberra, Australian Government Printing Service. 1: 155-227.

Rothschild, W. E. (1993). Risktaker, Caretaker, Surgeon, Undertaker: The Four Faces of Strategic Leadership. New York, John Wiley.

Rousseau, D. M. and R. J. House (1994). "Meso organizational behavior: Avoiding three fundamental biases." Journal of Organizational Behavior 1: 13-31.

Rubbinstein, R. A., C. D. Laughlin, and J. McMannis (1984). Science as Cognitive Process: Toward an Empirical Philosophy of Science. Philadelphia, Penn., University of Pennsylvania Press.

Runyon R. P. and A. Haber (1984). Fundamentals of Behavioral Statistics. Sydney, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Russell, C. J. and S. W. Gilliland (1995). "Why meta-analysis doesn't tell us what the data really mean: Distinguishing between moderator effects and moderator processes." Journal of Management 21(4): 813-832.

Sackett, P. R. (1987). "Assessment centers and content validity: Some neglected issues." Personnel Pyschology 40: 13-25.

Salancik, G. R., B. J. Calder, K. M. Rowland, H. Leblebici, and M. Conway (1975). Leadership as an outcome of social structure and process: A multidimensional analysis. Leadership frontiers. J. G. Hunt and E. E. Larson. Columbus, OH., Kent University Press: 81-101.

Sarantakos, S. (1998). Social Research. South Yarra, Melbourne, Macmillan Education Australia.

Sarros, J. C., I. L. Densten, and J. C. Santora (1999). Leadership & Values: Australian executives and the balance of power, profits, & people. Sydney, Harper Collins.

References

Sashkin, M. (1992). Strategic Leadership Competencies. <u>Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective</u>. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books**:** 139-160.

Sashkin, M. and R. M. Fulmer (1988). Toward an Organizational Leadership Theory. <u>Emerging Leadership Vistas</u>. J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler and C. A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books**:** 51-65.

Sayles, L. R. (1979). <u>Leadership: What Effective Managers Really Do ... and How They Do It</u>. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Schriesheim, C. and M. A. Von Glinow (1977). "The path-goal theory of leadership - a theoretical and empirical analysis." <u>Academy of Management Journal</u> 20(3): 398.

Schriesheim, C. A. and S. Kerr (1977). Theories and Measures of Leadership: A Critical Appraisal of Current and Future Directions. <u>Leadership: The Cutting Edge</u>. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Carbondale, Southern Illinois, Southern Illinois University Press**:** 9-45.

Schriesheim, J. F. and C. A. Schriesheim (1980). "A test of the path-goal theory of leadership and some suggested directions for future research." <u>Personnel Psychology</u> 33: 349-370.

Schutz, A. (1967). <u>The Phenomenology of the Social World</u>. New York, Northwestern University Press.

Scott Jr., W. E. (1977). Leadership: A Functional Analysis. <u>Leadership: The Cutting Edge</u>. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Carbondale, Southern Illinois, Southern Illinois University Press**:** 84-93.

Segal, D. R. (1992). Environmental Challenges for Strategic Managers. <u>Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-level Perspective</u>. R. L. Phillips and J. G. Hunt. Westport, Connecticut, Quorum Books**:** 29-44.

Shartle, C. L. (1950). Studies of leadership by interdisciplinary methods. <u>Leadership in American Education</u>. A. G. Grace. Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Shiflett, S. C. (1973). "The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: Some implications of its statistical and methodological properties." <u>Behavioral Science</u> 18(6): 429-440.

Siegel, S. (1956). <u>Nonparametric Statistics for the behavioural sciences</u>. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Sims Jr., H. P. (1977). The Leader as a Manager of Reinforcement Contingencies: An Empirical Example and a Model. <u>Leadership: The Cutting Edge</u>. J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson. Carbondale, Ill., Southern Illinois University Press.

Sinclair, A. (1998). <u>Doing Leadership Differently</u>. Sydney, Allen & Unwin.

Smircich, L. and G. Morgan (1982). "Leadership: the management of meaning." <u>Journal of Applied Behavioural Science</u> 18: 257-73.

Smith, J. A. and R. J. Foti (1998). "A pattern approach to the study of leader emergence." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 9(2): 147-160.

Smith, P. B. (1973). <u>Groups within Organizations</u>. New York, Harper and Row.

Smith, P. B. and M. F. Peterson (1988). <u>Leadership, Organizations, and Culture: An Event Management Model</u>. London, SAGE Publications Ltd.

Smith, S. L. and B. Wilkinson (1996). 'We are our own Policemen!' - Organizing without Conflict. <u>Understanding Management</u>. S. Linstead, R. G. Small and P. Jeffcutt. London, Sage Publications**:** 130-144.

Spencer, J., Lyle M. and S. M. Spencer (1993). <u>Competence at Work: Models for Superior Performance</u>. New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Spitzer, Q. and R. Evans (1997). "The new business leader: Socrates with a baton." <u>Strategy & Leadership</u> 25(5): 32-38.

References

Spreitzer, G. M., M. W. McCall Jr., and J. D. Mahoney (1997). "Early identification of international executive potential." Journal of Applied Psychology 82(1): 6-29.

Stake, R. (1994). Case Studies. Handbook of Qualitative Research. N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publications.

Stebbins, R. A. (1969). "Studying the Definition of the Situation: Theory and Field Research Strategies." The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology 6(4).

Stinson, J. E. and T. W. Johnson (1975). "The path-goal theory of leadership - a partial test and suggested refinement." Academy of Management Journal 18(2): 242.

Stogdill, R. (1948). "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature." Journal of Psychology 25: 35-71.

Stogdill, R. (1974). Handbook of Leadership. New York, The Free Press.

Stoner, J. A., R. R. Collins, and P. W. Yetton (1985). Management in Australia. Sydney, Prentice-Hall of Australia Pty Ltd.

Strauss, A. and J. Corbin (1990). Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques. London, Sage Publications, Inc.

Stryker, S. and A. Stratham (1985). Symbolic Interaction and Role Theory. Handbook of Social Psychology. G. Lindzey and E. Aronson. New York, Random House: 311-378.

Sturman, A. (1997). Case Studies. Edcuational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook. N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln. Oxford, Elsevere Science Ltd.

Sutherland, E. H. and D. R. Cressey (1969). A Sociological Theory of Criminal Behavior. Delinquency, Crime, and Social Process. D. R. Cressey and D. A. Ward. New York, Harper & Row: 426-432.

Szilagyi, A. D., Jr. and D. M. Schweiger (1984). "Matching managers to strategies: A review and suggested format." Academy of Management Review 9: 626-637.

Tabachnick, B. G. and L. S. Fidell (1996). Using Multivariate Statistics. New York, HarperCollins.

Tannenbaum, R. and W. H. Schmidt (1985). "How to choose a leadership pattern." Harvard Business Review 51(3): 162-4ff [Reprint of March-April 1958 article].

Tejeda, M. J., T. A. Scandura, and R. Pillai (2001). "The MLQ revisited: Psychometric properties and recommendations." Leadership Quarterly 12(1): 31-52.

Terman, L. M. (1904). "A Preliminary Study of the Psychology and Pedagogy of Leadership." Journal of Genetic Psychology 11: 413-451.

Thomas, W. I. (1972). The Definition of the Situation. Symbolic Interaction: A Reader in Social Psychology. J. G. Manis and B. N. Meltzer. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.: 331-336.

Thompson, J. A. A. and A. J. Strickland (1998). Strategic Management: Concepts and Cases. Boston, Massachusetts, Irwin/McGraw Hill.

Tichy, N. M. and M. A. Devanna (1986). The Transformational Leader. New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Tosi Jr., H. J. (1985). Why leadership isn't enough. Leadership on the Future Battlefield. J. G. Hunt and J. D. Blair. Washington, D. C., Pergamon-Brassey's: 119-132.

Triandis, H. C. (1993). The Contingency Model in Cross-Cultural Perspective. Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions. M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman. London, Academic Press: 167 - 188.

Trochim, W. (1989). "Outcome pattern matching and program theory." Evaluation and Program Planning 12: 355-366.

Vines, J., P. Ivanoff, C. Griss and E. Prentice (1995). International Best Practice in Leadership and Management Development: Report of Overseas Study Tour - 1993. Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the

References

Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century - Research Report. D. Karpin. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service. 2: 1063-1125.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and Motivation. New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Vroom, V. H. (1984). Leadership and decision-making. Osaka University 50th Anniversary International Symposium on Democratization and Leadership in Industrial Organizations. Osaka, Japan, Faculty of Human Sciences, Osaka University: 87-109.

Vroom, V. H. and A. G. Jago (1978). "On the validity of the Vroom-Yetton model." Journal of Applied Psychology 63: 151-162.

Vroom, V. H. and A. G. Jago (1988). The New Leadership: Managing Participation in Organisations. New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Vroom, V. H. and P. W. Yetton (1973). Leadership and Decision-Making. Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh.

Waldman, D. A. and F. J. Yammarino (1999). "CEO charismatic leadership: Levels-of-management and levels-of-analysis effects." The Academy of Management Review 24(2): 266-285.

Watson, T. (1997). "Roads to the Top: Career Decisions and Development of 18 Business Leaders - A Review." New Zealand Journal of Industrial Relations 22/23(3/1): 337-339.

Wawm, T. and J. Green (1995). Experienced Insights: Opinions of Australian Managers, Ideals, Strengths & Weaknesses. Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century, Research Report. D. Karpin. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service. One.

Weber, M. (1947). The Theory of Economic and Social Organization. New York, Free Press (first published 1921).

Weick, K. E. (1977). Enactment Processes in Organizations. New Directions in Organizational Behaviour. B. M. Staw and G. R. Salancik. Chicago, St. Clair Press: 267-298.

Weiss, H. M. and S. Adler (1981). "Cognitive Complexity and the Structure of Implicit Leadership Theories." Journal of Applied Psychology 66: 69-78.

Westley, F. and H. Mintzberg (1991). Visionary Leadership and Strategic Management. Strategic Planning: Selected Readings. J. W. Pfeiffer. San Diego, California, Pfeiffer & Company: 305-337.

Whipp, R. and A. M. Pettigrew (1993). Leading Change and the Management of Competition. Strategic Thinking, Leadership and the Management of Change. J. Hendry, G. Johnson and J. Newton. New York, John Wiley.

Whisenant, W. A. (1998). The influence of managerial activities, gender, physical stature, and frequency of networking on the success ratio of intercollegiate athletic directors, Florida State University.

Winch, P. (1958). The Idea of a Social Science and its Relation to Philosophy. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Wofford, J. C. and L. Z. Liska (1993). "Path-goal theories of leadership: A meta-analysis." Journal of Management 19(4): 857-877.

Wood, R. E. and T. R. Mitchell (1981). "Manager Behavior in a Social Context: The Impact of Impression Management on Attributions and Disciplinary Actions." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 28: 356-378.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. London, Sage Publications.

Yoffie, D. B. and M. A. Cusumano (1999). "Judo strategy." Harvard Business Review 77(1): 71-81.

References

Yukl, G. (1999). "An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 10: 285-305.

Yukl, G. A. (1971). "Toward a behavioral theory of leadership." <u>Organizational Behavior and Human Performance</u> 6: 414-440.

Yukl, G. A. (1981). <u>Leadership in Organizations</u>. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Zaccaro, S. J., M. D. Mumford, M. S. Connelly, M. A. Marks, and J. A. Gilbert (2000). "Assessment of leader problem-solving capabilities." <u>Leadership Quarterly</u> 11(1): 37-64.

Zaleznik, A. (1977). "Managers and leaders: are they different?" <u>Harvard Business Review</u> 55: 67-78.

Zaleznik, A. (1990). "The Leadership Gap." <u>The Academy of Management Executive</u> 4(1): 7-23.

Zickar, M. J. (1999). "Statistical power analysis: A simple and general model for traditional and modern hypothesis testing." <u>Personnel Psychology</u> 52(2): 539-542.

Zikmund, W. (1997). <u>Business Research Methods</u>. Fort Worth, The Dryden Press.