An Investigation into the Relationship Between the Leadership Competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and Leadership Styles of Russian Managers working for MNCs.

by

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Abstract

The need for greater understanding of international leadership models has escalated in tandem with the globalization of trade and commerce. This dissertation presents the comparative-cultural study undertaken to address these two critical issues; employing the Russian Federation as the cultural context for the investigation. Cross-cultural research highlights a deficit of up-to-date comparative data on Russian organizational leadership, whilst practitioners articulate the demand for Russia-appropriate leadership development expertise.

Increasingly, scholars advocate the application of integrated theories for assessing organizational leadership; contributing to several scholars updating trait theory into competency terms (including emotional competencies). Recent studies in the UK have established linkages amongst the competencies required for effective leadership, executives' emotional competencies, and the demonstrated leadership styles of managers. This research extends these UK findings, investigating the possible relationship between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence (EI), and leadership styles of Russian managers working within domestic and foreign MNCs.

The researcher employed the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) as the standardized measurement instrument for conducting this "etic" (comparative) study. The LDQ assesses managers based on 15 dimensions, representing cognitive (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial competencies (MQ); generating a leadership style "profile" based on the respondent's scores. A combination of online and paper-based self-report versions of the LDQ (recently validated and utilized in several key UK studies) facilitated the data collection from the participating Russian managers (n = 152), over a 12- month period.

Major findings of this research include: the identification of a clear leadership style preference by the Russian manager-sample ("participative"); statistically significant differences between the Russian and UK samples – on 14 of the 15 dimensions; distinctive differences in the competencies required for senior versus junior managers; "communication" was predictive of Russian leader performance, whilst follower commitment was predicted by leaders' levels of "sensitivity" and "communication".

Contributions of this research to theory include: the identification of an up-to-date leadership profile of Russian managers, in competency terms, which can be compared with other cultures; a comparative cultural assessment of Russian managers' based on EI; a comparison of Russian managers at different levels of large companies, with special attention to their similarities and differences. Implications of this research for practitioners include: the ability for organizations operating in Russia to identify/develop leaders based on their personal leadership profiles (executive training and development), as assessed by the LDQ; the potential for identifying and fostering competencies required of managers at higher levels within the organization (promotion; as roles and responsibilities differ at various levels within an organization); the opportunity for matching appropriate leadership styles to conform with organizational strategies and the surrounding business environment (strategic leadership style/context fit).

Acknowledgements

Confucius said that "A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step." For me, that first step was joining the DBA18 group at Henley Management College. It has been a long quest informed by growth, discovery, development - and pain. This journey has brought emotional swings from peaks of joy and elation to valleys of depression and despair. However, although long and arduous, this trek has proved to be exceptionally rewarding. Even solitary journeys require support. The DBA office, my first direct contact with Henley Management College, has provided unparalleled assistance and encouragement, whose backing has brought me to the threshold of completing Henley's DBA program. David Price, Richard McBain, Veronica Clarke, and Louise Child are selfless in their support of researcher associates completing their doctoral programs.

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Glossary of Terms

Apparatchik (i) *(Russian) Soviet term referring to a government official who was a Communist party member and strong supporter of the Soviet ideology; i.e., "A part of the apparatus".*

CMB *common methods bias*

CMV *common methods variance*

EI *Emotional Intelligence*

EQ *Emotional Quotient; Emotional Intelligence*

Emic **a** *linguistic term adopted by cross-cultural authors denoting culture specific approaches to research*

Etic **a** *linguistic term adopted by cross-cultural authors denoting comparative approaches to research*

HR *human resources*

IQ *Intelligence Quotient*

JV *joint venture*

LPC *least popular coworker; associated with Fiedler's Contingency model*

MNC *Multinational Corporation*

MQ *Managerial Quotient; management competences (skills)*

NIS *Newly Independent States*

NPO *non-profit organization*

OC *organizational commitment*

Perestroika *(Russian) Soviet term coined by Mikhail Gorbachev during the 1980s denoting a time of rebuilding the nation; literally "rebuild".*

VIF *variance inflation factor*

WWi *the First World War*

WWll *the Second World War*

Zeitgeist *(German) literally "spirit of the time"*

*** A note to the reader: This dissertation adheres to US spelling, grammar, and punctuat11ion.**

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introductory Paragraph

The author spent nearly a decade working as a management consultant in the Russian Federation, assisting organizations (both foreign and domestic, and representing varying sizes, levels of maturity, and industries), to reach their competitive objectives within the Russian marketplace. The primary purpose and contribution of this original research is:

> **"to assist organizations working within the Russian Federation in developing their present and future business executives, whilst offering enterprises and researchers globally, further insight into understanding Russian managers holding various levels of leadership within large companies."**

As such, this comparative-cultural investigation has been designed to extend Dulewicz and Higgs' (UK) scholarship in the areas of leadership styles, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership competencies, by applying their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) within the Russian Federation. Thus, by comparing the findings of this study with Dulewicz and Higgs' UK norms, similarities and differences between the two cultures might be identified and further contribute to the literature on comparative cultural studies. To this end, the author has developed the following research thesis:

> **An investigation into the relationship between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for MNCs.**

The next section presents the background for the thesis, arguing the case for the investigation based on its need, as indicated by the deficit of research in the literature. Specifically, this chapter contains the following sections: Background;:

the Global Business Environment; the Russian Context; Motivation and Potential Contributions to Research; Thesis Structure; and Chapter Summary.

1.2 Background: The Global Business Environment

No organization in any industrialized nation is exempt from the rapidly growing internationalization of companies and markets, i.e., globalization. Furthermore, an increasing number of scholars and practitioners recognize the tremendous impact national culture has on organizations, and the consequent need for executives with multi-cultural literacy to assume leadership roles abroad. The following quote illustrates the “backdrop” for conducting business during the current era:

> **So I was visiting a businessman in downtown Jakarta the other day and I asked for directions to my next appointment. His exact instructions were: "Go to the building with the Armani Emporium upstairs--you know, just above the Hard Rock Café—and then turn right at McDonalds." I just looked at him and laughed. Where am I? (Friedman, 1997 (electronic version, no page numbers included)**

The workplace, labor force, creditors, investors, suppliers, and customers represent broad international backgrounds, and therefore require cultural knowledge and sensitivity in order to facilitate successful business relationships (Hofstede, 1980; 1993; Trompenaars, 1993; Joynt, 1996; 1999; House, Javidan and Dorfman, 2001; Hollenbeck and McCall, 2003; Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque and House, 2006). MNCs’ overseas sales earned $5.5 trillion in 1994 and have now passed the $7 trillion mark (Staff writer; the Economist, 1994, p. 57) and are estimated to be growing at a rate of 20 to 30 percent faster than sales from their domestic facilities. However, close to 90% of large companies (Fortune 500 listed) have expressed concerns over the inherent deficit of multi-culturally literate executives to lead this transnational expansion (Pattison, 1990; Schein, 1993). Europe, in particular, with its model to eliminate borders within its multinational/multicultural region, is in special need of organizational leaders with cross-cultural leadership competencies:

> **The traditional orientation of companies working within national borders is declining worldwide, but…particularly within the European market. Leaders of these organizations must prepare to address the changes that will come about as a consequence of the globalization of markets and the changeovers predicted in Europe…. Collectively these changes require leaders and organizations that are able to respond to continuous changes in resources, technologies, marketing, and distribution systems. The global European manager will need to work with diverse groups of people, who have attitudes, values and beliefs that may differ from that of the leader. Continual and rapid change will fast become the rule rather than the exception. (Bass and Avolio, 1990, p. 21)**

Certainly changes within European countries have been tremendous, as highlighted by Sir John Harvey-Jones (former Chairman of Imperial Chemical Industries (ICI), UK), who predicted that 'within ten years nearly 50 percent of all Europe's factories would close, whilst a similar number would either cease to exist or merge with other companies' (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

1.3 The Russian Context

Yet, the level of change experienced in Western Europe is dwarfed by the colossal transformation taking place within the European continent's giant to the east – the Russian Federation.

> **In 1991, a miraculous thing happened, and that's (sic) the Soviet Union ended… So, there is an opportunity to build a very healthy and new world, on the basis of the change that the Russian people themselves want. But for Russia to make that change it is going to be one of the most remarkably difficult and complex passages imaginable. After all, here is a country [the Russian Federation]; an empire had ended [the Soviet Union]. Here is a society, which had been dictatorial or authoritarian for a thousand years,**

> **becoming a democracy. They need massive help; clever thinking, lots of ideas, and lots of involvement [leadership]. (PBS Online and WGBS/FRONTLINE, 1999; website, no page numbers included)**

The Russian Federation represents an official population of 148 million people, spans eleven time zones (GMT +2 – GMT +12), and leads the world, by some accounts, in natural resources. Having been closed to the outside world for most of the 20th century, coupled with the sheer size of its market, not to mention its strategic importance in the international political economy, interest in Russia's business environment will certainly increase. Other valuable resources for capital development include:

- i). human resources of literate peoples ranging in expertise from artists and athletes to engineers and physicists;
- ii). vast undeveloped natural and material resources;
- ii). mathematics and science instruction of a world-class standard;
- iv). a national desire for a more democratically-oriented government and society supporting a capitalist-based economy;
- v). increasing numbers of entrepreneurs;
- vi). widespread, Russians are interested in Western culture and business practices. (adapted from Harris et al., 1996)

The need for knowledge transfer in the form of Western leadership and management concepts has been recognized by a growing number of researchers. Experts note the limited reservoir of rigorous management research conducted in the Russian Federation, with an even greater deficit in the areas of leadership and leadership development (e.g., Blazyca, 1987; Aage, 1991; Laszlo, 1992; Harris and Moran, 1996; Fey, 2001; Elenkov, 2002; Van Genderen, 2006; Puffer et al, 2007). Findings in Russian leadership skills have been mixed, often times suffering from stereotyping, biases, and superficial assumptions (Liuhto, 1999). Other inquiries have been brought into question owing to limited sampling and the numbers of participating companies; and/or fundamental research design and methodology flaws. These factors detract from their contributions and overall value, both to academic theorists and frontline practitioners alike (Suutari, 1996, Suutari and Bolotow, 1996; Fey, 2001).

More recent contributions (Project GLOBE) by well established academics (i.e., House et al. 2001) have attracted a great deal of attention, whilst simultaneously raising serious questions as to the quality of their scholarship and overall value to the business world (Graen, 2006). As Graen (2006) warns, practitioners should ‘beware’ of utilizing the findings of such over-marketed and poorly designed/executed investigations, and further underscores the need for rigorous scholarly research that can aid both businesspeople and scholars in their development and understanding of organizational leadership in foreign countries; including the Russian Federation.

1.4 Motivation and Potential Contributions of this Research

Leadership development occurred in the former Soviet Union; during that time, managers were required to attend yearly training sessions intended to upgrade their skills. However, in line with the Soviet “top-down” approach to managing, such periodic gatherings amounted to little more than channels for Soviet ideological conditioning and opportunities to help maintain “support for the cause” (Puffer, 1981). Since the fall of the Soviet Union and the consequent founding of the Russian Federation, leadership development programs are scarce (Puffer et al., 2007). During the 1990s under the Yeltsin administration, radical change compounded by uncertainty contributed heavily to a continued top-down leadership approach.

Typically, only Western MNCs recognized the need for leadership development within their organizations, and they tended to follow a model that reserved senior executive positions for expatriates rather than Russians (Puffer et al., 2007). Western academic research on leadership development is extremely limited (Puffer, 1992; Puffer et al., 1996; Shekshnia, 1998; Puffer et al., 2007), and the available data gathered during the 1990s are grossly outdated. Indeed, leadership development programs were first brought to Russia by Western companies such as McDonalds and Otis Elevator, but failed to establish a trend within the business community until some 15 years later (Puffer et al., 2007). More importantly, large Russian firms maintained the policy of purchasing ready-made executives, and therefore neglected to invest in the development of organizational leaders (Puffer et al, 2007).

Nevertheless, since 2000 there has been considerable interest in, and demand for, the most up-to-date and effective leadership development technologies by both foreign MNCs and large Russian companies operating within the Russian Federation. This recent focus on developing organizational leaders at all management levels is largely a result of the recent changes in the political, economic, and business environments in Russia, following the country's recovery and stabilization from its financial crisis of 1998 (Van Genderen, 2006; Puffer et al, 2007). With the reduced volatility of the Russian economy amidst a change in the country's leadership, a new perspective has been developed by a few progressive Russian business leaders. Although most Russian CEOs do not fully subscribe to investing in leadership development, a small number have recognized the value in doing so, and may act as role models for future converts.

This change in mindset, along with the stabilization of their business environment, has largely been driven by Russian senior executives as a reaction to the increasing competitiveness of the Russian market, the high level of demand for trained executives within the booming economy, and the current high "price tag" associated with "headhunting" successful Russian executives from competing firms (Van Genderen, 2006; Puffer et al, 2007).

Yet, even with this changing climate and increased demand for leadership development programs, the availability of leadership development experts is virtually nonexistent. With only a limited number of organizations (including Western MNCs) utilizing leadership programs adapted to their needs, most Russian corporate development initiatives are either conducted from the organization's global and/or European headquarters, targeting all global business units, or they consist of the fixed-term importation of Western trainers employing outdated concepts (Puffer et al., 2007).

With the identification and defining of Emotional Intelligence (EI or EQ), and the further popularization of the concept and discipline (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Mayer and Salovey, 1993; Goleman, 1995), leadership studies have acquired a new dimension for identifying and developing organizational leaders. Grounded in the most recent and authoritative work conducted on leadership styles (Kotter, 1990; 1996; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Kouzes and Posner, 1998; Goffee and Jones, 2000; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002), leadership competencies (McClelland, 1973; 1975; Boyatzis, 1982), and Emotional Intelligence (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Mayer and Salovey, 1993; Goleman, 1995; 1998), Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) designed their own psychometric measurement tool (the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire or LDQ).

Building on Goleman's (1995; 1998) claim that IQ (cognitive competencies) + EQ (Emotional Intelligence) = successful leadership, Dulewicz and Higgs extended the equation to include management skills (e.g., IQ + EQ + MQ = successful leadership). Key studies have been conducted in the UK utilizing the LDQ, resulting in findings that further support the linkages amongst the three constructs (Young, 2004; Wren, 2005). The "Transformational" (and Transactional) leadership style model identified by Burns (1978), and later developed by Bass (1985), in addition to being one of the most popular approaches in leadership studies in recent times (Yukl, 2002), would also seem appropriate for the Russian context. The reasons are two fold: it has been recognized as being perhaps the most appropriate leadership style for organizations experiencing change and wanting to foster leaders in their subordinates; moreover, the model functions well across cultural and national borders (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

A study involving 10,000 senior executives in North America, Europe, and Asia asked ‘what the successful organization would look like in the year 2000 and beyond?’ Overwhelmingly, the executives answered: ‘management’s handling of diversity in a global business environment’ (Mackiewicz and Daniels, 2000). A study sponsored by AT&T, Motorola, Deloitte & Touche, Columbia University and the University of Chicago et al. (CPC/Corporation Report, March 1994), found practitioners and academics, alike, generally agreeing that successful work performance within MNCs primarily depends on the following factors:

- i). general cognitive skills [IQ];
- ii). social skills [EQ]; and
- iii). personal (professional) traits [MQ].

Such evidence further supports the author’s motivation to investigate leaders/leadership within large companies operating in Russia. The business environment is global and the workplace diverse. In addition to assisting MNCs operating within the Russian Federation with their leadership development needs, the findings from this study have the potential of aiding all organizations maintaining professional interactions with Russia: e.g., educational institutions, government bodies, suppliers, distributors, J.V.s, creditors, human rights and international development organizations, and so on. Moreover, cultural differences, if understood, respected, and managed, can become organizational resources (Harris and Moran, 1996) that can be molded into cultural synergy within organizations. The cultural synergy model is designed to create new international management policies and practices. Specifically, the cultural synergy model recognizes the similarities and differences between the two or more nationalities that make up the international organization. Finally, the cultural synergy model builds a new international organizational culture that is based on the national cultures of both employees and clients (Adler, 1985).

Organizations and individuals need to transition from viewing individuals and operations as isolated components. Rather, they should take a more holistic world view, seeking understanding by way of their interrelationships with the world as an organic entity. Such a global view reflects a position advocated by many natural scientists since the early 20th century:

> **Now, in the old paradigm it was also recognized that things were interrelated. But conceptually you first had the things with their properties, and then there were mechanisms and forces that interconnected them. In the new paradigm we say that the things themselves do not have their own properties. All the properties flow from their relationships…This is what I mean by understanding the properties of the parts from the dynamics of the whole, because these relationships are dynamic relationships. So the only way to understand the part is to understand its relationship to the whole [thus advocating cross-cultural and comparative-cultural studies so as to better understand global business and management] (Capra and Steindl Rast, 1991, Foreword).**

The approach for answering the proposed research question is also intended to contribute to the limited academic body of knowledge concerning Russian managers' leadership styles, competencies, and Emotional Intelligence "profiles." To the best of the author's knowledge, this exploratory study is "distinct" based on its scope and proposed methodology. As stated previously, globalization demands that executives operate effectively across cultures. However, in order to do so, companies require insight into, and understanding of, the cultures with which they conduct business. Moreover, cultures are changing, albeit at different rates, with the Russian Federation being one of the most rapidly transforming nations in the world, constituting a “moving target” requiring up-to-date research.

For executives at various organizational levels, the author aims to introduce a “leading edge” leadership development instrument (the LDQ) that can be utilized by large companies operating in Russia, to better understand the specific development needs of their managers. To date, most leadership studies have failed to focus on the most valuable aspect of understanding leadership – that being the assessment of the individual (Graen, 2006). Indeed, individuals make up the human resources of any organization, requiring personalized leadership development programs. More broadly speaking, this research seeks to promote an empirical understanding of Russian managers/leaders, thereby aiding companies, not-for-profits, NGOs, and governments in more successful interactions with Russian executives by providing a clear Russian management “model” of organizational leadership.

1.5 Structure of Thesis

The thesis is composed of five chapters: Chapter 1 foregrounds the background, context, motivation, and potential contributions of this investigation. The chapter continues by presenting the research thesis, an outline of the structure of the dissertation, closing with a chapter summary.

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature underpinning this research paradigm, with special attention given to the core literature whilst critically discussing possible shortcomings and constraints associated with the models and concepts. This chapter closes with the identified supporting hypotheses, and a summary presenting the connection between the leadership models and concepts, in order to underline the need for further research.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology: research strategy; the proposed measurement instrument (the LDQ); common methods variance (CMV); construct validity; research design, sampling, and sampling characteristics; appropriate data analysis techniques; concluding with sections addressing possible limitations associated with the proposed methodology, the author's final thoughts, and a chapter summary.

Chapter 4 opens with an overview of the research process before presenting the characteristics of the participants/responding organizations. This discussion is followed by initial statistical analyses for distribution and descriptive purposes. The focus of the chapter is on the testing of the supporting hypotheses using inferential statistical methods (esp. t-tests and regressions), within the framework of the underpinning literature, culminating with a summary of the hypotheses and findings.

Chapter 5 opens with a broad discussion of the research findings before highlighting the contributions and implications of the research to academia and industry. The section on contributions is followed by the presentation of possible limitations associated with this study, in addition to those associated with self-reported survey research - in general. Chapter 5 closes with suggestions for further research and a summing-up by the researcher.

1.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced the reader to the background of this "exploratory" comparative-cultural investigation, underscoring how the globalization of companies and markets has created a demand for culturally adept executives. Chapter 1 further discussed the political and economic changes that have taken place within the Russian Federation since its inception, marking the fall of the Soviet Union, the end of an era, and the creation of a business environment based on more capitalistic principles. Given time and the stability following the financial crisis of the late 1990s, large companies – both domestic and foreign – have realized the need for, and deficit of, up-to-date leadership development concepts/instruments appropriate for developing their managers; at all levels. It is precisely this deficit of Western practices and practitioners that has led to the design of this investigation. The following chapter (chapter 2) presents and discuses the literature underpinning this research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As mentioned within the previous chapter, this comparative-cultural investigation has been designed to extend the research on leadership styles, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership competencies conducted by Dulewicz and Higgs at Henley Management College (UK), by applying their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) within a new cultural context – the Russian Federation, thus allowing for a comparison of the findings with the existing UK norms. As such, this exploratory study represents contemporary work within the area of international leadership studies.

As an extension of Dulewicz and Higgs' UK research on organizational leadership, the ensuing literature review has been narrowed down from an exhaustively immense body of knowledge, to seminal scholarship representative of the leadership model applied for this investigation (see table 2.1) i.e., Dulewicz and Higgs' paradigm, in addition to predominant Emotional Intelligence (EI), cross-cultural and Russian organizational leadership scholarship relating to the scope and national context of this research. Chapter 2 culminates with a presentation of the hypotheses that will be employed to address the research question, closing with a chapter summary.

Table 2.1 Predominant Leadership Constructs Underpinning Dulewicz and Higgs' Model

Predominant School	Predominant Construct(s)/ Key References
Trait Theory (incl. competencies and EI; for explanation of why the author has so categorized all three models of EI, see sub-section 2.9.3within this chapter)	Leadership can be understood by identifying the distinguishing characteristics of leaders. Key references incl.: Stogdill (1948; 1974); Mann, (1959); McClelland, (1973); Boyatzis; (1982); Bar-On, (1988); Schroder, (1989); Mayer and Salovey, (1990;1993); Dulewicz and Herbert, (1992) ; Goleman, (1995;1998), Sternberg, (1997; 2001); (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003)
Style Theory	Leadership effectiveness may be explained and developed by identifying appropriate styles and behaviors Key references incl.: Fleishman (1953); Halpin and Winter (1957); Fleishman and Harris (1962); Katz et al.(1950; 1951); Katz and Kahn (1952); Likert (1961; 1967); Blake and Mouton (1964; 1982)
Contingency Theory	Leadership occurs in a context. Leadership style must be exercised depending on each situation. Key references incl.: Fiedler (1964,1967; 1970; 1978); Rice (1978)
Charismatic/Transforming Theory	Leadership is concerned with the charismatic behaviors of leaders and/or their ability to transform organizations. Key references incl.: Weber (1947); House (1977); Burns (1978)
New Leadership/Neo-Charismatic/Transformational Theory	Leadership and management are different. Leaders require a transformational focus, which encompasses a range of characteristics/behaviors, including at times, charisma (esp. for Neo-Charismatic). Key references incl.: Zaleznik (1977); Bass (1985; 1996); Tichy and Devanna (1986); Conger and Kanungo (1987); Bass and Avolio (1990); Shamir et al. (1993)
Change Leadership	Leadership and management are different. Leadership occurs within the context of change, taking into account the internal/external business environments. Key references incl.: Kotter (1990; 1996); Conner (1999)

(Sources include: Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; 2004; 2005; Gill, 2006)

2.2 Classical Trait Theory

The earliest leadership studies in the Western world date back to the philosophers of the ancient world (e.g., Pliny the Senior, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle), and have been attributed to Hippocrates' manner of describing personality types with "body humor". Certain individuals were believed to have been "born natural leaders meant to lead", whereas other people were destined for other roles. Trait theories often times attributed common characteristics to leaders, which they were thought to have had since birth. These common "traits" caused them to behave in particular ways (Van Steers and Field, 1990; Gill, 2006).

> **The term 'trait' refers to various attributes including aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives, and values. (Yukl, 2002, p.175)**

Such extraordinary abilities included:

> **…tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasiveness. (Yukl, 2002, p.12)**

Intelligence (and intelligence-related traits) is one of the commonest traits identified with successful leaders, and can be traced back to the discussions of Socrates and Plato. Intelligence studies gained tremendous attention during the Age of Enlightenment, and was the basis for many studies during the 1930s and 1940s (Yukl, 2002; Gill, 2006). Although most modern trait studies are rooted in the discipline of psychology, "the sociological approach is to analyze the characteristics of leaders that result from their positions in society: social class, education, gender and religious, ethnic and kinship networks (Whittington, 1993).

Whittington went on to state that:

> **Society provides both the social resources, material and symbolic, that empower our actions, and the accepted rules of social behavior that guides them. Social structures provide people with the potential for leadership, but it is the psychology of individuals that translates potential into actuality. (1993, pp.183-185)**

Throughout the early part of the 20th century, hundreds of studies attempted to reveal the traits of great leaders. The approaches and types of traits identified and measured in these studies varied greatly. However, in 1948, Stogdill completed a review of 124 trait-based studies (1904-1948), "and found that the pattern of results was consistent with the conception of a leader as someone who acquires status through demonstration of ability to facilitate the efforts of the group in attaining its goals. Relevant traits included:

- i). Intelligence
- ii). Alertness to the needs of others
- iii). Understanding of the task
- iv). Initiative and persistence when dealing with problems
- v). Self-confidence
- vi). Desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control

The review failed to support the basic premise of the trait approach that a person must possess a particular set of traits to become a successful leader. The importance of each trait depended on the situation, and the research did not identify any traits that were necessary or sufficient to ensure leadership success (Yukl, 2002, p. 177).

Mann (1959) resolved that:

- i). the way traits were exhibited (i.e., behavior) changed according to the situation; Psychologists maintain that traits, themselves, are fixed (Yukl, 2002); in Psychology-speak, “crystallized” as opposed to “fluid”;
- ii). the importance of the quality varied with any given situation;
- iii). no identified trait correlated highly with the overall effectiveness of a leader; and that
- iv). leaders with qualities diverse from one another could be successful in the same situation.

Thus, Stogdill (1948, p. 64) concluded that:

> **A person does not become a leader by virtue of possession of some combination of traits…the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers.**

Stogdill (1974, p. 81) proposes the following trait profile as being characteristic of successful leaders:

> **The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness (sic) and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decisions and actions, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons’ behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand.**

Yet, Stogdill made it clear that there was no evidence to support the idea of their being a set of “universal traits” for effective leadership.

2.3 Summary Critique of the Trait Paradigm

Gill (2006), quite eloquently and concisely addresses the general consensus held amongst leading scholars concerning the overall shortcomings of early trait research:

> **Early studies of leadership and personality, in the 1930s and 1940s, assumed that effective leaders have special traits in common. Following a period during which the results of research aimed at identifying them, generally have been *inconclusive*… (Gill, 2006, p. 38)**

Perhaps the ultimate intellectual failure of the early trait view is due to:

i). its inability to clearly explain the success of some leaders, and therefore the true nature of leadership;

ii). its "circular" argument that a leader is competent in leadership, because he has the required leadership competencies; whilst

iii). seemingly avoiding any explanation as to the role of women in organizational leadership (not to mention possible differences based on gender).

Other researchers have also mentioned shortcomings concerning the early trait approach:

> **One reason for [the] failure [of the trait approach] was the lack of attention to intervening variables in the causal chain that could explain how traits could affect a delayed outcome such as group performance or leader advancement. The predominant research method was to look for a significant correlation between individual leadership attributes and a criterion of leader success, without examining any explanatory processes. (Yukl, 2002, p. 12)**

Scholars have also noted that “only 5% of the [leadership] traits identified looked at *‘en masse’* were common throughout; in part this diversity is probably reflected in the biases of the researchers who inevitably tailored their interviews and research instruments towards the particular qualities or traits that they expected to find” (Handy, 1989, p. 98). A recent study attempting to explain the characteristics of leaders (as far back as 1965) who had led their organizations from being “good to great”, attributed the leaders’ success as being the result of ‘a paradoxical mixture of personal humility and professional will…timid and ferocious, shy and fearless’ (Collins, 2001). Such descriptions may be effective within the context of a corporate leadership workshop, but is of little use within the academic research community. Gill (2006) sums things up quite nicely with his view that:

> **Many traits undoubtedly develop in early life. Yet many people still believe that ‘leaders are born, not made; leaders are born with the traits that mark them out as future leaders. Perhaps some traits are genetically determined or at least predisposed. …suffice it to say that the search for the elusive ‘leadership gene’ continues. (p. 39)**

Acknowledging the lack of support for the trait theory philosophy of leaders being “born”, scholars turned their attention to the notion that they must be “made”, advocating the view that certain leadership behaviors and “styles” could be identified and emulated.

2.4 Leadership-style Theory

The groundwork laid by the 1950s studies at Ohio State University (i.e., Fleishman, 1953; Halpin and Winter, 1957; Fleishman and Harris 1962) and the University of Michigan (i.e., Katz et al., 1950; 1951; Katz and Kahn, 1952), have dominated behavioral investigations in leadership (Yukl, 2002; Quinn, 2003; Gill, 2006). The focus of the Ohio State research was to identify relevant leadership behavior, and create questionnaires that would ‘describe this behavior'. Through the use of factor analysis, the researchers identified two categories of behaviors. One concerned with task objectives, and the other with interpersonal relationships:

i). consideration – the leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner shows concern for subordinates, and looks out for their welfare;

ii). initiating structure – the leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates towards the attainment of the group's formal goals. (Yukl, 2002)

"Consideration" and "initiating structure" were found to be independent of each other. The findings of the research at Ohio State University led to the creation of two questionnaires meant to measure "consideration" and "initiating structure"; the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Supervisory Behavior Description (SBD or SBDQ) (Schriesheim and Stogdill, 1975). The LBDQ was later modified, narrowing the consideration and initiating structure, whilst adding 10 more scales to the instrument; Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII, or LBDQ XII.

Several of the added scales measured aspects of leader behavior (e.g.., representation and integration), traits (e.g., uncertainty tolerance), or skills (e.g., persuasiveness) (Stogdill, Goode, and Day, 1962). Running nearly concurrently to the Ohio State studies, the University of Michigan was pursuing its own research project focused on identifying relationships amongst leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance.
The investigation used managers from an insurance company (Katz, Maccobey and Morse, 1950), supervisors from the railroad industry (Katz, Maccobey, Gurin and Floor, 1951), and supervisors from a company engaged in manufacturing (Katz and Kahn, 1952). Likert (1961; 1967) compared the results for both effective and ineffective managers. According to Yukl (2002), the following three

leader behaviors were determined as making the difference between successful and unsuccessful leaders:

> **i).** **Task – oriented behavior; effective managers did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, the more effective managers concentrated on**
> **task – oriented functions like planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities, and providing necessary supplies, equipment and technical assistance. (Yukl, 2002, p. 53)**

Moreover, effective managers guided subordinates in setting performance goals that were high but realistic. The task – oriented behaviors identified in the Michigan studies appear to be similar to the behaviors categorized as "initiating structure" in the Ohio State research:

> **ii).** **Relations – oriented behavior; for the effective managers,**
> **task – oriented behavior did not occur at the expense of concern for human relations. The effective managers were also supportive and helpful to subordinates. (Yukl, 2002, p. 53)**

Supportive behaviors that were correlated with effective behavior included 'showing trust and confidence, acting friendly and considerate, trying to understand subordinates' problems, helping to develop subordinates and further their careers, keeping subordinates informed, showing appreciation for subordinates' ideas, and providing recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments'. The behaviors appear to be similar to those identified in the Ohio State research labeled "consideration". The Michigan research also found that effective managers tended to use general supervision rather than close supervision (e.g., once the manager set the goal and the guidelines, the group was empowered with a certain amount of autonomy). Likert (1961; 1967) deduced that a manager should treat a subordinate in such a way that will build and maintain the person's sense of personal worth:

iii). Participative leadership – effective managers used more group supervision rather than supervising each subordinate separately. Group meetings facilitate subordinate participation in decision making, improve communication, promote cooperation, and facilitate conflict resolution. The role of the manager in group meetings should be primarily to guide the discussion, and keep it supportive, constructive, and oriented toward problem solving. However, use of participation does not imply abdication of responsibilities or authority, and the manager remains responsible for all decisions and their results. (Yukl, 2002, p. 53)

Following in the wake of the Ohio State and Michigan Universities' studies, Blake and Mouton (1964) developed their "managerial grid", arguing that effective leaders were not either "relation-oriented" or "task-oriented", but rather were concerned with both (e.g., people and production). At a later date, Blake and Mouton introduced a third dimension – "flexibility" (Gill, 2006). It was through Blake and Mouton's managerial grid that the label of "high–high" leader was coined (high levels of people orientation paired with high task orientation).

2.5 Summary Critique of Leadership-style Theory

There are numerous studies into leader behavior. Whilst such studies have offered some interesting ideas about leaders, they have been largely contradictory and have failed to provide persuasive evidence as to what behavior(s) equate to effective leadership. Contrary to leadership – style theory, Goffee and Jones (2000) maintain that a leader's "underlying qualities" rather than "leadership style" make the difference for a successful leader. Some of the shortcomings of the research have been attributed to their: narrow focus on the leader, subordinates, and their work, whilst underplaying the importance of the environment and situation. Whipp and Pettigrew (1993) broadly defined leadership behavioral categories (e.g., task – oriented and relationship) (Yukl, 1989; 2002); a deficit of research into the important role of middle management

(Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001); and a rather limited pool of research into informal (Whyte 1943) and peer leaders within groups (Bowers and Seashore, 1966).

2.6 Fiedler's Contingency Theory (LPC Contingency Model)

During the 1960s, landmark research was conducted, which added much to modern leadership studies. Researchers began considering the effects of the environment within which leadership was exercised. Fiedler's contingency theory proposed that the choice of leader depended on:

i). the power awarded by the followers to the leader (position power);

ii). the task required of the group (task structure); and

iii). the actual compositional relationship of the group (leader - member relations*).* (Fiedler, 1967; 1969; 1978)

Fiedler argued that position power, task structure, and leader – member relations moderate influence on the relationship between a leader trait called "LPC" and successful leadership. Fiedler's contingency model is not simplistic by any means. On the contrary, Fiedler's model calls for finding the leader with the most appropriate approach, given a specific set of circumstances.

> **The LPC score is obtained by asking a leader to think of all past and present coworkers, select the one with whom the leader could work least well, and rate this person on a set of bipolar adjective scales (e.g., friendly – unfriendly, cooperative – uncooperative, efficient – inefficient). The LPC score is the sum of the ratings on these bipolar rating scales. (Yukl, 2006, p. 209)**

A critical leader receives a low LPC score, whilst a more lenient one receives a high score. Fiedler has not always been clear as to the proper interpretation of what these "high" and "low" scores mean. Nonetheless, in a later description

(1978), Fiedler contends that LPCs are related to a leader's "motive hierarchy", with affiliation needs (relationships) being important to high-LPC leaders, and task-orientation being the dominant motive for low- LPC leaders.
Rice (1978) adapted Fiedler's complicated LPC theory to create a values-based extension of the model, proposing that low-LPC leaders value task success, whilst high-LPC leaders place more value on interpersonal relationships.
Rice's interpretation, like Fiedler's own explanation, maintains that appropriate leadership behavior is determined by the situation.

The three situational variables are leader-member relations, position power, and task structure. Favorability is determined by weighting and combining these three aspects of the situation. Leader-member relations receives the highest weighting, being more important than task-structure (according to Fiedler), which is given a higher value than position power. Fiedler's model proposes that the situation is best for the leader when leader-member relations are good, the leader has high levels of position power, and the task is highly structured. The least favorable situation involves poor subordinate relations, weak position power, and an unstructured task (Fiedler, 1967; Rice, 1978; Yukl, 2002; Gill, 2006). In all, there are eight possible "octants" (combinations), with five of the levels favoring a low-LPC leader, and only three prescribing the leadership of a high-LPC leader.

2.7 Summary Critique of Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler's LPC theory has received much attention over the years as the 'pioneering contingency concept' (Gill, 2006). Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) mention Fiedler's model as contributing to their own paradigm. However, there have been many studies over the years focused on testing the validity of Fiedler's model. Strube and Garcia (1981) reviewed the collective research and argued that much of the findings indicated support for the model (although not for every octant, and controlled environments tended to offer stronger support for the theory than did related field studies; Peters, Hartke, and Pohlmann, 1985).

That said, scholars have also attacked the methods used to determine the results (largely based on correlations), as in the vast majority of cases, statistical significance was not achieved (Graen, Alvares, Orris, and Martella, 1970; McMahon, 1972; Vecchio, 1983). One might also question a virtual 3-aspect situation contracted into a single linear continuum.

Furthermore, there seems to be no clear logic or method to the weighting of the three aspects, implying a certain amount of arbitrariness involved. According to Schriesheim and Kerr (1977, p. 23), the LPC score is a “measure in search of a meaning”. Its interpretation has been “changed, and its current interpretation is speculative. LPC scores may not be stable over time and may be more complex than assumed” (Yukl, 1970; in Yukl, 2002, p. 211). The model fails to explain how a leader’s LPC score interacts with group performance (Ashour, 1973), nor does it provide leaders with guidelines as to how they can adapt to a given situation. Moreover, if LPC is stable (like a personality trait), than changing it is not an option for increasing leadership effectiveness. In addition, if one was to change the situation (for the worse), in order to match the situation with the LPC score of the leader, other problems might well arise (i.e., making leader-member relations bad, or worse than they already are). Such actions are illogical and contrary to common sense. If one was to shift a structured environment to one that is more ambiguous, the question of improper use of resources might well arise.

It should also be mentioned that studies have shown that modifying task structure has up to ten times the effect on group performance as leader LPC scores (O’Brien and Kabanoff, 1981). Finally, the model neglects “medium” LPC leaders (those not at either extreme of the continuum). One would assume that there would be more leaders with moderate scores. Fiedler’s attempt at explaining leadership effectiveness was at the leading edge of “situational” theories, and although LPC Contingency theory is no longer considered to be mainstream, it continues initiating further situational models, including the Path-Goal theory of leadership.

> **Path – goal theory develops Fiedler's contingency theory and takes into account employee motivation in the choice of leadership style. (Gill, 2006, p. 48)**

However, these "payoffs" (transactions) feed the baser side of subordinates:

> **The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route."(House, 1971, p. 374)**

Leaders can also affect the satisfaction of their followers (i.e., subordinates' satisfaction with their leader):

> **Leader behavior will be viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see the behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or for future satisfaction. (House and Dessler, 1974, p. 13)**

The essence of the path – goal theory of leadership is its explanation of the interrelationship between the behavior of a leader and the satisfaction and performance of followers (subordinates). The theory proposes that according to the situation, the leader's behavior may affect the satisfaction of the followers, the performance of the followers - or both.

2.8 Charismatic and Transformational Leadership

Unlike the path - goal leadership theory, the dominant leadership paradigms to develop during the 1980s focused on emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership in an attempt to better understand how leaders might influence subordinates to elevate themselves above their own personal wants and desires, so as to better serve the mission and vision of their organizations (Yukl, 2002).

At the heart of what Bryman (1992) has coined "the new school" of leadership, are the "charismatic" and "transformational" leadership theories. It is arguable that charismatic and transformational leadership represent the most popular theories of leadership at this time.

At the outset of this chapter, the author framed the literature to be covered in accordance with the leadership models drawn from, in the creation of Dulewicz and Higgs' leadership paradigm. Although the Dulewicz and Higgs' model does not utilize the factors or terms "charisma" or "charismatic leadership" *per se*, the author feels compelled to discuss the associated literature on the basis that charismatic leadership is often times termed interchangeably with transformational leadership, and viewed to have commonalities including motivating employees above their own personal desires to meet organizational demands and vision (House et al., 2001; Yukl, 2002; Javidan et al., 2006).

2.8.1 Charismatic/Neo-Charismatic Leadership

The root of the English word "charisma" is taken from Greek, and can be translated as meaning "divinely inspired gift". Max Weber, a renowned sociologist, established the early work in the area of charismatic leadership theory. Weber asserted that the charismatic leader was not granted leadership authority through any traditional or formal channels, but rather possessed this power based on followers' perceptions that this individual is endowed with exceptional qualities (Weber, 1947).

> **The term "charisma" will be applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities. (Weber, 1947, p. 358)**

This charisma is usually revealed in times of social crisis, when this leader appears with a fantastic but appealing vision to resolve the unrest. Followers place their trust in the vision, gain some short-term victories, reaffirm their support for the leader, and begin attributing special leadership qualities to the "charismatic" leader (Weber, 1947). A frequent example used is Adolf Hitler and his rise to power in Germany during the 1920s and 30s; in the wake of a devastated nation following Germany's defeat at the end of WWI. Perhaps a more recent example might be Boris Yeltsin, who during the attempted military coup by the communists in Russia in 1993, leapt onto a tank, waving the flag of Russia, and making a dramatic statement to all viewers that the new government would not cede to the old Soviet "apparatchiki".

Over the past thirty years, several "neo-charismatic" organizational leadership theories have been proposed by various scholars (e.g., House, 1977; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; 1998; Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993). Conger and Kanungo, (1987; 1998), maintained that the charisma of a leader is attributed to the leader by the followers, based on three factors: behavior, skill, and aspects of the situation. Conger and Kanungo's theory is sometimes referred to as an "attribution theory" of charismatic leadership. Follower attributions of charisma depend on several types of leader behavior. These behaviors are not assumed to be present in every charismatic leader to the same extent, and the relative importance of each type of behavior for attribution of charisma depends to some extent on the leadership situation.

Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who advocate a vision that is highly discrepant from the *status quo*, but still within the latitude of acceptance by followers. That is, followers will not accept a vision that is too radical, and they are likely to view a leader who espouses such a vision as incompetent or lacking appropriate mental faculties (i.e., a lunatic). Therefore, non-charismatic leaders typically support the *status quo*, or advocate only small, incremental changes that do not wholly challenge followers' values or sense of feasibility. Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who act in unconventional ways to achieve their visions. Leaders are more likely to be viewed as charismatic if they make self-sacrifice, take personal risks, and incur high costs to reach the visions they espouse. Trust appears to be an important component of charisma, and followers have more trust in a leader who seems less motivated by self-interest than by concern for followers. Leaders who appear confident about their proposals are more likely to be viewed as charismatic when compared with leaders who appear doubtful and confused. Followers are more likely to attribute charisma to leaders who use visioning and persuasive appeals than to leaders who apply authority and participative discussion processes. Likewise, a leader who asks followers to meet as a group to develop a consensus strategy may have followers who are satisfied and highly motivated, but the leader will not appear to be extraordinary.

Conger (1989) conducted interviews with followers of charismatic leaders, seeking to discover why they had become so strongly committed to the leader and his task or mission. The most important influence was "personal identification"; i.e., a follower's desire to please and imitate the leader. This form of idolizing is derived from the leader's:

- i). strategic insight;
- ii). strong convictions;
- iii). self-confidence;
- iv). unconventional behavior; and
- v). dynamic energy.

According to Conger (1989), a leader – follower relationship is developed based on the subordinate's desire to become like their "idol" (the charismatic leader), which is further strengthened and developed through the leader's praise and recognition of the follower's accomplishments and contributions to the organization. Thus building the subordinate's self–confidence, leading to a more intensified desire by the follower to please the charismatic leader and meet the leader's high expectations. The desire to live up to leader expectations was identified as a primary motivator for followers working with charismatic leaders. Subordinates were also motivated by fear of disappointing the leader, and/or rejection by the leader. Conger (1989) also mentions that charismatic leaders are able to communicate inspirational visions, thereby motivating followers to "internalize" the leader's beliefs and values. In so doing, the leader creates the opportunity to further develop subordinate loyalty to the leader, the organization, and the articulated vision. It has been further proposed that situational factors may play an important role in charismatic leadership (Yukl, 2002).

As stated previously, Weber (1947) was of the view that an objective crisis created the desired environment for charismatic leaders to emerge. However, according to Conger and Kanungo's "attribution theory" (1987; 1998), an *actual* crisis is not obligatory, but rather the charismatic leader need only foster a state of disenchantment or dissatisfaction with the current situation, creating the opportunity to present his vision for the future to eager followers. Such perceptions of crisis or urgency can be achieved by:

i). creating a sense of crisis (either real or perceived);
ii). discrediting the current organizational path; or
iii). simply persuading followers that conventional methods are futile.

In each case, the charismatic leader is more inclined to rally support if he provides a perceived viable solution to the manufactured "crisis" at hand.

House' (1977) "Self-Concept theory" proposed to explain charismatic leadership in terms of a set of testable propositions involving observable processes, rather than folklore and mystique (Yukl, 2002).The theory proposed leader behaviors, traits/skills, and situational environments constituting the most likely conditions under which charismatic leadership might emerge. A perceived weakness of this theory was the ambiguous nature of the influence process. Shamir et al. (1993) developed the original theory detailing leader – follower influence, synthesizing discussion about motivating people. Shamir et al. (1993) offered the following insights on human motivation:

I). behavior is expressive of a person's feelings, values, and self–concept, as well as being pragmatic and goal–oriented;

Ii). a person's self–concept is composed of a hierarchy of social identities and values;

iii). people are intrinsically motivated to enhance and defend their own self–esteem and self–worth; and

iv). people are intrinsically motivated to maintain consistency among the various components of their self–concept and between their self–concept and behavior.

Charismatic leadership can be identified by the leader – follower relationship. Similar to House (1977), Shamir et al. (1993) recognized the leader's extensive and unorthodox influence on subordinates. Followers align with the leader's views. Upon accepting these views as being valid, subordinates follow the leader's desires, have emotional attachment for the leader, and are dedicated to the mission of the organization. Because of their attachment to their leader, employees also desire to produce at a high level, and ultimately have faith in the value of their own contributions to the objective(s) of the leader and the organization. Contrary to the theory proposed by Conger and Kanungo (1987), Shamir et al. (1993) recognized that followers may consider the leader to be extraordinary, but they do not advocate this to be paramount or even obligatory. Shamir (1995) further asserted that the attributes of charisma for "close" and "distant" followers differ:

i). close followers are in direct or "close' contact with the charismatic leader, and tend to characterize the leader in terms of their effects on followers' motivation, task behavior, and their personal "identification" with the leader; whilst ii). distant followers never have personal or direct contact with the leader (i.e., they maintain support from a "distance"), and usually describe the leader based on his extraordinary achievements and 'effects on followers' political attitudes'.

As interesting as Shamir's proposition is, the study itself had several limitations, one of which is the convenience sample of students assumed to be representative of the greater population. A replicated study conducted by Yagil (1998) within the Israeli military failed to support the hypothesis that 'interpersonal qualities are more important in determining attributions of charisma for "close" rather than "distant" charismatic leaders'. Considering the limitations of the initial study, as well as the shallow collection of research conducted to test the proposed differences between close and distant followers, the author believes that more investigations are needed before persuasive evidence can be presented.

2.8.2 Summary Critique of Charismatic Leadership

One concern raised by scholars is the "transitory" nature of charismatic leaders; the departure of an autocratic leader can create a vacuum not easily filled. It has also been noted that organizations have suffered due to the lack of a satisfactory successor (Mintzberg, 1983; Bryman, 1992). Even if a qualified successor is identified, followers may not accept his new style, inclined to constantly compare him with their former leader. Weed (1993) contends that conflict can occur between the charismatic leader/founder of an organization, and the later administration and/or corporate governors. The "amoral" nature of charisma and charismatic leaders has also been closely noted by scholars (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985; Conger, 1989; Hogan, Raskin and Fazzini, 1990; House and Howell, 1992; Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). For example, F.D. Roosevelt and Adolf Hitler have been pitted against one another as representatives of "positive" and "negative" charisma, respectively. However, this seems to be a rather subjective perspective (although the author agrees with the depiction), based on culture, nationality, values, political persuasion, and so on.

Perhaps a better method of assessing “positive” and “negative” charisma is offered by Howell (1988) and House and Howell (1992). They propose that a leader’s type of charisma should be assessed in terms of his “personality” and “values” (e.g., negative charismatics emphasize personal identification, create personal power bases, and use ideology at their whim in order to create further loyalty, hero worship, and influence for themselves). In contrast, positive charismatics emphasize social empowerment, the internalization of values, support for the cause or vision - employing rewards -rather than punishment to motivate followers. Overconfidence in a leader has been shown to be severely detrimental to organizations (Conger, 1989).

Overly optimistic leaders may well have difficulty in objectively analyzing their own ideas and visions. Early success can at times make leaders heady and unwilling to listen to outside opinion. Charismatic leaders often represent dramatic change, frequently prescribing unorthodox approaches for resolving issues and situations. Unfortunately, such degrees of change may constitute great risk to the given organization, perhaps concurrently increasing the level of risk faced by the organization. When viewed from a more objective vantage point, a non-charismatic leader might be equipped to provide the company with a solution requiring less dramatic change, thereby constituting a lower level of risk to the firm (Kotter, 1990; 1996). Trice and Boyer (1993) remind us that charisma is indeed rare and not easily altered or manipulated. Appointing charismatic leaders as chief executives within organizations can be risky due to the tremendous amount of authority transferred through such a decision; placing the future welfare of the organization in the hands of one individual.

“Charismatic” and “transformational” leadership are perhaps the two most researched leadership paradigms within contemporary leadership investigations. Some scholars use the two concepts interchangeably. However, after reviewing the literature on these two models, the author is not persuaded that the two concepts are indeed synonymous with one another; due to several marked differences. For example, Bass (1985) acknowledged charisma as being ‘one of several desirable characteristics for transformational leaders, but not obligatory’. “Transformational leadership refers to the leader moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, *or* individualized consideration” (Bass, 1999, p. 19).

Bass further discusses the close relationship between charisma and idealized influence, but points out that ‘not all charismatics are transformational’. Obviously, for the concept of charismatic leadership, charisma is critical. Charismatic leaders tend to create some sort of dependence of subordinates on the leaders (even if it is done passively) themselves, rather than the leader focusing on inspiring, developing, and empowering the followers, thus signifying different influence processes between charismatic and transformational leaders. Furthermore, Bass (1996; 1997) proposes that transformational leadership can be exhibited by any individual, in any position, and at any level of the organization. Situational factors do not preclude or dictate the possibility of the emergence of transformational leaders; although certain settings seem to be more favorable than others (Bass, 1999, maintains that collectivistic societies in transition away from more authoritarian forms of leadership, towards less “power – distance” between leaders and subordinates [e.g., Russia] (Hofstede, 1980), are more accommodating to the development of transformational leaders than individualized communities with traditions of exercising democratic leadership approaches [the UK]. In contrast, charismatic leadership can be seen as rare and often time associated with particular conditions (Bass, 1985; Beyer, 1999; Shamir and Howell, 1999). Followers tend to have a more ‘polarized’ attitude towards charismatic leaders, whilst followers of transformational leaders exercise a less extreme interface with the leader (Bass, 1985).

2.8.3 Transformational Leadership

Current theory on transformational leadership is rooted in the writings of Burns (1978), who created his theory of ‘transforming leadership’ based on descriptive research on political leaders. Ethical issues and the resolution of conflicting values amongst followers are at the heart of Burns’ theory. Burns (1978) explains transforming leadership in terms of being a “process” in which:

> **Leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation. (p. 20)**

Transforming leaders appeal to followers “ideals” and “moral values (e.g., liberty, justice, equality, humanitarianism) rather than to their baser motives (e.g., fear, jealousy, greed, envy). Transforming leadership is largely about connecting with and developing followers’ “better selves” (i.e., their ethical and moral sides) as opposed to their “self-centered selves” (i.e., baser materialistic and self-centered sides). Burns (1978) makes it clear that any individual within the organization; and holding any functional position has the potential to become a transforming leader. In addition, Burns (1978) clarifies that the leader – follower relationship is not monopolized between superior and subordinate, but rather can be exercised amongst peers and with supervisors as well. A second dimension to Burns’ concept of transforming leadership is that beyond its focus on the “moral elevation” of followers, the leader attempts to “shape”, “express”, and “mediate” conflict between members of the group, giving him the opportunity to re-channel this energy for the purpose of achieving shared ideological objectives (and social reforms).

The relationship between the leader and the followers develops over time, during which both the leader and the followers are “transformed”; by looking beyond their own desires to foster the needs of the “organization” and the “community” (Burns, 1978). The other form of leadership identified by Burns (1978), and normally pitted against the transforming is “transactional”. Transactional leadership motivates followers by appealing to their self-interests (e.g., corporate leaders exchanging pay and work status for effort on the job). To further clarify how transforming leadership contrasts with transactional leadership, Burns writes:

> **They could be separate but related…this is transactional leadership. The object in these cases is not a joint effort for persons with common aims acting for collective interests of followers but a bargain to aid the individual interests of persons or groups going their separate ways. Leaders can also shape and alter and elevate the motives and values and goals of followers through the vital teaching role of leadership. This is transformational leadership. The premise of this leadership is that, whatever the separate interests persons might hold, they are presently or potentially united in the pursuit of ‘higher’ goals, the realization of which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers. (1978, pp. 425 – 426)**

Contemporary theories of transformational leadership seem to share a central characteristic of ‘appealing to the followers’ values and emotions’ (Bass, 1985; 1996; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Tichy and Devanna, 1986; Yukl, 1989). However, of all the current theorists writing on the subject of transformational leadership, none has contributed more than Bass, resulting in more empirical researchers building on his theory than perhaps on any of the others (1985; 1996). The essence of Bass’ theory of transformational leadership is the distinct contrast of the transformational and transactional leadership styles, which are distinguished in terms of ‘the component behaviors used to influence followers and the effects of the leader on the followers’.

Bass contends that transformational leaders motivate followers by:

I). making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes;
ii). inducing them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organization or team; and
iii). attending to their higher-order needs. (Bass, 1985; 1996)

In comparison, transactional leadership is an exchange process leading to subordinate compliance with the leader; however, unlike the transformational leadership model, followers are unlikely to be inspired, enthusiastic, or committed to task objectives (Bass, 1985; 1996). According to Bass' model, transformational and transactional leadership are distinct from one another – but not mutually exclusive from each other. Although one approach may be favored over the other, both will be displayed by managers (Bass, 1985). Bass' taxonomy is based on specific behaviors defined within the two types of leadership; transformational and transactional, which were largely identified by way of his "Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ). Originally, the concept described three transformational behaviors:

i). "idealized influence" is behavior that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader;
ii). "intellectual stimulation" is behavior that increases follower awareness of problems and influences followers to view problems from a new perspective;
iii). "individualized consideration" includes providing support, encouragement and coaching to followers; and [A fourth behavior added later (Bass and Avolio, 1990)]
iv). "inspirational motivation" includes communicating an appealing vision, using symbols to influence subordinate effort, and modeling appropriate behavior.

Bass' original taxonomy (1985) included two leader behaviors for transactional leadership:

i). "contingent reward" includes clarification of the work required to obtain rewards, and the use of incentives and contingent rewards to influence motivation;

ii). "passive management by exception" includes the use of contingent punishments and other corrective actions in response to deviations from acceptable performance standards;

[A third behavior was added in 1990 (Bass and Avolio)]

iii). "active management by exception" entails actively looking for infractions, and enforcing rules so as to avoid mistakes being made.

However, Bass and Avolios's MLQ has been shown to bias results due to its failure to differentiate between the four behaviors previously discussed as comprising the transformational leadership style within their model; the same studies have shown this not to be the case, however, with the contending transactional style (Lievens et al., 1997); for full discussion see critique within ensuing sub-section (2.8.4).

Recent versions of the theory include a leadership behavior characterized by ignoring problems, subordinate needs, and so on, commonly termed "laissez-faire" leadership. However, given its 'passive indifference', and ultimate lack of effective "leadership", it has been persuasively argued that it is an example of 'ineffective leadership', rather than a type of transactional leadership behavior. Gill (1999; 2006) maintains that:

> **Laissez-faire leaders avoid taking a stand, ignore problems, do not follow up, and refrain from intervening. In terms of leadership-style theory (directive, consultative, participative, and delegative (sic) styles), they use no particular style to any significant extent. Laissez-faire is non-transactional leadership, if it is leadership at all… Transformational leaders tend to use the consultative, participative, delegative (sic), as well as the directive styles to a certain extent (Gill, 2006, pp. 51 - 53).**

2.8.4 Summary Critique of Transformational Leadership

The concept of "transformational leadership" continues commanding the interest of management researchers, and there is a sizeable bank of studies to draw from. In essence, Bass and Avolio's "Full-Range" model of Transformational (and Transactional) leadership, along with his MLQ consolidates the behavioral/stylistic schools of thinking with the contingency model (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). However, not all of the concept's factors are altogether new e.g., empowerment, trust, teamwork, participation, etc… have been mentioned by scholars such as Likert (1967) and McGregor (1960).

As popular and influential as Bass and Avolio's model has proven itself to be, key research has questioned the "divergent validity" of their MLQ measurement instrument; in particular, the four transformational leadership behaviors (idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation) have shown strong intercorrelation with one another, which would indicate a failure in the instrument's ability to differentiate between the four factors; it may also imply that the four underlying concepts are not in fact distinct, but rather contribute to one "global" construct – *transformational leadership style* (Lievens et al., 1997). Tepper and Percy (1994) found strong correlations (converging rather than diverging) amongst *all transformational leadership scales*. Den Hartog et al. (1994) also reported that all four transformational leadership scales showed strong correlations, converging into one single factor, which they labeled - "new leadership".

Bycio et al.(1995) concluded that ‘although a model congruent with Bass’ (1985) original conceptualization was tenable, there also existed high intercorrelations amongst all transformational leadership scales’. The contributions of these findings for both theory and practice are critical. Lievens et al. (1997, p. 420) summarize the implications for industry quite nicely:

> **If the MLQ captures merely a global transformational leadership dimension and the respondents are not able to make meaningful distinctions between the various transformational behaviors, practitioners should formulate the results of the survey feedback and development plans accordingly. This could imply that a differential MLQ profile (i.e. a profile composed of separate scores for the four transformational leadership dimensions) is not feasible.**

Conceptual weaknesses include a seemingly overemphasis on the leader-follower relationship, and a lack of attention to teambuilding and the fostering of the organization as a whole (Yukl, 1999). Yukl (1999) also notes ‘insufficient description of the leader’s external roles (e.g., representing a team or organization and helping it to secure adequate resources, members, and political support).

Several scholars have also mentioned the need for more research focusing on contextual and situational factors, and their possible effects on the need for, or the emergence of, transformational leaders (Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Shamir and Howell, 1999). As mentioned previously, Bass (1997) declared that transformational leadership can be found at all levels, and is appropriate across national borders and cultures. These claims have been scrutinized and brought into question e.g., Gill (2006) reports on his earlier research findings that ‘transformational leadership is more prevalent at higher levels within organizations’, whilst Luthans (1998) concluded that ‘transformational leadership was inappropriate for Russian organizational leaders’ – full stop. Seminal studies conducted at the end of the 20th century have revealed concerns pertaining to earlier scholarship on the transformational leadership theory.

A few of the more significant concerns have included:

i). an imbalanced amount of inquiry focused on America (and Western Europe; Yukl, 1989; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995);

ii). the "success" of leaders was usually quantified in financial terms;

iii). investigations neglected leaders at lower levels of organizations; and

iv). there was a certain level of male-bias reflected in the samples pooled for the studies (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995).

The topic of gender differences has been brought into the academic arena by several scholars (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990; Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003) with many articles being published in the area of comparative research between the leadership qualities, behaviors, and styles of men and women; with the purpose of demonstrating differences between, and possible superiority of, one gender over the other (usually implying that women have "natural" advantages over men when it comes to leading the modern company); sometimes referred to as the "feminine advantage".

Most notably, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995), building on the work of Bass and the Transformational school, has closely investigated the diversity of leadership at varying levels of organizations, and has taken a particular interest in advancing the field of study focused on women in leadership roles (1995). Alimo-Metcalfe, following in the tradition of Fiedler (1964; 1967), utilizes more interpersonal measures of leadership success within organizations, often oriented towards the overall impact leaders have on their subordinates (1995). That said, as is the case with much of the leadership literature, gender studies have revealed mixed results, representing no unanimous agreement as to the clear presence of diverse leadership styles, skills, or characteristics, based on gender (Bass, 1990; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Powell, 1993). Eagly and Johnson (1990) concluded that "participative" approaches to management were more often demonstrated by women than by men, following a meta-analysis of the literature on gender, and researching actual manager-participants.

Some scholars criticize the existing gender studies and question their findings, largely based on limitations including variables often times not accounted for; yet that have been demonstrated to have a direct affect on leader behavior (e.g., level, function, type of organization; Lefkowitz, 1994). Perhaps as new approaches to the measurement of leadership traits and behaviors are developed, research will benefit from more consistent findings. Central to the new leadership school is that the theorists have "constructed their notions of leadership around contrasts with the role of management" (Conger and Kanungo, 1998, p. 7). One of the earliest proponents of distinguishing between managers and leaders was Zaleznik (1977), who stated matter-of-factly that:

> **Managers and leaders differ fundamentally in their world views. The dimensions for assessing these differences include managers' and leaders' orientations toward their goals, their work, their human relations, and their selves. (p. 79)**

This manager – leader divide was a marked difference between the investigations of the "new school" and those previously undertaken (e.g., Peters and Waterman, 1982; Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Kotter 1990). Authoritative inquiry into what Dulewicz and Higgs term the 'emerging school'; based firmly on the transformational tradition, is more often than not motivated by the need for organizations to develop their own managers' capacities to deal with change (Connor, 1999) within an ever-changing environment.

Kotter (1990; 1996) shifts the research focus to "what leaders do", and clearly articulates the diverse roles of managers and leaders – the latter being change agents working within a transitional external environment:

> **{Management is} a set of processes that can keep a complicated system of people and technology running smoothly. The most important aspects of management include planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling, and problem solving. [Whilst leadership is} a set of processes that create organizations in the first place or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances. Leadership defines what the future should look like [vision], aligns people with that vision, and inspires people to make it happen despite the obstacles. (Kotter, 1996, p. 25**)

Kotter set a new course for change leadership studies, and established a firm foundation upon which the 'emerging school' has begun establishing itself. Kotter (1996) proposed the following 8-step prescription for leading successful change within organizations:

i). creating a sense of urgency;
ii). forming a guiding coalition of leadership with significant enough authority to accomplish the task at hand;
iii). developing a clear "vision";
Iv). communicating the vision to all levels of the organization;
v). removing obstacles from the path of reaching the vision;
vi). achieving short-term victories;
vii). consolidating gains and achieving further short-term victories; and
viii). anchoring the change into the organizational culture.

Kotter’s contributions to the understanding of leadership are immense, and may well deserve credit for the setting of a new course for the emerging school; moving away from personality study and the testing of theoretical models, and more towards inquiry into exactly what effective change leaders do (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004; Gill, 2006). In addition to changing the direction of leadership inquiry, Kotter takes a broader view than some, maintaining the importance of developing and including leaders at all organizational levels when it comes to corporate leadership. Following Kotter’s lead, other prominent scholars’ studies have reflected this new approach of the emerging school e.g., Kouzes and Posner (1998) with the development of their similar but truncated categories of effective leadership:

i). challenging the process (a constant questioning of why things are being done in a certain way, combined with openness to having their own actions challenged);

ii). inspiring shared vision (engaging others with a vision of how things can be and how progress may be made);

iii). enabling others to act (working on a belief in the potential of people to realize their potential);

iv). modeling the way (acting as a role model and demonstrating integrity in terms of congruence of words and actions); and

v). encouraging the heart (providing recognition tailored to an understanding of the needs and personalities of each person being led).

.Dulewicz and Higgs further describe the emerging school as follows:

> **In reviewing studies...it becomes evident that this ‘emerging school’ sees leadership as being a combination of personal characteristics and areas of competency. (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 10)**

Whilst the emerging school of leadership has introduced a fresh way of looking at the nature of leadership, it has further broadened its battery of measurement tools and techniques, not the least of which are emotional variables and areas of competency. Although we may never identify a "universal trait theory", several scholars have noted recent developments from which the statement has been made that 'recent leadership trait research has the greatest potential for selecting and developing managers within large organizations' (Yukl, 1989; 2002).
More recent contributions to trait theory, directly related to the author's investigation have included research into:

i). competencies (e.g., McClelland, 1973; Boyatzis, 1982; Schroder, 1989; Dulewicz and Herbert, 1992); and

ii). Emotional Intelligence (e.g., Bar-On, 1988; 1997 Mayer and Salovey, 1990;1993; Goleman, 1995;1998, Sternberg, 1997; 2001; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003).

2.8.5 The Competency Approach

McClelland (1965; 1975; 1985) developed much of the groundwork in the area of leadership competencies. Utilizing his "Thematic Apperception Test" (TAT), designed to enable researchers to assess managers' underlying "needs" most closely affiliated with effective leadership. McClelland evaluated individuals based on "power", "achievement", and "affiliation". A high need for power is reflected in people with underlying need to control others' attitudes, emotions, and behavior. A high need for affiliation is characterized by individuals' underlying needs to be liked and accepted, whilst a high need for achievement is demonstrated by those with underlying need to successfully complete tasks, accomplish goals, improve standards and processes, and so on.

McClelland et al. (i.e., Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland, 1975; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) characterized respondents with high levels of need for power, in accordance with a fourth trait they identified through their TAT testing – "activity inhibition" (either socialized or personalized). Managers with a "socialized power orientation" are motivated to use their power in a socially acceptable way (i.e., developing and assisting others and influencing others in a positive way to accomplish an appropriate task). In comparison, managers with a "personalized power orientation" employ their need for power in antisocial and selfish ways (i.e., controlling others and serving one's own ego and desires). A significant number of investigations have been conducted in an attempt to determine the relationship between leaders' needs and their leadership effectiveness, resulting in fairly consistent findings that propose the ideal balance of needs for leaders, to be effective within large organizations, consists of:

i). a strong socialized power orientation;
ii). a moderately high need for achievement; and
iii). a relatively low need for affiliation. (Winter, 1973; McClelland, 1975; Varga, 1975; McClelland and Burnham, 1976; Boyatzis, 1982;; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982)

Boyatzis built upon the earlier work of McClelland, and upon revisiting McClelland's data/findings, was able to identify differentiating (superior) competencies responsible for explaining the success of the sample of managers. Boyatizis employed the "Behavioral Event Interview" (BEI); it combined the "critical incident approach" (Flanagan, 1951) with the "TAT approach" (McClelland, 1965; 1975; 1982), as his vehicle for collecting data from managers. Boyatzis (1982, p. 23) offers the following definition for threshold competencies:

> **A threshold competency is a person's generic knowledge, motive, trait, self-image, social role or skill, which is essential to performing a job, but not causally related to superior job performance [The cause - effect**

> **relationship between competencies and superior performance was characteristic of superior competencies].**

He further defines competencies in general as follows:

> **A job competency is an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses. (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 21)**

One might view this definition as being too broad. Woodruffe, specifically, challenged the usefulness and accuracy of Boyatzis' definition, commenting that it:

> **…seems to cover pretty well anything but avoids getting to the heart of what the common denominator of all this is. (Woodruffe, 2000, p. 87)**

Woodruffe defined competencies as being:

> **…dimensions of behavior that lie behind competent performance. (Woodruffe, 2000, p. 88)**

Woodruffe viewed competencies from a narrower perspective than Boyatzis, as is apparent when comparing the two definitions. Woodruffe's main contribution might best be represented by his identification of what one could term "generic" competencies. In contrast with other contributors e.g., Boyatzis, et al., Woodruffe might be criticized for not differentiating between traits and behavioral dimensions, but rather, viewed them as being 'two sides to the same coin'. Boyatzis targets the manager, as opposed to the role or function. Figure 2.1 illustrates how the relationship between the organizational environment, the manager's competencies, the demand of the given job, and specific effective actions/behaviors underpin Boyatzis' model. Boyatzis' investigations into managerial competencies culminated in a list of 19; 12 being superior competencies, and 7 threshold competencies. Table 2.2 displays Boyatzis' 19 competencies. Boyatzis compared managers working in the public and private sectors, respectively, determining that the competencies exhibited by both pools of respondents were significantly different. Most notably were the superior competencies found in the Goal and Action Management, and Leadership clusters (with the exception of Self-confidence), although “Managing Group Process” from the Human Resources cluster was also recorded as being significant (Boyatzis, 1982).

Table 2.2 Boyatzis’ 19 Competencies

Cluster	Superior Competency	Threshold Competency
Goal and Action Management	1. Concern with impact 2. Diagnostic use of concepts 3. Efficiency orientation 4. “Proactivity”	
Leadership	5. Conceptualization 6. Self-confidence 7. Use of oral presentation	8. Logical thought
Human Resources	9. Managing group Process 10. Use of socialized power	11. Accurate self-assessment 12. Positive regard
Directing Subordinates		13. Developing others 14. Spontaneity 15. Use of unlimited power
Focus on Others	16. Perceptual objectivity 17. Self-control (trait) 18. Stamina and Adaptability (trait)	
Specialized Knowledge		19. Specialized knowledge

(adapted from Buyatzis, 1982)

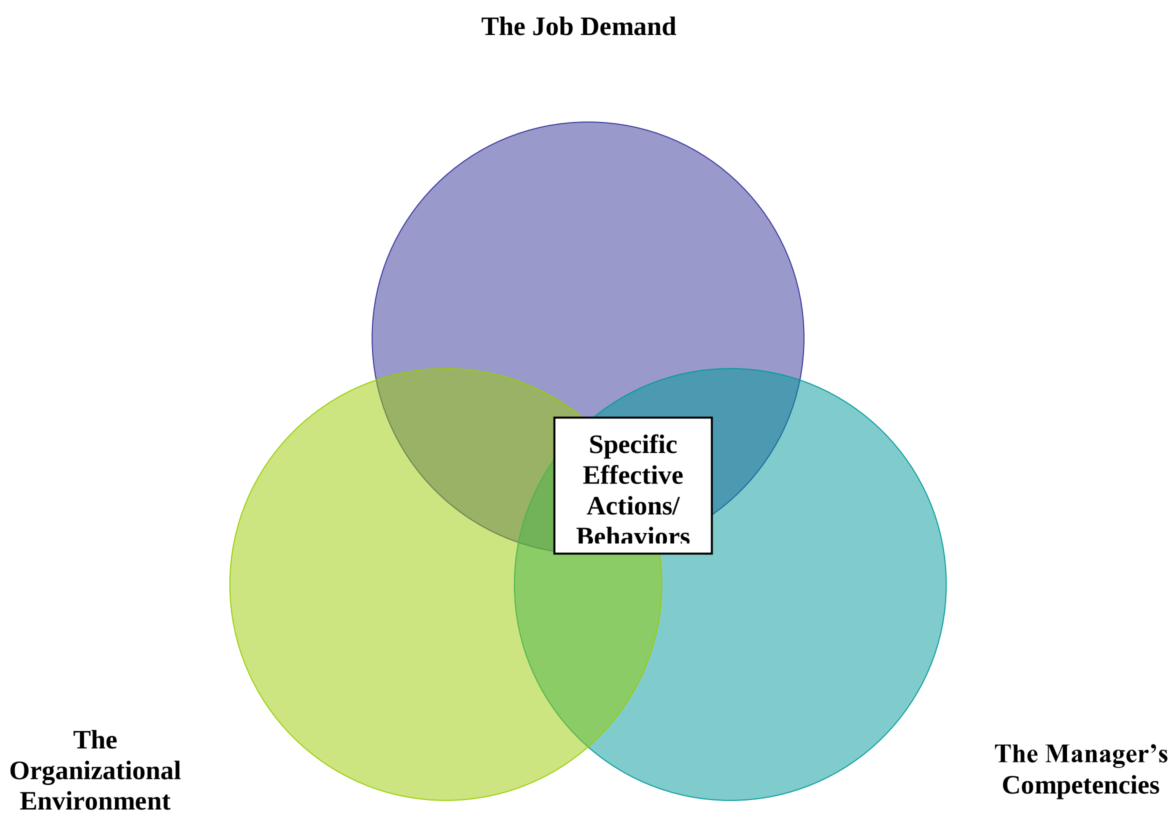
Perhaps Boyatzis’ two greatest contributions to leadership/management studies were:

i). that his 1982 research represented ‘the most comprehensive study to-date of managers’ competencies’ (Schroder, 1989); and

ii). the BEI approach was ‘characterized by its rigor and yet its accessibility to managers and human resource professionals with little or no background in statistics and competency research’ (Spencer and Spencer, 1993).

Figure 2.1

Boyatzis' Model of Effective Job Performance



(adapted from Boyatzis, 1982)

Dulewicz’ research has formed the foundation upon which many investigations into management and leadership competencies have been pursued at Henley Management College (UK). Dulewicz (1998) developed a management competency framework that has proven to be critical to much of the competency-based work carried out at the college; including noteworthy developments in the area of leadership. (However, as these developments are presented later within this literature review, only the foundation work will be discussed within this section.)

After an extensive review of the seminal competency literature, Dulewicz created a framework for managerial competency, which was eventually developed into a model consisting of 45 competencies grouped into six clusters (see table 2.3). Based on persuasive findings from key investigations (Dulewicz and Herbert, 1992), twelve superior or “supra-competencies” were recognized and grouped into four basic clusters (see table 2.4). Dulewicz and Herbert conducted a seven-year follow-up study involving 58 General Managers from the UK and Eire, concerning career advancement over the time period. The study aimed to identify causal relationships between competencies, personality characteristics, and career advancement (success).

Table 2.3 Dulewicz' Personal Competency Framework

Competency Cluster	Competency
Intellectual	1. Information Collection 2. Problem Analysis 3. Numerical Interpretation 4. Judgment 5. Critical Faculty 6. Creativity 7. Planning 8. Perspective 9. Organizational Awareness 10. External Awareness 11. Learning-Oriented 12. Technical Expertise
Personal	13. Adaptability 14. Independence 15. Integrity 16. Stress Tolerance 17. Resilience 18. Detail Consciousness 19. Self-Management 20. Change-Oriented
Communication	21. Reading 22. Written Communication 23. Listening 24. Oral Expression 25. Oral Presentation
Interpersonal	26. Impact 27. Persuasiveness 28. Sensitivity 29. Flexibility 30. Ascendancy 31. Negotiating
Leadership	32. Organizing 33. Empowering 34. Appraising 35. Motivating Others 36. Developing Others 37. Leading
Results-Orientation	38. Risk-Taking 39. Decisiveness 40. Business Sense 41. Energy 42. Concern for Excellence 43. Tenacity 44. Initiative 45. Customer-Oriented

(adapted from Dulewicz, 1998)

Table 2.4 Dulewicz' Supra-Competencies

Competency Cluster	**Competency**
Intellectual	1. Strategic Perspective 2. Analysis and Judgment 3. Planning and Organizing
Interpersonal	4. Managing Staff 5. Persuasiveness 6. Assertiveness 7. Interpersonal Sensitivity 8. Oral Communication
Adaptability	9. Adaptability and Resilience
Results-Orientation	10. Energy and Initiative 11. Achievement Motivation 12. Business Sense

(adapted from Dulewicz, 1998)

Dulewicz and Herbert utilized "rate of advancement" during the seven year period to separate the participants into two groups: "High-flyers" and "Low-flyers" respectively (table 2.5 represents the basic competencies, supra-competencies, and personality characteristics distinguishing the superior performers from the low). Possible limitations to Dulewicz and Herbert's 1996 study include the relatively small sample size, and the rather narrow cultural characteristics of the participants; all hailing from Great Britain (Eire was included). The author might further argue that personal development (and advancement) does not, in itself, add value to an organization (Schroder, 1989); and therefore is perhaps not the most appropriate choice of measurement.

Table 2.5 Dulewicz and Herbert's Distinguishing "High-Flyer" Competencies

Basic Personal Competency	1. Risk-Taking 2. Planning 3. Organizing 4. Motivating Others
Supra-Competency	1. Planning and Organizing 2. Managing Staff 3. Assertive and Decisive 4. Achievement-Motivation
Personality Characteristic	1. Controlling 2. Competitive

However, this point concerns more the researcher's perspective on the overall objective of the investigation, rather than a true limitation. Nonetheless, investigations into the leadership roles and requirements of individuals maintaining leadership positions at varying levels within organizations, continues to attract much attention from scholars. McClelland (1993, p.3) maintained that task performance was best measured through one's competency, further asserting that: "…traditional academic aptitude and knowledge tests, as well as school grades (cognitive ability) and credentials did not predict job performance or success…." (McClelland, 1993).

For decades, prior to McClelland's (1973) paper, "Testing for Competency Rather than Intelligence", cognitive ability (IQ) had been accepted as the basis for success in life as well as the workplace. McClelland challenged this view by his statement that evidence failed to substantiate this perspective (as just noted). The different models applying this method are largely based on a "cause and effect" relationship, with the effect being superior effectiveness i.e., performance, and the cause(s) being competency(-ies) requiring identification.

2.8.6 IQ as a Predictor of Success

Until recently, emotional variables were rarely considered by researchers when attempting to explain success, but rather, the plethora of data grossly favored intellectual ability (Goleman, 1995). Examples of society's obsession with IQ as a predictor of a person's capacity for succeeding include:

i). Academic grades; which are used to rank an individual, determine future academic opportunities, employment, and even self-definition as a "high-flyer", "average achiever", or 'below average".

ii). Aptitude tests; such testing is usually standardized throughout one's academic career, continuing right up to the advanced degree level. Again, such IQ-based tests are used to identify the "high performers" from the rest, offering those with superior IQs the prime opportunities to succeed e.g., leading universities, social status, more prestigious and high paying careers, to name a few.

iii). Overall IQ; as measured by IQ tests, has been used to separate the "smart" from the "daft", as early as WW2, when the higher intellectual men were channeled into leadership (officer) positions, whilst those achieving lower scores in the area of IQ were assigned to the rank-and-file.

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Goleman (1995; p. 35) offers the following three examples to support the assertion that IQ is hardly predictive of success:

> **When ninety-five Harvard students from the classes of the 1940s – a time when people with a wider spread of IQ were at Ivy League schools than is presently the case – were followed into middle age, the men with the highest test scores in college were not particularly successful compared to their lower-scoring peers, in terms of salary, productivity, or status in their field. Nor did they have the greatest life satisfaction, nor the most happiness with friendships, family, and romantic relationships. (Valliant, 1977)**

Vaillant’s longitudinal research at Harvard underscores the low level of prediction IQ has in determining success – even given the privileged nature of the graduates.

> **A similar follow-up [study] in middle-age was done with 450 boys, most sons of immigrants, two-thirds from families on welfare, who grew up in Sommerville, Massachusetts, at the time a “blighted slum”; a few blocks from Harvard [University]. A third had IQs below 90. But again, IQ had little relationship to how well they had done at work or in the rest of their lives; for instance, 7% of men with IQs under 80 were unemployed for 10 or more years, but so were 7% of men with IQs over 100. To be sure, there was a general link (as there always is) between IQ and socioeconomic level at age forty-seven. But, childhood abilities such as being able to handle frustrations, control emotions, and get on with other people made the greatest difference.**

The Felsman and Vaillant 40-year Somerville, Massachusetts study further evidences the inability of IQ to forecast people’s success.

> **Consider also the data from an ongoing study of eighty-one valedictorians and salutatorians from the 1981 class in Illinois high schools. All, of course, had the highest grade-point averages in their schools. But while they continued to achieve well in college, getting excellent grades, by their late twenties they had climbed to only average levels of success. Ten years after graduating from high school, only one in four were at the highest level of young people of comparable age in their chosen profession, and many were doing much less well.**

Professor Arnold, the senior researcher involved in the valedictorian study, attributed the results to the participants’ competency in performing at the highest levels within the intellectual academic arena, whilst the same individuals failed to demonstrate similar superior success when confronted with the external challenges and vicissitudes of life e.g., employment, career development, relationships, frustrations, etc… Low levels of “Emotional Intelligence”.

Whilst raw intellect has shown little evidence as a predictor of performance outside the narrow scope of academe, emotional traits or competencies have direct impact on people's performance and success (Gardner, 1983 ; Goleman, 1995; 1998). These emotional competencies comprise one's overall emotional aptitude; a "meta-ability", determining how effectively we utilize other skills, competencies, and abilities – including IQ.

> **Much evidence testifies that people who are emotionally adept – who know and manage their own feelings well, and who read and deal effectively with other people's feelings – are at an advantage in any domain of life…picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organizational politics. People with well-developed emotional skills are also more likely to be content and effective in their lives, mastering the habits of mind that foster their own productivity; people who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clear thought. (Goleman, 1995, p. 36)**

2.9 The Emergence of Emotional Intelligence: An Overview

Pascal's famous quote; "The heart has its reasons, of which reason knows not", exemplifies the perceived separateness with which experts, historically, have both viewed and approached the nature of emotion and reason (cognition). Although inquiry into the realm of emotion has been present in Western philosophy for centuries, much of its investigation within the established field of psychology can be traced back to the turn of the 20th century, when the era of IQ began gathering momentum.

2.9.1 Intelligence and Emotions

From approximately 1900 to 1969, emotion and reason were both regarded and studied as diverse and non-converging fields; with the latter being packaged and defined into a narrow perspective of "the capacity to carry out valid, abstract reasoning…" (Mayer, 2001, p. 4). This understanding of the nature of intellect or reason underpinned the intelligence research that closely followed, resulting in the concept of IQ, and its decisive role within Western cultures. According to Ekman, early studies into emotions, at this time, centered on two main questions:

> **Would a person who encountered a stressful situation such as meeting a bear in the woods first respond physiologically (e.g., with an increased heart rate) and then feel emotion, or was the emotional feeling primary, followed by physiological changes. A second problem focused on whether emotions held universal meaning, or whether they were culturally determined and idiosyncratic. Darwin had argued that emotions had evolved around animal species; this was met with skepticism by social psychologists who believed that emotions were manifested differently in different cultures. (Mayer, 2001, p. 4)**

It was also during the early 1900s that the first IQ tests were researched, designed, and implemented as superior selection tools; e.g., used to diversify between the "smart" and the less so, resulting in the former being granted opportunities to ascend to leadership positions. Gardner noted that during WWI, two million US soldiers were sorted into different skill levels according to their IQs, as measured by the original self-assessment instrument, developed by Terman, a psychologist at Stanford University (Goleman, 1995).

Gardner claims this to be the origins of the heyday of IQ, marked by the belief that "people are either smart or not, are born that way, and there is nothing much you can do about it, and that tests can tell you whether you are one of the smart ones or not" (Goleman, 1995, p. 38). Intelligence Quotient tests measured a person's capacity in the areas of verbal and mathematical acuity. It was during the "age of intelligence" that most Western cultures adopted IQ and IQ-testing as the fundamental and all-encompassing determinant of effective performance – both within academe and without – granting the higher IQ percentage of the population privileges, opportunities, and prestige, in accordance with their measured intelligence quotients.

In order to understand the study of reason; intellect assumed such a “rational” and non-feeling identity, that it is critical to provide the origin of its influence, and the accepted underlying philosophy. During the middle of the 20th century, the Skinnerian behaviorist approach was established as the precursor to the study of academic psychology (Goleman, 1995). Skinner maintained, as Goleman relates (2005), that ‘only behavior that can be studied from the outside, can be observed objectively, and therefore be accepted as being scientific; realistic, valid, and true’. Inner feelings do not meet this requirement, and as such, cannot be accurately measured.

This “zeitgeist” of psychology was sustained for several decades, well into the “cognitive revolution” sparked during the 1960s; how the mind registers and stores information, as well as the nature of intelligence. However, even with the tremendous influence of Skinner and the behaviorist view on the investigation of emotions, inferences were made during the age of intelligence, which were later revisited, contributing significantly to the discovery and establishment of EI as a distinctive field within psychology.

Thorndike, a strong proponent of IQ during the early 1900s, published an article concerning the existence of what he termed “social intelligence”; ‘the ability to understand others and act wisely in human relations’, and argued that social intelligence was an important part of IQ. Although Thorndike’s approach of subsuming the social component of Emotional Intelligence into IQ has been rejected by the founders of Emotional Intelligence, his acknowledgement as to the existence of non-cognitive intelligence raised interest decades later. Sternberg (1985) was one such researcher who revisited Thorndike’s conclusion about social intelligence. Research of his own culminated in his agreeing with Thorndike that:

> **Social intelligence is both distinct from academic abilities and a key part of what makes people do well in the practicalities of life. Among the practical intelligences that are, for instance, so highly valued in the workplace is the**

> **kind of sensitivity that allows effective managers to pick up tacit messages. (Sternberg, 1985; in Goleman, 1995, p. 42)**

Several of the forefathers of Emotional Intelligence (e.g., Bar-On, Sternberg, Salovey, and Mayer) have broadened their views of the concept beyond that of Thorndike's. Rather than studying EI through a cognitively filtered perspective i.e., focusing on cognitions about emotions and feelings, as opposed to the broader approach of identifying the role of emotions within intelligence(s), and within the holistic framework of success in all of life's facets.

2.9.2 Precursors to Emotional Intelligence

Mayer (2001) notes during this period how reason and emotion, previously separated, were now combined into one field – "thought and emotion" (cognition and affect). In his own words Mayer writes:

> **…researchers sought lawful rules of what emotions meant and when they arose. Earlier philosophical writings concerning the logic of emotions were rediscovered. Researchers reasserted Darwin's idea that emotions had evolved across species, and that emotions were universal expressions about internal relationships. The influence of emotion on thought was studied in depressed individuals, as well as those suffering from bipolar disorder (manic depression). Researchers in artificial intelligence became interested in whether expert systems could be developed in the form of computer programs that could understand the feelings of story characters. To do this required drawing on some of the same basic laws of emotions and their meanings as were studied in cognition and affect. There was a small but definite interchange among researchers in artificial intelligence and those studying cognition and affect. (Mayer, 2001, p. 6)**

This period produced much of the research later organized into the concept of EI. The term "Emotional Intelligence", itself, was even applied at times; although, according to Mayer, never clearly specified and defined i.e., there were researchers who referred to EI, though could not offer an unambiguous and definitive definition, whilst other authors referred to non-Emotional Intelligence concepts, with accurate and all encompassing definitions. Examples included:

> **The facts, meanings, truths, relationships, etc., [of Emotional Intelligence] are those that exist within the realm of emotion. Thus, feelings are facts.... The meanings are felt meanings; the truths are emotional truths; the relationships are interpersonal relationships. And the problems we solve are emotional problems, That is, problems in the way we feel. (Payne, 1986, p. 165)**

Speaking of the “problems we feel” and connecting these problems with “reality” and “emotions” makes sense within the concept of EI. However, other parts of the definition are vaguer, lacking clarity and comprehensible meaning. Payne’s definition is incomplete and ambiguous at best. However, Gardner (1983) revealed strong evidence supporting his proposal that IQ is only one of multiple intelligences inherent to the human being. Gardner rejected the research community continuing to support IQ as the predictor of success. Gardner (1983) identified seven different intelligences:

I & ll). verbal and mathematical-logical alacrity; academic;
iii). spatial capacity; e.g., an artist or architect;
iv). kinesthetic aptitude; physical fluidity;
v). musical aptitude.
vi & vii). personal intelligence; interpersonal and intrapsychic skills.

Gardner and associates extended the seven intelligences to twenty; defining narrower elements within the original seven classifications. Not withstanding that, Gardner’s stance against the *status quo*; i.e., his identification of multiple intelligences, and coining of the terms – intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences - arguably represent his greatest contributions to the field of EI.

Gardner (1993) offered the following contracted definition for his personal intelligences:

> **Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful salespeople, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence (Goleman, 1995, p. 41).**

Elsewhere (1989), Gardner also included 'the capacities to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations and desires of other people'.

> **Intrapersonal intelligence …is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. (Goleman, 1995, p. 41)**

However, for all of Gardner's contributions to the understanding of multiple intelligences; personal intelligences in particular, his later work deviates from his early inquiry into the nature of emotions, in favor of "meta-cognition"; the awareness of one's mental processes (Goleman, 1995). Gardner's contribution of multiple intelligences and personal intelligences were only a fraction of the research collected and subsumed into Salovey and Mayer's theory of EI. Salovey and Mayer also investigated the fields of intelligence and emotions, aesthetics, artificial intelligence, brain research and clinical psychology (Mayer, 2001).

The 1980s was a period when several strands of research hinted at the concept of EI, and even identified part(s) of it, yet remained incomplete. Child psychologists had noted "emotional giftedness", which could well be viewed as one of several predecessors to the concept of EI. It was during this period of time that Salovey and Mayer reviewed much of the relevant research that would become their identified and defined concept of EI (1990). In 1990, Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey defined EI as follows: “a type of informational processing that includes accurate appraisal of emotions in oneself and others, appropriate expression of emotion, and adaptive regulation of emotion in such a way as to enhance living’ (p. 773). In 1993, Salovey and Mayer published a follow-up editorial based on their work to-date. The early 1990s, according to Mayer (2001), represented the “demarcation” of the study and field of Emotional Intelligence.

2.9.3 The Popularization and Further Development of EI

The popularization of Emotional Intelligence can be largely attributed to Goleman’s 1995 book entitled *“Emotional Intelligence”*. Not unlike Salovey and Mayer, although in a less scientific way, Goleman packaged and presented the concept of EI; Goleman, however, introduced the concept to the general public – worldwide. During this period of popularization and development, varying definitions and focuses for EI were introduced by experts having diverse backgrounds: e.g., educators, psychologists, consultants, and even journalists (Mayer, 2001). Aligning with the introduction of diverse definitions of Emotional Intelligence, three main constructs emerged: the ability-based model (trait-based), Goleman’s popular personality-based model, defined in competency terms (competency-based), significantly reinterpreted and redefined from the work of others (incl. Gardner, Sternberg, Salovey and Mayer, as well as others), and a more practical competency-framed “mixed” (personal factors – based model; Bar-On; 1988; 1997; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2001; 2003). Table 2.6 illustrates the three approaches and frameworks of EI as mentioned above.

Table 2.6 Identified Characteristics of Emotional Intelligence

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999)	**Bar-On** (1997)		**Goleman** (1998)	
1. The ability to perceive emotions accurately	1. Personal EQ	1. Accurately perceiving 2. Awareness 3. Assertiveness 4. Self-regard 5. Self-actualization 6. Independence	1. Self-awareness	1. Emotional awareness 2. Accurate self-assessment 3. Self-confidence
2. The ability to use emotions to facilitate thought	2. Interpersonal EQ	7. Empathy 8. Interpersonal relationships 9. Social responsibility	2. Self-regulation	4. Self-control 5. Trustworthiness 6. Conscientiousness 7. Adaptability 8. Innovation
3. The ability to understand emotions and their meanings	3. Adaptability EQ	10. Problem solving 11. Reality testing	3. Motivation	9. Achievement drive 10. Commitment 11. Initiative 12. Optimism
4. The ability to manage emotions	4. Stress management EQ	12. Stress tolerance 13. Impulse control	4. Empathy	13. Understanding others 14. Developing others 15. Service orientation 16. Leveraging diversity 17. Political awareness
	5. General mood EQ	14. Happiness 15. Optimism	5. Social Skills	18. Influence 19. Communication 20. Conflict management 21. Leadership 22. Change catalyst 23. Building bonds 24. Collaboration and cooperation 25. Team capabilities

(adapted from Mayer, 2001)

The definition and explanation Goleman provided was loosely based on Salovey and Mayer's 1990 definition (according to Goleman, 1995); which attempted to subsume Gardner's (according to Goleman, 1995); although Goleman took a dramatically different approach to that of Salovey and Mayer as well as Gardner (Ciarrochi et al., 2001) choosing to focus on motivation, social relationships, as well as other capacities, skills, and characteristics; i.e., personal competencies (Goleman, 1995; Mayer, 2001).

Goleman (1995, p. 47) first offered the following framework for understanding EI:

> **Knowing one's emotions. Self-awareness – recognizing a feeling as it happens – is the keystone of Emotional Intelligence. The ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding. An inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy. People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they really feel about personal decisions from whom to marry, to what job to take.**
>
> **Managing emotions. Handling feelings so they are appropriate is an ability that builds on self-awareness. People who are poor in this ability are constantly battling feelings of distress, while people who excel in it can bounce back far more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets.**
>
> **Motivating oneself – Marshaling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity. Emotional self-control – delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness – underlies accomplishment of every sort. And being able to get into the "flow" state enables outstanding performance of all kinds. People who have this skill tend to be more highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake.**
>
> **Recognizing emotions in others. Empathy, another ability that builds on self-awareness, is the fundamental "people skill". People who are empathic are more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others need or want. This makes them better at callings such as the caring professions, teaching, sales, and management.**
>
> **Handling relationships. The art of relationships is, in large part, skill in managing emotions in others. These are the skills that under-gird popularity, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness. People who excel in these skills do well at anything having to do with interacting smoothly with others; they are social stars.**

Bar-On (1997, p. 14), reflecting his more comprehensive (mixed) model of Emotional Intelligence, termed his construct “Emotional Quotient” (EQ), defining it as:

> **[EQ is] an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.**

In 1999, Salovey, Caruso, and Mayer updated their previous definition, to clearly reflect their “ability-based” model of EI (Mayer, 2001, p. 267):

> **Emotional Intelligence refers to the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional Intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.**

Regardless of the discrepancies between the identified models and assessment approaches representing the three models of EI previously described, it can be argued that they converge on the basis that they all three are dealing with the “trait” of Emotional Intelligence. It was Gardner’s (1989) identification of multiple intelligences, and Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) original definition and argument for its existence – as a *de facto* intelligence and distinct concept, which assisted EI in gaining its original interest and recognition. “Intelligence” is one of the oldest (dating back to Soctates, Plato, and Aristotle) and most frequently touted leadership traits (Gill, 2006; Kotter, 1990). Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) model requires no further explanation, as they acknowledge EI as an ability (trait). Goleman (1998) framed his concept of EI in cooperation with his associate, Boyatzis, and based on Boyatzis’ earlier work in the area of competencies; Boyatzis acknowledges traits as being competencies within his definition (see sub-section 2.8.5). Concerning the personal factors paradigms (Bar-On, 1997; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000), they report their models to measure “personal factors [behaviors] related to Emotional Intelligence” (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 6).

And as Gill (2006) maintains, ‘Emotional Intelligence is a trait, regardless of the way it is exhibited (behaviors)’.

Mayer and Salovey may well have contributed the most to the initial development of the field of Emotional Intelligence, through their recognition of an overlooked concept – followed by their meticulous mapping of the relevant research from diverse fields, identifying the construct, defining, measuring, and making the case for the existence of Emotional Intelligence, as well as introducing the new field to the greater academic community. That said, Goleman, on the other hand, should be credited for popularizing EI and presenting the concept to the world in a clearly defined categorical manner. Goleman initiated a plethora of interest to the field, and motivated a myriad of research involving EI with his statements that: (a) Emotional Intelligence was more important than IQ in all aspects of life - as much as twice as important – and; (b) EI was a reliable predictor of success in all areas of one’s life (1995).
Goleman’s follow-up book (*Working with Emotional Intelligence*, 1998) expanded on the original concepts made three years earlier, only focusing on the workplace and giving significant attention to EI’s specific role in the area of successful leadership.

2.9.4 EI and Leadership

In 1998, Goleman extended the concept and ascertains of EI from his original book (*Emotional Intelligence*, 1995), focusing on the corporate environment, management, and leadership. Within the context of leadership, he maintained that EQ (Emotional Intelligence) was a central component for the success of organizational leaders. Goleman (1998, p. 33) states,

> **... emotional competency made the crucial difference between mediocre leaders and the best. The stars showed significantly greater strengths in a range of emotional competencies, among them influence, team leadership,political awareness, self-confidence, and achievement drive. On average, close to 90% of their success in leadership was attributed to**

> **Emotional Intelligence. To sum up: For star performance in all jobs, in every field, Emotional Intelligence is twice as important as purely cognitive abilities. For success at the highest levels, in leadership positions, emotional competency accounts for virtually the entire advantage.**

Suddenly, a world that had attempted to use IQ (cognitive ability) as the definitive criterion for success was faced with the challenge of EQ. That said, as presented earlier within this chapter, 'there is an ongoing debate concerning what constitutes the domain of Emotional Intelligence, the most accurate terminology to use when describing it, and the most effective approach to measuring or assessing it in an individual' (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso determined the abilities approach (trait-based) to be the most "promising", whilst Goleman (1998) proposed his Emotional Competencies Inventory (ECI), based on 12 clusters of personality competencies, derived from earlier consulting work through Hay-McBer (Goleman, 1998). A third stream pursued by Bar-On (1997) and Dulewicz and Higgs (2000), based on rigorous empirical research into personal factors related to EI; which they termed 'Emotional Quotient or EQ', has resulted in well-defined models and carefully designed psychometric instruments (The EQ-I; Bar-On, and EIQ; Dulewicz and Higgs, respectively).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) took the next logical step in "operationalizing" their EIQ:

> **In an initial exploratory study, [they] found that, on a sample of General Managers, on an EI scale based on 16 relevant competencies showed promising reliability and predictive validity over a seven-year period. Building on the study and on an extensive literature review, and in order to move on from competencies' assessment, a tailored questionnaire (the EIQ) was designed to specifically assess through self-report, seven elements of an individual's Emotional Intelligence (Dulewicz and Higgs, (2003, p. 5).**

The seven elements identified in the study were: self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, inter-personal sensitivity, influence, intuitiveness, and conscientiousness (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). Presumably for the benefit of subordinate, peer, and direct-report feedback, and in their own words, “In view of the nature of the EI construct…[the authors created a 360 degree version] in a similar way to the original version of the questionnaire” (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 6).

Emotional Intelligence was rapidly being established as a significant component of the future study of effective leadership (e.g., Cacioppe, 1997; Sosik and Megarian, 1999; Chaudry, 2001; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2001: 2002: 2003: 2004). Much of the leadership literature in the “Transformational” school strongly insinuates the need for leaders to possess high levels of Emotional Intelligence (Higgs and Rowland, 2001).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003), compared their own EQ factors model with prominent transformational leadership models that were clearly grounded in the behavioral framework (e.g., Kotter, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Kouzes and Posner, 1998; Goffee and Jones, 2000; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Goleman; Boyatzis; and McKee, 2002), and concluded that strong linkages existed between Emotional Intelligence and required change leadership competencies (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2001). Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) provide a comprehensive explanation and data.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) further mapped the central “themes” proposed by several prominent scholars as to the IQ (cognitive) and MQ (managerial competency) dimensions that are crucial to successful leadership, finding that Bass and Avolio’s (1995), Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe’s (2001) models supported all eight of their proposed IQ and MQ dimensions (see Appendix for full inventory of LDQ factors and definitions; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). Based on the most authoritative literature, as well as further mapping exercises, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) developed their model that "IQ + EQ + MQ = successful leadership".

Dulewicz and Higgs then"operationalized" the formula with the development of their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ); for a complete description of the LDQ see chapter 3, Methodology.

The LDQ consists of three sections, reflecting the three parts of the formula:

i). Intellectual competencies (IQ)

ii). Emotional Intelligence competencies (EQ)

iii). Management competencies (MQ)

The LDQ allows managers to measure their leadership styles based on their responses to the 15 leadership dimensions (7 EQ and 8 MQ + IQ) comprising the LDQ. The LDQ was further designed with an embedded context scale. According to the designers of the LDQ, the context scale reflected: "…[how] the contextualization implied by the Transformational school (Bass and Avolio, 1999) has moved from a largely internal leader-follower focus to a broader, and often external one" (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 6). In response, the LDQ results provide an assessment of the respondent's dominant leadership style, within a change-oriented context. The three distinctive leadership styles and contexts are as follows (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; 2004):

i). Engaging Leadership – a style based on a high level of empowerment and involvement appropriate in a highly transformational context. Such a style is focused on producing radical change with high levels of engagement and commitment.

ii). Involving Leadership – a style that is based on a transitional organization that faces significant, but not necessarily radical changes in its business model or operational mode (modus operandi).

iii). Goal-Oriented Leadership – a style that is focused on delivering results within a relatively stable context. This is a "Leader-led" style aligned to a stable organization delivering clearly understood results.

The growing pool of research focusing on the role of EI in successful organizational leadership appears to be admirably consistent, and has gained the support of many prominent leadership scholars (e.g., Bennis, 1994; Boyatzis et al., 2002; Yukl, 2002). Unfortunately, in a world embracing globalization and increased cross-cultural interaction, relatively few studies of this kind have been conducted outside of North America and Western Europe. However, extensive cross-cultural studies into EI (utilizing Bar-On's well-established EQ-I self-report test); involving North Americans, Dutch, and Israeli respondents (Bar-On, 1997), have led to some rather interesting findings concerning the predictive nature of EI (in the case of these studies, EI was predictive of respondents' levels of self-actualization: the ability and drive to set and achieve goals; being committed to and involved with one's interests; actualizing one's potential; enriching one's life), with happiness, optimism, self-regard, independence, problem-solving, social responsibility, assertiveness, and emotional self-awareness contributing to more than 60% of the respondents' levels of self-actualization (Ciarrochi et al., 2001).

A further study carried out in 40 different countries, involving over 100,000 managers, and spanning an entire decade (Moller and Bar-On, 2000), found a consistent link between self-actualization and occupational performance. With these studies making the three-way linkage (EI, self-actualization, and occupational performance), the authors concluded that EI must be directly related to occupational performance (if A = B, and B = C, then A = C). From the author's perspective, the above-mentioned studies help to highlight the potential for finding useful cross-cultural commonalities (and differences) between national cultures, which can be utilized to further understand and increase the effectiveness of transnational interactions. Moreover, recent studies underscore the great need for current comparative-cultural studies that avoid ethnocentric bias, but adhere to sound methodology and practices that can be built upon and replicated in the future.

2.9.5 Summary Critique of the Competency Approach and EI

Whilst the competency approach is still favored by some researchers and experts, competency-based scholarship has not been without its limitations.

> **The abstract nature of most traits limits their utility for understanding leadership effectiveness. It is difficult to interpret the relevance of abstract traits except by examining how they are expressed in the actual behavior of leaders. (Yukl, 2002, p. 201)**

Leadership research focusing on traits (or competencies) are sometimes without an underpinning theory that explains the connection between the traits and successful leadership. Further weakness includes approaching competencies (or traits) individually, thus missing out on the complex relationships between them. For example, Dweck's (1986) research findings supported that "achievement orientation" affects leader motivation to acquire new knowledge and skills. "Emotional maturity" is directly correlated with a leader's willingness to seek out and accept feedback from others (Yukil, 2002). "Self- confidence" and "stress tolerance" have been proposed to be able to improve a leader's ability to apply cognitive competency under 'high pressure' circumstances (Mumford and Connelly, 1991).

Very little "profiling" typologies have been included in competency studies. For example, the author believes it may prove useful in the future to establish basic leadership competency typologies for various national cultures, based on their cultural tendencies. The author tends to believe that whilst any culture can produce members adept at any competency, that due to societal variables cultures have tendencies towards developing imbalanced "profiles" that are not universal across cultures. For example, do Russian and UK managers share the same leadership competency profiles – a question that shall be investigated as part of this study.

More research concerning the defining competencies required at varying organizational levels is needed; especially within the comparative cultural literature. If we accept that line-level, middle, and senior management have varying responsibilities within an organization; sometimes described as action-based, translating strategic decisions into necessary tasks/processes, and strategic decision-making, respectively, then it may well be sensible to believe that differing competency profiles might also be required. Emotional Intelligence can be defined as a competency. However, due to its critical role within this investigation, the author has chosen to discuss its perceived limitations within a separate subsection.

Early proponents for the existence of a non-cognitive intelligence went against the Skinnerian perspective on psychology 'that only that which is observable is measurable', and therefore can be researched and accepted as being scientific knowledge (Goleman, 1995).   Others criticized implications of multiple intelligences based on the lack of a clear and concise definition (Davies, Stankov, and Roberts, 1998); although in 1990, Salovey and Mayer offered their first definition of EI. A few of the proponents and pioneers of EI have elicited concern for newer models of Emotional Intelligence (e.g., Salovey and Mayer disregard models other than their own; Mayer et al., 2001). However, the author views this debate as being more one of ownership of a new concept than anything else. After all, there are widely accepted IQ tests that involve distinctly differing assessment processes; e.g., one-on-one oral assessments, self-reported varieties, and so on.

Since the concept of Emotional Intelligence became such a focal point of interest, important debates have arisen, not the least of which pertaining to its definition, domain, the most appropriate approach to its measurement, its critical nature within organizational leadership, and its role and importance in group- and team-oriented tasks. Antonakis (2003), perhaps the most prominent antagonist of much of the EI research, has attacked EI from several directions: its construct, importance viz IQ, as well as its necessity for leaders and effective leadership. Indirectly, Antonakis (2003) attacks Goleman's personal competency model of EI – via the work of Prati et al., who he described as 'touting the wonders of EI with missionary zeal', and their claim that it is a fundamental element of "charisma" and leadership effectiveness. Interestingly enough, Prati et al. have since discarded Goleman's model in favor of Salovey and Mayer's trait-based abilities approach; it should be noted that Antonakis (2004) recognized this and praised the researchers for abandoning what he referred to as 'a virtually all-encompassing paradigm that appears to include all non-cognitive intelligences'.

Antonakis (2003) further criticized the vigor with which the industrial relations functions within organizations have included EI measurement for purposes of hiring and promotion. Again, directly attacking Goleman's popular approach to EI, but generally maintaining that more empirical evidence is needed prior to organizations implementing EI testing in such critical areas concerning employee hiring and advancement; although in all fairness to Goleman, Antonakis' literature review was incomplete, seeing that in the *EI Consortium* description of Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory, Goleman (2000) specifically states that *employers should not use the instrument for hiring or compensation decisions.* All things being equal, the researcher appreciates with the spirit of Antonakis' argument.

As presented within this chapter's sub-section reviewing the development of EI, and the three main constructs that have emerged: the trait-based approach (Salovey and Mayer); the personal competency approach (Goleman), and the personal factor approach (Dulewicz and Higgs), Antonakis (2003) maintains that EI needs more consensus as to the limits of its domain, prior to utilizing early research findings as firm foundations for further inquiry. Antonakis (2003) further advocates what the researcher presents within the next chapter (Methodology), the importance of EI assessment instruments being tested for demonstrated reliability and validity. Related to this comment, Antonakis (2003) advises that 'EI instruments should be carefully constructed to measure only the domain of the construct; and not related concepts such as "empathy" and "self-monitoring". Additionally, 'target leaders should complete EI measures (further advocating self-assessment of EI), but that leadership styles, performance/satisfaction type measures should be completed with a 360 degree approach (i.e., peers, superiors, and subordinates).

Specifically addressing EI and leadership, Antonakis (2003; 2004) questions the validity of the EI research claiming that EI is critical to all leaders. He especially targets senior managers, as they are somewhat detached from direct interaction with employees, and need to make more task-oriented, cognitively-based, non-emotional decisions concerning the strategic future of the organization; such decisions include those that may negatively affect subordinates, yet need to be made for the long-term health and success of the firm (layoffs, downsizing, etc.). This relates back to the early work of Fiedler (1967) who maintained that many situational factors preclude "people-oriented" leaders as the best fit for organizations (see Fiedler's LPC Contingency theory within this chapter).

Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2004) developed this theme, advocating more empirical research into organizational leadership within different segments of the organization; i.e., work teams. Their findings concerning 44 Australian work teams over a nine-week period revealed that teams high in EI greatly outperformed low-EI teams; indicating that EI plays a critical role in team cohesion, interaction, and common vision and goals. Ashkanasy and Tse (1998) presented a speculative paper on *Transformational Leadership as Management* *of Emotions* finding an important link between the two. However, as this was a purely theoretical and conceptual paper, more empirical evidence is desirable, such as the research of Daus and Harris (2003), who found strong relationships between leader emergence and transformational leadership, or Coetzee and Schaap's investigation into 100 executives, who concluded that transformational leadership was strongly related to overall EI, whilst "laissez faire" leadership behaviors were negatively correlated to the "use of emotions".

Introducing a fresh dimension to this discussion, Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) introduce the factor of the workplace environment, stressing that organizations need to be more aware of the workplace context; and any elements that might cause mood swings and/or changes in mood, advocating that EI in-and-of-itself does not ensure productive employees, but rather more attention is needed to moderating variables (i.e., elements of the workplace) that can lead to negative moods thereby increasing undesirable employee behaviors: e.g., negative communication, interpersonal conflict, poor productivity, tardiness, complacency, etc.

Certainly EI is recent in its development, and requires further understanding and refinement, but variations in definition do not preclude its existence or even determine the nature of the mental capacity. After all, does the description given a concept contain the meaning of the concept, or is the meaning held within the concept itself? The author would argue for the latter, and would add that it is most likely that the full understanding of the nature of EI will grow over time, as well as increased knowledge concerning its interaction with other intelligences and mental processes. Salovey and Mayer further refined their definition of EI (1993) several years after publishing their original in 1990 (Mayer et al., 2001); in addition to redesigning their original Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) was not available until 1997.

2.10 The Need for Current Cross-Cultural Studies

Cross-cultural researchers usually distinguish between “emic” (culture specific) and “etic” (cross-culturally applicable) studies (Den Hartog et al., 1999). The origin of these terms lie within the field of linguistics (Pike, 1967), although they were later adopted and assimilated into cross-cultural psychology (Berry, 1969). “Emic” designed research seeks to identify culture-specific attributes, attempting to describe and explain phenomena through understanding the broader and more complex environment within which they are found (usually descriptive/qualitative studies), whilst “etic” studies utilize standardized measurement tools and assess aspects of a culture (or phenomena) that can be compared between and across cultures (e.g., the LDQ). It is the latter with which we are concerned in this study.

Increasingly, authorities have been acknowledging the significance national culture plays in driving human behavior within organizations (Hofstede, 1980; Trompernaars, 1993; Joynt and Warner, 1996; Adler, 1997). Because of this, culture and cultural dimensions are being taken into account when conducting research involving other countries (Hofstede, 1980; 1993; House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006). Moreover, when reviewing the leadership literature, little cross-cultural research into defining effective leadership in terms of competencies for working across national borders was found.

2.11 Leadership Research in Russia

Early literature having to do with organizational leadership in Russia first appeared in the academic journals shortly after the fall of the Soviet Union, and mainly consisted of well-informed commentaries, outlining the poor state of affairs in Russia, and further highlighting the need for rigorous research into leadership at the organizational level; as opposed to the political leadership of the country (Aage, 1991; Laszlo, 1992; Puffer et al, 1994; Luthans et al., 1998).

Holt et al. (1994) concluded that Russian workers were not completely convinced that transformation to a market economy would be ultimately beneficial to them, and furthermore, that the inadequacy of existing social structures would detract from the new direction for companies; namely having to be independent and competitive.

Relatively few empirical studies involving organizational leadership have been conducted within the Russian Federation, and have often suffered from researchers using stereotypical scenarios and assumptions to form the bases of their investigations (Puffer, 1994), thus bringing into question the value of the researchers' findings. Several inquiries have been so limited as to their sample sizes, number of participating companies, and/or fundamental research designs and methodologies, that their overall relevance is highly questionable (e.g., Suutari, 1996, Suutari and Bolotow, 1996). Other leadership studies have been so pervaded by high levels of bias, generalization, and unfounded assumptions.

Puffer (1994), presumably with the intention to circumvent the biased attempts of other researchers, published an article attempting to expose the traits of Russian leaders from three periods of Russian history (beginning with the 15th century), with the latter period commencing in 1991. As interesting as the article may be from an historical perspective, the approach is highly subjective and lacking scientific evidence. More rigorous research into Russian organizational leadership has resulted in contradictory findings (e.g., Luthans et al., 1998; Elenkov, 2002). Luthans and associates, having introduced the concepts of transactional leadership and the contingency award process for meeting company goals within a Russian factory, found marked increase in both individual and overall company performance.

The finding resulted in their recommending the transactional leadership style as being most effective, and advising against the utilization of the transformational style; contrary to Elenkov (2002) who found the transformational style of leadership to contribute far more to overall company performance than the transactional style. Elenkov (2002) offers interesting insights into the relationship between “transformational” and “transactional” leadership on the organizational performance of 350 small companies (50 employees or fewer), conducting business within various industry sectors, but all located geographically within European Russia. Elenkov utilized two measurement tools for the study. The first was designed to measure organizational performance, through the setting and reaching of company goals, as perceived by the organizations’ selected managers. These questionnaires were completed by executives at the beginning and end of a 6-month period of time. The second questionnaire, completed by subordinates, consisted of four parts:

i). Demographic characteristics

ii). Leadership behaviors (Bass & Avolio’s 1990 revised MLQ)

iii). Support for innovation

iv). Group cohesiveness

Elenkov (2002, p. 467) concluded the following from the study:

> **The results demonstrated that transformational leadership directly and positively produced organizational performance of Russian companies over and beyond the impact of transactional leadership. Russian managers who displayed more transactional leadership behaviors also made a positive contribution to the achievement of organizational goals, support for innovation significantly moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational performance, and group cohesiveness was positively related to the ratings of transformational leadership.**

One might raise concerns pertaining to Elenkov's research including:

i). If executives are setting organizational goals, and also appraising their own leadership effectiveness in reaching those goals, might this not constitute "same-source bias"?

ii). Can the performance of a company be effectively measured over a short period of time, i.e., 6 months, or might the performance results merely reflect short-term business, economic, and/or industry cycles?

iii). The Russian business environment is widely known as being highly regulated by corruption at multiple levels, with the greatest impact being at the small business level. Can one effectively differentiate between the extent to which external corruption has either assisted or hindered the reaching of organizational goals, and the direct influence of internal leadership/management?

Elenkov (1998), utilizing three of the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980), concluded that Russians seek to avoid uncertainty, and express moderate levels of individualism. Uncertainty avoidance seems to be a natural enough reaction for a people who for centuries have lived under authoritarian rule. For many Russians, (village inhabitants) this modern day "serfdom" prevailed until the late1960s, when the Soviet government finally severed this forced tie to the land, by issuing domestic passports to the rural populace, thus allowing them some freedom of movement. Soviet life promised "cradle to grave" security coupled to an ideological conditioning of supremacy, equality, and communal responsibility and pride. As for individualism, the study was carried out approximately a half a decade after the birth of the Russian Federation, and possibly demonstrates the transition of Russian culture from looking to the state for the resolution of life's obstacles, to more self-dependence in determining their own future.

As globalization continues, and the economic situation within Russia stabilizes, more companies and international organizations are being drawn to its vast market and wealth of natural resources. MNCs especially have been setting up operations in Russia, to add to their growing needs to subsidize shrinking domestic earnings with attractive, but riskier global investments (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Javidan et al, 2006). Hofstede's seminal work in the area of cross-cultural comparative studies, whilst limited by the fact that he drew his entire population from one multinational corporation (IBM), still contributed significantly by drawing attention to the differences between peoples from diverse regions and nations in regards to the following dimensions identified by Hofstede:

i). Power Distance – the extent to which a society accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally.

ii). Uncertainty Avoidance – the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain or ambiguous situations.

iii). Individualism – a loosely knit framework in a society in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. Collectivism, the opposite, occurs when there is a "tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups; they expect their in-group (relatives, clan, organization) to look after them, and in exchange for that, owe absolute loyalty to it.

iv). Masculinity (with its opposite pole, femininity) – this dimension expresses "the extent to which the dominant values in society are assertiveness, money and material things, not caring for others, quality of life and people.

More generally, Hofstede (1980) discusses the importance of national culture in the context of management, for the following reasons (although not limited to these points only):

i). Political reasons: Nations are considered political units, which are rooted in history. They have their own institutions, legal systems, educational systems, labor and employers' association systems and their specific forms of government. Thus, the nature of firms, the use of for instance authority and wage systems, and their relations to public institutions as well as to other firms are highly dependent upon the political context.

ii). Sociological reasons: Nationality or "regionality" has a symbolic value to citizens. People perceive national and regional differences to be real, and the differences should therefore be considered as reality.

iii). Psychological reasons: Our thinking is partly conditioned by national culture factors. This is an effect of what is commonly known as "the socialization process" i.e., early life experiences with one's family, later educational experiences in schools and experiences from work organizations, which are not the same across national borders and thus lead to differences in what people value, e.g., what people see as "good" or "bad", and "right" or "wrong".

Hofstede's IBM study has been, for many academics and practitioners alike, the definitive research into understanding aspects of foreign cultures (and foreign nationals within MNCs). Hofsrtede's original investigation was rather extensive consisting of data gathered from respondents in 40 countries (during the 1970s); although not including Russia, other Soviet Republics, or the Eastern Bloc countries (with the exception of Yugoslavia). Hofstede's original investigation has been criticized due to its reliance on non-management respondents, the sample being drawn from only one company, and, at least for some countries (including Russia), its highly questionable application to current society and practices, due to the increasing time gap from when it was conducted and published (1980). Some time later, several more countries were added to the original list, and given values based on highly dubious practices. Hofstede describes his methodology as follows:

> **Table 1 lists the scores…for the United States and for the other countries we just discussed. The table shows that each country has its own configuration on the four dimensions. Some of the values in the table have been estimated based on imperfect replications or personal impressions [all of the values for Russia are included within this admission]. (Hofstede, 1993, p. 90)**

Such practices are generally not considered to be sound approaches within the academic research community. Table 2.7 highlights Hofstede's data for ten of the countries; although the values for Russia will not be used within this comparative-cultural investigation for the purposes of theory building or drawing any inferences. In addition to the limitations already mentioned concerning Hofstede's studies, it is further questionable as to their usefulness in understanding/developing organizational manager-leaders, as opposed to offering some insights into the leadership perceptions of employees.? When discussing the findings of his research, Hofstede admits that the participants were in fact subordinates rather than supervisors or managers (1980).

Table 2.7 Culture Dimension Scores for Ten Countries (PD = Power Distance; ID = Individualism; MA = Masculinity; UA = Uncertainty Avoidance H = top third, M = middle third, L = bottom third among 53 countries)

	PD	ID	MA	UA
UK	L	H	H	L
Germany	L	H	H	M
Japan	M	M	H	H
France	H	H	M	H
Netherlands	L	H	L	M
Hong Kong	H	L	H	L
Indonesia	H	L	M	L
West Africa	H	L	M	M
Russia	H*	M*	L*	H*
China	H	L*	M*	M*

*estimated value based on personal impressions or imperfect replications (source: adapted from Hofstede, 1993)

However, if nothing else, Hofstede's work offered a paradigm upon which to design future cross-cultural studies, and assisted in highlighting the popular but flawed view held by many, that cultural differences were detriments rather than potential resources of an organization conducting business overseas. Moreover, through greater understanding organizations might learn to understand and appreciate other approaches to business and management, rather than assuming the ethnocentric view that business and management approaches different from their own are merely flawed and sub-standard practices (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; 1993; Harris and Moran, 1996; House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006).

Business and management practices are based on the cultural values and assumptions of the national cultures within which they have been developed (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; 1993; Harris and Moran, 1996). Hofstede (1991) highlights the cultural differences pertaining to the role of managers, and the management practices they perform, by comparing several national models. Such comparisons help to punctuate the points made in the previous paragraph.

Hofstede (1993) tracked the differing origins of the words “manager” and “management” within the English language, and describes its development from words broadly used by British economists (e.g., Smith and Mills), to its present day definition as first introduced in the US (and readopted by the British) by Fredrick Taylor. Taylor employed the words “manager” and “management” to describe:

> **…’management’ in the American sense – which has since been taken back by the British – refers not only to the process, but also to the managers as a class of people. This class (1) does not own a business but sells its skills to act on behalf of the owners and (2) does not produce personally but is indispensable for making others produce, through motivation. Members of this class carry a high status and many American boys and girls aspire to the role. In the US, the manager is a cultural hero. (Hofstede, 1993, pp. 82-85)**

Using the US as the standard against which the roles of managers within other national cultures were compared, Hofstede proceeded with his analysis. He explains how in Germany, for example, the manager is not “a cultural hero”. This role is reserved for more technical professionals (e.g., engineers). Hofstede also presents the French model, heavily steeped with the social norms of class and the privileges afforded those born into the right social class.

> **In the USA, the principle is the fair contract between employer and employee, which gives the manager considerable prerogatives, but within its limits. This is really a labor market in which the worker sells his or her labor for a price. In France, the principle is the honor in each class that he has always been, and remains extremely stratified, in which superiors behave as superior beings, and subordinates expect and accept this, conscious of their own lower level in the national hierarchy but also in the honor of their own class. The French do not think in terms of managers and non-managers, but in terms of cadres versus non-cadres; one becomes cadres by attending the proper schools (also privileged based) and one remains it forever; regardless of their actual task, cadres have the**

> **privileges of a higher social class, and it is very rare for non-cadres to cross the ranks. (Hofstede, 1993, pp. 82-85)**

Further comparisons made with Holland and Japan found that, again, the principles of managers and management differed from the US. In Holland:

> **…the [cultural] management principle is the need for consensus to be made among all parties, neither predetermined by a contractual relationship nor by class distinctions, but based on an open-ended exchange of views and a balancing of interests. [Whilst in Japan, the American type of manager was also missing.] In the United States, the core of the enterprise is the managerial class. The core of the Japanese enterprise is the permanent worker group, workers who for all practical purposes are tenured and who aspire to life-long employment. (Hofstede, 1993, pp. 82-85)**

Hofstede's thesis is very persuasive, that managerial roles and practices are deeply embedded in the national cultures from which they were derived, and that these diverse models may well not be directly applicable within other cultural environments. Furthermore, we might strive to learn from other models, adopting those aspects that are applicable to foreign cultural systems, subsuming them into our own cultural management approaches. Adler's "dominance, compromise, and synergy" models, in many ways extend this train of thought. Adler (1985) distinguishes between three models which are at times present within the multicultural organizational environments of MNCs and other international organizations. The three models can be described as follows:

I). "the cultural dominance" model of management refers to the ethnocentric attitude of the international organization, which 'superimposes' its home culture and practices on the multicultural organization;

ii). "the cultural compromise" approach attempts to apply only those management practices that are common to the cultures represented within the organization (discarding those cultural practices that are different), thus limiting the organization;

iii). “the cultural synergy” approach ‘is designed to create new international policies and practices. The cultural synergy model recognizes the similarities and differences between the two or more nationalities that make up the international organizational culture that is based on the national cultures of both employees and clients’.

The internationalization of markets and companies seems to have become a reality to which business/management must be adapted. In 1994, there were 37,000 transnational companies, with 207,000 affiliates, controlling one third of all private sector assets, with worldwide sales of approximately $5 trillion (The Economist, July 30, 1994, p. 57). Javidan et al. (2006) remind us of the increasing momentum globalization is gaining worldwide, when they reported that between 1998 and 2005 world exports of goods and services doubled, exceeding $11 trillion. And, moreover, it is predicted that by 2010, the sum of all trade between nations is expected to exceed total business transactions within nations - worldwide (Javidan et al., 2006). Due to this hyper-growth in world trade, business executives are realizing the need for executives who understand foreign cultures, can create global strategies, and lead their organizations through global competition from foreign competitors. In a speech to GE employees, Jack Welch stated:

> **The Jack Welch of the future cannot be me. I spent my entire career in the United States. The next head of General Electric will be somebody who spent (sic) time in Bombay, in Hong Kong, in Buenos Aires. We have to send our best and brightest overseas and make sure they have the training that will allow them to be the global leaders who will make GE flourish in the future. (Javidan et al., 2006, abstract)**

General Electric and Jack Welch are not alone in their global foresight. A Fortune 500 survey revealed - 'having competent global leaders' - as being the most important factor for future business success, whilst 85% of the MNCs polled shared concern for a serious lack of managers with such capabilities (Javidan et al., 2001; 2006, p. 67).

> **As markets globalize, the need for standardization in organizational design, systems, and procedures increases. Yet managers are also under pressure to adapt their organizations to the local characteristics of the market, the legislation, the fiscal regime, the socio-political system, and the cultural system. (Trompenaars, 1993, p. 3)**

As Doug Ivestor (former CEO of Coca-Cola; a company with 37% of its total assets overseas) notes - as economic barriers come down, cultural barriers go up - creating greater challenges and an increasing need for business executives with local socio-cultural acumen (Javidan et al., 2006). Russia, having seen the collapse of the Soviet empire has opened its doors to the West for the first time in nearly a century. However, the economic road to capitalism has not been an easy one, and a great distance still remains before the country will have the economic strength to fully integrate and compete with the rest of the world (Van Genderen, 2006).

It is within this transitional context that several prolific authors have stressed the need for research into organizational leadership in Russia (Blazyca, 1987; Aage, 1991; Laszlo, 1992; House et al., 1999; Elenkov, 2002; Puffer, 2007), and have further stressed the potential contributions Western management concepts might make within the Russian context (Welsh et al., 1993; Luthans, 1993; Holt et al., 1994; Puffer et al, 1994; 1997; 2007; Elenkov, 1998; Luthans et al., 1998; Van Genderen, 2006). However, as the demand for global business leaders increases, the much needed support from cross-cultural researchers has lagged behind. It was amidst this business environment and general demand for newer and more comprehensive comparative research that the "Global Leadership and

Organizational Behavioral Effectiveness” project was conceived (i.e., House et al., 2001).

2.12 Project GLOBE

Despite the recent popularity of cross-cultural studies in management, the existing literature is suffering from important conceptual and methodological problems. ‘The concept of universality is not well defined or operationalised. There is a lack of a clear theoretical model explaining the relationship between societal cultures and leadership effectiveness’ (House et al., 2001).

> **There are also methodological problems such as how cultures are measured, how countries are compared, and how leadership is assessed. (House et al., 2001, pp. 490-491)**

As the authors of the GLOBE project have articulated above, the global initiative was born out of the clear deficit of empirical research into the relationship between societal-culture, organizational culture, and effective organizational leadership. To assist in their investigation, the principal researchers developed the following core thesis:

> **The central theoretical proposition of the integrated theory is that the attributes and entities that distinguish a given culture from other cultures are predictive of the practices of organizations and leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted, accepted, and effective of that culture. (House et al., 2001, pp. 493-496)**

The entire worldwide project, consisting of 150 social scientist researchers operating within 62 national cultures, representing ‘all major regions of the world’, required close to a decade to complete the study. The methodology relied heavily on quantitative (self-assessment surveys); intended to measure societal culture, organizational culture, and leadership attributes and behavior, as well as qualitative culture-specific interpretations of local behaviors, norms, and practices (derived from analyzing interviews, focus groups, and the content analysis of published media). The GLOBE researchers measured societal/organizational cultures based on nine cultural dimensions, conceptualized and developed by the principal research designers, and based heavily on the seminal works of Hofstede, Trompenaars, and Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (House et al., 2001, Javidan et al., 2006). The nine dimensions measured in each country were:

i). **Uncertainty Avoidance** is defined as the extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by reliance on social norms, rituals, practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events and bureaucracy.

ii). **Power Distance** is defined as the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared.

iii). **Collectivism I: Societal Collectivism** reflects the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.

iv). **Collectivism II: In-Group Collectivism** reflects the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, or cohesiveness in their organizations or families.

v). **Gender Egalitarianism** is the extent to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences and gender discrimination.

vi). **Assertiveness** is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.

vii). **Future Orientation** is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning for the future, investing, and delaying gratification.

viii). **Performance Orientation** refers to the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.

ix). **Humane Orientation** is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others.

Furthermore, the designers of the GLOBE survey included “What is” and “What should be” type questions; such questions would seemingly measure the judgment (or desired judgment) and values (or desired values) of the respondents. According to the designers of the survey, such approaches to the assessment of culture 'grows out of a psychological/behavioral tradition, in which it is assumed that shared values are enacted in behaviors, policies, and practices' (House et al., 2001).

Essentially, the GLOBE questionnaire is divided into 5 sections, with each section addressing a specific question (House et al., 2001; Graen, 2006):

i). Describe the way that you desire your national culture to be seen by outsiders using 24 bipolar adjectives on a 7-point scale (for example, "In this society, boys are encouraged more than girls to attend higher education." Strongly Agree = 1, … Strongly Disagree = 7;

ii). Describe how the 56 leader characteristics should contribute to an "Outstanding Leader" in your national culture using a 7-point scale from "Greatly Inhibits" to "Contributes Greatly" (for example, "Vindictive = Vengeful, seeks revenge when wronged);

iii). Describe how things generally "should be" in your society using 39, 7-point bipolar values (for example, "I believe that, most people prefer to play…Only Individual Sports = 1 to Only Team Sports = 7";

iv). Describe how leader characteristics contribute to an "Outstanding Leader" employing 56 characteristics on the same 7-point scales as in section 2 (for example, "Dependable");

v). Demographic questions about the respondent (27 in all).

2.13 GLOBE Research and Findings: Focus on Russia

In Russia, the GLOBE data was gathered between 1994 and 1996, with data for the media content analysis contribution gathered in 2001. The final societal and organizational leadership profiles of Russia were based on 3 phases:

i). a pre-pilot study was conducted in 1994, consisting of 127 managers, representing various industry sectors. The participants completed a simplified version of the GLOBE survey, which was then used as a generic profile of Russian culture;

ii). focus groups were conducted to create a preliminary profile of Russian organizational leadership, as is often the case, the focus groups were extensively controlled and selective (i.e., two groups wee used, one older group representing the Soviet mentality, and the second younger, representing the transitional Russian mentality; group 1 utilized 5 managers, whilst group two utilized 3);

iii). the main quantitative data was collected from 1995 – 1996, with 300 manager respondents, representing the three industries identified and targeted in every participating GLOBE nation; food processing, telecommunications, and banking (150 respondents from each industry);

iv). finally, in 2001, media data was gathered and analyzed as a further approach to establishing generalizations about leadership in Russia. (Gratchev et al., 2001)

The findings of the GLOBE project have been both interesting and simultaneously - controversial. Pertaining to Russia, specifically, table 2.8 highlights the “What is (are)” results for the nine cultural dimensions, in comparison with several other countries; representing a distribution of “high” (H), “medium” (M), and “low” (L) scores. However, apart from highlighting similarities and differences, which lie on the surface, and offer ‘limited understanding” of the culture, the author agrees with (Hofstede, 1993; Gratchev et al., 2001; Graen, 2006) that real insight is to be gained through (1) comparing the “What is” and

“Should be” values and rankings, whilst using historical and cultural knowledge of the country to make useful sense of the data. Of perhaps more importance to this study are the findings of the GLOBE research pertaining to organizational leadership.

The results of the “what is” and “what should be” questions have been interpreted by scholars as representing the respondents’ perceptions of their countries (and organizations) “now “ and “in the future” (for further discussion of the GLOBE project’s survey see “Summary Critique” within this chapter). Table 2.9 presents the two sets of values for the Russian Federation. Foresight, (plans ahead), inspirational (positive, dynamic, encourages, motivates, builds confidence), decisive, diplomatic (effective bargainer, looks for win-win solutions), achievement oriented, team integrator, and administrative skills.

Table 2.8 Sample Rankings for the 9 Cultural Dimensions (AS = Assertiveness; FO = Future Orientation; GE = Gender Egalitarianism; UA = Uncertainty Avoidance; PD = Power Distance; Cl = Societal Collectivism; Cll = In-Group Collectivism; PO = Performance Orientation; HO = Humane Orientation among 62 countries)

AS	FO	GE	UA	PD	Cl	Cll	PO	HO
Swe L	**Ru L**	SK L	**Ru L**	Den L	Gre L	Swe L	**Ru L**	(W)Ge L
NZ L	Arg L	Egy L	Hun L	Neth L	Hun L	NZ L	Arg L	Spa L
Swi L	Pol L	Ind L	Bol L	Isr L	Arg L	Net L	Gre L	Fra L
Jap L	Ita L	China L	Gre L	CR L	Ita L	Fin L	Ven L	Sing L
Ku L	Ku L	Ita M	Ven L	Eng M	HK M	Jap M	Ita L	Braz L
Ru M	Sloven M	Braz M	Isr M	Fra M	US M	Isr M	Swe M	**Ru M**
Ire M	Egy M	Arg M	US M	Braz M	**Ru M**	Qat M	Isr M	Swe M
Phi M	Ire M	Neth M	Mex M	Ita M	Pol M	Austria M	Spa M	Tai M
Ecu M	Austr M	Ven M	Ire M	Port M	Indo M	Ita M	Eng M	US M
Fra M	India M	Swe H	Austria H	**Ru H**	Den H	**Ru H**	Jap M	NZ M
Spa H	Den H	Den H	Den H	Spa H	Sing H	China H	US H	Egy H
US H	Net H	Sloven H	(W)Ge H	Tha H	Jap H	Mor H	NZ H	May H
Gre H	Swi H	Pol H	Swe H	Arg H	SK H	India H	Tha H	Ire H
Austria H	Sing H	**Ru H**	Swi H	Mor H	Swe H	Iran H	H.K. H	Phi H

Table 2.9

Country Means for GLOBE Societal Culture Dimensions: Comparing Russia (“What is/Should be”, with England “What is”)

	What is	Should be	England What is
Assertiveness	3.75	4.69	4.15
Future Orientation	2.80	5.50	4.28
Gender egalitarianism	4.12	4.19	3.67
Uncertainty Avoidance	2.85	5.09	4.65
Power Distance	5.56	2.55	5.15
Collectivism I (Societal)	4.45	3.80	4.27
Collectivism II (In-Group)	5.67	5.80	4.08
Performance Orientation	3.32	5.52	4.08
Humane Orientation	3.97	5.61	3.72

.

Several leadership attributes showed evidence of being “universal” in nature; were determined by all participating countries to be highly relevant for organizational leaders; integrity (honest, trustworthy, just) , visionary (has foresight, plans ahead), inspirational (positive, dynamic, encourages, motivates, builds confidence), decisive, diplomatic (effective bargainer, looks for win-win solutions), achievement oriented, team integrator, and administrative skills.

At the same time, other leadership attributes appeared to vary considerably across cultures, being more “local” in their relevance to organizational leaders: ambitious, cautious, compassionate, domineering, formal, independent, indirect, intuitive, logical, orderly, risk-taker, self-effacing, self-sacrificing, sensitive, status conscious, and willful (Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 1999). According to the GLOBE project findings, the following leadership characteristics represent the Russian profile; i.e., the most important contributors to outstanding organizational leadership (taken from the 21 primary leadership attributes represented within the questionnaire):

i). visionary;

ii). administrative competency;
iii). inspirational;
iv). decisive;
v). performance oriented;
vi). integrity;
vii). team integration;
viii). and diplomatic.

The leadership profile for Russia certainly reflects a seemingly “transformational” tendency; although this term is not employed amongst the various leadership styles applied to the GLOBE study; quite confusingly, amongst the various publications drawn from the senior GLOBE designers, they employ the labels of “transformational”, “charismatic”, “charismatic/transformational”, and “transformational/charismatic” interchangeably. Whilst the transformational and charismatic styles can share important commonalities e.g., vision, appealing to the emotions of followers, and motivating followers to rise above their own self-interests (House, 1977; Kouzes and Posner, 1998), critical differences also exist e.g., the role of charisma, the focus of the followers on the leader viz the organization, and the leader – follower influence processes, themselves (see Literature Review, p. 43; Bass, 1992; 1999). As Graen (2006) points out, the GLOBE designers have possibly taken this approach in order to better support whatever point they are making at the time (i.e., Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006).? In any case, it is not surprising that researches have found this practice to be ‘rather disconcerting and highly suspect’ (Graen,. 2006). It is the author’s belief that the GLOBE authors are fully versed as to the two concepts, but choose to employ them synonymously in an attempt to cover more territory and make a bigger impact. The GLOBE team also applied six culturally universal leadership styles for categorizing the profiles of countries/regional clusters of nations:

i). The “Charismatic/Value-Based” style is a broadly defined leadership dimension that reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others on the basis of firmly held core beliefs.

ii). The “Team-Oriented” style emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.

iii). The “Participative” style reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.

iv). The “Humane-Oriented” style of leadership reflects supportive and considerate leadership, but also includes compassion and generosity.

v). The “Autonomous” style was added by the GLOBE principals, and refers to independent and individualistic leadership; this style is measured as either “impeding” leadership or “slightly facilitating” outstanding organizational leadership.

vi). The “Self-protective style, also created by the GLOBE authors, focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual. This style is generally interpreted as ‘impeding” outstanding leadership. (Javidan et al., 2006)

The GLOBE authors identified the six above-mentioned leadership styles as being culturally universal based on the following:

> **We empirically identified six global leader behavior dimensions from a large pool of leadership items. These dimensions are culturally generalisable (sic) for measurement purposes, in the sense that respondents from all cultures were able to complete the questionnaire items that comprise these dimensions. Thus, these dimensions of reported leadership attributes and behaviors are dimensions of the culturally endorsed theories of leadership of the country studies. (House et al., 2001, p. 498)**

Interesting rationale; however, the author shall refrain from any discussion of possible methodological limitations concerning the study until the following sub-section (2.14). Table 2.10 highlights the organizational leadership profile for the Russian Federation.

Table 2.10 Country and Cluster (Eastern Europe = 8 nations) means for GLOBE Universal Leadership Styles (CH = charismatic; TO = Team-Oriented; PA = Participative; HU = Humane Oriented; SP = Self-Protective; AU = Autonomous)

	CH	TO	PA	HU	SP	AU
Russia	5.66	5.63	4.67	4.08	3.69	4.63
Cluster Average	5.73	5.50	5.09	4.75	3.67	4.18

The eight nations comprising the Eastern European cluster have somewhat similar profiles as Russia. Removing Greece from the group results in an even more uniform profile, leaving Albania, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Slovenia, and Russia; note that they are all in transition as newly independent states (NIS) with former communist governments.

Bakacsi et al. (2002, p. 77) offer valuable insight into the Eastern European values:

> **Leaders with characteristics of being visionary, inspirational, decisive, performance oriented, and having integrity, build teams, are collaborative, and diplomatic…[which according to project GLOBE researchers categorizes them as being “Charismatic”] Charismatic leadership appears to be derived from high power stratification, but it seems to contradict the short-term orientation practice (but does fit with the future orientation values). Future orientation as a preferred leadership attribute also fits with future oriented values, but sharply contrasts with the “stuck-in-the-present” practice. There is also a strong expectation toward “Participative” leadership.**

The preceding paragraph sums up nicely the GLOBE findings concerning managers' perceptions of what contributes to outstanding organizational leadership, as well as their future oriented desires for leaders to move towards a more "participative" style of leadership. Project GLOBE has been referred to as 'the most ambitious study of global leadership' (Morrison, 2000). However, other scholars have deemed it perhaps a bit too ambitious, lacking an appropriate level of scholarship (Graen, 2006).

2.14 Possible Limitations to the GLOBE Project

Within this section the author will discuss possible constraints and limitations to the well-marketed project GLOBE. For organizational purposes, limitations associated with the methodology will be examined first (both general and Russia specific), followed by issues pertaining to the taxonomy.

> **One of the unique features of GLOBE is that we have taken several steps to ensure that the reports by country managers are not confounded by things such as methodological problems and represent the true broader culture of their societies. (Javidan et al., 2006, p. 84)**

The GLOBE questionnaires utilized within 62 countries for the quantitative data collection were "back translated" into the local languages, and then analyzed locally by the country specific research team (Graen, 2006). Scholarly practice is to first translate a Western instrument into the local language and then back translate the local version into the original language; which must be deemed equivalent in meaning by a translation specialist (i.e., the initial translation and the back-translation must be deemed to express equivalent meaning). The primary researchers for GLOBE freely substitute and combine the terms and concepts of "charismatic" and "transformational" leadership styles within their published research. The author finds this terribly confusing due to fundamental differences between the concepts (as mentioned earlier within this chapter). GLOBE authors should better articulate the true nature of this universal leadership style. As highlighted earlier in this chapter, the GLOBE survey consisted of five sections, each addressing a specific question having to do with national culture or organizational leadership. Questions within the first three sections differed in question construct:

i). section one questions were contextualized using “Describe the way **you desire** your national culture to be seen…;

ii). section two questions are managed with “Describe how the 56 leader characteristics **should** contribute to an “Outstanding Leader” (within your culture)…;

iii). section three questions are focused with “Describe how things **should be** in your society…;

iv). section four is formulated with “Describe how leader characteristics contribute to an “Outstanding Leader” (within your culture; 56 characteristics offered)”…;

v). demographic questions about the respondents. (Graen, 2006)

Sample sizes, ideally, consisted of 300 middle managers; although the bottom of the range was 27 (Den Hartog, et al, 1999). In Russia, the GLOBE team had further sampling/methodological limitations, including:

i). respondents not understanding certain Western management concepts used within the survey;
ii). unwillingness derived from suspicion, to divulge full and accurate information;
iii). unwillingness to fully complete the questionnaire, as there was no clear benefit for the participants;

iv). at the time of the data collection, the industries were new, and few companies were interested in participating, combined with inadequate company data;

v). the participating Russian managers (150 x the three industries), were identified through federal government sources and training and development programs skewed towards the public sector. (Gratchev et al., 2001)

Since the data collection occurred shortly after the fall of the Soviet Union, the GLOBE researchers should have been more careful in identifying “Russians”. According to the data collectors:

> **The questions related to citizenship and nationality in a transitional country, that had just changed its name, anthem, and flag, were often considered as ambiguous…Ethnic composition of the sample was very diverse: Russians 69%; nearly a third of the respondents were not Russians. (Gratchev, 2001)**

The objective of the GLOBE project was the testing of ‘an integrated theory pertaining to the relationship between culture and society, organizational, and leadership effectiveness’ (Javidan et al, 2006). However, the very design of the questionnaire prevents the respondents from revealing exactly the information the GLOBE researchers apparently sought (Hiller and Day, 2003, Graen, 2006), largely due to:

i). translation short-cuts (as mentioned above);

ii). most questions were biased with “social desirability” (what I want people to think of my country);

iii). the first three sections ask for locals to stereotype themselves (i.e., section 1; How would you like to be seen by outside nationals; sections 2 & 4; How would you like outside nationals to think of your outstanding leaders?; section 3; How would you like outside nationals to view your culture?).

Graen draws attention to the fact that:

> **From a cross-cultural perspective, GLOBE appears to be assuming construct validity without going through the necessary process of construct validation. (Meehl, 1977; Graen, 2006, p. 98)**

. Apart from maintaining that 'Such cultural stereotyping is usually based on 'surface level' characteristics that are grossly exaggerated; if true at all, and can be deeply resented by a local culture (Gupta and House, 2004). Sampling is frequently a daunting and arduous task in research. Based on Graen's comment (above), the researcher sought out reliability analyses/statistical data that might shed light on Graen's criticism. Unfortunately, the only evidence found amounted to claims from the senior GLOBE researchers that they had 'performed a variety of statistical analyses (e.g., rwg, ICCs, multilevel confirmatory factor analyses, and reliability analysis) to assess the psychometric properties of their scales – and that the results were all acceptable' (House et al., 2004). It is common practice for hard evidence (analyses, results, and discussions) to be made available to the research community (Hair et al., 2003). Without such evidence, the author cannot comment further on the validity of any claims concerning the reliability of the GLOBE questionnaire.

GLOBE researchers identified their middle manager participants, from the banking, telecommunications, and food industries, respectively. The three industries were identified by the GLOBE principals on the basis that:

> **These industries were selected because they are universal, and collectively provide a wide variety of external organizational environments, organizational sizes, and dominant organizational technology. (Javidan et al., 2006, p. 291)**

Besides the studies revealing differences in management and leadership based on organizational size, in Russia, during the data collection period of the GLOBE study, the telecommunications industry was owned by the government and tightly controlled, the banking industry in the mid- 1990s was similarly in its infancy, and closely regulated to a degree, whilst practicing unethical investing and crediting within its industry (eventually leading to the financial crisis of 1998). The food industry was splintered and at an embryonic stage of development.

Capitalism within the Russian Federation had only been legal for a couple of years when the GLOBE data was collected. Furthermore, there is some question as to whether the responses of 300 managers (constituting a homogeneous collective of society) can be generalized to an entire nation (Graen, 2006). Perhaps the answer lies in the level of homogeneity within a national culture (Hair et al. 2003). Heterogeneous nations such as the USA, India, and the People's Republic of China (1.3 billion) probably cannot (Graen and Lau, 2005). As for Russia – perhaps, as the Soviet Union and its satellite states successfully implemented perhaps the most successful brainwashing "machine" in modern history (Gratchev et al., 2001).

As described previously within this chapter, the GLOBE researchers established country findings and then proceeded to group them into regional clusters. Whilst this may make the presentation of quantitative data simpler for the researcher, it can present potential problems as well, where inappropriate groups are utilized, thus obscuring possibly revealing findings from the national level, in favor of "averaging out" more revealing country culture data for the sake of offering nicely compartmentalized regional values. Examples include (but are not limited to) the grouping of Greece within the Eastern European cluster (Greece is neither a Slavic country nor an NIS state), the inclusion of the United States and South Africa within the Anglo group (the USA is highly heterogeneous, and so is South Africa; even amongst the European South Africans, many of them originated from non-Anglo countries, and speak English as a second language) , and the inclusion of Japan and Korea with China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore (Graen, 2006). Further flaws identified within GLOBE's taxonomy related to the respondents' leadership style categorization:

> **Our final critique of GLOBE relates to how it defines leadership style. In GLOBE, six leadership types are proposed: Charismatic (universally effective); Team (universally effective); Shared (local); Humane (local); Defensive (local); and Autocratic (local0…They [the respondents] were not suggested the choice of Transformational [or Transactional], LMX, etc…" (Graen, 2006, p. 99)**

The GLOBE project was truly an ambitious one, and the author is well persuaded that it represents 'the most ambitious global research into comparative cultures – to date', but perhaps fell foul of its own criticism of previous studies; that they 'suffer from both conceptual and methodological constraints' (House et al, 2001). However, the author greatly admires the objective 'that GLOBE is a rigorous research effort intended to provide the kind of cultural understanding and sensitivity that helps global managers succeed in their endeavors' (Javidan and House, 2001).

2.15 Summing-up: the Need for Further Research

Western man's inquiry into the nature of leadership can be traced back to the roots of "the academy" and the ponderings of the ancient Greek philosophers. Until recent times, the prevailing concept of leadership was that leaders had special innate characteristics enabling them to excel at leading, thus distinguishing them from others. Such trait-based approaches remained popular well into modern times. During the early part of the 20th century, scholars sought to better understand leaders and leadership through the application of various models representing distinctively different perspectives and philosophies concerning the nature of leadership and how best to study and understand it.

Such models included:

i). Style theory - leadership effectiveness may be explained and developed by identifying appropriate styles and behaviors.

ii). Contingency theory - leadership occurs in a context. Leadership style must be exercised depending on each situation.

With the birth of the “New School’, researchers focused on symbolic and emotional aspects of leadership in an attempt to better understand how leaders might influence subordinates to elevate themselves above their own personal interests, in favor of supporting the missions and visions of their organizations (Yukl, 2002). The Charismatic and Transformational leadership models, both at the heart of the New School, have much in common, but also diverged in significant respects. Most notably, charismatic and transformational leaders differ as to the role of charisma, and the leader-follower relationships/processes utilized to motivate change and ‘followership’.

Bass pointed out that not all charismatic leaders were transformational. Although some researchers continue utilizing the terms “charismatic” and “transformational” interchangeably, the author recognizes that significant differences within the concepts exist. The “Full-Range Transformational Leadership” model developed by Bass and Avolio has been arguably the most popular leadership model of recent times. Its contributions include integrating the trait, style, and contingency theories within the paradigm (as well as the MLQ measurement instrument).

However, as popular as the transformational model is, Bass was not without his critics. Alimo-Metcalfe (and others) pointed out the male and cultural biases (largely US and Western European) of the collective transformational research. Moreover, scholars noted a heavy emphasis on studies involving senior level management, leaving a deficit of data concerning middle, lower, and across level comparisons. Perhaps it was the more rigorous identification and recognition of the inherently differing roles and responsibilities of managers versus leaders that further sparked interest in leadership and leadership research at the end of the 20th century. With thousands of books being published yearly, one might predict that new and improved methods in research scholarship would emerge.

One such approach was that of competency measurement as a preferred model in assessing job performance. Touted by McClelland and associates, and later applied by Boyatzis in 'the most comprehensive study-to-date of managers' competencies' within the public and private sectors'. The competency-based approach to developing individuals within an organization has well established itself. However, McClelland and Boyatzis were not the only researchers to contribute to our current understanding of leadership through updating and upgrading trait-based approaches. Salovey and Mayer consolidated much work from the mind science disciplines into their concept and definition of "Emotional Intelligence" (EI).

Goleman, a close colleague of McClelland and Boyatzis', extended Salovey and Mayer's concept, redefining it within a competency framework, thus creating two distinctly different approaches to EI measurement; the performance or "action-based" approach, and the mixed or "personality-based" approach. During the 1990s, globalization and other variables within the business environment inspired yet another change in focus for leadership studies. Kotter (1990; 1996), argued for the importance of identifying "What leaders do", and moreover, purported the necessity of defining leadership within the context of "change". He further argued for the necessity of leading change from within an organization, so as to better combat the ever-increasing competitive nature of the external business world (modus operandi).

This internationalization of markets and companies highlighted the growing need for greater understanding of the similarities and differences between foreign cultures, managers, and their business environments. Hofstede's IBM study laid the groundwork for further inquiry into cross-cultural (and comparative) studies of leadership within the context of the influence of societal cultures. Recognizing the need for current data and a more rigorous approaches, the GLOBE project set out to create a universal theory based on seminal comparative-cultural scholarship. Regrettably, well-established experts have accused them of falling foul of their own stated misgivings concerning earlier cross-cultural research. Graen (2006) offers the following warning to academics and practitioners alike:

> **Research on international leadership is at a crossroads representing different research approaches. One bridge offers easy surface-level approaches, but a questionable methodology [referring to Hofstede-based GLOBE]. The alternative offers deep-level answers and rigorous methodology [noting the need for future research]. (p. 100)**

Cross-cultural inquiry generally takes one of two forms: culture-specific (emic) and comparative (etic); the latter under-girding the approach taken by this study. Such "etic" research requires a standardized model and instrument for measuring and comparing across national cultures. The Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) has such potential.

In keeping with current theory and the integrative direction leadership theory was taking, Dulewicz and Higgs developed their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ), based on contemporary trait, style, and contingency models, with a firm foundation built around an Emotional Intelligence construct. The author intends this investigation to contribute to international leadership studies through rigorous research in the Russian Federation, in order to promote better understanding of the nature of Russian organizational leadership, as measured by the LDQ, and compared with existing UK data norms.

2.16 Hypotheses and Chapter Summary

As mentioned within the previous section, Dulewicz and Higgs' leadership model, developed at Henley Management College, UK, is built around a personality-based EI (or EQ) instrument, grounded in trait, style, and contingency theory (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). The "leadership dimensions" (as measured by the LDQ), are represented within a competency framework. Dulewicz and Higgs' central 'formula', if you like, is that 'effective leadership = IQ + EQ + MQ' (cognitive, Emotional Intelligence, and managerial competencies. This extends the perspective of Goleman et al. (1998) that leadership success is a result of a threshold of cognition (IQ), and high levels of Emotional Intelligence (EQ). Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) report significant correlations between the 15 dimensions (three constructs). Therefore, as a foundation, the researcher has designed Hypothesis 1 for the purpose of exploring possible *statistically significant* relationships between the variables; not to be confused with the *strength* of the relationship (Hair et al., 2003; Triola and Franklin, 1978), For this study, the researcher seeks a confidence level of 95% (sig.=.05 or less).

In order to test their model, Dulewicz and Higgs developed the LDQ (2003), which measures 15 leadership dimensions, indicating the respondent's closest fitting leadership style based on their responses to the psychometric constructs. Three leadership styles were identified for the LDQ, based on the "transformational", "transactional", and "participative" styles from the leadership literature. A further "context" assessment was also integrated into the LDQ, offering insight into the perceived level of transition within the respondent's internal/external operating environments; so as to assist in more appropriately matching a manger's leadership style to the prevailing (or perceived) business environment of the organization (linking approach with context).

Dulewicz and Higgs' leadership model has proven high levels of validity (see chapter 3 'Methodology' for full description of the LDQ, and chapter 5 'Discussion of Findings and Further Research' for discussion of the LDQ's levels of validity),

and has been employed in two pilot tests comprising 222 managers, in addition to major studies within the Royal Navy (Young, 2004), the Royal Air Force (Wren, 2005), and the Scottish Police force (Hawkins, 2007). The literature reveals that there are strong connections between Emotional Intelligence and cognitive ability (Goleman, 1995; 1998), and further supports that successful leadership is highly correlated with EQ (Bennis, 1989; Goleman, 1995; 1998; Ashkanasy and Tse, 1998; George, 2000; Caruso et al., 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002). Moreover, studies have supported the claim that the higher one climbs on the corporate ladder (organizational seniority), the more important Emotional Intelligence becomes (Goleman, 1998; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2002; 2003).
This perspective is clearly indicated by Goleman's (1998) deduction that 'leadership is almost all Emotional Intelligence, especially in distinguishing between the actual functions and behaviors of the two.

This claim was further supported by testing conducted at Henley Management College, finding that the Chairmen/CEOs in their sample had significantly higher Emotional Intelligence and cognitive competencies than lower level Directors (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; 2004). Hypotheses 2a/b (below) investigate these claims of relationships between EI and seniority within the organization (i.e., its critical nature for senior managers, and that its level of importance grows as executives are elevated within the organizational structure.

> **H1**.The intellectual (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial (MQ), competencies of the Russian managers will demonstrate statistically significant relationships with one another.
>
> **H2a**. The three constructs, (IQ, EQ, and MQ) will be demonstrated by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions, at a statistically significant level.

H2b. Overall Emotional Intelligence (EQ) will be demonstrated at a more statistically significant level, by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions (compared with more junior managers).

Key research has established links between leadership, the EQ dimensions of the LDQ, and current performance (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000; Dulewicz, Higgs, and Slaski, 2003; Young, 2004), as well as their relationship with followers' commitment (Kaipianinen, 2004; Young, 2004). Other scholars have reported that the commitment of followers is a reflection of leader performance – recognizing a positive correlation between the two possible leadership measures (Kouzes and Posner, 1998; Goffee and Jones, 2000; Young, 2004).

H3a. Overall intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to leadership performance at a statistically significant level.

H3b. Overall intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to follower commitment at a statistically significant level.

Several researchers have focused on gender differences in organizational leadership (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990; Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003). Goleman 1995) maintained that men and women have differing EI profiles. Further empirical research by Mayer and Geher (1996) and Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) indicated that women score higher on Emotional Intelligence measures than men. A more recent study conducted in the US (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003), utilizing Bar-On's EQ-i, also resulted in women having (statistically) significantly higher EI scores than men. The comparison of male and female organizational leaders seems to be intensifying over the years, with increased claims that women and men lead differently (e.g., exhibit diverse leadership styles; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990).

With the perceived importance of the transformational leadership model, the claim that women are more transformational than men (Bass and Avolio, 1994) and what's more, that men naturally demonstrate transactional leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995), can be a revelation to organizations, seeing that the transformational model has been acknowledged as being appropriate within change contexts (Bass, 1985; 1996; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Hinkin and Tracey, 1999) and applicable across national borders (Bass, 1996; 1997).

> **H4a.** Within the Russian manager-sample, the overall EI of the females will be higher than that of their male counterparts.
>
> **H4b.** Within the Russian manager-sample, females and males will demonstrate distinctively different leadership styles.

Previous investigation has demonstrated that Russian managers (and employees) are relatively attuned to their country's present transformational situation (Holt et al., 1994; Luthans; 1998; House et al., 2001; Javidan, 2006; Van Genderen, 2006). The recent GLOBE project has revealed that Russian managers demonstrate characteristics of the transformational style of leadership; although House and associates have termed this leadership style "charismatic/transformational" (Den Hartog, 1999; House et al., 2001; Javidan, et al., 2006).

> **H5a.** The Russian manager-sample will recognize their business environment as being transformational.

H5b. The Russian manager-sample will demonstrate a transformational style of leadership.

Boyatzis (1982) found significant differences in the competencies demonstrated by private and public sector managers (see Chapter 2).

H6. Russian managers working within the private sector will demonstrate (statistically significant) higher levels of “achieving”, “influencing”, “motivation”, and “emotional resilience”, than their public sector counterparts.

Having reviewed the associated literature as framed by the research model, the author has presented the developed hypotheses intended to assist the researcher in addressing the overall research question. The next stage is to present the methodology proposed for this study (see ensuing chapter; chapter 3). This chapter has presented and discussed the essence of the leadership theories that were principal in underpinning the research model identified for this comparative-cultural investigation (Dulewicz and Higgs’ LDQ paradigm). Further literature was presented concerning seminal and contemporary cross-cultural research relevant to the Russian organizational leadership investigation proposed by the author. The chapter culminated with an overview of the leadership literature reviewed within this chapter, discussed within the context of Dulewicz and Higgs’ organizational leadership model. Following this overview, the author identified the hypotheses that will be used to assist in addressing the paramount research question (problem):

An investigation into the relationship between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for MNCs?

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In chapter 1, the author shared with the reader his professional relationship to the corporate development industry in Russia. It was through this management consultancy experience that the critical need for leadership development expertise in Russia first manifested itself to the researcher. A preliminary survey of recent comparative-cultural literature seemed to support the author's own perspective on this leadership deficit. Further referral to Dulewicz and Higgs' organizational leadership model and LDQ instrument, highlighted their research paradigm as a possible methodology for a Russian questionnaire-based research investigation. In the final analysis, it was following a broad literature review that Dulewicz and Higgs' model was adopted, the ultimate thesis identified, and the methodology (research framework; Leedy, 1989) developed for completing this 'exploratory' investigation. As such, this chapter addresses topics and questions related to research methodology.

Building on the previous chapter's review of the literature, research question/hypotheses, context, and conceptual framework, this chapter identifies the methodology and the resolve to apply it. The chapter opens with a discussion of research methods, the specific research strategy, and putative risk factors, followed by a detailed description of the measurement instrument. The author addresses the "Common Methods Variance" (CMV) debate, as well as related issues of construct validity and reliability. Finally, the discussion considers a detailed analysis of the research plan/process; a section on limitations associated with the selected research design; and concludes with the criteria for epistemologically reliable research, including statistical analysis techniques to be employed within this study.

3.2 Research Methodology and Diverse Methods

The protocol set for researchers in business and management conducting research in fulfillment of requirements for completing a doctoral degree mandates that ‘a distinct contribution be made to the body of knowledge. To meet this requirement, the academic community expects the researcher to follow a “scientific method” or approach to the investigation’ (Remenyi, et al, 2000). However, the terms “science” or “scientific” are somewhat ambiguous, as pointed out by Lee (1989); owing to the fact that scientists do not universally agree on the exact nature of their field of study: viz., science.

Einstein (1950) maintained that our universe (cosmic environment) is characterized by “chaos,” and that “science” is an attempt to translate this chaos to an orderly and rational understanding. Some scholars maintain that the natural and social sciences are moving towards commonality, subsuming one another (i.e., Marx, 1844). Regardless, Einstein’s understanding has merit, and further supports Gould’s (1980) proposal that science is partly a subjective discipline affected by human emotion, interest, and cultural values/perspectives.

The author offers these perspectives on research and the underlying assumptions of research, not to create an atmosphere of cynicism, but rather to inject a healthy dose of skepticism in outlining the methods and results of this investigation. Regardless of any limitations, sound research methodology is the preferable approach, as it is likely to withstand close scrutiny. Consequently, any contribution to the field of enquiry may prove to be of some value. Indeed, the research methodology (program or process), according to Leedy (1989) is ‘an operational framework within which the facts are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly’.

3.3 Research Strategy: Theoretical and Empirical Research

> **Research Strategy** – the basic philosophical basis for the research: the strategy may be either theoretical or empirical; within the empirical classification two major options pertain: positivism or phenomenal [non-positivism; social constructivism]. (Remenyi et al., 2000, p. 259)

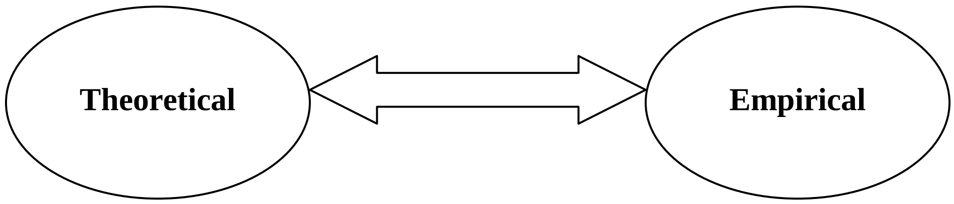
Traditionally, research falls into one of two strategies – theoretical or empirical. According to the *Merriam-Webster New World Dictionary*, "theoretical" and "empirical" are defined as:

> **Theoretical** – derived from thought or contemplation; existing only in theory. **Theory** – abstract thought; considered apart from a particular instance. **Empirical** – based on observation *also;* subject to verification by observation or experiment.

The canonical metaphysical philosophers provide models of theoretical thought based on intellectual understanding dependent on lengthy pondering and oral/written discourse. Such "ivory tower" approaches to knowledge and understanding were attacked by John Locke (1632-1704) in his essay, "*Concerning Human Understanding",* which is the foundation of modern empiricism (Remenyi et al., 2000). Without experimentation and/or sense data, theoretical conjectures concerning basic metaphysical principles like causality lack verification. Indeed, pure theory can be argued pro and con, as the early Sophists demonstrated, *ad infinitum*.

Whilst the theorist engages in mental exercises to explain phenomena, the strict empiricist seeks to gather evidence through observation, interaction, and experimentation. Empirical evidence reveals verifiable data, which in turn adds to the body of knowledge; moreover, the contribution forms a basis for future inquiry. In the event, certain classifications present paradoxes and contradictions - which are sometimes misleading. As figure 3.1 illustrates, theory and empiricism are not mutually exclusive, or even at the polar ends from one another. On the contrary, theory and empiricism are closely related; they are normally found complementing and supporting each other, as illustrated below.

Figure 3.1 Theoretical/Empirical Interaction



(based on Remenyi et al., 2000)

The theorist invariably incorporates the prior observation and/or evidence of the known literature and experts into his new theoretical framework, thus giving it a foundation grounded in the known wisdom of the field. At the same time, the empiricist must have a thorough understanding of the appropriate theoretical framework surrounding his research question/problem. Regardless of the approach employed, the researcher must be able to explain the theoretical context of the investigation undertaken. Empiricism is generally classified into two major options of positivism or phenomenal [non-positivism; social constructivism] (Easterby – Smith et al., 2002). As theoretical and empirical strategies are closely related, and therefore should not be considered to be opposed to each other, “positivism” and “phenomenology” are not mutually exclusive either. Granted that the underlying philosophies, implications, and employed research processes may differ dramatically (in theory); in practice, significant similarities occur between the two strategies.

3.4 Empirical Research: Positivism and Phenomenology

The positivist position, as formulated by Comte, subsumes two clear assumptions, which define the positivist approach:

i). **Ontological** - concerned with the nature and relations of being. (Remenyi et al., 2000, p. 286) The assumption is that reality is external and objective. (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002)

ii). **Epistemological** - theory of the nature or grounds of knowledge; especially with reference to its limits and validity. (Remenyi et al., 2000, p. 282) The assumption being that knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality. (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002)

Table 3.1 suggests the core implications of the logical positivist research approach.

Table 3.1 Core Implications of the Positivist Research Methodology
1. **Independence**: the observer must be independent of the observed.
2. **Value-freedom**: the object of study and the corresponding method is determined by objective criteria, rather than beliefs and interests.
3. **Causality**: the aim of social sciences is to identify causal explanations and fundamental laws that explain regularities in human social behavior.
4. **Hypothesis and deduction**: science proceeds through a process of hypothesizing fundamental laws and then deducing which observations demonstrate the truth or falsity of these hypotheses.
5. **Operationalization**: concepts need to be operationalized to enable quantitative measurement.
6. **Reductionism**: problems as a whole are better understood after complexity is reduced to simplicity.
7. Generalization: samples of sufficient size, from which inferences concerning the wider population may be drawn, must be selected to generalize about human behavior.
8. **Cross-sectional analysis**: such regularities are identified by making comparisons of variations across samples.

(adapted from Easterby-Smith et al., 2002)

The positivist research philosophy, or school, was born out of a reaction to the "ivory tower" metaphysical approach (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Kuhn (1962) wrote extensively about the positivist paradigm. The central theme of his work discloses the nature of 'scientific progress in practice'; as opposed to their *post hoc* reconstruction for academic presentation; e.g., textbooks, journals, conferences, and so forth (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Kuhn proposed that science actually gains ground through relatively small increments, reshaping and extending previous work and knowledge. On occasion, something new in contrast to the *status quo* may be revealed, but the paradigm shift does not occur until the rare insight of genius makes sense of both the old and new – usually as a result of offering a whole new way of perceiving the knowledge (Kuhn, 1962).

Kuhn's notion of paradigm shift, such as the Copernican revolution or Darwinian evolution, illustrates the fact that an insight can radically alter human thought; although, more typically, knowledge progresses incrementally. Popper's notion of falsity, famously applied to Freudian theory, holds that a system cannot be regarded as scientific unless it can be proven to be false. Facts, in their pure sense; implying a lack of falsehood, do not exist in science – as such. So, one would not be able to prove an idea to be factual *per se* by merely providing evidence. Thus, Popper maintains that it is only through proven falsehood or by exposing proposed knowledge to be incorrect or flawed, that we can be assured of only accepting scientifically sound ideas (Popper, 1975). Kuhn and Popper, therefore, provide a level of explanation and precision to Comptean positivism.

However, a growing number of researchers within the social sciences find the positivist approach inadequate outside the physical and natural sciences (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Instead, such adherents subscribe to a rather different underlying world view. Specifically, they promote the perspective that research focused on people, their interaction, behaviors, and organizations using non-positivist research methods yield better results. Moreover, that non-positivist methodology promotes the primary importance of “unique experience” without being categorical; in short, originating from phenomena. Cohen and Manion (1987) hold the view that “phenomenology” is a theoretical point of view that advocates the study of direct experience taken at face value; and one which sees behavior as determined by the phenomena of experience rather than external, objective, and physically described reality. Defining phenomenology is somewhat problematic; perhaps this is true because it refers to a broad philosophical outlook, as opposed to a closely definable concept.

This becomes apparent when comparing authors' explanations of phenomenology. Camus (O'Brien, 1965) maintains that 'phenomenology declines to explain the world, it wants to be merely a description of actual experience'. Although the authors' definitions of phenomenology do not directly contradict each other, ultimately, their perspectives are rather diverse in nature and in conceptual encompassment. Phenomenology, which is the descriptive study of states of human consciousness, can be applied to social construction (or derived from), and therefore can be also termed – "social constructionism" (Remenyi et al., 2000).

According to Easterby-Smith et al., (2002), the polar opposite of the positivist lies the non-positivist "social constructionist" approach. This half-century old philosophy is built on the premise that "reality is not objective and exterior, but is socially constructed and given meaning by people" (p. 29). This new paradigm 'focuses on the ways that people make sense of the world especially through sharing their experiences with others via the medium of language; in other words, interpretive methods' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002, p. 30).

Table 3.2 Contrasting Assumptions Positivism and Social Constructionism

	Positivism	**Social Constructionism**
The observer	must be independent	is part of what is being observed
Human interests	should be irrelevant	are the main drivers of science
Explanations	must demonstrate causality	aim to increase the general understanding of the situation
Research (progresses through)	hypotheses and deductions	rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	must be operationalized so that they can be measured	should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	should be reduced to simplest terms	may include the complexity of 'whole' situations
Generalization (through)	statistical probability	theoretical abstraction
Sampling (requires)	large numbers selected randomly	limited cases chosen for specific reasons

(adapted from Easterby-Smith et al., 2002)

Indeed, these two research methods are similar in many respects. To support this proposition, Easterby-Smith et al., (2002) provides the example of the well known Hofstede (1980; 1991) research into the influence of cultural factors on social and work behavior. Hofstede's data was quantitative and processed through a factor analysis to reveal dimensions indicative of national cultures. Each dimension was statistically independent; consequently, a high score on one factor did not affect, positively or negatively, scores on other dimensions. Hofstede, as the researcher, distanced himself from the respondents of the questionnaires.

Thus, Hofstede's quantitative research conforms closely to the positivist paradigm. However, Hofstede's own account of his research casts doubts on value neutral parallels. For example, he acknowledges that he is dealing with mental constructs rather than hard objective facts. National culture factors were not formulated as initial hypotheses, but only after considerable *post hoc* analysis of the data and much reading/discussion with academic colleagues. The labels attached to the dimensions were expressed in his words; that is, they did not emerge from data processing.

Finally, cultural judgments are not value free. Thus, as the above example illustrates how positivism and social constructionism may share similar results, although the methodologies appear distinct and opposed. Both positivist and non-positivist approaches can be utilized successfully e.g., the choice of a research methodology is less exclusive than it might appear, as 'the literature review is central to identifying the research question and traditionally accepted instruments to be applied'. Easterby-Smith et al., (2002) further maintains that when determining a research strategy 'the most important issues facing the social scientist is that he provide a basis from which he may assert the validity of his findings'. The author's investigation has been designed to follow a traditional positivist approach (see table 3.3), in keeping with the research it extends Dulewicz and Higgs' UK research. Moreover, this study is intended to contribute to the body of knowledge through the application of a previously established theory/methodology within a new environment (domain): viz., the Russian Federation (Howard and Sharp, 1983).

Table 3.3. Stages in Positivist Research

1. review of the relevant literature;
2. assess the established theoretical framework
   identify research question or problem;
4. formulate hypotheses/empirical framework;
5. identify measuring instrument;
6. address sampling issues;
7. test hypotheses with appropriate methods;
8. confirm theory; discuss findings; propose further research.

(adapted from Remenyi et al., 2000)

Previous empirical studies have established that the three constructs under investigation (e.g., leadership styles, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership competencies) can be effectively assessed through the use of psychometric measurement instruments (i.e., questionnaires). The research question identified from the literature review involves investigating the leadership styles, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership competencies of Russian managers. The methodological precedent for such research has been positivist. The researcher followed a "private agent" research model; characterized by both carrying out and financing the research himself. In addition to the factors outlined above, the author has also taken into account his own background and skills as constituting potentially critical elements for consideration, prior to the outset of such an extensive research process.

Remenyi et al. (2000, p. 46) underscore these points by stating:

> **Hand In hand with the research question there needs to be an understanding of the research skills available and those that are needed. No matter how appropriate a particular approach may be, if the researcher does not have the appropriate skills then that particular strategy should not be pursued.**

The doctoral researcher entered the Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) program at Henley Management College without having completed a major research study beyond the master's degree level, which constituted a questionnaire-based positivist project. The measurement instrument proposed for this research is relatively new (2003), but has been utilized in two key studies with managers working in the UK (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004), and two major empirical studies conducted within the ranks of the Royal Navy (Young, 2004) and the Royal Air Force (Wren and Dulewicz, 2005). Following Young's (2004) research, the new model developed has been implemented as a critical factor in the Royal Navy's development and appraisal processes.

3.5 Measurement Instrument

The original self-report version (a 360 degree format was recently designed) of the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ), developed for the specific task of testing Dulewicz and Higgs' leadership model (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; 2004), was selected for the purposes of this research based on the following considerations:

- i). applying a standardized measurement instrument for maintaining integrity of comparison across cultures (etic studies; see chapter 2);
- ii). current understanding of measuring EI;
- iii). cultural aspects; and
- iii). availability and cost.

Dulewicz and Higgs were gracious in supporting this study; consequently, availability and cost, which can be a critical issue for researchers, did not obstruct this investigation. Moreover, Henley Management College arranged an online version of the LDQ for participating organizations' and managers' convenience. As presented within the previous chapter, this study follows an "etic" approach (i.e., comparative), and as Den Hartog et al. (1999) remind us, in order to maintain the integrity of a cross-culturally comparative approach, one must consistently apply a standardized measurement instrument to all cultures within the study. Clearly, deviation from these standards would introduce potentially mitigating and questionable outside variables. At the heart of this comparative-cultural leadership study is the concept of Emotional Intelligence and its potential role in developing organizational leadership in Russia. What's more, EI forms the foundation upon which the LDQ was designed. Pioneers of the EI concept have maintained that:

> **There are two types of EI measures: performance tests [aka abilities tests] and self-report questionnaires…Performance measures are generally more time-consuming to administer than self-report measures. (Ciarrochi et al, 2001, p. 29)**

Performance measures have been applied in clinical psychology, with the facilitators being highly trained in the areas of employing the assessment instrument and interpreting its results. As noted in the quotation above, the performance measurement approach (aka abilities approach) is extremely time-consuming. The author's background is in the disciplines of Business Administration and Economics, which do not prepare or qualify one for conducting such appraisals.

Within the leadership literature, 360 degree evaluations have become fashionable. They often entail the gathering of feedback from a respondent as well as a superior (or peer), and direct report, offering a multiple perspective on the assessed individual. Such measurement tools have also appeared within the discipline of EI. However, several experts within the field dismiss the appropriateness of 360 degree tools for measuring EI, maintaining that one should go to the source rather than include the perceptions of a third party. This proviso observes that a third party may or may not have high levels of Emotional Intelligence himself; thus misevaluating the target individual (e.g., Ciarrochi, et al., 2001).

More recently, grassroots EI scientists (e.g., Brackett and Geher, 2006, p. 37) have unconditionally stated that:

> **Self-report scales may also be modified to a 360 degree format. In this case, a particular target's score is based separately on his or her own self-report in addition to reports provided by observers (informants) who are highly familiar with the target, including peers, direct reports, and supervisors. *[However] Informant reports generally measure a person's reputation*. (For further discussion of survey-based research see 3.8 Possible Constraints and Limitations to the Methodology)**

The author ultimately based his decision to utilize the original self-report version of the LDQ based on a cultural value that would have aborted the research at the data collection stage. The cultural value in question refers to high "power-distance" cultures (e.g., Russia; Hofstede, 1980; 1993). In such cultures, it is rare, if ever the case, that subordinates rate their superiors, as it is deemed to be highly irregular, presumptuous, and inappropriate (House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006). This perspective was further maintained by the contacts within the participating organizations themselves. A 180-degree proposal was rejected by the participating organizations based on the resources restrictions. This set back was compounded by difficulty in making arrangements with the participating organizations – not to mention prompting the respondents to complete their obligations; see "Limitations" (section 3.8) within this chapter.

3.6 The Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ)

The Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) contains 189 questions based on 15 competency scales within three main constructs; cognitive abilities (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial competencies (MQ); for full definitions of the 15 competencies see Appendix.

Table 3.4 LDQ Competencies by Category

Critical Analysis and Judgment (IQ)	Self awareness (EQ)	Resource Management (MQ)
Vision and Imagination	Emotional Resilience	Engaging Communication
Strategic Perspective	Intuitiveness	Empowering
	Interpersonal Sensitivity	Developing
	Influence	Achieving
	Motivation	
	Conscientiousness	

The LDQ allows managers to measure their leadership styles based on their responses to the 15 leadership dimensions within the LDQ (7 EQ and 8 IQ+MQ). The results provide an assessment of the respondent's dominant leadership style, in accordance with the following three distinctive leadership styles identified by Dulewicz and Higgs (2003; 2004):

i). **Engaging Leadership** – a style based on a high level of empowerment and involvement appropriate in a high transformational context. Such a style is focused on producing radical change with high levels of engagement and commitment.

II). **Involving Leadership** – a style based on a transitional organization that faces significant, but not necessarily radical changes in its business model or operational mode.

III). **Goal Leadership** – a style focused on delivering results within a relatively stable context. This is a "Leader-led" style aligned to a stable organization delivering clearly understood results.

The three categorical leadership styles identified by Dulewicz and Higgs are based on the “transformational”, “transactional”, and “participative” styles, respectively (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004). The LDQ is a norm-based psychometric measurement tool utilizing a five-point Likert-type scale. The version of the LDQ proposed for this study subsumes scales for measuring “follower commitment” and “leadership performance” (for a discussion of self-rated assessments of performance see chapter 5 ; “Limitations”). Bass (1990) and others were instrumental in establishing the importance of "inducing a high degree of loyalty, commitment, and devotion in the followers" (p. 205). Covey (1992) maintains the importance of understanding "followership" as does Fineman (2003), who points out the ‘deep emotional roots’ associated with followers.

Recognizing the importance of follower loyalty or ‘commitment to the organization’, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) built on the attitudinal/affective findings of Bass (1990) in constructing their “organizational commitment” construct. Subordinates of more effective (transformational) leaders perceived that they worked in more highly effective groups; their groups had a greater impact on the organization, and they exerted more individual effort. The OC scale contains five items designed to assess the degree of commitment that followers show to the organization and to the team in which they work, covering job satisfaction, realism, commitment to requisite change - and to the organization, and understanding the need for change (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004).

The self-assessment scale for leadership performance contains six items: followers’ effort, capability, flexibility, and overall team performance and impact. Through a factor analysis, these elements were more broadly categorized as followers, "individual contributions” and “team output”. Kotter (1990; 1996) and others have promoted the importance of change and its role within leadership studies. The LDQ also includes a section pertaining to the levels of change in the operating environment (context scale; internal and external), as perceived by the manager. Respondents express their perceptions concerning the degree and nature of change they face as leaders within their respective organizations. The scale reflects five separate components: 1) a general fundamental need to change; 2) the fundamental change of the organization/business; 3) the need for followers to change; 4) specific pressures from the business environment; and 5) a context of instability. These scales are then scored within three overall categories:

i). relatively stable (low levels of change);
ii). significant change (more than moderate but less than transformational levels); and
iii). transformational (very high levels of change).

For MNCs and other large participating companies, the benefits of the contextual assessment are crucial. Corporate strategies involving orientation to change can be compared with managers' perceptions of the level of need for change (internal and external environments). Ultimately, with the results of the organizational context construct, "it is feasible that a change in leadership behavior may lead to a different strategic approach being adopted by the organization" (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 10). However, the proposal that corporate strategy is based on the leadership style of a senior executive is unlikely outside the smallest of organizations. Perhaps a more convincing explanation is provided by Burke and Litwin (1989), who stressed the importance and impact of the environment and the organizational culture. Given the factors of organizational culture, and the recognized escalation of change affecting organizations' internal and external operating environments, a more plausible conclusion obtains. That is, leadership perceptions and behaviors are molded and selected to fit the strategic perspectives of the company, which should find the LDQ's OC scales most beneficial for such comparisons.

3.6.1 Common Methods Variance (CMV)

As data gathering instruments, self-report questionnaires and surveys are well established within the social sciences, with their findings often times leading to inferences about organizational populations and, in certain circumstances, offer valuable information superior to that of observation (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). However, specific "threats" have at times been associated with self-report questionnaire research, including "common methods variance" or "CMV" (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Cote and Buckley, 1987; Williams et al., 1989). Despite the putative detrimental nature of CMV, a heated and unresolved debate concerning both its existence and its problematic attributes remains the case (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Cote and Buckley, 1987; Doty and Glick, 1988; Williams et al, 1989; Bagozzi and Yi, 1990; Brannick and Spector, 1990; Doty and Glick, 1998).

Common methods variance occurs 'when measures of two or more variables are collected from the same respondents [at the same point in time] and the attempt is made to make any correlation(s) among them'. Meaning, where common methods variance is present, difficulty can arise when attempting to differentiate between the true relationships between variables, as artifacts can distort the results (Cote and Buckley, 1987). CMV has been attributed to percept-inflation issues that manipulate the data analysis process, including problems of "social desirability", "ambiguous wording", scale length (short and not concise), and ambiguous constructs (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Cote and Buckley, 1987; Doty and Glick, 1988; Williams et al, 1989; Bagozzi and Yi, 1990; Brannick and Spector, 1990; Doty and Glick, 1998).

Concerning the LDQ, specifically, the questions do not promote "social desirability". Social desirability is an ego-driven artifact, (initiated by questions such as "are you a superior leader?" or "do you treat employees respectfully?"). According to the author's experience utilizing the LDQ, no respondent has communicated problems concerning the conciseness of the questions. Podsakoff and Organ (1986, p. 535), recognized authorities on the subject of survey and questionnaire design, remind us as how easily such artifacts can be introduced into our data by respondents:

> **Unfortunately, the social desirability issue goes further than merely adding bias to the responses. Not only are some responses to some items more socially desirable than others, certain reasons for responses are also more ego-flattering than others. Thus suppose I answer a self-report measure of stress by indicating that I experience severe job-related tensions. I am apt to respond to other items that implicate poor supervision, irrational policies and procedures, incompetent subordinates – as opposed, perhaps, to my own inability to work constructively with others, or my own lack of planning.**

What's more, the LDQ has built in safeguards against random or inconsistent responses. Unlike some instruments, consistency contributes to the accuracy of the LDQs assessment; consistency motif can be problematic for some scales, in that respondents assume a consistency with their responses, which may not represent an accurate portrayal of what is being assessed.

Overly short questionnaires can expose the researcher to unnecessary dangers of promoting common methods variance, should the simplified construct become somewhat ambiguous, and/or rely too much on the accurate response to each and every question; no backup questions to maintain consistency and response trends (Cote and Buckley, 1987). However, with 189 questions, the LDQ is in no danger of such criticism; the Russian sample did not demonstrate inconsistency or respondent fatigue. Concerning ambiguous constructs, the next section discusses validity and reliability issues pertaining to the LDQ, which has demonstrated good results in these areas.

Some experts believe CMV remains a severe threat to the construct validity of self-report surveys and questionnaires (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Fiske, 1982;

Podsakoff and Organ, 1986), whilst a significant number of opposing authorities refute these claims. For example, Spector reviewed 10 studies concluding that “little evidence for methods variance as a biasing problem was found” (1987, p. 438). By contrast, Cote and Buckley (1987) and Williams et al., (1989) maintained from their findings that CMV was present, significant, and contributed to between 16% and 27% of the total variations observed within the studies; however, these findings were later criticized and questioned by Bagozzi and Yi (1990), who convincingly demonstrated that “ the conclusions noted by Williams et al. could have been an artifact of their analytical procedures” and that “[CMV] was sometimes significant, but not as prevalent as Williams et al. had concluded’ (p. 558). Doty and Glick (1998) pull this scintillating debate into focus, identifying the ultimate context within which the discussion should proceed:

> **Does common methods variance *bias* research results by causing discrepancies between the true and observed correlation between constructs [i.e., Common Methods Bias; CMB]? If CMV results in common methods bias (i.e., discrepancies between the observed and the true relationships between constructs), then many of the conclusions researchers have drawn from results may be inaccurate. On the other hand, if common methods variance is present in research results but does not bias our interpretation of those results, then Spencer’s (1987) conclusion that "the problem [of CMV} may be mythical’(p. 442), may be correct (Doty and Glick, 1998, p. 375).**

In 1998, Doty and Glick conducted a meta-analysis of common methods bias (CMB) within correlation studies published over a twelve year period (1980-1992), in six well-respected social science journals. They concluded "that common methods variance was present in many studies, and at a significant level. However, in most cases, the detected level of common methods bias in observed correlations was not sufficient to challenge the theoretical interpretation of the relationships" (Doty and Glick, 1998, p. 400).

As this discussion shows, little consensus has been reached regarding the extent of common method biases. Moreover, if such a consensus were ever reached, it is likely to be specific to a particular research area (Podsakoff et al. 2003). In particular, Crampton and Wagner (1994) demonstrated that method effects varied considerably with research domains and suggested that "domain-specific investigations are required to determine which areas of research are especially susceptible to percept-percept effects [research within the discipline of Education showed the greatest levels of CMB]" (p. 67). That said, most researchers agree as to the *potential* CMV and other artifacts (e.g., social desirability) have in biasing research results. Therefore, the researcher has adopted a conservative approach to this debate, taking precautions against CMBs, by employing a well designed measurement instrument (the LDQ). According to Cote and Buckley (1987), measurement artifacts depend, at least to some extent, on whether the constructs measured are concrete or abstract; in general, when measures are difficult or ambiguous, respondents tend to interpret them in a relatively subjective manner, and this may "increase random responding or increase the probability that respondents' own systematic response tendencies (e.g., implicit theories, affectivity, central tendency and leniency biases) may come into play" (Podsakoff et al. 2003, p. 883).

Other precautions were also taken by the researcher in an attempt to avoid the introduction of unnecessary artifacts which might contribute to unwanted methods bias, as outlined by the seminal researchers in this area (e.g., utilizing a large but appropriate-sized sample; administering the LDQ with different formats - on-line and paper-based versions were employed - collecting data over an extended period of time (12 months), as well as from several sources i.e., various organizations (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). However, as mentioned earlier, even the most carefully designed measurement instruments (self-report or otherwise), are not immune to common methods variance and bias (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Therefore, as a final control step towards risk aversion, the researcher can apply statistical analysis to demonstrate that CMV (and potential CMB) has not permeated the data to an unacceptable level. One of the most widely used approaches for this purpose is Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; see Appendix for the results of the unrotated single-factor analysis from the LDQ). If no single factor emerges from the analysis, or no general factor accounts for the majority of the common variance (>.5), the researcher can assume that a substantial level of CMV does not exist; one idiosyncrasy of this test, which researchers need to be aware of, is that analyses involving smaller numbers of factors are more accurately assessed by this model, as the attributed level of common variance is inflated with larger numbers of variables (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Therefore, whilst the results of the factor analysis on the LDQ revealed no single factor assuming a majority of the variance (>.5), the variable accounting for .47 can be assumed to be inflated beyond its actual level, further indicating that CMV (and CMB) do not threaten the integrity of the researcher's data.

Thus the debate around CMV (and CMB) will undoubtedly remain unresolved for some time to come, contributing further to the myriad of conceptual debates inherent to social science research. The author accepts the importance of the CMV controversy, albeit with a degree of skepticism, whilst subscribing to the American Psychological Association's requisite of paying close attention to reliability and construct validity issues concerning questionnaire research in an effort to avoid design-related errors such as those discussed earlier; i.e., ambiguity issues, social desirability, etc. (Schoenfeldt, 1984).

3.6.2 Construct Validity (Content Validity, Criterion-related Validity and Reliability)

The LDQ has undergone rigorous testing for "accuracy" (validity) and "consistency" (reliability). Yet, many researchers erroneously "gloss over" or omit altogether any discussion of validity and reliability. The net result of such irresponsible research hints at a plethora of inferences and findings that may well be unfounded owing to flawed measurement instruments. For genuine advancement within the fields of business and management, scholars require valid, reliable research results (cf. American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, and the National Council on Measurement in Education, 1985; in Schoenfeldt, 1984). According to Schoenfeldt (1984), organizational research is highly dependent upon scholars' levels of confidence in applying measurement instruments.

The American Psychological Association maintains that psychometric measurement instruments need to demonstrate construct validity, which they define as content validity, criterion-related validity, and reliability. Construct validity measures the intended construct, in its totality and without extending beyond its limits. Face validity and content validity (closely related and at times used interchangeably) address the extent to which an instrument appears to measure what it is meant to, and to what extent the questions comprising the questionnaire comprehensively cover all dimensions of the domain in question. According to Cronbach and Meehl (1955) content validity 'is established by showing that the questionnaire items represent a true sample of the universe of discourse. According to the designers of the LDQ (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003),"no adverse comments were received from the subjects in the two pilot studies (n = 222).

Many subjects stated that the questionnaire seemed to be measuring something relevant about themselves, and some said the instrument was obviously measuring some aspects of leadership"; thus supporting a certain level of face validity. However, face validity is recognized as being highly subjective, which explains the APA's policy of not recognizing it for validation purposes. The authors further noted that in order to ensure content validity in its entirety by the LDQ, "a rigorous mapping exercise was conducted to reflect comprehensiveness". This approach of "concept mapping" is widely acknowledged and advocated for creating "a structured visual display of the domain of a concept" (Trochim, 1989).

“This research allowed the questionnaire’s authors to design items grounded in the constructs recognized by many experts to be linked to leadership requirements, and in turn to relate them to personal competencies." The critical concept of criterion-related validity was addressed by the LDQ designers by way of establishing close statistical relationships between the LDQ and other instruments with more established histories of validity. “During the pilot studies, some participants completed the 16PF personality questionnaire (Cattell, 1970) from which Personality and Team Role (Belbin, 1986; Dulewicz, 1995) profiles are produced” (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 26).

> **…with the general finding that managers higher on relevant dimensions generally tend to be more extraverted and emotionally well adjusted, and specifically to have greater Strategic Perspective and Conscientiousness. A large number of statistically significant correlations would not have been expected since the factors measured by personality questionnaires are more likely to be related to social and emotional (EQ) dimensions than to cognitive (IQ) and managerial (MQ) dimensions. Results of the study reported here provide quite strong support for relevant interpersonal dimensions which are strongly associated with three team roles, Coordinator, Team-Worker, and Resource Investigator, which are predominantly people related. In contrast, little support is provided by relevant correlations with the "Ideas" – related roles (Plant and Monitor Evaluator) and Task-related roles. These results appear to reflect the personality results reported above. This is hardly surprising since the Team Roles scores are based on different combinations of the 16 primary personality factors that, as noted above, are predominantly social and emotional rather than cognitive an managerial in their compositions (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 33).**

Reliability is normally tested through measuring the levels of correlation between the scores of the items comprising the scale(s) of the instrument (Hair et al., 2003). All IQ, EQ, and MQ correlations were demonstrated to be acceptably significant. Table 3.5 shows the results of the reliability analysis applied to the 15 LDQ dimensions. Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) report alpha coefficients Ranging between .65 - .82; although others describe such coefficients (.6-.8) as being good – very good levels of reliability (e.g., Hair et al., 2003), Nunnally (1978), who is considered by some to be definitive in the area of scholarship on psychometric scales, insists on an alpha coefficient of at least .7 for acceptance as being reliable; thus bringing several of Dulewicz and Higgs variables into question. ”This work enabled the LDQ designers to write items based upon a comprehensive set of constructs considered by many leading authors in the field to relate to leadership requirements, and then in turn to link these to personal competencies”(Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 25).

Table 3.5 Cronbach Alpha Analysis on LDQ (Pilot test 2)

Self-awareness	**.79**	**Critical Analysis/ Judgment**	**.66**
Emotional Resilience	**.71**	**Vision/imagination**	**.80**
Motivation	**.72**	**Strategic Perception**	**.76**
Sensitivity	**.77**	**Engaging Communication**	**.82**
Influence	**.73**	**Managing Resources**	**.81**
Intuitiveness	**.74**	**Empowering**	**.65**
Conscientiousness	**.73**	**Developing**	**.81**
		Achieving	**.66**
		N=222	

(adapted from Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003)

Supporting evidence has been demonstrated concerning the construct validity of the self-report version of the LDQ. In accordance with the APA, Doty and Glick (1998) maintain that, ‘construct validity is a prerequisite to developing and meaningfully testing organizational theories’; describing research findings supported by less-than-acceptable levels of construct validity as being based on “artifacts” or “inadequacies” in the research; i.e., if researchers are not accurately measuring what they set out to measure, their data interpretations should be seen as being fallacious. The words “demonstrate” and “approximate” are necessary when speaking of reliability and validation issues since no instrument can be proven to measure what it is meant to measure, just as “one can never know what is true. At best, one can know what has not yet been ruled out as false” (Cook and Campbell, 1979, p. 37). It is only through the repeated use of an instrument at various times, with diverse samples, and in an array of organizations/settings that a true approximation of the reliability and validity of an instrument may be understood. Moreover, no measure is “reliable” and “valid," *per se*; only the inferences drawn from using the measure; as Trochim (1991) argues that “validity (including reliability) is basically the best available approximation to the truth or falsity of a given inference, proposition, or conclusion”; thus adding weight to the respective importance of sound research practices and design.

3.7 Research Design

The terms “research design” and “research plan” are employed synonymously within this section; research design is the plan the researcher proposes to follow in conducting an investigation (Remenyi et al., 2000, p. 289). Moreover, the research design is ‘the logic that links the collected data (and the conclusions drawn) to the initial question (or central problem) of a study’ (Yin, 1994). The outline presented below is an initial framework, intended to assist the researcher in the formation of the original research design, and as such may not be followed regimentally; although each step was exercised to some extent.

- I). specification of the theoretical domains of the research constructs through a literature review;
- ii). acquisition and application of the substantial knowledge about the conceptual and functional equivalents of the constructs;
- iii). creation of an efficient and cost-effective sample design;
- iv). development of a sound instrument (or use of validated instruments, if available);

v). collection of data, as concurrently as possible and by using local administrators;

vi). data analysis using multivariate techniques for identification of underlying dimensions across cultures; and

vii). data interpretation, establishment of in-country benchmarks for independent/dependent variable effect size; within group and between group analyses; using frame, sample and situational parameters to determine the degree of generality of the findings. (Cavusgil and Das, 1997)

3.7.1 Sampling Decisions

Determining an appropriate and correct sample size is of the utmost importance in business and management research (Hair et al., 2003). Holton and Burnett (1997) express its significance in a logical manner:

> **One of the real advantages of quantitative methods is their ability to use smaller groups of people to make inferences about larger groups that would [otherwise] (sic) be prohibitively expensive to study (p. 71).**

Although business and management researchers are often times at the forefront of social science inquiry and theory-building, Wunsch (1986) identified sampling error as being one of the two most widespread and critical flaws within quantitative business/management investigations. Moreover, as Peers (1996) suggests, such errors greatly prohibit the potential authority with which quantitative methods can influence the detection of significant differences, relationships, or interactions. Therefore, the central question in sampling is “how large of a sample is required to infer research findings back to a population” (Barteltt et al., 2001)? To this end, several statistical formulae are available (Hair et al., 2003). The researcher identified Cochran’s (1977) formula, one of the most widely used methods for sample determination, as an appropriate approach for this study (Bartlett et al., 2001).

Like many sample-size-calculating formulae, Cochran's model is based on three criteria: 1) the level of acceptable risk, aka confidence level, required by the researcher; 2) the margin of error; aka level of precision acceptable to the researcher; 3) the amount of variability within the population aka population homogeneity. For points 1 and 3, statisticians recommend 90-95% reliability. Margin of error is determined by the number of points on the survey scale (for the LDQ = 5) over the number of standard deviations; all numbers covering the "range" (for the LDQ = 4); therefore, margin of error = 1.25 (5/4).

Cochran's (1977) formula is written as:

$(t)^2 \times (s)^2 / (d)^2$

$(\text{degree of confidence required})^2 \times (\text{variability in population})^2 / (\text{desired precision})^2$

t = alpha level of .05 (95% confidence level = the number of standard errors for the degree of confidence specified for the research results; recommended by Bartlett et al., 2001; Hair et al., 2003) s = variability in population aka population homogeneity; number of points on scale (5) divided by range (the distance between the points = 4; scale points/range = standard deviation i.e., variability d = (desired precision) acceptable margin of error for mean being estimated as number of points on scale, 5, times acceptable margin of error, .05; recommended by Krejcie and Morgan; 1970). For this study, the recommended values are:

$(1.96)^2 \times (1.25)^2 / (5 \times .05)^2$

Sample size (SS) = 96 (95.8)

Therefore, in order to meet the recommended levels of confidence and precision goals, the researcher requires a minimum of 96 useable respondents. However, in order to conduct an accurate factor analysis, one must employ a minimum of 100 respondents (Bartlett et al., 2001; Hair et al., 2003). In addition, preempting possible non-responses, incomplete surveys, etc…, the researcher set the response target at 120 (although the final sample, n = 152).

Hair et al. (2003) discuss the power of accurate sampling, in that 'a sample of 100 can tell us as much about a population of 15 million as it can of 15 thousand. Furthermore, by obtaining significantly more responses, one does not necessarily raise the generalizability of the study by any great measure'. The upper limit often times is not an issue for researchers, as acquiring data can be an arduous and demanding task. Consequently, the increase in confidence (or reduction of risk) levels off somewhere between 300 and 400 responses (Cochran, 1977; Hair et al., 2003). In essence, the main level of risk that a sample accurately represents a given population, regardless of size, is gained through the original identification of the minimum sample (Bartlett et al., 2001; Hair et al., 2003).

3.7.2 Target Sample Characteristics

Once an accurate sample size was determined, the author defined the necessary characteristics of the target sample:

- i). all participants were noted as being Russian;
- ii). the participants were identified within their organizations as being junior- to senior-level managers, with "direct reports" subordinate to them;
- iii). the participants possessed sufficient English language skills to enable them to fully comprehend and accurately respond to the LDQ.

Furthermore, the researcher originally proposed that a preferable sample would reflect a relative balance between the genders, whilst also including a significant number of respondents working within a purely Russian corporate context (as opposed to foreign MNCs). Stage 5, above, mentions the importance of an efficient and concurrent data collection process with the local administration.

For efficiency, the LDQ was offered online, and the research plan designated a contact or “focal” person within each organization, tasked to:

i). identify the appropriate candidates to participate in this research;
ii). communicate important instructions to the participants and researcher; and
iii). assist in verifying that all responses were received.

Once the data had been fully collected, the author proceeded with the initial stage of data analysis, initiating preliminary findings. Data interpretation and inference formulation was not applied early in the original data analysis process, so as not to bias the research by dictating a preferred path, thereby precluding other possibilities. However, the initial cross-correlation factor analysis was conducted with the support of the SPSS statistical software.

Figure 3.2 presents a chart of the ideal timetable for the research plan, reflecting steps 5 -7 of the seven-step plan presented earlier (Cavusgil and Das, 1997). The four-step plan below represents ideal progress, whilst the time frames contain some flexibility as to their commencement and completion. The plan was not definitive, e.g., a particular step might be deemed unnecessary, whilst the addition of other steps and/or analyses may be required. The flow of the research, from the “data collection” stage through the “final conclusions/report” stage was contingent upon the successful completion of the previous stage(s).

Figure 3.2 Outline for Research Plan Implementation

Research Activity	Oct-Dec 2004	Jan-Mar 2005	Apr-Jun 2005	Jul-Sep 2005	Oct-Dec 2005	Jan-Mar 2006	Apr-Jun 2006	Jul-Sep 2006
Data collection (incl. participant identification)								
Initial data analysis/report								
Further statistical analyses (as needed)								
Final conclusions/report								

(NB: The arrows designate possible starting and completion times for each research activity, and as such cover a span of “earliest” to “latest” periods for each step.)

3.7.3 Proposed Data Analysis Techniques

Descriptive statistics will be employed to summarize important characteristics of the Russian respondent-sample (Hair et al., 2003), offering important descriptive data prior to addressing the hypotheses supporting the overall research question. An initial broad cross-correlation factor analysis will be applied to highlight possible statistically significant correlations between the factors of the LDQ constructs; again, providing a broad illustrative framework within which the focused hypotheses can better assist the researcher in identifying important relationships. Moreover, this study will rely heavily on inferential statistical techniques (e.g., t-tests and regression analyses). Inferential statistics are used in hypothesis testing, offering the researcher greater insight into a sample, resulting in the ability to make statistically-informed inferences about the population (Triola and Franklin, 1994).

Business statistics is roughly divided into “descriptive” and “inferential” statistical techniques (Triola and Franklin, 1994). Therefore, identifying the most appropriate approaches within these broader categories is essential to avoiding misleading statistical indicators, which may result in flawed inferences. (Hair et al., 2003). Hypothesis testing is essentially "the conversion of data into knowledge" (Hair et al., 2003). The researcher must pay close attention to ‘the number of variables and the scale of measurement’ when determining the correct statistical analysis techniques (Hair et al., 2003). Moreover, the researcher can most accurately determine the appropriate statistical technique(s) to apply based on the type of measurement scale employed; see table 3.6 (Hair et al., 2003*).*

Table 3.6 Type of Scale and Appropriate Statistic

Type of Scale	**Measure of Central Tendency**	**Measure of Dispersion**	**Statistic**
Nominal	Mode	None	Chi-Square
Ordinal	Median	Percentile	Chi-Square
Interval or Ratio	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-Test, ANOVA

(adapted from Hair et al., 2003)

Technically speaking, the LDQ represents an ordinal (non-metric; qualitative scale) scaled questionnaire. However, research has shown that such scales should be treated as interval (metric; quantitative scale) scales when selecting the correct statistical analysis techniques. Hair et al. (2003, p. 157) support this distinction:

> **The justification for management researchers to treat such scales (ordinal) as interval rather than ordinal is the result of extensive empirical research, which has revealed that respondents consistently treat the distances between the points as being equal.**

Finally, regression analysis is utilized to determine any possible linear relationships between variables. Regression analysis is recognized as being "the most widely applied data analysis technique for establishing correlations between variables, as well as the relative strength of any existing relationships" (*Hair et al., 2003, p. 290).

3.8 Possible Constraints and Limitations to the Methodology

Examples of situations that the researcher identified at the outset of the research design stage, as potentially needing attention within the context of the above time-line, included, but was not limited to:

i). Non-responses

ii). Inability to reach appropriate senior executives for participation approval

iii). Online technological challenges concerning the LDQ

iv). Russian firms' unwillingness to participate in the research

Contingency plans/tactics addressing the above-mentioned potential constraints included:

i). Questionnaires were numbered for the purpose of tracing them to the appropriate participating company/participants. As mentioned earlier, a contact person within each organization was identified, utilized, and facilitated the communication process within the company. Pending communication difficulties with the appointed contact person, the researcher also had direct contact information for each and every participant, thus enabling him to communicate directly with individual managers. Encouragement, establishing commitment, and reminding often assisted with the collection of data. Explaining the personal benefits of participating in the leadership research greatly abetted the researcher in motivating respondents. Barring all else, the researcher was prepared to identify alternate respondents.

ii). Acknowledging the difficulty of reaching senior executives within organizations, the researcher proceeded with a “multi-tactical barrage”, utilizing various communication approaches in a persistent, multi-channel strategy. The tactics used included phone calls, faxes, e-mails, appointments, invitations, and introductions. Having past experience as a management consultant further assisted the researcher in identifying the most effective channels of communication for reaching senior managers.

iii). Technology is not infallible. With this in mind, the researcher included some time flexibility within the research design; should short-term technical failures occur. With respect to business models and practices, Russia is still a “developing country” and, although its communication infrastructure has improved considerably over the past decade, it still lags behind most Western nations. For long-term Internet challenges, a time versus convenience dilemma was pervasive throughout the data collection period. In the end, the author resolved to make available paper-based versions of the LDQ.

iv). Russia has a much shorter history of “openness” compared to contemporary democratic/capitalist society, and as such continues to be wary of sharing information voluntarily with outsiders. Although two major Russian companies expressed a great deal of interest in participating in the investigation at the very outset of the research proposal stage, they both were forced to withdraw from the pool of participating organizations due to political reasons (one being Yukos Oil). Thus, substitute organizations were identified by the researcher. Ultimately, Russian organizations immediately recognized the *prima facie* value of participating in the study, but were reluctant to commit themselves.

The research plan (or design) is intended to assist the researcher in efficiently and effectively carrying out sound research. As such, some flexibility is necessary, whilst simultaneously retaining focus and momentum. Business and management research primarily involves people, either directly or indirectly. People can be unpredictable. Successful research within organizations often times depends on a researcher's ability to gain access to participants (data). This task more-often-than-not requires the consent and cooperation of "gatekeepers", who may prove to be problematic and uncooperative.

Remenyi et al. (2000) point out the ultimate critical nature of gaining access to data:

> **The essence of empirical research is that it relies on the production and accumulation of evidence to support its findings, and the collection of evidence is the cornerstone of this research strategy [positivist questionnaire-based research]. However, evidence is never collected within a theoretical vacuum and it is important to see the collection of evidence in relation to the underlying concepts and paradigms which will shape and determine the evidence that is collected. Sometimes empirical research projects fail because the researcher has been unable to obtain the kind of evidence that is required to develop a theory or to test an already established one. A common reason for this is that the researcher cannot gain access to the appropriate organizations or people. (p. 140)**

Thus, virtually without exception, an organization's commitment to cooperate was contingent upon the following guarantees:

i). lack of workplace intrusion; and
ii). minimal time requirements.

The author recognized that the ultimate success (or failure) of this comparative-cultural investigation depended on the "access to data" task. Certainly contingency plans were developed and applied to resolve constraints, and several of these constraints were faced during the course of the data collection process, not the least of which included:

i). organizations withdrawing their participation;
ii). participants not complying to timelines;
iii). organizational coordinators lacking motivational skills and/or authority;
iv). employee attrition during the course of the study.

Buchanan's insight into the difficulties associated with organizational research applies to the author's own experience with this investigation. Buchanan (1988) comments on how "the members of organizations block access to information, constrain the time allowed [for data collection], lose your questionnaires, go on holiday, and join other organizations in the middle of your unfinished study." One can never plan for all possible obstacles that might be encountered during the research process; although every attempt should be made to anticipate at least some of the more common problems inherent to a given research paradigm. Such forethought may well focus the researcher, and empower him to better deal with research-related problems and dilemmas when they invariably arise (Buchanan, 1988).

3.9 Concluding Thoughts

At the outset of this chapter the author presented the inconsistencies of "science" and "scientific methods" in an attempt to realistically contextualize this chapter on research methodology. As such, within these concluding paragraphs, it would seem appropriate to once again reframe our perspectives through a "lens of insight and reality" concerning the true nature of research methodology:

> **We must distinguish between the inherent flaws of any method, when used as well as it can be used, and the quite different matter of using a method badly. The former, the inherent flaws of any method, even when used well, are neither to be decried nor to be overlooked, but rather to be made explicit. The latter—using a method badly—is never acceptable (McGrath, 1982, p. 101).**

It is within this spirit of "dilemmatics" that the researcher has entered into this contemporary investigation of Russian organizational leadership.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has systematically presented the methodology proposed for this research. The chapter opened with a section on research perspective and its importance in the research design process. The author commented on the abstract nature of "science" and "scientific methods" in an attempt to account for any weaknesses in this enquiry; no method is without its flaws/limitations, and even science itself lacks unanimity as to its nature and scope. Nevertheless, a sound method allows the researcher to proceed within a well-defined environment. A section on research strategy discussed the often times misrepresented mutual exclusiveness of the "theoretical" and "empirical" approaches, affirming that empiricism firmly lies within the cradle of theory, thus making the seemingly contrasting approaches "two sides to the same coin", complementing and perpetuating one another. Within empirical research, the author discussed the two common approaches – positivism and phenomenology – respectively. The former grounded in the philosophy that knowledge is ‘real, certain, and precise’, whilst the latter takes a more holistic view that knowledge should be observed through ‘direct experience’ and taken at ‘face value’.

Following a description of the stages commonly pursued in positivist research, the author described the measurement instrument selected for this comparative-cultural investigation. The debate concerning Common Methods Variance (CMV) and Common Methods Bias (CMB), identified by some experts as being the greatest threats to questionnaire, and more specifically, self-report research, led into documentation of construct validity and reliability issues concerning the selected measurement instrument. This discussion invoked the requirements of the American Psychological Association for the necessary validity testing of psychometric measuring instruments employed in organizational research, and the rigorous process followed by the LDQ’s authors (i.e., Dulewicz and Higgs). The review of theory closed with a reminder that no instrument is absolutely “valid” or “reliable"; rather, the inferences drawn from the measure may be virtually apodictic, thus necessitating that researchers speak of the “approximate validity (and reliability) of any given instrument. Moreover, it is only over time and through extensive applications of a questionnaire within diverse organizational environments that any reasonable indication as to its validity/reliability can be demonstrated.

Discussion of the measurement instrument (the LDQ) led into the section covering sampling and sampling issues. The author subscribes to the position that established sampling techniques should be followed in order to allow for more reliable inferences to be drawn from the data, and with broader generalization possibilities (given the homogeneous nature of the target population).   The researcher provided a detailed account of the steps taken and the sampling techniques chosen for the determination of the appropriate sample size; for this study Cochran's well-established sampling formula was applied. Following the section devoted to sampling issues, a detailed outline of the research implementation plan was made available, prior to the author identifying the statistical analysis techniques proposed for examining the data (applied in chapter 4). Chapter 3 concludes with the researcher identifying possible constraints and limitations associated with the proposed methodology, reflecting on McGrath's sobering reminder that 'there is no such thing as perfect research - only not enough'. And in conclusion, no methodology is flawless, although each approach, employed appropriately, can be utilized to contribute to the body of knowledge.

Chapter 4: Data Collection, Analysis, and Results

4.1 Introduction

Based on the transformational leadership literature, a strong case has been made for the importance of intellectual decision-making ability and general managerial competencies in determining the successful performance of leaders within large organizations (see Chapter 2). More recent evidence has supported assertions that Emotional Intelligence not only contributes dramatically to overall leadership effectiveness, but furthermore, accounts for the critical difference at higher levels within organizational hierarchies.

The most contemporary inquiries into possible relationships between these competencies i.e., Emotional Intelligence (EQ), intellectual competencies (IQ), and managerial competencies (MQ), have led to the premise that IQ + EQ + MQ = leadership success (Dulewicz and Higgs' model). As mentioned within the preceding chapters, the author's investigation extends the UK-based findings of Dulewicz and Higgs, based on their leadership model and Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ), which was specially designed to permit researchers to test their model. Persuasive evidence suggests that significant differences exist between nationals/managers/leaders in different cultures, reflecting, among other factors, contrasting values, beliefs, assumptions, and world views (see Chapter 2).

The author designed this comparative-cultural investigation for the ultimate purposes of better understanding Russian organizational leadership, through a comparative approach of examining similarities and differences with the established UK norms. In addition, this study hopes to contribute to practitioners by applying a much needed leadership identification/development instrument to enterprises engaged in cross-cultural relations with Russian managers and organizations. Scholarship has revealed a void within the leadership literature, which has contributed heavily to the growing demand for further research in the area of Russian organizational leadership. It is upon this foundation that the following research thesis was developed for this comparative study:

> **An investigation into the relationship between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for MNCs.**

This chapter opens with an overview of the research process, underscoring the data collection process pursued by the researcher, followed by a summary of important characteristics of the sample. Section 4.4 is devoted to the testing of the hypotheses identified in Chapter 2, reminding the reader of the identified hypotheses at the outset of the section. Ultimately, all six of the research hypotheses were designed as a means for testing the overreaching research thesis. Secondly, the six hypotheses provide a framework within which a Russian leadership model might be developed.

Each hypothesis will be tested separately within its own subsection, with descriptive statistics and preliminary analyses provided prior to the hypotheses testing; offering the reader a valuable foundation of information going into the critical analysis stage. The results of each hypothesis tested will be discussed within section 4.4, focusing on the statistical techniques employed and the results of the analyses; whilst a general discussion of the results is reserved for chapter 5. The ultimate value of the dissemination/interpretation process lies in feasible and accurate inferences being drawn from the data (Trochim, 1991). Chapter 4 concludes with a chapter summary.

4.2 Research Process

A record of the research process appears in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Record of Research Process

Step	**Research Activity/Description**	**Timeline**
1	Initial identification and submission of broad topic for acceptance by DBA research panel, Henley Management College (Topic identification)	November 2002
2	Literature review submitted and accepted by research panel, Henley Management College. (Incl. assessment of appropriate models)	November 2003
3	Full research proposal submitted, reviewed, and accepted, by examination/research panel; Henley Management College (Conjecture developed into hypotheses, identification of measurement instrument, creation of research plan)	December 2004
4	Established sample base	September 2004 – June 2005
5	Sampling; data collection	January – July 2005
6	Preliminary descriptive analysis and preliminary findings	July - August 2005
7	Further statistical analysis and further findings	September– December 2005 (revisited; Jan. – March 2008)
8	Discussion of findings and possible indications with supervisors; Henley Management College	December 200– March 2006 (revisited; March – June 2008)
9	Development of conclusions	December 2005 – May 2006 (revisited March – June 2008)
10	Research write-up	July 2007 – June 2008

It should be mentioned that the research itself was nearly jeopardized by the fact that the researcher relocated (from Russia to the Balkans) just prior to establishing the sample base for this investigation. Although recognized as being a constraint at the time, the nature of the move was employer related, and therefore unavoidable. However, this aforementioned logistical constraint proved to be rather substantial, as communication with, and motivation of, contact managers within the participating organizations, was exceedingly challenging due to the physical distance.

An initial "pilot test" was conducted by the author, consisting of 40 respondents from various industries and organizations. The participants were identified through a phone directory donated to the researcher by a government body in Moscow that deals with commercial activities within the Russian Federation. The directory differentiated organizations according to size, origin, and sector, in addition to offering contact names and information. The researcher contacted *all* of the organizations (until a positive or negative response was given by an appropriate senior manager) listed as being large (in accordance with the commercial guidelines of the Russian Federation). The twelve organizations that accepted the proposal offered the opportunity of participation to every employee who met the criteria outlined for this study. The 40 respondents who comprised the pilot study were later included in the overall pool, showing no variations from the rest of the sample.

The purpose of the initial pilot test was to identify any possible inherent problems associated with the LDQ (e.g., language, inconsistent responses, technological failures or any other divergences). However, the results were uniform, complete, and displayed understanding and consistency. Based on the positive result of the initial 40 manager-respondents, the author proceeded with the data collection process. The researcher found the response rate of interested companies to be rather high.

In general, the main reasons for non-acceptance of the invitation to participate in this investigation were that:

i). the firm had recently conducted their own, internal, assessments, and therefore felt that participation would constitute excessive expectations for their managers;

ii). the firm had been involved in a non-leadership oriented form of professional development assessment, and felt that participation would constitute excessive expectations for their managers;

iii). the firm was undergoing significant restructuring, reengineering, and/or was involved in a merger or acquisition, and felt that participation would constitute excessive expectations for their managers.

In each and every case, organizations showed a great deal of interest in the research project. Companies were identified through various channels, including: Chambers of Commerce, business forums, business schools, and so on. The researcher actively sought not to favor any particular industry, but rather to approach a diverse set of MNCs and large Russian companies. It became clear early on that Russian companies were not used to cooperating with outside academic studies. In the end, a broad range of Russian companies were represented in the investigation; by way of executive education programs at business schools in Moscow. Several Western MNCs participated (see figure 4.1). The researcher was careful not to allow any one company or industry to dominate the response sample. Unfortunately, the only Russian company that granted permission to publish its name was Yukos Oil. Ironically, Yukos, under severe political attack and government expropriation, was forced to withdraw from participating in the investigation.

Within each participating company a “contact person” was identified. The contacts were the focal points for communication, and carried out the task of organizing the completion of the LDQs. In most cases, the contact person was an HR professional; although in a couple of cases they were personal assistants to senior managers; or even senior managers themselves. This arrangement seemed ideal when the research model was developed.

Given the logistical reality, the researcher felt this to be the best arrangement available; although it required vast amounts of constant supervision on the part of the researcher. Even given the fact that the participating companies seemed eager to cooperate and comply, it was difficult for their managers to “find time” outside of their duties to fill in the somewhat comprehensive questionnaires. The original research model proposed the use of the online LDQ; for the sake of convenience and expediting data analysis. However, certain constraints resulted in the use of both online and paper-based LDQs for the study. Several of the companies’ computer security networks would not allow managers to access the necessary online link used to complete the LDQ via the Internet, and/or submit data from the companies’ intranet network to outside domains.

Figure 4.1 Foreign Organizations Represented

American Express	Nestle Foods	Price Waterhouse Coopers	Citigroup
Coca-Cola	AC Nielsen	Ford Motor Company	Sumitec
Caterpillar	Alcatel	CSC Pharmaceuticals	Radisson/SAS
ABN Amro	Philips	Siemens	Mars
British-American Tobacco	Boston Consulting	AIG	SunGroup

4.3 Characteristics of Sample

This section presents the characteristics of the respondents (see table 4.2). The researcher attempted to identify a broad and diverse sample base that did not heavily represent one type of company (foreign or domestic), industry, functional area, gender, age group, etc. Identifying Russian organizations was far more difficult than attracting their foreign MNC counterparts. The author believes this is largely due to the rather short period of time since the fall of the Soviet Union, and therefore a lingering distrust of outsiders coupled with a strong dislike of sharing company data with non-employee researchers. Luckily, the researcher was able to overcome this hurdle by utilizing business contacts and less threatening networking channels (including Thunderbird alumni).

Table 4.2 Characteristics of Respondents

Positions	140 respondents described their positions as managers, with 6 in technical support, 4 in administration, and 2 in business education (although all met the criterion of having direct reports, and as such met the definition of "manager" used for this study).
Function	The distribution of respondents according to functional area was: Marketing/Sales 33%, Finance & Administration 28%, General Management 13%, HR/Training 8%, Technical/IT 6%, Manufacturing/Operations 4%, R&D 2%, Other 6%.
Company Type/Sector	30% of the respondents worked for Russian companies (8 firms; 70% foreign, 20 firms). Approximately 10% of the respondents indicated they were working for a not-for-profit, whilst nearly 20% worked within the public sector, 65% within the private sector, and the remainder made no indication.
Gender	44% of all responding managers were male (56% female).
Age & Education	The mean age of the sample was 32, with a standard deviation of 7.074 (age range was 19 to 56). 66% of respondents reported to hold higher degrees, 20% with professional qualifications, 12% held first degrees, and 2% had not pursued higher education.
Response Rate	There was an overall response rate of 90.5%.LDQs collected in-house had an 84% response rate, whilst those distributed by the author through business schools had a response rate of 97%. Only 3.9% of the respondents' LDQs required removal from the sample due to insufficient completion; "Missing data typically arise because of data collection or data entry problems. The business researcher must assess how widespread the missing data problem is and whether or not it is systematic or random If the problem is of limited scope, the typical solution is to simply eliminate respondents and/or questions with missing data" (Hair et al., 2003, pp. 229-230). As these respondents represented isolated or "random" cases, rather than proving to be indicators of a systemic problem, the researcher took a conservative position, disqualifying the surveys from the research sample.

Table 4.3a Dispersion Table for Sample Based on Age

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Age	152	19	56	32,41	7,07

Table 4.3b Frequency Table for Sample Based on Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	68	44,74
Female	84	55,26
Total	152	100

Table 4.3c Frequency Table for Sample Based on Industry Sector

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Private	102	67,1	68,9
Public	31	20,4	20,9
NFP	15	9,9	10,1
Total	148	97,4	100,0
Missing	4	2,6	
	152	100	

Table 4.3d Frequency Table for Sample Based on Job Function

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gen Management	19	12,5	12,5
Marketing/Sales	50	32,9	45,4
HRM/Training	11	7,2	52,6
Finance	42	27,6	80,3
R & D	3	2,0	82,2
Manufacturing	9	5,9	88,2
Technical	10	6,6	94,7
Other	8	5,3	100,0
Total	152	100	100

Table 4.3e Frequency Table for Sample Based on Education

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Missing	2	1,3	1,3	1,3
A Level or equivalent	2	1,3	1,3	2,7
1st Degree	17	11,2	11,3	14,0
Higher Degree	101	66,4	67,3	81,3
Professional Qualification	28	18,4	18,7	100,0
Total	150	98,7	100,0	
Missing	2	1,3		
Total	152	100		

4.4 Testing the Hypotheses

In keeping with similar studies (most notably those carried our in the UK by Dulewicz and Higgs against which common statistical data will be compared within this section), the author shall rely more heavily on “inferential” as opposed to “descriptive” statistics; descriptive statistics merely summarize data, whilst inferential statistics ‘[are] used when we want to test hypotheses using samples, with the intention of creating inferences about the population” (Triola and Franklin, 1994, p. 24). Descriptive statistics will be presented as deemed to be appropriate; largely for the benefit of the reader in establishing foundational understanding of the data that supports particular hypotheses and the overall research thesis. T-tests will be used extensively, as they are the appropriate statistic for use with scales such as the LDQ (Hair et al., 2003), and, “assess whether the differences between two sample means are [statistically} significant” (Hair et al., 2003, p. 421); a critical criterion for the hypotheses being tested. Furthermore, several interesting findings mentioned within the literature review (chapter 2) applied this technique, making comparison of the findings between the studies more accurate.

When applying t-tests a “normal” distribution can be assumed for the sample population (even though non-normal distributions will usually give accurate results as well, due to the robustness of the t-test; Hair et al., 2003). In addition, “skewness” and “kurtosis”, and “variance” do not apply, as the t-test is a uniform, bell-shaped, distribution with variance being equal (Hair et al., 2003). For demonstration purposes, the author offers the results of dispersion analyses conducted to test the above premise (see Appendix). Null hypotheses shall be employed by the author within this section, to assist in testing the original research hypotheses.

4.2.1: H1. The intellectual (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial (MQ), competencies of the Russian managers will demonstrate statistically significant relationships with one another.

In 1998, Goleman published his definition of Emotional Intelligence in the follow-up to his bestseller *Emotional Intelligence* (1995); the second book was entitled *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. Goleman’s definition was modeled in competency terms (see chapter 2). Dulewicz and Higgs developed their own EQ instrument (the EIQ; 1999), following an extensive review of the EI literature. Goleman (1998) further developed his initial deduction (1995) as to the vital role EI played in leader effectiveness. Salovey and Mayer (1995), two of the pioneers of Goleman’s model (although Goleman adapted the model into competency terms), supported this conclusion.

Other scholars followed suit. Bennis (1989) asserts ‘that within his professional competency range, Emotional Intelligence is superior to IQ in determining leaders’. Such attention spurred Dulewicz and Higgs to investigate this claim. Discovering strong correlations between the competencies in their EIQ and the components of several leadership models, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) designed their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) employed for this study. Goleman (1998) posed that IQ + EQ = leadership success. The LDQ reflects Dulewicz and Higgs’ model that extends this formula to include managerial competencies (MQ). Therefore, Dulewicz and Higgs’ model (2003) represents that IQ + EQ + MQ = leadership success. Thus, based on the literature, one could expect there to be significant levels of correlation between these three constructs.

Hypothesis 1 requires correlation analysis in order to determine ‘the association between the metric variables’ (i.e., IQ, EQ, and MQ competencies), as well as ‘the strength of the associations, as measured by the correlation coefficient (r)’ (Hair et al., 2003; Triola and Franklin, 1994). The “null hypothesis” maintains that there is no statistically significant correlation between the 15 LDQ dimensions. As mentioned within the previous chapter, the measurement instrument applied in this research was the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ), designed by Dulewicz and Higgs, at Henley Management College. The questionnaire can be used to assess the competencies of an individual within the three areas of cognitive competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial competencies (MQ).

Table 4.4a illustrates the correlations between the competencies within each of the 3 constructs (IQ, EQ, and MQ), largely supporting the hypothesis; the main exception being “intuitiveness”.

~~~~~~**table 4.4a (see inserted table)** ~~~~

Table 4.4b presents the mean and distribution of the sample scores for all 15 dimensions, revealing a relatively low mean (29.3) for the Russian manager-sample on the dimension of “intuitiveness”. Furthermore, the minimum and maximum scores for this competency are quite low (15 and 43). Table 4.4c highlights the UK norms group from Dulewicz and Higgs’ database of respondents alongside the Russian sample. The mean scores of the UK database were inserted as the t-tests’ “test values” when running the model. Each dimension was compared on its own with the test variables. The results of the analyses indicate that all dimensions (with the exception of “intuitiveness”) differ between the Russian manager-sample and the UK control group, at
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statistically significant levels (see table 4.4c). Further note that “intuitiveness” has the lowest mean score out of the 15 dimensions. For both groups, the mean scores for “intuitiveness’, represent the lowest and most variable scores of all the 15 dimensions (see std. dev’s in table 4.4c). The results appear to align with the cross-cultural literature in this area. The GLOBE researchers identified ‘intuitiveness” as an attribute that was “non-universal”, meaning that it varied dramatically across cultures (House et al., 2001).

Prima facie, one notices the similarities between the Russian and UK profiles, which is verified when the means of both samples are rank-ordered (highest to lowest; see appropriate columns in table 4.4c). The rank-ordering reveals less of a difference than the original straight relationship analysis might imply. Nonetheless, within the context of leadership style, significant differences reemerge. The UK norm group favors the “transformational” style of leadership, closely followed by the “transactional” style, whilst over 90% of the Russian group assessed themselves within the “involving” style.

”Intuitiveness” is often times categorized as a conceptual skill (versus technical or analytical; Yukl, 2002). Jung identified three psychological types or dimensions: introversion-extraversion, thinking-feeling, and sensing-intuition (Meyers and Briggs later added a fourth dimension; judging-perceiving). Within this framework, intuitive people take a macro focus, making decisions with more abstract information, in contrast with sensing types who utilize facts and hard data (Quinn, 2003). It is possible that Russian managers are reluctant to make decisions based on ambiguous and/or limited information. One must recognize that Russians have been accustomed to “top-down”, more transactional leadership approaches, with very little tolerance for mistakes and/or poor judgment. In the author’s experience, Russians are “risk averse”, which is supported by Hofstede’s (1993) conclusion that Russians are amongst the highest national groups who “avoid uncertainty”.

Table 4.4b Measures of LDQ Mean and Variance for Sample

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic
Critical Analysis	152	24	50	38.58
Vision	152	25	45	34.08
Perspective	152	28	50	38.91
Manag. Resources	152	31	50	39.43
Self-awareness	152	29	50	40.62
Em. Resilience	152	24	50	36.75
Intuitiveness	152	15	43	29.28
Sensitivity	152	27	50	39.86
Influencing	152	21	50	36.95
Communication	152	29	50	40.16
Empowering	152	28	50	37.51
Developing	152	29	50	39.88
Motivation	152	27	48	37.18
Achieving	152	28	46	36.17
Conscientious	152	28	50	40.36

*All scores are "Low" according to Dulewicz and Higgs' (2003) standards of interpretation

Table 4.4c UK/Russia Comparison of LDQ Group Means

	Russian Sample Raw Scores			UK Norms		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank
Critical Analysis	38.6	3.8	8	40.9	3.8	7
Vision	34.1	3.7	14	36.7	4.4	14
Perspective	38.9	4.2	7	39.6	4.1	8
Manag. Resources	39.4	3.6	6	41.1	4.3	6, 5
Self-awareness	40.6	4.4	1	43.0	3.6	1
Em. Resilience	36.8	4.5	12	38.0	4.1	11
Intuitiveness	29.3	5.2	15	33.2	4.6	15
Sensitivity	39.9	4.2	5, 4	42.0	3.7	3S
Influencing	36.9	3.9	11	37.7	3.5	12
Communication	40.2	4.2	3	42.2	4.1	2
Empowering	37.5	3.7	9	39.5	3.7	10, 9
Developing	39.9	4.6	5, 4	41.1	4.4	6, 5
Motivation	37.2	3.6	10	39.5	3.6	10, 9
Achieving	36.2	3.1	13	37.0	3.6	13
Conscientiousness	40.4	3.9	2	41.7	3.5	4

(source for UK data, Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003)

O'Dell and Grayson (1998) mention "explicit" and "tacit" knowledge, within the context of knowledge transfer within organizations. The former being knowledge that can be recorded and readily transferred within the organization through manuals, handbooks, etc… whilst the latter (tacit) knowledge is less formal, thereby not being as interactive and compatible with mainstream organizational knowledge transfer methods (Pfeffer and Sutton, 2000). Tacit knowledge usually takes the form of 'know-how, judgment, intuition, and experiential sense (gut feelings and tricks-of-the-trade). O'Dell and Grayson (1998) heavily underscore that it's the tacit forms of knowledge that most organizations fail to pass on within the organization. The high level of variance (std. dev.) concerning intuitiveness leads the researcher to believe that for both Russian and UK managers, those capable of developing their intuitive skills end up in more senior executive positions within large companies.

4.4.2 H2a: The three constructs, (IQ, EQ, and MQ) will be demonstrated by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions, at a statistically significant level.

H2b: Overall Emotional Intelligence (EQ) will be demonstrated, at a more statistically significant level, by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions (compared with more junior managers).

4.4.3 H3a: Overall Intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and Managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to leadership performance at a statistically significant level.

H3b: Overall Intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and Managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to follower commitment at a statistically significant level.

The null hypotheses maintain that: a). IQ, EQ, and MQ will not be demonstrated by senior Russian managers at a statistically significant level, and; b). there will be no statistically significant differences in the overall EQ, as demonstrated by Russian managers in more senior positions within the companies (when compared with their more junior counterparts). The t-test for "equality of means" (table 4.5a) compares the means for overall IQ, EQ, and MQ, with the sample separated into two groups, defined by the number of organizational levels between the respondent-manager and their CEO (Country Manager). The last column verifies that the differences in the three means for the two groups are statistically significant (.01, .03, and .04).

Table 4.5a t-Test for Equality of Means by Level Between Manager and the CEO							
		Group Statistics			**t-test for Equality of Means**		
	Level	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**T**	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
IQ Mean	**>= 2**	**89**	**-0,15**	**0,84**	**-2,64**	**150**	**,010**
	< 2	**63**	**0,21**	**0,77**			
EQ Mean	**>= 2**	**89**	**-0,09**	**0,56**	**-2,23**	**150**	***,030***
	< 2	**63**	**0,13**	**0,67**			
MQ Mean	**>= 2**	**89**	**-0,12**	**0,81**	**-2,11**	**150**	***,040***
	< 2	**63**	**0,16**	**0,79**			

Table 4.5b illustrates the results of a group t-test for equality of means between the junior and senior managers. The analysis indicates statistically significant differences (.000, .020, .020, .040, and .000) for the dimensions of: “vision”, “intuitiveness”, “communication”, “motivation”, and “achieving”. Therefore, the null hypothesis for 4.2a can be wholly discarded, whilst hypothesis 4.2b has been partially supported.

Table 4.5b Group Statistics t-Test for Equality of Means

	Level	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Critical Analysis	>= 2	89	-0,07	1,05	-1,06	150	,290
	< 2	63	0,10	0,92			
Vision	>= 2	89	-0,26	0,99	-3,93	150	,000
	< 2	63	0,36	0,90			
Perspective	>= 2	89	-0,11	0,98	-1,64	150	,100
	< 2	63	0,16	1,02			
Manag. Resources	>= 2	89	-0,12	1,01	-1,78	150	,080
	< 2	63	0,17	0,96			
Self-awareness	>= 2	89	-0,11	1,01	-1,57	150	,120
	< 2	63	0,15	0,97			
Emotional Resilience	>= 2	89	-0,10	0,99	-1,45	150	,150
	< 2	63	0,14	1,01			
Intuitiveness	*>= 2*	*89*	*-0,15*	*1,00*	*-2,30*	*150*	*,020*
	< 2	*63*	*0,22*	*0,96*			
Sensitivity	>= 2	89	0,03	0,95	0,46	150	,640
	< 2	63	-0,04	1,08			
Influencing	>= 2	89	-0,12	0,91	-1,71	150	,090
	< 2	63	0,16	1,11			
Communication	*>= 2*	*89*	*-0,16*	*0,94*	*-2,43*	*150*	*,020*
	< 2	*63*	*0,23*	*1,04*			
Empowering	>= 2	89	-0,04	1,02	-0,53	150	,600
	< 2	63	0,05	0,98			
Developing	>= 2	89	-0,01	0,99	-0,21	150	,830
	< 2	63	0,02	1,02			
Motivation	*>= 2*	*89*	*-0,14*	*0,92*	*-2,03*	*150*	*,040*
	< 2	*63*	*0,19*	*1,08*			
Achieving	>= 2	89	-0,24	0,92	-3,70	150	,000
	< 2	63	0,34	1,02			
Conscientious	>= 2	89	-0,06	1,01	-0,94	150	,350
	< 2	63	0,09	0,99			

Seniority within an organization certainly represents a higher level of leadership, but it could also be argued that successful leadership should be an important measure of any manager. Key research has established links between leadership, the EQ dimensions of the LDQ, and current performance (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000; Dulewicz, Higgs, and Slaski, 2003; Young, 2004), as well as their relationship with followers' commitment (Kaipianinen, 2004; Young, 2004). Other scholars have reported that the commitment of followers is a reflection of leader performance – recognizing a positive correlation between the two possible leadership measures (Kouzes and Posner, 1998; Goffee and Jones, 2000; Young, 2004).

The null hypotheses state that the three constructs (IQ, EQ, and MQ) do not contribute to “leadership performance” and “follower commitment” at statistically significant levels. The results of a correlation analysis (presented in table 4.6a) shows the overall mean of each of the three leadership components (e.g., IQ, EQ, and MQ), and the strength of their correlations with “leadership performance” (r = correlation coefficient) as well as the significance of the stated correlation. All three means are highly significant, and each contributes to overall leadership performance and follower commitment. Table 4.6a indicates that overall IQ, EQ, and MQ are all significantly correlated with leader performance and follower commitment (sig.= 0.00).

Table 4.6a Correlations between LDQ Dimensions and:
a). Leader Performance b). Follower Commitment

IQ Mean	**R**	**0.29**	**.240**
	Sig.	**0.00**	**.000**
EQ Mean	**R**	**0.30**	**.220**
	Sig.	**0.00**	**.000**
MQ Mean	**R**	**0.37**	**.240**
	Sig.	**0.00**	**.000**
	N	**152**	**152**

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.6b continues the analysis comparing all 15 dimensions individually with leadership performance and follower commitment. The results indicate that many of the competencies are correlated with leadership performance and/or follower commitment at a statistically significant level (see highlighted factors), with only “conscientiousness” and “intuitiveness” being the exceptions.

Table 4.6b Correlations: LDQ Dimensions and;
a). Leader Performance and b). Follower Commitment

IQ Dimensions		Leader Performance	Follower Commitment
Critical Analysis	R	.150	0.20
	Sig.	.060	.010
Vision	R	.310	*0.18*
	Sig.	.000	*.020*
Perspective	R	.260	0.21
	Sig.	.000	.010
EQ Dimensions			
Self-awareness	R	.240	.230
	Sig.	.000	.000
Em. Resilience	R	.250	*.170*
	Sig.	.000	*.040*
Intuitiveness	R	.000	-.140
	Sig.	.980	.090
Sensitivity	R	*.180*	.290
	Sig.	*.030*	.000
Influencing	R	.220	*.180*
	Sig.	.010	*.020*
Motivation	R	.270	.090
	Sig.	.000	.250
Conscientious	R	.140	.120
	Sig.	.080	.140
MQ Dimensions			
Managing Resources	R	.290	.220
	Sig.	.000	.010
Communication	R	.400	.260
	Sig.	.000	.000
Empowering	R	.200	.260
	Sig.	.010	.000
Developing	R	.310	.210
	Sig.	.000	.010
Achieving	R	.290	.040
	Sig.	.000	.660

Proceeding, a stepwise regression was conducted in order to determine the possible predictability of the 15 independent variables in regards to the dependent variables (leader performance and follower commitment). The results are presented for each of the two dependent variables (see tables 4.6c (I – iii), and 4.6d (I – iii). Table 4.6c (i) reveals that "communication" accounts for 14.2 % (R^2 = .142) of the total variance in leader performance. The ANOVA analysis (table 4.6c ii) verifies that the two variables have a strong (F statistic) and highly statistically significant (sig =.000) relationship. Communication has a strong influence on follower commitment (St. Beta = .377). Furthermore, both tolerance and VIF (variable inflation factor) indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem; tolerance > .10 and VIF is less than +5; Collinearity Statistics, table 4.6c (iii) (Triola and Franklin, 1994).

Table 4.6c (i) Model Summary for Leader Performance

Model	*R*	*R Square*	*Adjusted R Square*	*Std. Error of the Estimate*
1	,377(a)	,142	,137	2,26

A Predictors: (Constant), Communication

Table 4.6c (ii) ANOVA Results

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	126,59	1	126,59	24,88	,000(a)
	Residual	763,29	150	5,09		
	Total	889,89	151			

A Predictors: (Constant), Communication
B Dependent Variable: Leader Performance

Table 4.6c (iii) Regression Coefficients for Stepwise Regression Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	20,01	,501		39,97	,000		
	Communication	,49	,098	,377	4,99	,000	1,000	1,000

A Dependent Variable: Leader Performance

Conducting a similar analysis with follower commitment as the dependent variable produces the statistical results presented in tables 4.6d (i – iii). Table 4.6d (i) indicates that when the variable “sensitivity” entered the regression, it accounted for 8% of the variance between the variables (sensitivity and follower commitment), with the addition of “communication” to the regression, the combined variables accounted for nearly 11% of the variance. The ANOVA analysis (table 4.6d (ii) highlights that the relationships between the variables are reasonably strong (F-statistic), and at a highly statistically significant level (sig. = .000). Sensitivity has a slightly stronger influence on follower commitment than communication (St. Betas .21 and .19). As with the first regression analysis, there is no problem with multicollinearity between the variables (table 4.6d iii; tolerance > .10 and VIF is less than +5). Therefore, the level of statistical significance for the two stepwise regression analyses can be accepted as accurate.

Table 4.6d (i) Model Summary for Follower Commitment

Model	*R*	*R Square*	*Adjusted R Square*	*Std. Error of the Estimate*
1	,282(a)	,080	,080	,073
2	,330(b)	,109	,109	,097

a Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity
b Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication

Table 4.6d (ii) ANOVA Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	65,79	1	65,79	12,96	,000(a)
	Residual	761,55	150	5,08		
	Total	827,34	151			
2	Regression	90,17	2	45,08	9,11	,000(b)
	Residual	737,17	149	4,95		
	Total	827,34	151			

a Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity
b Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication
c Dependent Variable: Follower Commitment

Table 4.6d (iii) Regression Coefficients for Stepwise Regression Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	15,36	,475		32,30	,000		
	Sensitivity	,34	,094	,28	3,60	,000	1,00	1,00
2	(Constant)	14,67	,562		26,10	,000		
	Sensitivity	,25	,102	,21	2,42	,017	,83	1,20
	Communication	,23	,106	,19	2,22	,028	,83	1,20

a Dependent Variable: Follower Commitment

The regression analyses have revealed that “communication” is a statistically significant predictor of leadership performance, whilst “sensitivity” and “communication” are statistically significant in predicting follower commitment. Hypothesis 4b is partially supported. Therefore, the variable “communication” can be used as a predictor of leader performance, and the variables “sensitivity” and “communication” support the prediction of follower commitment – both relationships being highly statistically significant (i.e., leader performance and follower commitment).

The researcher first established significant associations (or linkages) between several of the LDQ’s independent variables, and the dependent variables “leader performance” and “follower commitment” via a correlation analysis (see table 4.6b). The author then performed stepwise regressions to determine whether any of the variables associated at statistically significant levels were in fact predictive of leader performance and follower commitment (the impact of the variables and their power of determination), and if so, the relative strength of this predictive association (Hair et al., 2003); see tables 4.6c (i-iii) and tables 4.6d (i-iii). The stepwise regression models identified “communication” as being a significant predictor of leader performance, whilst “sensitivity” and “communication” showed significant predictive associations with follower commitment.

> **With this approach [forward stepwise regression] each independent variable is considered for inclusion in the regression prior to developing the equation. The first variable to be selected for inclusion in the regression is the one that contributes the most towards predicting the dependent variable [for leader performance the main significant contributor was "communication", whilst for follower commitment the main significant contributor was 'sensitivity]. Following the inclusion of the first significant independent variable in the regression, all other independent variables are examined again and the variable that now contributes the most toward predicting the remaining unexplained variance in the dependent variable is included (assuming the new variable is not highly correlated with the already included ones)[for leader performance no other variable proved to be a significant contributor, whilst for follower commitment "communication" was identified as contributing significantly]. This process continues until only variables that are uncorrelated and have significant standardized Beta coefficients remain [in the model]. (Hair et al., 2003, p. 307)**

As a follow-up to a forward stepwise regression analysis (or as an alternative approach to the stepwise regression), one can apply a manual hierarchical linear regression that reveals all the models and steps being considered during the analysis process (whereas with the stepwise approach, the steps are hidden whilst the software completes the computations). Essentially, the researcher enters blocks of variables into the regression, as described above by Hair et al., in accordance to the strength of their correlations; e.g., block 1 contains the variable with the most contribution, block 2 retains the first variable from block 1, and adds the second most contributing variable to the model. This process continues, manually, until all significantly contributing variables are included in the final block. Then the regression is run, and the researcher can analyze the data, determining which model exhibits the most significantly contributing independent variables to the dependent variable selected.

However, one should not expect the results to vary from that of the stepwise regression; as they are making the same mathematical calculations, only via different approaches; in one case (the manual hierarchical regression), the variables are selected and entered manually, by the researcher, forcing the data comparisons to be made in a selective way, whilst with the other approach (stepwise), the computer software program is taking the decisions the researcher would have taken with the manual analysis (Triola and Franklin, 1978). Since the researcher requires a certain level of confidence concerning the predictive nature and associations of the independent variables and the two dependent variables (leader performance and follower commitment), he has applied manual hierarchical regression analyses to both dependent variables; see tables 4.6ei-iii) and 4.6f(i-iii) as a final check.

When analyzing the data from a hierarchical regression analysis, it is important to adhere to the following steps:

- I). assess the statistical significance of the overall regression model using the F-statistic;
- ii). if the F-statistic is significant, then evaluate the $R^{2;}$
- iii). examine each of the regression coefficients and their t-statistics to determine which independent variables have statistically significant coefficients;
- iv). look at the Beta coefficients [standardized] to determine the relative influence of each of the identified independent variables. (Hair et al., 2003)

Tables 4.6e(i-iii) and 4.6f(i-iii) represent the valid models of all regression models run (see table D(i-vi) within the Appendix illustrates the results for all regression models run). Whilst the F-statistic shows that the models have “good fits” in predicting the dependent variable; see table 4.6e(i). The R^ss of the two models show that both models account for significant levels of variance in the dependent variable; see table 4.6e(ii). However, table 4.6e(iii) reveals that only the first variable loaded into the regression (communication) is statistically significant in its relationship (t = 5.351 at sig.=.000) whilst “vision” is not (t = 1.314 at sig. = .191); which is why “vision’ and the other independent variables were extracted from the earlier stepwise regression leaving only “communication” as a significant predictor. The standardized Beta is significant, confirming that the association between the independent and dependent variables is “true” and not due to sampling error. Regression model 2 has been included in this discussion for demonstration purposes; as it was shown to be statistically invalid.

Table 4.6e(i) ANOVA[c] Leader Performance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	142,642	1	142,642	28,634	,000[a]
	Residual	747,246	150	4,982		
	Total	889,888	151			
2	Regression	151,201	2	75,601	15,249	,000[b]
	Residual	738,687	149	4,958		
	Total	889,888	151			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication

b. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision

c. Dependent Variable: Leader Performance

Table 4.6e(ii) Hierarchical Regression Model Summary for Leader Performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,400[a]	,160	,155	2,232
2	,412[b]	,170	,159	2,227

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication

b. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision

Table 4.6e(iii) Hierarchical Regression Coefficients[a] for Leader Performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13,119	1,732		7,575	,000
	Communication	,229	,043	,400	5,351	,000
2	(Constant)	11,975	1,935		6,189	,000
	Communication	,192	,052	,334	3,712	,000
	Vision	,078	,060	,118	1,314	,191

a. Dependent Variable: Leader Performance

However, the results of the regression analysis applied to “follower commitment” presents only the significant models. The same procedure as above was applied to the dependent variable “follower commitment” also demonstrating no deviation from the earlier discussed stepwise regression analysis; see tables 4.6f(i-iii). The F-statistics for both models (1 and 2) are significant, as is are the R^2s. First assessing the t- statistic for model 1 we note that it is significant, so we next look at model 2, which is just within our acceptable level of confidence (sig. = .10 and .05 respectively; sig.>.05 is unacceptable for this research).

As mentioned previously, the full analyses of all models included in the hierarchical regressions are available in the Appendix, tables D(i-vi), as they were rejected by the researcher during the assessment process. Given that the follow-up hierarchical regressions to the stepwise regressions further substantiate that the independent variable “communication” is a significant predictor of “leadership performance”, and the independent variables “sensitivity” and “communication” both contribute significantly to predicting “follower commitment”, the researcher can report these findings with a high level of confidence.

Table 4.6f(i) ANOVA[c] Follower Commitment

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	69,564	1	69,564	13,770	,000[a]
	Residual	757,778	150	5,052		
	Total	827,342	151			
2	Regression	88,864	2	44,432	8,965	,000[b]
	Residual	738,478	149	4,956		
	Total	827,342	151			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication

c. Dependent Variable: Follower Commit

Table 4.6f(ii) Hierarchical Regression Model Summary for Follower Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,290[a]	,084	,078	2,248
2	,328[b]	,107	,095	2,226

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication

Table 4.6f(iii) Hierarchical Regression Coefficients[a] for Follower Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10,495	1,745		6,015	,000
	Sensitivity	,162	,044	,290	3,711	,000
2	(Constant)	8,311	2,052		4,050	,000
	Sensitivity	,123	,047	,221	2,596	,010
	Communication	,093	,047	,168	1,973	,050

a. Dependent Variable: Follower Commit

The author's study involving 152 Russian managers adds further support to the already existing academic literature. Replicating earlier studies (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003) the Russian managers were identified as being more senior based on fewer organizational levels between themselves and their CEOs (Senior Executives). This distinction was highlighted at two levels (fewer than two levels designating the most senior managers within the Russian manager-sample). The three constructs, IQ, EQ, and MQ, were found to have statistically significant relationships with the Russian manager-sample based on seniority. Moreover, the results reveal statistically significant differences for several of the individual dimensions. Employing the LDQ, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) reported strong correlations between the dimensions: "achieving", "self-awareness", "motivation", and "influence" and the age of UK manager respondents. Certainly within the

Anglo-Saxon system of corporate promotion, age/experience traditionally play important roles as promotion criteria.

The Russian manager-group supports the above hypotheses. IQ, EQ, and MQ are all displayed at statistically more significant levels for senior managers. What's more, "vision", "communication", "motivation", "achieving" and "intuitiveness" are statistically different between the senior and junior levels of management; "achieving" and "vision" being the most significant (sig.= .000). Vision is central to several leadership models (incl. Transformational and Charismatic), and is more-often-than-not associated with the responsibilities of senior managers (along with other strategic roles).

Kotter (1990; 1996) emphasizes the importance of vision in aligning followers, further promoting the critical nature of communication in conveying the vision to followers and gaining their support through motivation and attaining short-term achievements towards the overall vision. Kotter would argue that the above competencies are all interrelated and possibly interdependent. The GLOBE project profiled the Russian manager as being "**visionary**", "inspirational"; "positive", "dynamic", a "**motivator"**, one who builds confidence (a good **communicator**); performance (**achievement**) oriented; and lacking "**intuitiveness**".

This profile seems to lean more towards the "transformational" style of leadership than the "transactional" Soviet style (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Concerning leadership performance and follower commitment, both competencies found to be predictive dimensions are common to several leadership models e.g., (engaging) "communication"; Bass and Avolio; charismatic, inspirational; Kotter; (interpersonal) "sensitivity"; Bass and Avolio; charismatic, provide support and feedback; Kotter; aligning people.

Much research has pursued the premise that managers at varying levels within organizations assume distinctively different roles and responsibilities (i.e., Katz and Kahn, 1978). Studies have also shown that senior level managers spend more time interacting and communicating with persons outside their organizations (Luthans et al., 1985; Michael and Yukl, 1993). In 1995, Goleman popularized Emotional Intelligence (EQ) in his bestselling book of the same title. More than anything else, Goleman initiated interest in the relative importance of non-cognitive competencies. Ensuing management research further grounded his proposal. In 1995, referring to a study he conducted involving managers in several blue chip companies, Goleman maintained that:

> **For success at the highest levels, in leadership positions, emotional competency accounts for virtually the entire advantage (1995, p. 35)." He went on to say that: "Emotional competency is particularly central to leadership, a role whose essence is getting others to do their jobs more effectively. Interpersonal ineptitude in leaders lowers everyone's performance: It wastes time, creates acrimony, corrodes motivation and commitment, (sic) builds hostility and apathy. A leader's strengths or weaknesses in emotional competency can be measured in the gain or loss to the organization of the fullest talents of those they manage (1995, p. 32).**

Further inquiry into the importance of emotional aspects of the leader for effective leadership has also supported the overall significance of EQ for managers' success within organizations (Cacioppe, 1997; Sosik and Magerian; 1999), suggesting a link between EQ and leadership (Goffee and Jones, 2000; Chaudry, 2001; Higgs and Rowland, 2001). Goleman' s formula was expanded by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000), whose research revealed the equation to be incomplete without accounting for more "job - specific" competencies (MQ); thus proposing that IQ, EQ, and MQ were all critical components of leadership success. Adding the dimension of seniority within an organization, several studies' results corresponded with Goleman's (1998) assertion that Emotional Intelligence becomes more important at higher levels of organizational leadership

(Dulewicz and Gay, 1997; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2002; 2003; Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002). A study within the Royal Navy showed a distinct demand for EI at the officer level, but not at the enlisted or "*Rating"* level of the armed force (Young, 2004).

4.4.4 H4a: Within the Russian manager-sample, the overall EI of the females will be higher than that of their male counterparts.

H4b: Within the Russian manager-sample, females and males will demonstrate distinctively different leadership styles.

Dulewicz and Higgs' (2003) LDQ measures leadership style as assessed by the respondent. Their model extends the "Transformational model" first presented by Burns (1978), and later developed by Bass (1985), by adding a third, intermediary style, (involving), which is a participative style appropriate for contexts of 'significant but not transformational levels of change facing the organization' (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). Dulewicz and Higgs' model consists of three styles: "goal oriented" (transactional); 'involving" (participative); and "engaging" (transformational), respectively. Bass et al. (1996) maintained that women are 'somewhat more transformational than men' in their leadership styles, also supported by Alimo-Metcalfe (1995). Other researchers have described the differences between men and women's leadership styles based on gender itself (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Gevedon, 1992; Rosener, 1995); e.g., a "great woman" theory as opposed to social norms that have influenced the behavior, or possibly compensated for male-bias (Bass et al., 1996).

Hypotheses 4a and 4b postulate that there will be statistically significant differences in the overall Emotional Intelligence and demonstrated leadership styles of the two genders represented within the Russian manager-sample. The corresponding null hypotheses maintain that no statistically significant differences exist. Therefore, the author seeks to determine if statistically significant differences exist based on these dimensions. Descriptive statistics are presented to the reader (table 4.7a) for the purpose of illustrating characteristics of the Russian sample, relevant to the hypotheses being tested.

Table 4.7b reports the results of an independent samples t-test for EQ (means) between genders, resulting in no statistically significant differences being found. A follow-up t-test on all 15 LDQ dimension scores (table 4.7c) reveals no statistically significant differences between males and females for any of the factors within the three constructs (IQ, EQ, and MQ). The author employed chi-square analysis to examine any possible differences between the two groups (male and female) based on “context” and “leadership style preference” (tables 4.7d - 4.7g). The chi-square tests also showed no support for the hypotheses, revealing no differences between the gender groups at statistically significant levels. Hypotheses 4a and 4b are not supported, and the null hypotheses cannot be discarded.

Table 4.7a Descriptive Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	68	44,74
Female	84	55,26

Table 4.7b Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
EQ Mean	1	68	,003	,579
	2	84	-,003	,647

Table 4.7c t-Test on LDQ Dimension Scores by Gender

	Gender	Group Statistics N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			t-test for Equality of Means			
Critical Analysis	Male	68	38,79	3,62	150	,530
	Female	84	38,40	3,95		
Vision	Male	68	34,38	3,76	150	,370
	Female	84	33,85	3,60		
Perspective	Male	68	38,76	3,99	150	,690
	Female	84	39,04	4,36		
Manag. Resources	Male	68	39,54	3,34	150	,740
	Female	84	39,35	3,83		
Self-awareness	Male	68	40,71	4,14	150	0,84
	Female	84	40,56	4,58		
Em. Resilience	Male	68	37,09	4,02	150	,410
	Female	84	36,48	4,93		
Intuitiveness	Male	68	29,03	5,14	150	,590
	Female	84	29,49	5,20		
Sensitivity	Male	68	39,90	4,57	150	,910
	Female	84	39,82	3,91		
Influencing	Male	68	37,26	3,78	150	,370
	Female	84	36,69	4,01		
Communication	Male	68	39,59	3,83	150	,130
	Female	84	40,63	4,51		
Empowering	Male	68	37,46	3,45	150	,880
	Female	84	37,55	3,98		
Developing	Male	68	39,22	4,58	150	,120
	Female	84	40,40	4,61		
Motivation	Male	68	37,21	3,50	150	,930
	Female	84	37,15	3,68		
Achieving	Male	68	36,31	2,87	150	,620
	Female	84	36,06	3,31		
Conscientious	Male	68	39,90	3,73	150	,190
	Female	84	40,74	3,98	no sig differences	

Table 4.7d Leadership Style (Context Range) Gender Cross Tabulation

			Male	Female	Total
			1	2	1
Context Range	1	Count	20	31	51
		Expected Count	22,8	28,1	51
	2	Count	32	35	67
		Expected Count	29,97	37	67
	3	Count	16	18	34
		Expected Count	15,21	18,78	34
Total		Count	68	84	152
		Expected Count	68	84	152

Table 4.7e Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.951	2	.620
N of Valid Cases	152		

0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,21.

Table 4.7f Style Preference * Gender Cross-Tabulation

			Gender		Total
			1	2	1
Style Preference	1	Count	3	8	11
		Expected Count	4,921053	6,07895	11
	2	Count	65	74	139
		Expected Count	62,18421	76,8158	139
	3	Count	0	2	2
		Expected Count	0,894737	1,10526	2
Total		Count	68	84	152
		Expected Count	68	84	152

Table 4.7g Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,20678278	2	.200
N of Valid Cases	152		

Concerning differences in leadership styles and behaviors between men and women, there may well be cultural aspects to consider, acknowledging that the literature on this subject is largely drawn from the UK and United States. Hofstede (1993) noted dramatic differences between the UK/US and Russia based on the dimension “Masculinity” (the polar opposite being “Femininity”); Russia scoring low. Dulewicz and Higgs (2003), utilizing the LDQ, found male managers in the UK to have statistically significantly higher scores on the LDQ dimension of “Critical Analysis” than their female colleagues.

The GLOBE findings also indicate a significant difference between Russia and its Anglo peers based on “Gender Egalitarianism”. Again, indicating that organizations in Russia do not differentiate to a great degree between the genders based on professional roles; whilst their Anglo counterparts were significantly more inclined to discriminate based on gender and position (Javidan et al., 2006). Therefore, the gender findings from the author’s study are broadly supported by key research. According to rather limited literature comparing the Emotional Intelligence of women versus men, there have been claims that significant differences exist between men and women, based on personality profiles (Goleman, 1995) and overall EI scores, with women scoring higher than men (Mayer and Geher, 1996; Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999).

This study did not support these claims. Whilst the author acknowledges that more research is needed in this area, in line with a meta-analysis conducted across cultures, differences in the level of EI have been noted between cultures; samples were from the USA, the Netherlands, and Israel (Bar-On, 2001). The research itself looked at correlations between EI and “Self-Actualization”, but reveled differences relevant to this study, not the least of which was the indication that national culture/societal factors play central roles in the fostering (or retardation) of the Emotional Intelligence of peoples.

4.4.5 **H5a:** The Russian manager-sample will recognize their business environment as being transformational.

H5b: The Russian manager-sample will demonstrate a “transformational” style of leadership.

The LDQ allows organizations to assess the leadership styles of its managers; “goal oriented” (transactional), “involving” (participative), or “engaging” (transformational). In addition, there is a scale that measures the respondent’s perception of his operating environment (internal/external). With these scores, the organization can: a. develop managers to exhibit the appropriate leadership style to match the context of the firm’s business environment, based on level of change (e.g., goal oriented/stable, involving/significant level of change, or engaging/ extreme levels of change; transformational), and; b. identify to what extent their managers’ perceptions of the operating environment are congruent with the organization’s corporate strategy; i.e., the company’s relationship with change (e.g., growth oriented, avoiding market share loss; stable, etc…).

Since the fall of the Soviet Union, Russia has been in a state of social, political, and economic transition. Post – Soviet studies have highlighted Russian managers’ intuitiveness as to the highly transitional and volatile nature of their operating environments (Holt, 1994). Moreover, Russian employees and managers have demonstrated themselves to be attuned to the deficiency of leadership needed to bridge the gap between the old command system and the new market-oriented economic system. Hypotheses 5a and 5b examine the Russian manager-sample’s astuteness at recognizing the level of change within their “modus operandi” (operating environment), in addition to determining their preferred leadership style. A frequency analysis (table 4.8a) highlights the sample’s context scores, indicating that 22.4% of the group assesses their business environment as being “transitional”, although a clear “supermajority“ (66.5%; involving + engaging) recognize an operating environment consisting of significant change. Given this breakdown, it is interesting to see that the sample's leadership style preference falls overwhelmingly within the involving style, indicating a self-reported "participative" style, characteristic of an environment with significant change – but not extreme levels (see table 4.8b).

Table 4.8a Organizational Context (Style Profile)

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Goal Oriented (1)	51	33,5	33,6
Involving (2)	67	44,1	77,6
Engaging (3)	34	22,4	100,0
Total	152	100	100

Table 4.8b Style Preference

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	11	7,2	7,2
	2	139	91,5	98,7
	3	2	1,3	100
	Total	152	100	

Furthermore, there are more Russian managers displaying a "transactional" leadership approach (goal oriented; 7.2%) than "transformational" (engaging; 1.3%). The 152 managers comprising the overall sample represent the various levels of managerial seniority within their respective companies. In addition, the companies were diverse as to their industries and sectors. Managers identified their organizations as being public, private, or Not–for–profits. Although hypotheses 5a and 5b are not fully supported by the statistical evidence presented; and the null hypotheses cannot be discarded, very interesting inferences can be drawn from the data. The author offers the following explanation. It was previously noted that the Soviet manager was characterized by a more transactional style of leadership (Blazyca, 1987; Aage, 1991; Laszlo, 1992; Elenkov, 2002). This was later highlighted by studies conducted directly after the fall of the Soviet Union, at which time managers/employees recognized a *highly* transitional environment (Holt, 1994).

Gorbachev set the stage for change with the introduction of “Perestroika”, (English translation: “rebuild”) in the late 1980s, which allowed for a limited amount of business to be conducted, as well as other social freedoms, including the availability of products and printed materials from the West. Half the sample for this comparative-cultural investigation was born between 1975 and 1986, with a further 25% born between 1970 and 1975. Therefore, approximately 75% of the respondents have been living in a highly changing environment since childhood. Given this fact, it would seem understandable for the Russian managers to identify what others term a *transformational* environment – as being one characterized by merely a *significan*t level of change. It comes down to perception.

Perhaps most important is the managers’ ability to recognize change. Nevertheless, as maintained by scholars and researchers alike (see chapters 1 and 2), Russians are in need of Western management concepts, training, and implementation experts to assist them in developing and applying the most appropriate leadership styles to match their operating environment. Russian organizational leadership seems to be “stuck in the middle”, in its transition between transactional and perhaps a more appropriate transformational approach to organizational leadership.

4.4.3 H6: Russian managers working within the private sector will demonstrate (statistically significantly) higher levels of “achieving”, “influencing”, “motivation”, and “emotional resilience”, than their public sector counterparts.

Hypothesis 6 proposes that the managers representing the private and public sectors will demonstrate significantly different levels of competency in the areas of “achieving”, “influencing”, “motivation”, and “emotional resilience”. Within the public sector group, the author has included respondents from international non-profit organizations (development organizations e.g., the UN, World Bank Group, etc…). As they are not based on competition and maintaining profitability, but rather are supported by government funding and donations, the clustering seems to be appropriate.

An independent samples t-test reveals no statistically significant differences between the private and public sector groups, based on the competencies mentioned above (see table 4.9a). An additional independent samples t-test, encompassing all 15 dimensions (IQ, EQ, and MQ), further supports the null hypothesis that ‘no statistically significant differences are present between the private-/public-sector respondents (table 4.9b).

Table 4.9a Independent Samples t-Test on LDQ Dimensions

		Group Statistics			t-test for Equality of Means		
	Sector	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Achieving	Public/ NFP	46	36,26	3,31	0,22	146	,830
	Private	102	36,14	3,09			
Influencing	Public/ NFP	46	37,74	3,52	1,59	146	,110
	Private	102	36,64	4,07			
Motivation	Public/ NFP	46	36,93	3,45	-0,54	146	,590
	Private	102	37,27	3,61			
Em. Resilience	Public/ NFP	46	36,85	4,51	0,07	146	,950
	Private	102	36,79	4,54			

no significant differences

Table 4.9b Independent t-Test on LDQ Dimension Scores by Sector

		Group Statistics			t-test for Equality of Means		
	Sector	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Critical Analysis	Public/ NFP	46	38,43	4,19	-0,27	146	,790
	Private	102	38,62	3,68			
Vision	Public/ NFP	46	33,65	2,77	-1,06	146	,290
	Private	102	34,33	3,92			
Perspective	Public/ NFP	46	38,89	4,69	0,09	146	,930
	Private	102	38,82	3,98			
Manag. Resources	Public/ NFP	46	39,28	3,78	-0,34	146	,740
	Private	102	39,50	3,59			
Self-awareness	Public/ NFP	46	40,98	4,08	0,59	146	,560
	Private	102	40,52	4,53			
Em. Resilience	Public/ NFP	46	36,85	4,51	0,07	146	,950
	Private	102	36,79	4,54			
Intuitiveness	Public/ NFP	46	29,00	4,81	-0,37	146	,710
	Private	102	29,34	5,41			
Sensitivity	Public/ NFP	46	40,46	4,27	1,20	146	,230
	Private	102	39,56	4,21			
Influencing	Public/ NFP	46	37,74	3,52	1,59	146	,110
	Private	102	36,64	4,07			
Communication	Public/ NFP	46	40,85	4,07	1,44	146	,150
	Private	102	39,78	4,19			
Empowering	Public/ NFP	46	37,52	3,78	0,22	146	,820
	Private	102	37,37	3,73			
Developing	Public/ NFP	46	40,61	4,71	1,36	146	,180
	Private	102	39,49	4,60			
Motivation	Public/ NFP	46	36,93	3,45	-0,54	146	,590
	Private	102	37,27	3,61			
Achieving	Public/ NFP	46	36,26	3,31	0,22	146	,830
	Private	102	36,14	3,09			
Conscientious	Public/ NFP	46	40,37	4,47	0,04	146	,970
	Private	102	40,34	3,64			

Boyatzis (1982) found differences in the competencies demonstrated by private and public sector managers (see chapter 2; Literature Review). Most notably were the superior competencies found in the Goal and Action Management, and Leadership clusters. The competencies identified for hypothesis 6 most closely represent those found by Boyatizis in his research, whilst at the same time having corresponding dimensions assessed by the LDQ. Although the findings of this study failed to support Boyatzis' conclusions from 1982, more recent research by Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) found no statistically significant differences demonstrated by UK managers based on sector. It is very possible that over the past two decades plus, public sector and international development agencies have been forced to become more competitive, closing the gap between the public and private sectors in terms of leadership competencies.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This study was designed as an "etic" approach to assessing the Emotional Intelligence, leadership competencies, and leadership styles of Russian managers, thereby utilizing a standardized measurement instrument (the LDQ), and allowing for comparison between and across cultures (in terms of this investigation, the comparison is being made with a UK norm group established by the authors of the questionnaire; Dulewicz and Higgs). Chapter 4 opened with a close look at the research process, paying special attention to the research activities and timeline associated with the data collection. The author next presented critical sample characteristics followed by descriptive statistics meant to orient and support the reader when proceeding to the following section devoted to testing the hypotheses. The researcher subsequently presented each hypothesis on its own, testing them with appropriate statistical techniques, supported by discussions of the results (see figure 4.2; Summary of Hypotheses Testing).

Figure 4.2 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

H1: The intellectual (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and managerial (MQ), competencies of the Russian managers will demonstrate statistically significant relationships with one another.	**Largely Supported**
H2a: The three constructs (IQ, EQ, and MQ) will be demonstrated by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions, at a statistically significant level.	**Supported**
H2b: Overall Emotional Intelligence (EQ) will be demonstrated at a more statistically significant level by the Russian managers in senior organizational positions (compared with more junior managers).	**Partially Supported**
H3a: Overall Intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and Managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to leadership performance at a statistically significant level.	**Supported**
H3b: Overall intellectual competencies (IQ), Emotional Intelligence (EQ), and Managerial competencies (MQ), will each contribute to follower commitment at a statistically significant level.	**Supported**
H4a: Within the Russian manager-sample, the overall EI of the females will be higher than that of their male counterparts.	**Not Supported**
H4b: Within the Russian manager-sample, females and males will demonstrate distinctively different leadership styles.	**Not Supported**
H5a: The Russian manager-sample will recognize their business environment as being transformational.	**Not Supported**
H5b: The Russian manager-sample will demonstrate a “Transformational” style of leadership.	**Not Supported**
H6: Russian managers working within the private sector will demonstrate (statistically significantly) higher levels of “achieving”, “influencing”, “motivation”, and “emotional resilience”, than their public sector counterparts.	**Not Supported**

With the exception of “intuitiveness”, the three constructs (IQ), (EQ), and (MQ) were highly correlated with one another for the Russian manager-sample. Whilst IQ, EQ, and MQ all contributed significantly to managers at more strategic levels of their organizations, early literature was further supported by EQ contributing more to senior executives than to their junior counterparts; “vision”. “achieving”, “motivation”, “communication”, and “intuitiveness” demonstrated the most significant difference between the senior and junior management groups. Moreover, the constructs of IQ, EQ, and MQ each contributed to leadership performance and follower commitment at statistically significant levels, with: “vision”, “perspective”, “self-awareness”, “emotional resilience”, “influencing”, “motivation”, “managing resources”, “communication”, “empowering”, “developing”, and “achieving”, demonstrating the strongest relationships with leader performance, and: “critical analysis”, “perspective”, “self awareness”, “sensitivity”, “managing resources”, “communication”, “empowering”, and “developing”, showing significant correlations with follower commitment. Furthermore, “communication” was predictive of leader performance, whilst “sensitivity” and “communication” were revealed as being predictive of follower commitment.

This investigation failed to support previous claims that female managers have significantly higher levels of EQ than their male colleagues, or even that male and female managers demonstrate diverse styles of leadership. On none of the 15 LDQ dimensions were any significant differences found between the Russian men and women participating in this research. Finally, earlier assertions that significant differences exist between the competencies of private and public sector managers was not supported by the data. In closing, although the Russian manager-sample did not demonstrate the “transformational” style of leadership, or asses their business environments as being “transformational” (as assessed by the LDQ), they did prefer the “involving” style, which is appropriate for operating environments with significant levels of change.

Chapter 4 has added considerable statistical support for several of the hypotheses (if only partially), in addition to revealing inference for the overall research question. However, statistical models and techniques, like research methods and methodologies, do not ‘create meaning’, but rather contribute to the researcher’s understanding and eventual interpretation of the data. The ultimate value of the dissemination/interpretation process is created by the inferences drawn from the data, and the accuracy of those inferences (Trochim, 1991).

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

The results from chapter 4 indicate significant levels of statistical support for most of the hypotheses, in addition to the overreaching research question. This chapter commences with a discussion of the findings within a broad framework of the supporting literature, summing up with a reminder of the initially intended contributions of this study to theory and practice. The author then presents the actual contributions made, based on the literature and findings discussed at the outset of this chapter. Acknowledging that all research has its limitations, the research's contributions is followed by a section on possible limitations, presenting several constraints identified that are specific to this investigation, as well as more general problems associated with the method/methodology utilized for this research. Chapter 5 closes with the author sharing his views on several research streams that could logically follow this study, summing up with a reflective paragraph on learning and the doctoral research requirements. Chapter 5 concludes the dissertation, with subsections consisting of a bibliography and a supporting appendix, as added resources for the reader.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

Western MNCs first brought organizational leadership development programs to Russia amidst the highly transitional 1990s, a volatile time compounded by a serious financial crisis during the latter half of the decade; virtually wiping out the Russian middle class, and sending many foreign MNCs retreating from the extremely risky Russian marketplace. Under new political leadership and a seemingly stabler socio-economic environment with the Putin administration, interest in organizational leadership was revived, this time with several strategic Russian CEOs embracing the Western philosophy of leadership development and ultimate executive "grooming" for the future benefit of their companies.

However, along with the ever-growing investment in human capital came an increasingly significant demand for up-to-date Russia-appropriate leadership development tools and consultants. Hence the practical motivation for this study was to offer organizations operating within the Russian Federation leadership development expertise to fill the growing void identified by practitioners and scholars alike.

Past research has demonstrated that more transactional styles of leadership were exhibited by Soviet and early post - Soviet managers, aligning with the Soviet “top-down” approach to management. Such traditional tendencies towards “transactional” styles of leadership were noted by researchers within Russian organizations after the fall of the Soviet Union (Luthans, 1998; Fey, 2001; Elenkov, 2002). Until recently, Russian managers have not been delegated the authority to make decisions, but rather, were skilled at accepting orders, and supervising their implementation. Taking on the responsibility of making strategic decisions meant risking blame and serious reprimand should objectives and quotas not be met.

To this end, the LDQ revealed the demonstrated style of Russian managers at present to be a participative style of “Involving”, rather than “transformational” (>90%); a style Bass asserted to be more appropriate for collective societies moving away from authoritarian styles of leadership, in favor of more democratic forms (Bass, 1990). In review, the involving style is:

> A somewhat less leader-centric set of behaviors; in this category the leader’s focus remains on providing a strong sense of direction. However, there is a more significant focus on involving others in both setting direction and, to a larger extent, in determining how goals will be achieved. (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004, p. 6)

As a standardized measurement instrument, the LDQ offers scholars and practitioners alike, the value of being able to compare leadership profiles across cultures (etic research). Within this study, significant differences were found between the Russian and UK groups on all 15 of the dimensions, with the exception of “intuitiveness’”; The GLOBE researchers described “intuitiveness” as being non-universal, finding that it varied considerably across cultures (figure 5.1 compares LDQ and GLOBE dimensions). Comparing UK versus Russian profiles based on highest to lowest means scores revealed highly similar results. However, contextualizing the competencies in the form of leadership style revealed significant differences based on this criterion. The majority of UK managers assessed themselves as “transformational”, followed by “transactional”.

Figure 5.1 Corresponding Dimensions Between GLOBE and LDQ (Russia scores)

Russia “Should be”	LDG Dimensions
Uncertainty Avoidance (H)	Critical Analysis/Strategic Perspective/Vision
Future Orientation (H)	Critical Analysis/Strategic Perspective/Vision
Power Distance (L)	Empowerment
Humane Orientation (H)	Sensitivity (Interpersonal)
Performance Orientation (H)	Achieving
Group Collectivism (H)	Conscientiousness/Motivation
Gender Egalitarianism (H)	NA (See discussion in chapter 4)
Assertiveness (H)	Sensitivity (Interpersonal)/ Developing Others

*H = High, M = Middle, L = Low

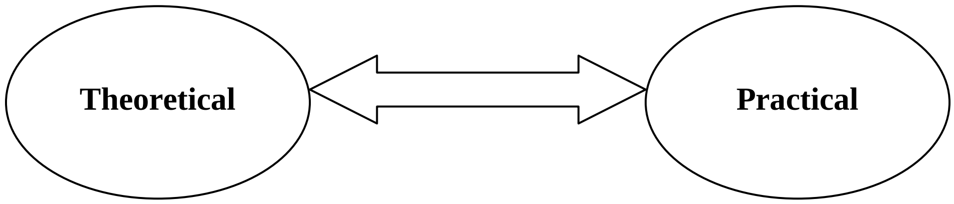
When observing Russian organizational leadership styles from the fall of the Soviet Union to the present, there appears to be a dramatic shift away from the more “transactional” Soviet style, in the direction of a more “transformational” one. Taking this into consideration, the author finds it highly likely that Western leadership development concepts and instruments (i.e., the LDQ) have the possibility of playing vital roles in bridging this gap between the past and the future, without which, the Russians may remain “stuck in the middle”.

Dulewicz and Higgs' leadership model (IQ + EQ + MQ) was supported by the results of this study. All three constructs contributed significantly to leader performance and follower commitment. Goleman's proposal that EQ plays a critical role in leadership (especially at more senior levels), was also supported by this investigation; although the EQ mean for the Russian sample was significantly lower than that of the UK group, adding to the limited literature on comparative–cultural studies assessed through the competency - Emotional Intelligence.

From this study, Hofstede's (1991) speculation that within Russian society gender equality was in the high range, seemed to align with the author's findings that male and female managers display the same leadership styles, revealing no significant differences based on the 15 LDQ dimensions and the overall constructs of IQ, EQ, and MQ. This may be the result of women having to assume more traditionally male roles within Soviet society, beginning with the rebuilding of the nation at the end of World War ll and continuing to the present with the dramatic increase in female managers and entrepreneurs within the Russian Federation (Puffer et al., 2007). Perhaps the greatest value of this study is its up-to-date and multidimensional etic approach, offering an exploratory look at Russian organizational leadership at this vital time.

5.3 Contributions to the Body of Knowledge

As noted at the beginning of this dissertation, the author set out to investigate possible relationships between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for MNCs (and large domestic companies). The results in chapter 4 seem to support there being such relationships. Russia is a country wealthy in natural resources, and whose sheer size, geographic location, and critical role within the new world order has captured the attention of the academic and business worlds alike. That said, relatively little rigorous research into organizational leadership has been conducted (see chapter 2), thereby leaving a deficit of insight into, and understanding of, this strategic nation. The contributions of this comparative-cultural investigation fall into two complimentary categories:



5.3.1 Contributions to Theory

The author would like to address the point of ‘contribution to the body of knowledge’ from several perspectives, as it is of the utmost importance to doctoral research, and it can be demonstrated in a variety of ways. Certainly value can be added to theory by way of presenting an argument in a “distinct” manner or context, adding a new perspective or dimension to an existing theoretical discussion, or even assembling an original narrative that utilizes existing theory; all of which have the potential of “shedding new light” on an important phenomenon (or phenomena) (Remenyi et al., 2000). Support for the argument that greater knowledge of Russian management/leadership, and more specifically, the need for leadership development instruments in Russia is significant, requires only that one look to the academic, industry, and popular literature; as articles on the subject abound.

Such contributions are regularly recognized through the publication of researchers’ submissions to scholar-refereed journals, conference papers, and books on management research; the academic journal being the “gold standard” of acceptance by the academic community (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Thus, it could be argued that even at the research proposal stage of this investigation, the author had already added distinctly to the body of knowledge. In support of this claim, the literature for this exploratory comparative-cultural study has been uniquely organized, thus adding a fresh look at the phenomena of Russian organizational leadership. The theoretical contribution can be evidenced by the author's first blind reviewed academic publication (Van Genderen, 2006), which amounted to an original narrative supported by appropriate literature arguing the case for developing organizational change leaders within the Russian Federation, as a catalyst for fostering a more robust private sector in Russia (see author's list of publications included in the Appendix).

Contribution to practice was first made at the data collection stage of the research process with the mutually beneficial exchange of data between the researcher and the participating MNCs/Russian companies. As noted within chapter 4, in exchange for the completion of LDQs by the respondents, the participating organizations received the computer-generated profiles as HR resources for assessing and developing their executives' leadership skills. Several of the companies acknowledged the value of these profiles, offering the author executive development positions within their companies; although the author had to politely decline due to other obligations. The effects of the internationalization of companies and markets (globalization) has resulted in a deficit of internationally adaptable and literate executives, whilst creating tremendous demand for cross-cultural data – especially concerning leadership (House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006).

Furthermore, the GLOBE project, touted as 'the most ambitious comparative-cultural leadership study – ever (House et al., 2001; Javidan et al., 2006), was recognized as a significant contribution to the body of knowledge at the proposal stage. Due to the 'lack of international leadership literature'; the US Department of Education awarded the researchers with USD 300,000.00 in support of their proposed research. The statistical findings presented and discussed in chapter 4, as well as at the outset of this chapter, could be considered distinct contributions, as they represent profiles of Russian organizational leadership that can be immediately understood on a stand-alone basis, and further offer value within the context of culturally-comparative similarities and differences between Russian managers and their Western counterparts (i.e., the UK norms group; see table 5.1).

Table 5.1 LDQ Comparative Culture Findings (Highlighting Similarities and Differences)

Dimension/Sample>>	Russia	UK
Seniority (*)	Achieving (sig. = 0.00) Intuitiveness (sig. = 0.02) Motivation (sig. = 0.04) Vision (sig. = 0.00) Comm. (sig. = 0.02)	Achieving (sig. = 0.04) Influencing (sig. = 0.03) Motivation (sig = 0.00) Self-Aware (sig.= 0.02)
Gender	No Differences	Critical Analysis
Predominant Leadership Style:		
Goal Oriented >>> (Transactional)	7%	32%
Involving >>> (Participative)	92%	24%
Engaging >>> (Transformational)	1%	44%
Emotional Intelligence	All Russian scores were below those of the UK norms group.	

source for UK data, Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003. (*) For seniority dimension, Russia was assessed using #of levels between manager and Country Manager, whilst UK managers were assessed on age.

Broadly speaking, the most valuable contribution of this study may well be its exploratory nature, creating a theoretical platform for multiple future directions and streams of research. This comparative-cultural investigation contributes to several bodies of literature, including:

i). International Leadership - i.e., as mentioned earlier, House and Associates (2001) designed their GLOBE project based on the deficit of literature concerning leadership styles from non- US and Western European countries. This study identified Russian leadership profiles, a dominant leadership style, competencies that contributed to, and others that were predictive of, leader performance/follower commitment.

ii). Management Studies - i.e., a comparison of managers' competencies across organizational levels. Duties, roles, and responsibilities vary across the organizational hierarchy, with more senior mangers usually oriented towards the long-term strategic "ends" of the business (including vision development; Shamir, 1995), middle managers being involved with "means", and line managers and supervisors overseeing operations (Etzioni, 1961).

iii). International Business (and comparative cultural studies) - i.e., this study targeted respondents from MNCs/large companies due to the fact that they operate internationally as drivers of globalization, and as such have the greatest need for understanding and developing their own multi-cultural managers, as well as those they encounter within their grater business environments (Harris et al., 1996). In addition, large companies are somewhat above the "street thug" mafia takeovers that have plagued small- and medium- sized enterprises (although government expropriation has been a problem for some MNCs; e.g. BP.

iv). Emotional Intelligence/Psychology - i.e., EI is a relatively new discipline that has quickly established itself, as it continues receiving a great deal of attention by researchers, not the least of which has to do with EI's possible relationship to other concepts such as "self-actualization". A further question being how/why these concepts might differ across cultures; (Bar-On, 2001).

v). Human Resource management - i.e., as human resources have increased in their importance within organizations, it has been asserted that the only 'sustainable competitive advantage' organizations in the future will have, will be in direct correlation with the value added by their employees, and most notably their organizational leaders (Kotter, 1996). Devising programs to develop such executives has been described as "the biggest challenge that looms in the new millennium for HR managers" (Javidan et al., 2006, p. 85).

vi). Gender Studies - i.e., it has been recognized that much leadership literature has focused on male leaders within Western companies (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1996), whilst there have been no rigorous studies – to the best of the author's knowledge – involving the comparison of male and female managers as peers, or at different organizational levels, within the Russian Federation.

vii). Organizational Behavior – i.e., few organizations (if any) in this era of global competition are successful without adequate leadership (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Furthermore, it has been argued that matching leadership styles with operating contexts is a critical factor contributing to the ultimate success (or failure) of organizations (Fiedler, 1969; Graen, 1976; House, 1973; Bass, 1999; Dulewicz an Higgs, 2003).

viii). Sociology – i.e., Hofstede (1980; 1993) maintained that management reflects its greater culture/society. Therefore, by taking a contemporary look at Russian management/leadership, one can gain critical insights into Russian society, social norms, values, beliefs, etc…; with much overlap between the various disciplines.

The remainder of this section presents specific contributions to theory and practice (beginning with the former), categorized as being “Major” and “other” (based on the author’s own view). Major contributions of this research include:

i). the identification of an up-to-date leadership profile of Russian managers, in competency terms, that can be compared with the UK and other cultures;

For decades Hofstede’s original data (collected during the 1970s; Hofstede, 1980), has formed the bases of extensive cross- and comparative-cultural studies as well as industry practices. However, these national culture profiles may well be outdated, and concerning Russia, specifically, Hofstede integrated it into his model at a much later date, estimating values based on “personal impressions” and “imperfect replications” (Hofstede, 1993 ;see chapter 2). Project GLOBE researchers, although more recent, acquired their data at the beginning of the 1990s, shortly after the official dismantling of the USSR, and prior to the formation of any resemblance of capitalism and a market economy within the newly formed Russian Federation (for further limitations concerning the GLOBE project, see chapter 2). Furthermore, the GLOBE study did not involve MNCs and large domestic companies in Russia (for the most part, the latter didn’t exist at that time), significant drivers of globalization and sources of demand for culturally astute executive leaders. The result has been a deficit in the leadership and comparative-cultural literature concerning perhaps the wealthiest nation in natural resource in the world. This contribution assists in bridging that chasm.

Ii). assessing leadership based on Emotional Intelligence (EI) competencies:

The author is not aware of any research that has applied Emotional Intelligence as a means to asses and develop Russian managers/leaders. The application of EI for assessing leadership competencies is original and distinct. Chapter 2 presented the development of the concept and discipline of Emotional Intelligence at great length, further noting that research has indicated significant differences in EI between genders and across cultures. Dulewicz and Higgs (1999), along with other scholars, reported the developable nature of EI. Moreover, the psychometric instrument utilized (the LDQ) allows for comparison across cultures, an area grossly underrepresented within the literature, largely due to the development of EI having been almost exclusively in the West Again, this aspect of the author's research asserts itself as a point of reference for future inquiry into the similarities and differences of Emotional Intelligence in various national cultures and subcultures.

iii). the similarities and differences (in competency terms) of senior versus junior Russian managers;

This is the only recent study the author is aware of that has measured managers' leadership profiles in competency terms, based on the criterion of organizational level. Project GLOBE looked at middle managers; although they later, as an afterthought, attempted to compare their data from middle managers to data gathered from "households" concerning their perspectives on 'what the most desirable characteristics of leaders should be'. This comparison, however, was only conducted within the Netherlands, and was based on the assumption that the respondents referred their descriptions to that of senior managers, and not managers in general.

Moreover, this study identified competencies that contributed to, and were predictive of, leadership performance and follower commitment. As noted earlier, the roles, responsibilities, and demands of managers vary according to their hierarchical level within the organization. Therefore, one would not expect managers from different levels within an organization to display the same competencies. Nor would one expect to develop managers within the same competency framework, but rather, to match needed competencies with identified roles and responsibilities. Other contributions to theory include:

i). further support for Dulewicz and Higgs' model of leadership success (IQ + EQ + MQ);

ii). the identification of competencies contributing to, and predictive of, leader performance and follower commitment;

iii). the assessment of Russian managers' leadership styles as compared with their perceptions of their modus operandi;

iv). an initial comparison of Russian female and male organizational leaders, based on IQ, EQ, and MQ competencies.

The core contribution of etic (comparative cultural) studies lies in their standardized methods, allowing for comparisons across national cultures. In terms of understanding other management/leadership styles, whether for academics or practitioners, etic studies provide a basis for offering insight based on identifying similarities and differences, which are readily accessible and understood by researchers and practitioners alike.

Within chapter 2, the cases were highlighted: a. for the need to develop Russian organizational leaders, b. the demand by Western organizations for culturally literate and adaptable executives, and c). the absence of up-to-date comparative literature, including data on the recently stabilized Russian Federation. This research contributes to a growing database on international leadership models, collected by way of the LDQ.

With the intensifying nature of competition, sound leadership is critical to business success. Many leadership models recognize the dimension of "context" on leadership. Matching an appropriate leadership style with a given business environment has been espoused by scholars for decades.   It has been deduced that the "transformational" style of leadership is the most effective for fast changing business environments, and moreover, strong arguments have been made to support the perspective that the "transformational" style of leadership is more readily developed within national cultures exhibiting high levels of "collectivism" and that are moving away from authoritarian forms of leadership, in favor of more democratic authority (Bass, 1999).

Russia has been assessed as having both of these characteristics (collectivism and moving towards a lower level of organizational "power distance"; Den Hartog, et al., 1999). However, as noted previously within this dissertation, convincing evidence seems to indicate that this transition from Soviet "transactional" leadership to a more democratic "transformational" leadership environment has not been completed, demonstrating a more 'middle-of-the-road" "participative" leadership approach by Russian managers working within MNCs.

Every societal culture demonstrates a given degree of "gender egalitarianism" (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; 1993) that may carry over to managers' displayed leadership styles and personal competencies as measured in terms of cognitive, Emotional Intelligence, and management competencies. Pertaining to Russia, such gender studies are extremely scarce, and what's more, fairly outdated. As mentioned earlier within this section, managers are members of a greater society, and as such, reflect the cultural values of the broader collective. Therefore, one can learn about the current characteristics of Russian society, whilst also identifying similarities and differences between the genders; as demonstrated by their management (and leadership) styles within organizations.

5.3.2 Contributions to Practice

The broad practical contribution of this research was the utilization of a recently established multi-dimensional leadership development instrument (the LDQ) to assess the individual leadership profiles of respondents, thus allowing for participating organizations to design development strategies (programs) personalized to the individual and appropriate to the needs of the company. Within this context, the MNCs and domestic companies participating in this exploratory investigation have already benefited significantly from it (as noted earlier). Major contributions to practice include:

i). the potential for identifying and developing organizational leaders based on their personal leadership profiles (as assessed by the LDQ);

ii). the potential for identifying and developing competencies required for promotion up to the next level of management (as the roles and responsibilities differ at various management levels);

iii). the potential for matching appropriate leadership styles to conform with organizational strategies and the surrounding business environment.

This dissertation is based on the need for developing organizational leaders in Russia. The Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) was selected based on the fact that it would allow the researcher to more readily compare the Russian managers with the established UK norm group. The LDQ also generates a concise and user-friendly report, offering the respondent (or HR professional) practical advice for fostering higher levels of competencies within any identified area(s) of weakness.

Roles and demands differ at various hierarchical levels within companies, requiring distinctive competencies to be developed, creating diverse management profiles across organizational levels. The findings from this research help to highlight these similarities and differences for Russian managers working within MNCs. Moreover, this study revealed specific competencies predictive of leader performance and follower commitment.

One more valuable measurement is that of leadership style, especially when applied to the business environment context. Corporate strategy is often formulated in accordance with the external operating environment. The value of the LDQ's ability to reveal context and dominant leadership style makes it possible for organizations to assess:

i). the appropriateness of both the perceived operating environment, compare it with the manager's preferred leadership style; and

ii). determine the compatibility of both with the organization's overall strategic objectives and needs.

The researcher has offered support concerning the need for Western management concepts and development instruments in order to assist organizations in the development of future leaders. In addition to its contribution to practice, this study adds further to the increasing evidence for the importance of emotional attributes of leaders' personalities for successful leadership, and moreover, the critical contribution of Emotional Intelligence (EQ), intellectual/cognitive ability (IQ), and professional managerial competencies (MQ), to successful leadership; particularly at more senior levels within organizations.

A leader-follower relationship has been noted from the earliest inquiries into the nature of leadership. With few exceptions, the IQ, EQ, and MQ competencies were highly correlated with leader performance (most notably communication) and follower commitment (most notably sensitivity and communication), suggesting links between the commitment of followers in determining a leader's effectiveness. The author believes that the contributions from this cultural study will assist both scholars and practitioners in their understanding of the relationships between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for large organizations. This inquiry's contribution to both theory and to industry is "distinct", assisting companies within the Russian Federation to meet their leadership development needs, whilst simultaneously stimulating further scholarship. However, like two sides to a coin, the author recognizes that all contributions come at the expense of limitations.

5.4 Limitations

There are always limitations to research in the sense that no research is without flaws and constraints Yet, research is central to developing our knowledge and understanding of the business world, and as such, even flawed and limited investigations offer valuable insights and contributions to both theory and practice (McGrath, 1982). Within this section, the author identifies several possible limitations related to this comparative-cultural investigation in particular, followed by a more general discussion of several recognized problems that have been attributed to self-report questionnaire-based research.

By adopting an “etic” approach to this cultural investigation, the researcher has chosen to rely upon “extrinsic” concepts and categories having meaning to outside observers; whereas “emic” approaches offer “intrinsic” cultural distinctions meaningful to the members of the society observed (Pike, 1967). In essence, Pike addresses the point that “etic” research is restricted to those similarities and differences that are in common amongst those cultures being observed (researched), whilst “emic” studies offer in-depth analyses of a single culture, usually only understandable within the context of that culture, and by its members. Because of these limitations to both approaches, some researchers combine the two approaches to uncover a balance of extrinsic/intrinsic data and findings (e.g., cultural anthropologists Pike, 1967).

Language should be mentioned, as the online LDQ was completed in English, rather than Russian. The dilemma facing the author was that the combination of timeliness pertaining to initial translation of the LDQ (followed by back-translation to an acceptable standard), in addition to the cost and potential inability to resolve the translation issue satisfactorily, might have posed a threat to the overall completion of the research within an acceptable timeframe. Furthermore, the authors of the LDQ declined to grant the researcher permission to translate their instrument. Another consideration was that of introducing a major risk factor (a recently translated LDQ).

A significant component of the comparative-cultural investigation included the application of the LDQ within a new domain - the Russian Federation. Whilst the translation of research instruments is widely applied and accepted for data gathering purposes; and often times mandatory from a linguistic perspective, there is no such thing as ‘a perfect translation’. In other words, something is always lost in the translation of concepts and ideas; the pertinent questions being – how much, and to what extent. The researcher felt this risk to be unnecessary for this exploratory study, but recognizes the importance it may bring to future investigations.

However, the researcher also cedes that by employing the English language version of the LDQ, a compromise has been made pertaining to the potential participants for the investigation. Having said that, it should be noted that Russians are formally taught English language within their obligatory schooling, and many higher educational institutions within the Russian Federation require English language standards both at the entry stage, and whilst pursuing a higher or advanced degree (Representative at the Ministry of Education, Moscow, Russia, July 2004). Besides the possible limitations related specifically to this investigation, authors have identified other possible flaws related to self-report survey-based research – the most problematic usually being attributed to "common methods variance" (CMV). Other inadequacies have been attributed to "social desirability" and "percept-percept" inflation (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986); for debate see chapter 3.

The author would like to note that social desirability is more likely to occur when there is something to be gained by the respondent's ego (e.g., Are you an honest person? or Do you treat employees justly? etc.) Certainly the way questions are constructed can offer (or not) opportunity for greater or lesser levels of social desirability. The author, himself, in an attempt to preempt such response bias, instructed respondents (and HR contact persons collecting the data within the participating organizations) that the results of the LDQ comprised a personal "profile" of the participant, and as such, there were no "right" or "wrong" answers. Respondents seemed to accept this explanation with relief. Furthermore, significant studies on social desirability date back several decades (e.g., Taylor, 1961; Thomas and Kilmann, 1975; Arnold and Feldman, 1981). And consistent with many issues in academe, there remain mixed reports as to the extent of the problem, not to mention its actual existence (i.e., Ones, Viswesvaran and Reiss, 1996, 'conducted a large meta-analysis and concluded that the problem of social desirability as a response bias was a "red herring"). Crampton and Wagner (1994) conducted a large meta-analysis of mono- and multi-method correlations finding “percept-percept inflation” in general, to be ‘more the exception than the rule’.

Given the mixed views of scholars, the author takes the position that by being aware of opportunities for various response biases, the researcher would be advised to do his utmost to avoid such problems to the extent possible (and practical). The researcher has attempted to use this dissertation as a vehicle to explain the research in its entirety, fully disclosing the drivers, strengths, limitations, and contributions; both theoretical and practical. The author earnestly believes the investigation outlined within the preceding chapters represents ethical research, and as such, purports that this distinct comparative-cultural investigation has contributed – distinctly, to the bodies of both scholarly and practitioner knowledge. Furthermore, the author recognizes the potential foundation the aforementioned study has created, offering the basis for future research.

5.5 Further Research and Conclusion

Correlation studies between other measurement instruments could prove to be extremely useful to both academe and industry. Such inquiry might include organizational culture instruments such as the Spony Profiling Model (SPN), developed at Cranfield School of Management, measuring the impact of organizational culture on managers’ perspectives and behaviors. Rigorous research comparing organizations operating within Russia’s public and private sectors, respectively, would seem to be a logical path forward, as this investigation’s contribution within this area is somewhat limited. Boyatzis (1982) identified rather significant competency differences displayed by managers in these sectors. A closer look into such possibilities in Russia is warranted. Russia is the largest country in the world; as measured by physical mass, and it has been suggested that critical variations in culture prevail between regions within the Russian Federation (Elenkov, 2002). Additionally, subcultures and other demographic divisions might reveal interesting insights into the diverse peoples living within the Russian Federation.

Women have played critical roles in Russian society, including the rebuilding of the Soviet Union after World War II. Since Gorbachev introduced “Perestroika”, at the end of the Soviet era, there has been a sharp increase in the number of women joining the workforce at management levels. Specific studies focusing on women as leaders, managers, and entrepreneurs are greatly needed to fill a deficit within the Russian cross-cultural literature. Moreover, with the establishment of Western business education in general, and MBA degree courses specifically, women are expected to play an increasingly important role at all levels of management in Russia, not to mention their potential for growth in the area of entrepreneurship. It is also important to note that women outnumber men in most geographic areas of the Russian Federation. In short, this research is very much an entry into a labyrinth of much needed research into Russian leadership and management studies. Further inquiry involving a translated version of the LDQ could offer greater degrees of flexibility in assessing Russian managers, regardless of their linguistic backgrounds.

This chapter covered the analyses of the data, including the findings of the investigation, presented within the context of the relevant literature. The chapter continued with discussion of, and conclusions taken from, the findings of the study, set within a sense-making framework, utilizing the literature for support. Both theoretical and practical contributions of the research were highlighted and discussed, followed by possible limitations and opportunities for future inquiry. Like the proverbial “Pandora’s box”, this investigation has opened a wealth of research possibilities into Russian leadership, which represents a multitude of directions researchers can pursue in perpetuating the growth of leadership research in Russia. The author is already in the process of organizing a longitudinal study into Russian organizational leadership, in partnership with faculty at Plekhanov Academy of Economics, in the hopes of maintaining an accurate barometer reading of the changing Russian business climate.

One important aspect this research did not address is that of leader performance and follower commitment in regards to the LDQ's leadership style fit construct. This could prove to be a valuable investigation to both practitioners and theorists alike, in that organizations generally aim to operate at their peak performance, and rely heavily on the strategic decisions and overall effectiveness of their leaders, which more-often-than-not is significantly improved by high levels of commitment by followers (see section on Measurement Instrument, within the Methodology chapter). Few companies can sustain profitability in this globally competitive environment without strong leadership (and motivated followers). Therefore, any light that can be shed on possible relationships between exhibited leadership styles, leader performance, and follower commitment within the Russian context, would be a welcome contribution to both the literature and industry.

This investigation into the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers may have produced only the first small "pebble" of knowledge on the subject, but it has opened the door to a labyrinth of possible pathways to follow, bringing the author and the reader full circle back to the thesis of this study. According to Handy (1989), the "wheel" of learning consists of 'question, theory, test, and reflection'. McGrath's sobering perspective on research seems to be ideal for the role of closing this dissertation:

> There is no such thing as too much research (only not enough)! There is no such thing as flawless research! But: poor research is much worse than none at all. The key to that final paradox lies in the duel meanings of good and poor research. We must distinguish between the inherent flaws of any method, when used as well as it can be used, and the quite different matter of using a method badly. The former, the inherent flaws of any method, even when used well, are neither to be decried nor to be overlooked, but rather to be made explicit. The

> latter—using a method badly—is never acceptable. It is that that (sic) is referred to as "poor research" in the final rules. So, while flawless research is not possible, poor research—using potentially valuable-though-flawed methods badly—makes matters worse than they need be. But "good research"—using flawed methods well, and in effective combinations—can help us accrue knowledge about behavioral and social problems that are of both theoretical and practical concern. (McGrath, 1982, p.101)

Within the spirit of McGrath's perspective on "good research", the author has attempted to diligently adhere to sound research practices throughout this doctoral dissertation. The regulations concerning research intended for the granting of a PhD of DBA must demonstrate the following standards, according to Brunel University (Remenyi et al., 2000, p. 16):

> **In his/her thesis, the candidate is required to show ability to conduct an original investigation, to test ideas (whether his/her own, or those of others) (sic) and to demonstrate a broad knowledge and understanding of his/he discipline and of appropriate cognate subjects (i). He/she should also demonstrate knowledge of the research techniques appropriate to his/her discipline (sic) and show that they have been properly applied (ii). The thesis should make a *distinct* contribution to knowledge (sic) and provide evidence of the candidate's originality by the discovery of new facts or the exercise of critical power (iii). The candidate is required to show appropriate ability in the organization and presentation of his/her material in the thesis, which should be satisfactory as regards (sic) clarity of expression and literary form. It should be in the English language, and should be suitable for publication, either as submitted or suitably abridged (iv).**

To this end, the author would like to conclude this dissertation by addressing the critical points articulated in the passage above:

i). There are three ways originality can be demonstrated (Howard and Sharp, 1983): 1). a new theory can be developed; 2). originality can be related to the development/application of a new research methodology; or 3). **originality can be demonstrated through the application of known theory/methodology within a new domain….** It is this third point that underpins the distinctiveness of this comparative-cultural investigation.

As introduced at the outset of this dissertation (chapter 1), ‘the primary purpose and contribution of this original research is:

"to assist organizations working within the Russian Federation in developing their present and future business executives, whilst offering enterprises and researchers globally, further insight into understanding Russian managers holding various levels of leadership within MNCs (large companies)."

As such, this comparative-cultural investigation has been designed to extend Dulewicz and Higgs’ (UK) scholarship in the areas of leadership styles, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership competencies, by applying their Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) within the Russian Federation. Thus, by comparing the findings of this study with Dulewicz and Higgs’ UK norms, similarities and differences between the two cultures might be identified and further contribute to the literature on comparative cultural studies. To this end, the author has developed the following research thesis:

An investigation into the relationship between the leadership competencies, Emotional Intelligence, and leadership styles of Russian managers working for MNCs.’

(Chapter 2 presented a broad understanding of the literature and cognate disciplines underpinning this investigation.) ‘As an extension of Dulewicz and Higgs' UK research on organizational leadership, the literature review was narrowed down from an exhaustively immense body of knowledge, to seminal scholarship representative of the leadership model applied for this investigation i.e., Dulewicz and Higgs' paradigm, in addition to predominant Emotional Intelligence (EI), cross-cultural and Russian organizational leadership scholarship relating to the scope and national context of this research'.

ii). (Chapter 3 addressed the research methodology of this investigation.) 'It was following a broad literature review that Dulewicz and Higgs' model was adopted, the ultimate thesis identified, and the methodology (research framework; Leedy, 1989) developed for completing this 'exploratory' investigation. As such, the chapter addressed topics and questions related to research methodology. Building on the previous chapter's review of the literature, research question/hypotheses, context, and conceptual framework, chapter 3 identified the methodology and the resolve to apply it. The chapter opened with a discussion of research methods, the specific research strategy, and putative risk factors, followed by a detailed description of the measurement instrument. The author addressed the "Common Methods Variance" (CMV) debate, as well as related issues of construct validity and reliability. Finally, the discussion considered a detailed analysis of the research plan/process; a section on limitations associated with the selected research design; and concluded with the criteria for epistemologically reliable research, including statistical analysis techniques employed within this study'.

iii). The author takes issue with the wording of this point within the text above. Does research of the social sciences lead to the "discovery of new facts", or does it create and/or add support to theories and inferences (or evidence to discrediting them; Popper, 1975)? "One can never know what is true [fact]. At best, one can know what has not yet been ruled out as false" (Campbell and Cook, 1979, p. 37). Chapter 4 tested the hypotheses, and in its summary, presented the findings of the statistical analyses: 'Major findings of this research include: the identification of a clear leadership style preference by the Russian manager-sample ("participative"); statistically significant differences between the Russian and UK samples – on 14 of the 15 dimensions; distinctive differences in the competencies required for senior versus junior managers; "communication" was predictive of Russian leader performance, whilst follower commitment was predicted by leaders' levels of "sensitivity" and "communication". Chapter 4 added considerable statistical support for several of the hypotheses (if only partially), in addition to revealing inference for the overall research question'.

iv.). Chapter 1 highlighted the structure of the thesis as well as its contents: The thesis is composed of five chapters: Chapter 1 fore grounded the background, context, motivation, and potential contributions of this investigation. The chapter culminated by presenting the research thesis, an outline of the structure of the dissertation, closing with a chapter summary. Chapter 2 reviewed the relevant literature underpinning this research paradigm, with special attention given to the core literature whilst critically discussing possible shortcomings and constraints associated with the models and concepts. Chapter 2 closed with the identified supporting hypotheses, and a summary presenting the connection between the leadership models and concepts, in order to underline the need for further research. Chapter 3 discussed the research methodology: research strategy; the proposed measurement instrument (the LDQ); common methods variance (CMV); construct validity; research design, sampling, and sampling characteristics; appropriate data analysis techniques; concluding with sections addressing possible limitations associated with the proposed methodology, the author's final thoughts, and a chapter summary. Chapter 4 opened with an overview of the research process before presenting the characteristics of the participants/responding organizations. This discussion was followed by initial statistical analyses for distribution and descriptive purposes. The focus of the chapter was on the testing of the supporting hypotheses using inferential statistical methods (esp. t-tests and regressions), within the framework of the underpinning literature, culminating with a summary of the hypotheses and findings. Chapter 5 opened with a broad discussion of the research findings before highlighting the contributions and implications of the research to academia and industry. The section on contributions was followed by the presentation of possible limitations associated with this study, in addition to those associated with self-reported survey research - in general'. As for language, literary style, and suitability for publication, the author explained to the reader at the outset of the dissertation (glossary page) that this document adheres to US spelling, punctuation, and grammar. The author hopes the reader has found the style and text to be appropriate; the researcher has several refereed academic publications.

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Appendix

Table A LDQ Dimensions, Factors, and Definitions

Table B Measures of Distribution: Skewness and Kurtosis

Table C Harman's Single-Factor Analysis

Tables D(i-vi) Hierarchical Regression Analysis

List of Publications

LDQ Sample Report

LDQ, Self-Report Version

Table A LDQ Dimensions, Factors and Definitions

Intellectual Dimensions (IQ)
1. Critical Analysis and Judgment-a critical faculty that probes the facts, identifies advantages and disadvantages, and discerns the shortcomings of ideas and proposals. Makes sound judgments and decisions based on reasonable assumptions and factual information, and is aware of the impact of any assumptions made.
2. Vision and Imagination-Imaginative and innovative in all aspects of one's work. A clear vision of the future direction of the organization to meet business imperatives. Foresees the impact of external and internal changes on one's vision, which reflects implementation issues and business realities.
3. Strategic Perspective-Sees the wider issues and broader implications. Explores a wide range of relationships, balances short- and long-term considerations. Sensitive to the impact of one's actions and decisions across the organization. Identifies opportunities and threats. Sensitive to stakeholders' needs, external developments, and the implications of external factors on one's decisions and actions.
Managerial Dimensions (MQ)
4. Resource Management-Plans ahead, organizes all resources and coordinates them efficiently and effectively. Establishes clear objectives. Converts long-term goals into action plans. Monitors and evaluates staff's work regularly and effectively, and gives them sensitive and honest feedback.
5. Engaging Communication-A lively and enthusiastic communicator, engages others and wins support. Clearly communicates instructions and vision to staff. Communications are tailored to the audience's interests and are focused. Approach inspires staff and audiences. Communication conveys approachability and accessibility.
6. Empowering-knows one's "direct reports'" strengths and weaknesses. Gives them autonomy, encourages them to take on personally challenging and demanding tasks. Encourages them to solve problems, produce innovative ideas and proposals, and develop their vision for their area-and a broader vision for the company.
7. Developing-believes others have potential to take on ever more-demanding tasks, roles, and encourages them to do so. Ensures direct reports have adequate support. Develops their competencies and invests time and effort in coaching them so they can contribute effectively and develop themselves. Identifies new tasks and roles which will develop others. Believes that critical feedback and challenge are important.
8. Achieving-willing to make decisions involving significant risk, in order to gain a business advantage. Decisions are based on core business issues, and their likely impact on success. Selects and exploits activities that result in the greatest benefits to the organization, and that will increase its performance. Unwavering determination to achieve objectives and implement decisions.
Emotional and Social Dimensions (EQ)
9. Self-Awareness-the awareness of one's own feelings and the capability to recognize and manage these feelings in a way that one feels that one can control. This factor includes a degree of self-belief in one's capacity to manage one's emotions and to control their impact in a work environment.
10. Emotional Resilience-the capability to perform consistently in a range of situations under pressure and to adapt behavior appropriately. The capability to balance the needs of the situation and task with the needs and concerns of the individuals involved. The capability to retain focus on a course of action, or need for results, in the face of personal challenge or criticism.
11. Intuitiveness-the capability to arrive at clear decisions and drive their implementation when presented with incomplete or ambiguous information using both rational and "emotional" or intuitive perceptions of key issues and implications.
12. Interpersonal Sensitivity-the capability to be aware of, and take account of, the needs and perceptions of others in arriving at decisions and proposing solutions to problems and challenges. The capability to build from this awareness and achieve the commitment of others to decisions and action ideas. The willingness to keep open one's thoughts on possible solutions to problems and to actively listen to, and reflect on, the reactions and inputs from others.
13. Influence-the capability to persuade others to change their viewpoint based on the understanding of their position and the recognition of the need to listen to this perspective and provide a rationale for change.
14. Motivation-the drive and energy to achieve clear results and make an impact=t and, also, to balance short- and long-term goals with a capability to pursue demanding goals in the c=face of rejection or questioning.
15. Conscientiousness-the capability to display clear commitment to a course of action in the face of challenge, and to match "words and deeds" in encouraging others to support the chosen direction. The personal commitment to pursuing an ethical solution to a difficult business issue or problem.

(Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; 2005)

Table B Measures of Distribution (LDQ Sample)

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	**Statistic**	Std. Error	**Statistic**	Std. Error
Critical Analysis	152	**.082**	.197	**1.043**	.391
Vision	152	**.064**	.197	**.168**	.391
Perspective	152	**.110**	.197	**.152**	.391
Manag. Resources	152	**.115**	.197	**.195**	.391
Self-awareness	152	**-.136**	.197	**-.443**	.391
Em. Resilience	152	**.071**	.197	**.129**	.391
Intuitiveness	152	**-.092**	.197	**-.231**	.391
Sensitivity	152	**-.387**	.197	**.154**	.391
Influencing	152	**-.184**	.197	**1.970**	.391
Communication	152	**-.046**	.197	**-.049**	.391
Empowering	152	**.238**	.197	**.055**	.391
Developing	152	**-.061**	.197	**-.552**	.391
Motivation	152	**-.011**	.197	**-.018**	.391
Achieving	152	**.421**	.197	**1.016**	.391
Conscientious	152	**-.024**	.197	**.067**	.391
Valid N (listwise)	152				

Skewness is within the acceptable range (+1 to -1) for all 15 dimensions. Kurtosis is also within the acceptable range (+3 to -3); (Hair et al., 2003, p. 244).

Table C Harmon's Single-Factor Analysis Results for LDQ (unrotated)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7,162	**47,747**	47,747	7,162	**47,747**	47,747
2	1,476	**9,843**	57,590	1,476	**9,843**	57,590
3	1,035	**6,900**	64,490	1,035	**6,900**	64,490
4	,893	**5,953**	70,443			
5	,788	**5,255**	75,698			
6	,623	**4,152**	79,849			
7	,528	**3,522**	83,371			
8	,431	**2,873**	86,244			
9	,387	**2,579**	88,823			
10	,373	**2,484**	91,307			
11	,337	**2,244**	93,551			
12	,298	**1,989**	95,540			
13	,260	**1,735**	97,275			
14	,214	**1,426**	98,701			
15	,195	**1,299**	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table D(i) Results of ANOVA[j] Analysis for Follower Commitment

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	69,564	1	69,564	13,770	,000[a]
	Residual	757,778	150	5,052		
	Total	827,342	151			
2	Regression	88,864	2	44,432	8,965	,000[b]
	Residual	738,478	149	4,956		
	Total	827,342	151			
3	Regression	94,144	3	31,381	6,335	,000[c]
	Residual	733,198	148	4,954		
	Total	827,342	151			
4	Regression	97,024	4	24,256	4,882	,001[d]
	Residual	730,318	147	4,968		
	Total	827,342	151			
5	Regression	97,032	5	19,406	3,880	,002[e]
	Residual	730,310	146	5,002		
	Total	827,342	151			
6	Regression	98,472	6	16,412	3,265	,005[f]
	Residual	728,870	145	5,027		
	Total	827,342	151			
7	Regression	99,551	7	14,222	2,814	,009[g]
	Residual	727,792	144	5,054		
	Total	827,342	151			
8	Regression	100,389	8	12,549	2,468	,016[h]
	Residual	726,953	143	5,084		
	Total	827,342	151			
9	Regression	139,712	15	9,314	1,842	,035[i]
	Residual	687,630	136	5,056		
	Total	827,342	151			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication

Table D(il) Hierarchical Regression Model Summary

or Leader Performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,290[a]	,084	,078	2,248
2	,328[b]	,107	,095	2,226
3	,337[c]	,114	,096	2,226
4	,342[d]	,117	,093	2,229
5	,342[e]	,117	,087	2,237
6	,345[f]	,119	,083	2,242
7	,347[g]	,120	,078	2,248
8	,348[h]	,121	,072	2,255
9	,411[i]	,169	,077	2,249

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication

c. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering

d. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness

e. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness, Manag. Resources

f. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness, Manag. Resources, Developing

g. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness, Manag. Resources, Developing, Perspective

h. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness, Manag. Resources, Developing, Perspective, Critical Analysis

i. Predictors: (Constant), Sensitivity, Communication, Empowering, Self-awareness, Manag. Resources, Developing, Perspective, Critical Analysis, Intuitiveness, Conscientious, Achieving, Motivation, Vision, Influencing, Em. Resilience

Table D(iii) Hierarchical Regression Coefficients[a] for Follower Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	10,495	1,745		6,015	,000
	Sensitivity	,162	,044	**,290**	**3,711**	**,000**
2	(Constant)	8,311	2,052		4,050	,000
	Sensitivity	,123	,047	**,221**	**2,596**	**,010**
	Communication	,093	,047	**,168**	**1,973**	**,050**
3	(Constant)	7,549	2,180		3,462	,001
	Sensitivity	,109	,049	,196	2,227	,027
	Communication	,066	,054	,119	1,225	,223
	Empowering	,064	,062	,102	1,032	,304
4	(Constant)	7,117	2,256		3,155	,002
	Sensitivity	,105	,049	,189	2,130	,035
	Communication	,055	,056	,099	,979	,329
	Empowering	,049	,064	,079	,766	,445
	Self-awareness	,039	,051	,073	,761	,448
5	(Constant)	7,142	2,353		3,036	,003
	Sensitivity	,106	,050	,189	2,116	,036
	Communication	,055	,059	,100	,942	,348
	Empowering	,050	,069	,080	,729	,467
	Self-awareness	,039	,052	,073	,752	,453
	Manag. Resources	-,003	,072	-,004	-,038	,970
6	(Constant)	6,982	2,377		2,937	,004
	Sensitivity	,111	,051	,199	2,175	,031
	Communication	,064	,061	,116	1,047	,297
	Empowering	,061	,072	,098	,849	,398
	Self-awareness	,038	,052	,070	,720	,473
	Manag. Resources	,013	,078	,020	,168	,867
	Developing	-,034	,064	-,067	-,535	,593
7	(Constant)	6,984	2,384		2,930	,004

	Sensitivity	,119	,054	,213	2,204	,029
	Communication	,068	,062	,123	1,099	,274
	Empowering	,071	,075	,114	,943	,347
	Self-awareness	,037	,052	,070	,710	,479
	Manag. Resources	,021	,080	,033	,263	,793
	Developing	-,033	,064	-,066	-,522	,602
	Perspective	-,030	,066	-,054	-,462	,645
8	(Constant)	6,707	2,486		2,698	,008
	Sensitivity	,118	,054	,211	2,179	,031
	Communication	,070	,062	,127	1,126	,262
	Empowering	,064	,077	,103	,835	,405
	Self-awareness	,035	,053	,066	,673	,502
	Manag. Resources	,020	,080	,030	,243	,808
	Developing	-,034	,064	-,068	-,535	,593
	Perspective	-,040	,070	-,071	-,572	,568
	Critical Analysis	,026	,065	,043	,406	,685
9	(Constant)	11,704	3,282		3,566	,001
	Sensitivity	,114	,059	,204	1,941	,054
	Communication	,080	,072	,146	1,124	,263
	Empowering	,050	,082	,081	,618	,538
	Self-awareness	,036	,064	,067	,556	,579
	Manag. Resources	,022	,084	,034	,261	,794
	Developing	,005	,067	,009	,071	,943
	Perspective	-,025	,072	-,044	-,340	,734
	Critical Analysis	,025	,073	,041	,347	,729
	Vision	,127	,078	,200	1,633	,105
	Em. Resilience	-,004	,066	-,007	-,057	,954
	Intuitiveness	-,054	,040	-,120	-1,361	,176
	Influencing	,014	,076	,024	,189	,851
	Motivation	-,061	,072	-,093	-,843	,401
	Achieving	-,144	,083	-,191	-1,733	,085
	Conscientious	-,065	,064	-,108	-1,022	,309

Table D(iv) Results of ANOVA[j] Analysis for Leader Performance

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	142,642	1	142,642	28,634	,000[a]
	Residual	747,246	150	4,982		
	Total	889,888	151			
2	Regression	151,201	2	75,601	15,249	,000[b]
	Residual	738,687	149	4,958		
	Total	889,888	151			
3	Regression	154,659	3	51,553	10,378	,000[c]
	Residual	735,229	148	4,968		
	Total	889,888	151			
4	Regression	157,002	4	39,250	7,873	,000[d]
	Residual	732,886	147	4,986		
	Total	889,888	151			
5	Regression	157,002	5	31,400	6,255	,000[e]
	Residual	732,886	146	5,020		
	Total	889,888	151			
6	Regression	157,115	6	26,186	5,182	,000[f]
	Residual	732,774	145	5,054		
	Total	889,888	151			
7	Regression	157,121	7	22,446	4,411	,000[g]
	Residual	732,767	144	5,089		
	Total	889,888	151			
8	Regression	157,544	8	19,693	3,845	,000[h]
	Residual	732,345	143	5,121		
	Total	889,888	151			
9	Regression	202,168	15	13,478	2,665	,001[i]
	Residual	687,720	136	5,057		
	Total	889,888	151			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication

Table D(v) Hierarchical Regression Model Summary for Leader Performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,400[a]	,160	,155	2,232
2	,412[b]	,170	,159	2,227
3	,417[c]	,174	,157	2,229
4	,420[d]	,176	,154	2,233
5	,420[e]	,176	,148	2,240
6	,420[f]	,177	,142	2,248
7	,420[g]	,177	,137	2,256
8	,421[h]	,177	,131	2,263
9	,477[i]	,227	,142	2,249

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication

b. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision

c. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing

d. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving

e. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving, Manag. Resources

f. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving, Manag. Resources, Motivation

g. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving, Manag. Resources, Motivation, Perspective

h. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving, Manag. Resources, Motivation, Perspective, Em. Resilience

i. Predictors: (Constant), Communication, Vision, Developing, Achieving, Manag. Resources, Motivation, Perspective, Em. Resilience, Intuitiveness, Conscientious, Sensitivity, Critical Analysis, Self-awareness, Influencing, Empowering

Table D(vi) Hierarchical Regression Coefficients[a] for Leader Performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	13,119	1,732		7,575	,000
	Communication	,229	,043	**,400**	**5,351**	**,000**
2	(Constant)	11,975	1,935		6,189	,000
	Communication	,192	,052	,334	3,712	,000
	Vision	,078	,060	,118	1,314	,191
3	(Constant)	11,535	2,007		5,748	,000
	Communication	,165	,061	,287	2,702	,008
	Vision	,073	,060	,110	1,218	,225
	Developing	,043	,051	,081	,834	,405
4	(Constant)	10,790	2,286		4,720	,000
	Communication	,163	,061	,284	2,668	,008
	Vision	,052	,068	,078	,766	,445
	Developing	,032	,053	,061	,604	,547
	Achieving	,054	,079	,069	,686	,494
5	(Constant)	10,787	2,412		4,472	,000
	Communication	,163	,063	,284	2,605	,010
	Vision	,052	,068	,078	,760	,449
	Developing	,032	,060	,061	,531	,596
	Achieving	,054	,080	,069	,676	,500
	Manag. Resources	,000	,076	,000	,004	,997
6	(Constant)	10,682	2,520		4,238	,000
	Communication	,161	,065	,280	2,483	,014
	Vision	,049	,070	,075	,703	,483
	Developing	,031	,061	,059	,503	,616
	Achieving	,053	,080	,068	,661	,510
	Manag. Resources	,000	,076	,000	,002	,998
	Motivation	,010	,066	,015	,149	,882
7	(Constant)	10,690	2,539		4,210	,000

	Communication	,161	,065	,281	2,457	,015
	Vision	,050	,071	,075	,699	,486
	Developing	,031	,062	,059	,500	,618
	Achieving	,053	,081	,068	,659	,511
	Manag. Resources	,001	,079	,001	,011	,991
	Motivation	,010	,067	,015	,150	,881
	Perspective	-,002	,060	-,004	-,035	,972
8	(Constant)	10,704	2,548		4,201	,000
	Communication	,160	,066	,279	2,430	,016
	Vision	,047	,072	,070	,645	,520
	Developing	,031	,063	,059	,499	,619
	Achieving	,052	,081	,066	,640	,523
	Manag. Resources	-,004	,081	-,006	-,052	,959
	Motivation	,006	,069	,008	,083	,934
	Perspective	-,002	,061	-,004	-,041	,968
	Em. Resilience	,015	,053	,028	,287	,774
9	(Constant)	12,845	3,283		3,913	,000
	Communication	,206	,072	,360	2,880	,005
	Vision	,113	,078	,171	1,449	,150
	Developing	,080	,067	,152	1,183	,239
	Achieving	,044	,083	,056	,528	,598
	Manag. Resources	,032	,084	,048	,385	,701
	Motivation	,051	,072	,076	,710	,479
	Perspective	,067	,072	,116	,927	,355
	Em. Resilience	,018	,066	,034	,275	,784
	Sensitivity	,022	,059	,038	,378	,706
	Conscientious	-,064	,064	-,103	-1,012	,313
	Critical Analysis	-,052	,073	-,082	-,714	,476
	Intuitiveness	-,008	,040	-,017	-,197	,844
	Influencing	-,169	,076	-,272	-2,223	,028
	Empowering	-,153	,082	-,237	-1,881	,062
	Self-awareness	,052	,064	,093	,801	,424

LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Report on: XYZ

26 July 200X

LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE REPORT

OVERVIEW OF REPORT FORMAT

This report is based on your responses to the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire. The structure of this report is as follows.

Introduction

An outline of the model of the LDQ Dimensions and three Leadership Styles and broad suggestions on how to use the report for development are presented.

Section 1: Results on the 15 dimensions

This section describes your results from the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire. It highlights possible areas on which to focus your development. When analysing the data provided, bear in mind that all scores have been compared with assessments from a large and highly able managerial population.

Section 2: The 3 styles of leadership & the relation to context

This section presents your score on the LDQ Organisational Context sub-scale which measures the degree of change you perceive you are experiencing at work. This will help you to identify which one of the three Leadership Styles presented is most appropriate for you at present.

Section 3: Development planning for the 15 dimensions

This section provides some broad developmental guidelines.

IMPORTANT NOTE

Only individuals who are approved to use the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire should have produced this report. The person described in the report may disagree with parts of it despite the authors' best efforts. The descriptions of leadership dimensions it contains are not absolute truths, but are based upon the research and experience of the authors to ensure that the statements contained in the report are an accurate reflection of the person's responses to the questionnaire. Because of this, it is recommended that the report be presented to both the respondent and third parties (such as recruiters, trainers and counsellors) on a person-to-person basis. Whenever this report is used to make decisions concerning the respondent, all other available information of relevance, such as his/her track record and ability, should be taken into account.

INTRODUCTION

This report provides information based on your responses to the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire. Research studies have shown these dimensions of leadership provide some of the critical determinants of effective leadership and have also shown that the really important aspects of leadership relate broadly to Emotional & Social competencies, Intellectual competencies and Managerial competencies.

The 15 dimensions are classified, and presented, under four headings based on the authors' model of leadership which consists of:

Personal Enablers;
Inter-Personal Enablers;
Drivers; and a
Constrainer.

The dimensions in this model are produced in an overall profile, which is then related to three different leadership styles:

* Goal-oriented Leadership
* Involving Leadership
* Engaging Leadership

The styles are described and profiled in the report. No style is right or wrong *per se*. Each style is appropriate in a different context, relating to the degree of change faced by the leader. The questionnaire also identifies the degree of change that you perceive will be faced by your organisation.

In this report, your results are examined in relation to a reference group, comparing your responses to the distribution of results from a relevant sample of managers and senior officers, to determine objectively your Leadership profile and its implications. It should be useful to examine the individual Dimension results. This will help you to identify which components of Leadership you might wish to reinforce, or develop, in order to enhance your overall performance in the context of your organisation's strategy and your current role, using a comparison of your leadership style to that indicated by your assessment of the context in which you are working.

We suggest that you begin by reviewing your results on the 15 dimensions, each of which is defined in detail in italics. They appear in the next section.

SECTION 1: RESULTS ON THE 15 LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

Personal Enablers

A Critical Analysis and Judgement

Gathers relevant information from a wide range of sources in order to identify and then solve problems. Has a critical faculty which probes the facts, identifies advantages and disadvantages and discerns the shortcomings of ideas and proposals. Makes sound judgements and decisions based on reasonable assumptions and factual information, and is aware of the impact of any assumptions made.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

B Vision and Imagination

Imaginative and innovative in all aspects of one's work. The capability to establish sound priorities for future work. To have a clear vision of the future direction of the organisation to meet business imperatives. Also, to foresee the impact of external and internal changes on one's vision which reflects implementation issues and business realities.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

C Strategic Perspective

Rises above the immediate situation and sees the wider issues and broader implications. Explores a wide range of relationships between factors and balances short and long-term considerations. Is aware of, and sensitive to the impact of one's actions and decisions across the organisation. Identifies opportunities and threats from both within and outside. Is aware of, and sensitive to Stakeholders' needs, external developments and the implications of external factors on one's decisions and actions.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

D Managing Resources

Plans ahead, organises all resources and co-ordinates them efficiently and effectively. Establishes clear objectives. Converts long term goals into action plans. Monitors and evaluates staff's work regularly and effectively, and gives them sensitive and honest feedback.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

E Self-awareness

The awareness of one's own feelings and the capability to recognise and manage these feelings in a way which one feels that one can control. This factor includes a degree of self-belief in one's capability to manage one's emotions and to control their impact in a work environment.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

F Emotional Resilience

The capability to perform consistently in a range of situations under pressure and to adapt behaviour appropriately. The capability to balance the needs of the situation and task with the needs and concerns of the individuals involved. The capability to retain focus on a course of action or need for results in the face of personal challenge or criticism.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

G Intuitiveness

The capability to arrive at clear decisions and drive their implementation when presented with incomplete or ambiguous information using both rational and 'emotional' or intuitive perceptions of key issues and implications.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

Inter-Personal Enablers

H Interpersonal Sensitivity

The capability to be aware of, and take account of, the needs and perceptions of others in arriving at decisions and proposing solutions to problems and challenges. The capability to build from this awareness and achieve the commitment of others to decisions and action ideas. The willingness to keep open one's thoughts on possible solutions to problems and to actively listen to, and reflect on, the reactions and inputs from others.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

J Influencing

The capability to persuade others to change their viewpoint based on the understanding of their position and the recognition of the need to listen to this perspective and provide a rationale for change.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

K Engaging Communication

A lively and enthusiastic communicator who engages others and wins their support. Clearly communicates one's instructions and vision to staff. Communications are tailored to the audience's interests and are focused. One's approach inspires staff and audiences. Adopts a style of communication which conveys approachability and accessibility.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

L Empowering

Knows one's Direct Report's strengths and weaknesses. Gives them autonomy and encourages them to take on personally challenging and demanding tasks. Encourages them to solve problems, produce innovative and practical ideas and proposals and develop their vision for their area of accountability as well as contributing to the formulation of a broader vision for the business. Encourages Direct Reports to employ a critical faculty and a broad perspective in all aspects of their work and to challenge existing practices, assumptions and policies.

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

M Developing

Believes that others have the potential to take on ever more-demanding tasks, roles and accountabilities, and encourages them to do so. Ensures that Direct Reports have adequate support. Makes every effort to develop their competencies and invests time and effort in coaching them so that they can contribute effectively and develop themselves. Works with others and *identifies new tasks and roles which will develop them. Believes that critical feedback and challenge are important.*

On this dimension your self-assessment places you below-average.

Drivers

N Motivation

The drive and energy to achieve clear results and make an impact and, also, to balance short- and long-term goals with a capability to pursue demanding goals in the face of rejection or questioning.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

P Achieving

Willing to make decisions involving significant risk to gain a business or other advantage. Decisions are based on core business or organisational issues and their likely impact on success. Selects and exploits activities which result in the greatest benefits to one's part of the organisation and which will increase its performance. Shows an unwavering determination to achieve objectives and implement decisions.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

Constrainer

Q Conscientiousness

The capability to display clear commitment to a course of action in the face of challenge and to match 'words and deeds' in encouraging others to support the chosen direction. The personal commitment to pursuing an ethical solution to a difficult business issue or problem.

Your self-assessment on this dimension positions you in the average range.

To provide an overview of your results, a profile chart which plots your scores on the 15 Dimensions appears on the next page.

LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE
Self-Assessment Profile Chart

Name: ZZZZZZZ YYYYYY

Sten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Dimensions
Personal Enablers											
A	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Critical Analysis & Judgement
B	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Vision & Imagination
C	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Strategic Perspective
D	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Managing Resources
E	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Self-awareness
F	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Emotional Resilience
G	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Intuitiveness
Inter-Personal Enablers											
H	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Interpersonal Sensitivity
J	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Influencing
K	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Engaging Communication
L	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Empowering
M	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Developing
Drivers											
N	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Motivation
P	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Achieving
Constrainer											
Q	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Conscientiousness
Sten%	2	5	8	15	20	20	15	8	5	2	

Source: Total Norm Group (n = 1009)

SECTION 2: THE 3 STYLES OF LEADERSHIP & RELATION TO CONTEXT

Effective leadership is increasingly being seen in terms of a combination of:

4 i) personal characteristics which are required to enable an individual to engage in a leadership role in an effective manner,

5 ii) a range of skills and behaviours which need to be in place to provide effective leadership,

6 iii) a range of styles related to the context in which leadership is exercised, and

7 iv) a range of ways in which the leadership behaviours may be exercised in a way which matches the personal style of the individual leader.

8

In addition, it is quite widely accepted that leadership may be exhibited at many levels in an organisation. The next part of the LDQ report provides an indication of the leadership style you are likely to exhibit based on your responses to the questionnaire. Three leadership styles are identified within the author's model:

9 i) ***Engaging Leadership.*** A style based on a high level of empowerment and involvement appropriate in a *highly transformational context*. Such a style is focused on producing radical change with high levels of engagement and commitment.

10 ii) ***Goal Leadership.*** A style focused on delivering results within a *relatively stable context*. This is a Leader-led style aligned to a stable organisation delivering clearly understood results.

11 iii) ***Involving Leadership.*** A style based on a transitional organisation which faces *significant, but not necessarily radical changes* in its business model or modus operandi.

12

Three profile charts appear on the following pages and present, in turn, your score in relation to the range of scores (indicated by the shaded bands) representing each of the three style profiles. ***According to your self-assessment, the style you are currently most closely fitted to is Involving.***

Interpreting the Style Profiles

The Organisational Context questionnaire (LDQ Part 2) examines the degree and nature of change you perceive that you face in your role as a leader. The higher your score, the greater the degree of volatility and change in the context in which you exercise leadership. The total score ranges from 21 to 105. Within this range there are three broad categories reflecting different contexts:

Relatively Stable	21 - 58
Significant Change	59 - 73
Transformational	74 - 105

Your own LDQ Context score is 80, suggesting your organisation is in the Transformational range. It is facing significant and fundamental change with the underlying business models undergoing transformation. ***An Engaging Style would appear to be the most appropriate of the three.*** You should, therefore, pay particular attention to the profile chart for that particular style. Examine the descriptions of each of the dimensions and determine which may need developing or exploiting in order for you to be more effective for this style. When reflecting on your development needs, you will find that the final section of this report provides a detailed review of your scores on all 15 dimensions and developmental issues. The other two style profiles are presented in case you are on the borderline of two different styles or contexts, or you feel that you might be required to adopt a different style in the foreseeable future.

Self-Assessment Profile Chart

for “Goal Oriented” Leadership Style

Name: ZZZZZZZ YYYYYY

Sten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Dimensions
Personal Enablers											
A	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Critical Analysis & Judgement
B	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Vision & Imagination
C	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Strategic Perspective
D	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Managing Resources
E	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Self-awareness
F	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Emotional Resilience
G	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Intuitiveness
Inter-Personal Enablers											
H	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Interpersonal Sensitivity
J	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Influencing
K	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Engaging Communication
L	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Empowering
M	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Developing
Drivers											
N	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Motivation
P	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Achieving
Constrainer											
Q	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Conscientiousness
Sten%	2	5	8	15	20	20	15	8	5	2	

Source: Total Norm Group (n = 1009)

Self-Assessment Profile Chart

for **“Involving”** Style of Leadership

Name: ZZZZZZZ YYYYYY

Sten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Dimensions
Personal Enablers											
A	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Critical Analysis & Judgement**
B	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Vision & Imagination**
C	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Strategic Perspective**
D	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Managing Resources**
E	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Self-awareness**
F	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Emotional Resilience**
G	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Intuitiveness**
Inter-Personal Enablers											
H	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Interpersonal Sensitivity**
J	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Influencing**
K	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Engaging Communication**
L	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Empowering**
M	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	**Developing**
Drivers											
N	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Motivation**
P	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Achieving**
Constrainer											
Q	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	**Conscientiousness**
Sten%	2	5	8	15	20	20	15	8	5	2	

Source: Total Norm Group (n = 1009)

Self-Assessment Profile Chart

for "Engaging" Style of Leadership

Name: ZZZZZZZ YYYYYY

Sten	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Dimensions
Personal Enablers											
A	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Critical Analysis & Judgement
B	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Vision & Imagination
C	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Strategic Perspective
D	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Managing Resources
E	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Self-awareness
F	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Emotional Resilience
G	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Intuitiveness
Inter-Personal Enablers											
H	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Interpersonal Sensitivity
J	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Influencing
K	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Engaging Communication
L	.	.	3	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Empowering
M	.	.	.	4	.	.	.	.	.	.	Developing
Drivers											
N	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Motivation
P	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Achieving
Constrainer											
Q	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	.	.	Conscientiousness
Sten%	2	5	8	15	20	20	15	8	5	2	

Source: Total Norm Group (n = 1009)

SECTION 3: DEVELOPMENT PLANNING FOR THE 15 DIMENSIONS

Having reviewed your three style profiles and reflected on the leadership style(s) appropriate for your role and context, you may find the following overview of your scores on each of the 15 dimensions helpful in formulating a development plan.

The following analysis looks at your relative strengths and weaknesses on each of the 15 dimensions. However, in interpreting these you do need to consider their relevance to the profile required in your current context. In some cases, you may have a score that is ***above*** that required in your current context. If this is so, you might well reflect on how you might adapt your behaviour to make it more appropriate. For example, if you are in a Transformational context and have an above-average score on Critical Analysis & Judgement, you may need to think of ways of working which reduce your own contribution and enable others to develop these capabilities. However, the comments under each dimension reflect possible development needs that may be appropriate if the context indicates that a higher score on this dimension is required for successful performance in the context in which you are currently, or expect to be, working. In addition, strengths that could be deployed further are highlighted. Furthermore, you could gain even greater insights by talking to your work colleagues about their perceptions of your behaviour in a range of relevant situations.

Personal Enablers

A Critical Analysis and Judgement

Your responses to the form suggest that you do not always display Critical Analysis and Judgement. In some situations, you tend **not** to identify and solve problems, or have a critical faculty and make sound judgements based on reasonable assumptions.

Your overall score is below average on Critical Analysis and Judgement and so you might consider building your capability in: looking at core issues when analysing a complex situation.

B Vision and Imagination

Your responses indicate that you do not always display Vision and Imagination. In some situations, you tend **not** to be imaginative and innovative, to establish sound priorities for future work, to have a clear vision of the future direction of the organisation and to foresee the impact of external and internal changes on your vision which reflect business realities.

Your overall score is below average on Vision and Imagination and so you might consider building your capability in: exploring situations from a wide perspective and looking at the implications of changes in the external environment when developing a vision.

C Strategic Perspective

Your responses suggest that some aspects of your Strategic Perspective are strengths. In some situations, you appear to see the wider issues, to balance short and long-term considerations, to be sensitive to the impact of your actions, to identify opportunities and threats and to be sensitive to Stakeholders' needs and external developments.

D Managing Resources

Your score in the area of Managing Resources is in the below-average range. In some situations, you tend **not** to plan ahead, to co-ordinate and organise all resources efficiently, to establish clear objectives, to evaluate your staff's work effectively, and give them sensitive and honest feedback.

Your overall score is below average on Managing Resources and so you might consider building your capability in: giving difficult feedback to staff members.

E Self-awareness

Your self-assessment for this dimension produces a relatively low score. This could indicate that you are not always aware of your feelings and emotions in work situations. If you wish to develop this dimension, you might find it helpful to reflect on specific situations in which you have felt in control of your feelings and emotions. In thinking about these situations you may be able to identify specific actions which were helpful. You could then apply these in future situations which arouse strong feelings and emotions.

Whilst your overall score is below average on Self-awareness, you appear to have strengths in relation to understanding the reasons for your emotional reactions, and then dealing with them, which could be exploited.

F Emotional Resilience

On this scale your self-assessment indicates that you are in the average range. Such a score on this dimension could indicate that you, like most people, tend to find some situations more difficult to handle than others. It might also indicate that you can on occasions become frustrated by challenge or criticism, and therefore find it difficult to continue to perform effectively in these circumstances. A helpful way of dealing with your resilience, if you choose to, is to attempt to depersonalise criticism and challenge, and view it as a challenge to the ideas, proposals and so on associated with the task rather than a personal attack. It can be useful to engage others in discussion to review the problem and task from different perspectives to find a successful way forward.

G Intuitiveness

Your self-assessment on this dimension produces a result which is in the lower range. Such a score could indicate that you are uncomfortable making decisions unless you have full and unambiguous data available. It may be that you either lack the confidence to use your own experience to close any gaps in information, or believe such intuitive behaviour would lead to an incorrect or bad decision. If you need to develop your capability in this area, reflect on past business decisions you have made. In doing so, try to identify the decision you would have made before you had all the information you felt to be necessary. Then compare this to the final decision. You may find, from this, that your own experience led to intuitive decisions which were close to the final ones. Try applying the insight from these reflections to your future decisions.

Your overall score is below average on Intuitiveness and so you might consider building your capability in: making judgements based on incomplete information, making decisions based on incomplete information, taking decisions or action on the basis of information which may not be obviously valid, using experience and intuition when making decisions, being prepared, and willing, to make decisions based on intuition, adopting a broader approach to decisions (i.e. not basing them purely on logic and facts) and using intuition when making decisions.

Inter-Personal Enablers

H Interpersonal Sensitivity

Your score on this dimension, based on your self-assessment, is in the lower range. This could indicate that you have a tendency to impose your own solutions on those you work with without taking account of their views and reactions. You may not always be aware of the needs and views of those you work with and may not spend enough time listening to others. In order to develop this dimension you might find it helpful to seek the views and opinions of others, in relation to work problems and decisions, before proposing your own solutions and ideas. You may also find it helpful to spend time discussing others' reactions to tasks and activities you need them to undertake, and try to take account of these in a way which still allows the task to be completed effectively.

J Influencing

On this scale your self-assessment indicates that you are in the average range. You may sometimes feel frustrated by your inability to persuade others to change their viewpoint or opinion on an important issue. If you need to develop your capability in this area, reflect on those situations in which you have been successful in influencing others. In doing this, try to identify the behaviours or strategies which worked and then try to apply them to all situations in which you need to influence others.

Whilst your overall score on Influencing is in the average range, nevertheless you might like to work on exploiting strengths in relation to influencing others who have a view different to yours.

K Engaging Communication

Your responses suggest that you do not always display Engaging Communication. In some situations, you tend **not** to communicate in a lively, engaging and enthusiastic way, to communicate your instructions and vision to staff clearly, to tailor your communications to your audience, to inspire staff and audiences, and to adopt a style which conveys approachability and accessibility.

L Empowering

Your responses indicate that you do not always display Empowering. In some situations, you tend **not** to know your Direct Report's strengths and weaknesses, to give them autonomy and to encourage them to take on challenging tasks, solve problems, produce innovative ideas, develop their vision, and employ a critical faculty and a broad perspective.

M Developing

Your responses suggest that you do not always display Developing. In some situations, you tend **not** to encourage your staff to take on ever more-demanding tasks, to ensure that they have adequate support, to make every effort to develop their competencies, to spend time coaching them and to identify new tasks which will develop them.

Whilst your overall score is below average on Developing, you appear to have strengths in relation to encouraging staff to look at problems from a wide perspective, which could be exploited.

Drivers

N Motivation

Your self-assessment on this dimension produces a result which is in the average range. Such a score could indicate that your capability to maintain your focus on achieving a significant goal or result appears to vary from one situation to another. In some situations you may tend to focus on short-term goals and actions at the expense of clear long-term goals or aspirations. If you need to develop this dimension you might find it helpful to identify the motives which enable you to sustain long-term performance and build a strategy to apply this understanding to a wider range of situations.

P Achieving

Your responses indicate that some aspects of Achieving are strengths. In some situations, you appear to be willing to make decisions involving significant risk to gain an advantage, to base decisions on core issues relating to success, to select and exploit those activities which result in the greatest benefits and to show an unwavering determination to achieve objectives and implement decisions.

Constrainer

Q Conscientiousness

On this scale your self-assessment indicates that you are in the average range. Such a score on this scale indicates that, while in general your actions conform to expected behaviours and rules, there are occasions when you can tend to be unduly pragmatic. Your self-assessment on this scale indicates that you may find that others occasionally perceive inconsistency between your words and your actions in practice. If you decide to develop your capability in this area, it may be helpful to find ways of consistently achieving results within the organisation's existing standards of behaviour. Developing consistency in behaviour may be helped by reflecting before acting and testing whether or not your proposed action is in line with what you have said to others about a task, situation or problem.

DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINES

It is possible to develop many aspects of your leadership style by planned and sustained development activities. Some Dimensions are readily developable whereas others are more difficult to develop and it is more a matter of exploiting whatever capacity you may possess. If you wish to develop your capabilities in line with the style(s) relevant to your needs, a useful initial framework is as follows:

Now:

13 · reflect on, and identify, examples of behaviour which you exhibit in different situations;

14

15 · identify those Dimensions which are seen as strengths in line with the style appropriate to your current situation and start to devise a plan to strengthen and build on these further;

16

17 · identify those Dimensions which are seen as development needs in line with the style appropriate to your current situation and start to devise a plan of possible behaviour changes which you could make to address these needs;

18

In your work:

19 · consciously practise changing and reinforcing your behaviours, and reflect on your responses to them;

20

21 · continually seek feedback from colleagues on the Dimensions you have attempted to change.

22

In your job, you will probably benefit from receiving feedback from others. You can then reflect on how they have perceived your reactions to significant events, challenges or decisions. You could also benefit from discussing your development actions and ideas with colleagues and, if possible, a mentor. This will enable you to obtain further advice and to 'fine tune' your proposed action plans.