From the Editor

Dail Fields
Regent University

This issue of the *International Journal of Leadership Studies* continues our diverse international offerings covering leadership in the contexts of political leadership in Israel, strategic leadership in Africa, full-time and alternative work arrangements in Turkey, leader-follower relationships and executive development in the United States, and leadership preferences of employees in Lebanon. The diversity of the research presented by our authors offers all of us an opportunity to develop global perspectives on the role of leaders and followers in organizations. Our authors continue to bless us with excellent material, and we continue to work hand-in-hand with authors to present interesting, educational, and professional research

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I again want to thank the members of our editorial board and reviewers for their continued help and support. If you are interested and willing to review for IJLS, or if you wish to nominate reviewers, please contact us at IJLS@regent.edu. Thanks also for the continuing work of our managing editor, Myra Dingman, and her production colleagues.

Employees' Perceptions of Lebanese Managers' Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment

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Using Bass' (1990) framework of transactional and transformational leadership, this research investigated the employees' perceptions of the prevalent leadership style in Lebanon and its impact on organizational commitment. The Lebanese society with its social complexity has much to offer to the understanding of the culture's effect on leadership style and organizational commitment. Moreover, the impact of religion and gender on leadership style and organizational commitment is examined. Data were collected in a survey on a sample composed of 158 respondents chosen among employees working and living in two different areas in Lebanon. Results showed that Lebanese leadership tends to be more transformational than transactional. Evidence supporting a positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment has been found. A significant and curious difference in leadership perception and organizational commitment between religious communities has also been noted.

Compared to other parts of the world, the Middle Eastern region has less available literature related to the field of human resources management. Available references in the region focus mainly on the influence of Arab culture and Arab values on management practices and management systems (Ali & Al-Shakis, 1985; Elsayed-Elkhouly & Buda, 1997; Hunt & At-Twaijri, 1996). A number of scholars (Ali, 1992, 2004; Robertson, 2002; Tayeb, 1997) have highlighted the immense impact of Islamic values, Islamic work ethics, and Islamic principles on human resources management in Islamic countries (Budhwar & Fadzil, 2000; Rosen, 2002). However, Al Omian and Weir (2005) believed that the Middle-East region and its organizational behavior characteristics have much to offer the world of management and business in the 21st century. They insisted on the impact of Islam and the network connections called *wasta* as key indicators for understanding leadership practices and emphasized, consequently, the paternalistic figure of leadership. Wasta is a common Arabic term used to indicate the act of supporting, favoring, and even being generous to a specific person within families or community networks in a way that may seem unfair to others. Sometimes wasta is done disregarding competency.

Sabri (2005) integrated a comparative approach to study the leadership styles of Jordanian managers in the International Air Transport Association (IATA). The results revealed

that IATA managers preferred transformational rather than transactional leadership styles in Jordan. The Lebanese management style is still relatively unstudied. Neal, Finlay, and Tansey (2005) found, in a comparative study of Arab women's attitudes toward leadership authority, that Lebanon is characterized by a relatively low level of traditional authority and a very high level of charismatic authority.

Building on (a) current theories of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass, 1985, 1999); (b) Budhwar et al.'s (2004, 2002, 2001, 1998) conceptual framework of human resources practices for cross-national or national examination; and (c) Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) model for organizational commitment measurement, I developed a conceptual framework and a set of propositions for analyzing leadership styles in Lebanon as well as their impact on organizational commitment and conducted a field investigation on a panel of 158 employees from different organizations located in two different regions in Lebanon having different cultural characteristics.

Specifically, the following research questions were addressed: To what extent is the Lebanese manager's leadership style perceived to be either more transformational or more transactional? What is the impact of the perceived Lebanese leadership styles on organizational commitment?

Conceptual Framework for Studying Leadership Styles in Lebanon

Budhar and colleagues (Budhwar, 2004; Budhwar & Debrah, 2001, 2004; Budhwar & Sparrow, 1998, 2002) have identified three levels of variables that are known to influence human resources management policies and practices that are worth considering for cross-national or national examinations: (a) national factors (culture, religion, national institutions, business sectors, and dynamic business environment), (b) contingent variables (age, size, gender, nature of ownership, life cycle stage of organization), and (c) organizational strategies (e.g., as proposed by researchers Miles & Snow, 1978 and Porter, 1990) and policies related to primary human resources functions and internal labor markets. This conceptual framework could be adopted for understanding the determinants of the Lebanese management leadership. In this research, the focus is mainly on the impact of national culture, religion, and family business ownership.

Bass' (1985) framework of transformational and transactional leadership was utilized to apprehend management leadership styles in Lebanon and an organizational commitment instrument developed by Mowday et al. (1979) was used to measure the impact of leadership on human resources (see Figure 1).
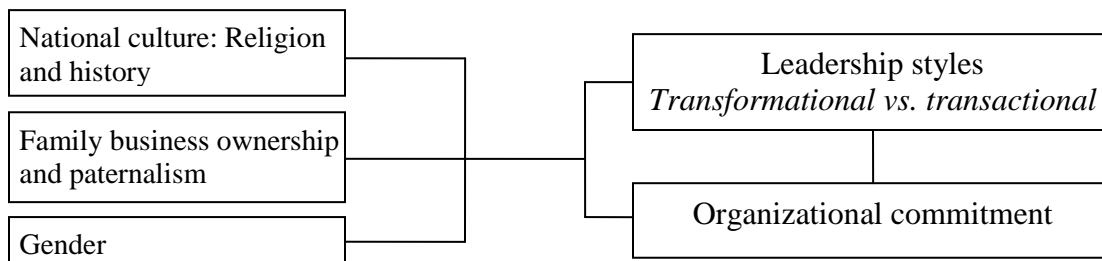

Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

National Culture: Religion and History

Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment. There has been considerable evidence that national culture influences leadership styles and employees' behavior. Therefore, national culture is considered a key factor for understanding the Lebanese manager's leadership. The major works related to culture include power and authority, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and so forth. Accordingly, House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004) used Hofstede's (1980) conceptual framework to analyze the impact of culture on leaders' behavior and organizational practices. They developed a cross-cultural leadership theory based on cross-nation empirical studies in 60 countries. From the Arab world, they selected Egypt and Qatar. Culture cannot be considered as nation specific; in other terms, one nation cannot be defined with one specific culture, especially in certain countries in the Arab World. Lebanon, for example, does not constitute a unique culture, and religion should not be viewed as the only source of Lebanese national character since the Lebanese society is a mosaic of different religions and cultures. Salibi (1993), a foremost historian and specialist in Middle East modern history, considered Lebanon as the house of many mansions since religious communities had a difficult history of cohabitation. Civil wars in the 19th and the 20th centuries had a considerable impact on management and leadership. Connections or wasta have become the main criteria for selection and recruitment. The predominance of wasta could be explained by the selection of people within a circle of trust which could be circles of religion, confession, political affiliation, and/or family. Wasta can also imply mediation that binds families and communities for team cohesion and well-being in a hostile environment. This could benefit society as a whole as well as the parties involved (Al Omian & Weir, 2005). It could be argued that family and community based networks are developed in response to uncertainty and market failure to assure trust for transactions (Colli, 2003).

Another concept of wasta is the use of connections for personal interests which commonly stands for nepotism, cronyism, and corruption in general. That is a deeply rooted practice among all communities.

Another important element in the Lebanese culture is religious commitment. Islam and Christianity are the dominant religions in Lebanon. Religious social norms are deeply embedded in everyday life. For Muslims, for example, these norms and values are underpinned to a very large extent by the Koran, the sayings and the practices of the prophet Muhammad. These norms include intention (*niyat*) underlying every act, proficiency (*ihsan*), sincerity (*ikhlas*), piety (*taqwa*), justice (*adl*), truthfulness (*sidk*), patience (*sabar*), consulting (*shura*), and so forth. It is generally assumed that Islam's influence on workplace behavior may elevate concern for in-group relationship above personal concerns. Both employees and employers have moral obligations to develop relationships that lead to increased team and organizational solidarity (Bhuian, Al-Shammari, & Jefri, 2001; Mellahi, 2006). Therefore, Islam community is supposed to be more collectivistic. Collectivistic cultural values foster conformity in group, section, or unit behavior. Harmony within groups is more valued in collectivistic cultures; members are more likely to engage in behaviors that ensure harmony and refrain from behaviors that threaten harmony (Matsumoto, 2000). Consequently, we can easily assume that Lebanese national culture promotes relations-oriented versus task-oriented leadership.

Family Business Ownership and Paternalism

According to a report published by the Lebanese Ministry of Industry in 1999, the predominance of family business ownership is one of the characteristics of the Lebanese economy. Saidi (2004) considered that more than 90% of Lebanese small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) are family businesses. In family firms, property and control are so firmly entwined that family members are involved in both strategic and day-to-day decision making, and the firm is shaped by dynastic motive. It is also agreed upon the presence of an identity between the family and the business given that the enterprise will generate employment and welfare for the family, while the family is the primary source of finance, labor, and knowledge for the enterprise itself. An immediate consequence of this is the upsurge of a paternalistic pattern reproducing in the firm the social relations prevailing within the community. A family business owner may behave like a dictatorial head of the family. He may even go to extremes and consider himself as the sole thinking mind of the family. Johannisson and Huse (2000) reported that as it appears in a family business, paternalism means a clan type of emotional hierarchy where hierarchical structure is based on seniority and kinship.

Moreover, in the Arab countries, paternalism does not imply a formal level of communication between managers and employees. The formal aspect of social, family, and political life is strictly preserved even in managerial settings. Thus, it is impossible to undertake any kind of meeting in an Arab organization without the ubiquitous coffee or tea rituals (Al Omian & Weir, 2005). Concerning the Lebanese family, the unique study of Fahed-Sreih and Djoundourian (2006) showed that decision making tends to be participatory with a liberal attitude toward female ownership and management. Consequently, we can assume that family business ownership promotes a paternalistic leadership style.

The paternalistic leadership is assumed to be more compatible with the transformational pattern of behavior that is generally the result of national culture, religion, and the family ownership of firms. Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, and Farh (2004) considered that the paternalistic leader and transformational leader do have something in common. Transformational leadership includes a style of individualized care that is similar to paternalistic leadership. Some researchers (Parry & Proctor-Thompson, 2002) have started to explore the display of integrity by transformational leaders which is similar to paternalistic leadership.

Gender

Here, the independent variable of gender has been introduced since previous studies suggested an influence of gender on attitudes toward leadership authority (Neal et al., 2005). Accordingly, gender may influence the perception of a manager's leadership style as well as organizational commitment.

Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership Style

One branch of leadership research, however, that has proven useful to the study of CEO-level management has been Bass' (1985, 1999) framework of transactional/transformational leadership. Bass' (1985, 1999) framework was developed within larger organizational contexts, and it has been successfully applied to the study of top-level managers (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996). The definition of transformational and transactional leadership styles

was built on prior classifications, such as relations-oriented versus task-oriented leadership (Fiedler, 1967) and directive versus participative leadership (Heller & Yukl, 1969). Transactional leadership motivates individuals primarily through contingent reward exchanges and active management by exception. Transactional leaders set goals, articulate explicit agreements regarding what the leader expects from organizational members and how they will be rewarded for their efforts and commitment, and provide constructive feedback to keep every person on task (Bass & Avolio, 1993b; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 2002). However, transformational leadership is charismatic, inspirational, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). These leaders help individuals transcend their self-interest for the sake of the larger vision of the firm. They believe in people, and they are driven by a strong set of values such as loyalty, trust, and personal attention to employees, something that could positively influence organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has typically been viewed as the relative strength of an individual's identification with the involvement in an organization as well as his or her willingness to exert effort and remain in the organization. Commitment as outcome has been related to leadership (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005).

As previously mentioned, Lebanese managers refer to their network of trust for selection and recruitment. With this policy of selection, the firm tends to be a big family where managers are expected to develop paternalistic patterns of behavior. As a result of these practices, organizational commitment was expected to be high in Lebanese firms. This cohesiveness is also enhanced by a transformational leadership style that gives more attention to people than to tasks.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were proposed:

H_1:   Lebanese managers' leadership tends to be more transformational than transactional.
H_2:   Transformational leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.
H_3:   Leadership styles and organizational commitment tend to differ between Lebanese religious communities.
H_4:   Leadership styles and organizational commitment tend to differ between male and female respondents.

Methods

Concepts Measurement

Bass' (1985) work constitutes the methodological basis for developing the statements of the instrument used to measure transactional and transformational leadership from an employee perception. In accordance with Vera and Crossman (2004), we used an 18-item questionnaire with a Likert scale for measuring the perception of leadership style (see Appendix A).

In order to measure the employees' organizational commitment level, we used the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979). The OCQ is characterized by three factors: (a) a strong belief in the acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al.). The OCQ measures a combination of employee attitudes and behavioral intentions, reflective of the moral involvement of the employee with the organization (see Appendix B).

To test the instrument's reliability, we used Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1990) on a sample of 158 respondents. All three constructs show a high or acceptable level of reliability: transformational leadership (.88), transactional leadership (.76), and organizational commitment (.81).

Sample

Data were collected from two Lebanese universities situated in two different regions in Lebanon. The first one is located in a Christian area and the second one in a Muslim area. Since names easily can be used as a key element for identifying religious identity, only questionnaires of the Muslim students of the Lebanese university situated in the Muslim area were selected, and only questionnaires of the Christian students of the Lebanese university situated in the Christian area were selected. This selection helps us to identify the impact of religion on leadership styles and organizational commitment. During three academic semesters, more than 170 students in the masters program who had work experience were asked to fill in the questionnaire. Of those, 158 questionnaires were selected for the survey analysis. Several questionnaires were rejected due to confusion in respondent or manager religious identity.

Findings and Discussions

Table 1 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of the respondents' answers on transformational, transactional, and organizational commitment constructs. The results support H_1. Respondents perceived Lebanese leadership style as more transformational ($M = 3.56$) than transactional ($M = 2.97$). The results of the *t* test as shown in Table 2 indicate that there are significant differences in means between transactional and transformational leadership.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics ($N = 158$)

Construct	Min.	Max.	*M*	*SD*
Transformational	1.25	5.00	3.56	.78
Transactional	1.33	4.67	2.97	.77
Organizational commitment	2.13	4.73	3.38	.63

Table 2: *T* Test Results for the Differences Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles (*N* = 158)

	M	*SD*	*SEM*	95% confidence interval of the difference		*t*	*df*	*p*
				Lower	Upper			
Transformational–transactional	.59	1.01	.01	.44	.75	7.42	157	.00

Moreover, Table 3 shows a significant correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The correlations (Table 3) and regression results (Table 8) support H_2 that proposed a positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Our findings, therefore, show evidence for transformational leadership being positively related to behavioral outcomes (Walumbwa et al., 2005).

Table 3: Correlation Analysis Between Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment (*N* = 158)

Construct	Transformational	Transactional	Organizational commitment
Transformational	-		
Transactional	.16*	-	
Organizational commitment	.36**	.05	-

*p < .05. **p < .01.

As per H_3, the results shown in Tables 4 and 5 demonstrate a weak but significant difference between Muslim and Christian respondents as far as the perception of leadership styles and organizational commitment are concerned. Both of them perceived their leaders to be more transformational than transactional. Christian respondents, in comparison with Muslims, perceived their leaders as more transformational and seem to be a little more committed to their organizations. The answer of this result lies within the structure of the Muslim community in Lebanon. Actually, the period in which the study was conducted was marked by a high sectarian tension between Shiite and Sunnite. In order to obtain more accurate results, one should not put all Muslims in one basket. But, asking the respondent to reveal his or her leader's Muslim identity is seen as an unethical question.

While the religious identity of the respondent had some significant impact on leadership style perception and organizational commitment, gender did not seem to make a difference (H_4). Female respondents seem to identify their leaders as barely more transformational in comparison to male respondents (see Tables 6 and 7).

Table 4: A Comparison Between Muslim and Christian Managers on Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Religion	Transformational		Transactional		Organizational commitment	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Christian (*N* = 94)	3.73	.78	2.93	.78	3.49	.52
Muslim (*N* = 64)	3.33	.73	3.03	.76	3.21	.73
Total (*N* = 158)	3.56	.78	2.97	.77	3.38	.63

Table 5: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Religion

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Transformational					
Between groups	6.14	1	6.14	10.63**	.00
Within groups	90.08	156	.58		
Total	96.22	157			
Transactional					
Between groups	.33	1	.33	.55	.46
Within groups	93.64	156	.60		
Total	93.97	157			
Organizational commitment					
Between groups	3.05	1	3.05	8.12**	.01
Within groups	58.66	156	.38		
Total	61.70	157			

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 6: A Comparison Between Gender on Leadership Constructs

Religion	Transformational		Transactional		Organizational commitment	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Male (*N* = 91)	3.42	.69	3.09	.74	3.39	.66
Female (*N* = 67)	3.75	.86	2.81	.80	3.36	.59
Total (*N* = 158)	3.56	.78	2.97	.77	3.38	.63

Table 7: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Transformational					
Between groups	4.17	1	4.17	7.07**	.01
Within groups	92.05	156	.59		
Total	96.22	157			
Transactional					
Between groups	3.05	1	3.05	5.24	.02
Within groups	90.92	156	.58		
Total	93.97	157			
Organizational commitment					
Between groups	.01	1	.01	.14	.71
Within groups	61.64	156	.40		
Total	61.70	157			

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 8: Regression Results Between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Construct	B	SE B	β
Transformational leadership	.29	.06	.36**

Note. $R^2 = .13$ ($p < .01$).
**$p < .01$.

Concluding Remarks

By adopting Bass' (1990) framework of transactional and transformational leadership, we aimed to determine the employees' perception of the Lebanese leadership styles and its impact on employees' organizational commitment. Considering the Lebanese collectivistic culture, religion, family connections, and wasta, the Lebanese leadership style was assumed to be more transformational than transactional. Using a sample of 158 respondents, the survey shows that the Lebanese leadership style is more transformational than transactional. Correlation and regression analysis show that transformational leadership style is related to employees' organizational commitment.

Since the Lebanese society is divided into different religious communities, we attempted to measure the impact of religion on leadership style perception and organizational commitment. The results show that there are no significant differences between male and female respondents. However, there was a significant difference between Muslim and Christian societies. Christian employees tend to perceive their leaders as more transformational. This difference is mainly due to the fact that the Muslim society is divided into different communities; moreover, political tension was running very high between these communities during the time of data collection. The impact of the religious difference may constitute a key area for research that would contribute to understanding managerial practices and leadership styles in a more detailed way in the future.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire for Measuring Employee's Perception
of His or Her Manager's Leadership Style

Employee is asked to give an opinion about their senior manager's leadership style.
(1) Strongly disagree, (2) Moderately disagree, (3) Neither disagree nor agree, (4) Moderately agree, (5) Strongly agree

1. Makes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about assignments	1 2 3 4 5
2. I have complete faith in him/her	1 2 3 4 5
3. Encourages me to express my ideas and opinions	1 2 3 4 5
4. Is an inspiration to us	1 2 3 4 5
5. Inspires loyalty to him/her	1 2 3 4 5
6. Inspires loyalty to the organization intellectual stimulation	1 2 3 4 5
7. His/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas, which I had never questioned before	1 2 3 4 5
8. Enables me to think about old problems in new ways	1 2 3 4 5
9. Has provided me with new ways of looking at things, which used to be a puzzle for me	1 2 3 4 5
10. Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected	1 2 3 4 5
11. Finds out what I want and tries to help me to get it	1 2 3 4 5
12. You can count on him/her to express his/her appreciation when you do a good job	1 2 3 4 5
13. Tells me what to do if I want to be rewarded for my efforts*	1 2 3 4 5
14. There is a close agreement between what I am expected to put into the group effort and the benefit I can get out of it*	1 2 3 4 5
15. Whenever I feel like it, I can negotiate with him/her about what can I get from what I accomplish*	1 2 3 4 5
16. Asks no more of me than what is absolutely essential to get the work done*	1 2 3 4 5
17. It is all right if I take initiatives but he/she does not encourage me to do so*	1 2 3 4 5
18. Only tells me what I have to know to do my job*	1 2 3 4 5

*Reversed scale.

Note. Scale published by Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2004). Strategic leadership and organizational learning. *Academy of Management Review, 29*(2), 222-240.

Appendix B

Questionnaire for Measuring Organizational Commitment

(1) Strongly disagree, (2) Moderately disagree, (3) Neither disagree nor agree, (4) Moderately agree, (5) Strongly agree.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.(R)**	1 2 3 4 5
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1 2 3 4 5
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long the type of work was similar.*	1 2 3 4 5
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1 2 3 4 5
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.*	1 2 3 4 5
10. I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1 2 3 4 5
11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.*	1 2 3 4 5
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.*	1 2 3 4 5
13. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1 2 3 4 5
14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1 2 3 4 5
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.*	1 2 3 4 5

*Reversed scale.

Note. Scale published by Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14*(2), 224-247.

Authoritarian Management Style in the Likud Party Under the Leadership of Benjamin Netanyahu

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This research examines the management style of Israeli Benjamin Netanyahu in the Likud party after his election to party chairman in 1992 compared with that of Yitzhaz Shamir by analyzing party structures that the leaders created. After Netanyahu's election as party chairman, he initiated organizational change within the Likud. He altered the internal election system, introducing primaries to replace the sevens system in order to weaken both the Central Committee and political rivals. This research used the qualitative method, taking the leadership of Netanyahu as a case study. The study was based on two methods of data collection: analyzing documents and interviews. Netanyahu also altered the party constitution. The Central Committee previously had elected most party positions; under Netanyahu, the party chairman himself nominated members to key administration roles. He created two new bodies within the party (the party bureau and the party management) and appointed their members as well. His changes aroused much opposition but were nevertheless passed by majority vote. The Likud party structure became more centralized under Netanyahu's leadership from 1993 to 1996. The party lost its factional nature; instead, one dominant coalition ruled the party. In conclusion, in this case, we see that democratic management within the Likud party was related to the power of the leader: when the leader was weak, his management style was more democratic because he sought support; when the leader enjoyed wide legitimacy in the party, he could choose to be democratic or oligarchic.

This research examined the management style of Israeli Benjamin Netanyahu in the Likud party after he was elected to the position of party chairman in 1993. The research questions were: Did Netanyahu lead his party in a democratic or an authoritarian way? Why did Netanyahu choose the approach he used, and what contextual factors contributed to its success?

In this research, it was assumed that management style was reflected in the changes that the leader initiated in the structure of the party. First, there is a review of the history of the Likud party until 1992 which serves as a background to the analysis of Netanyahu's style of leadership.

Historical Background

Israeli society underwent political and social change from the time of its establishment at the beginning of the 19th century until 1977. Israeli pioneers came from Russia with socialistic ideology. Their leader, Ben Gurion, founded the basic political, social, and economical mechanisms together with the representatives of the pioneers: the Historic MAPI (Labor party) and union federation (Histadrut). These organizations helped MAPI to dominate Israeli society for 70 years.

Gradually, MAPI lost its special influence, mainly after the Six Day War in 1967 and Yom Kippur War in 1973. These events affected the Israeli public which became more militant against the Arabs with national and hawkish orientation. Finally, in 1977, for the first time, the right wing Likud party succeeded in winning the general election, governing until 1992. In this year, Yitzhak Rabin returned to power and built a Labor government.

Following electoral defeat, the Likud party underwent changes at the leadership level. The founders' generation, led by Begin, Shamir, and Sharon, was replaced by the younger leadership of Netanyahu and his supporters. Intergenerational struggles took place in the Likud party. It will be useful to take a look at them in order to understand the dynamics of leadership change that took place in the party.

Likud Leaders and Policy

The party was founded by its charismatic and militant leader Ze'ev Jabotinsky. He was opposed to the conciliatory views of the dominant Labor party MAPAI and called for fighting against the British and for driving them out of pre-State Israel. Menachem Begin continued along this path and was also an ardent and charismatic speaker. Begin was the commander of the National Military Organization (the ETZEL) and a member of the Revisionist Party.

In 1948, he founded the Herut (*freedom* in Hebrew) Party. Begin was often surrounded with his fighter friends and, at the time, enjoyed the support of most party members. Begin and Sharon founded the Likud party (*unity* in Hebrew) in 1973, absorbing the Liberal party LA'A (Hebrew acronym for *independent liberals*) and the Free Center.

In 1977, he reached the pinnacle of his political career when he was elected as the head of the first Likud government and succeeded in being re-elected in 1981. However, following the death of his wife and, in particular, seeing the consequences of the Lebanon War, he decided to relinquish all political activity.

A successor, Yitzhak Shamir, follower of Begin and former leader of the National Military Organization LECHI, was chosen as leader and party chairman after defeating David Levy, a young hopeful, who came from the periphery. In the 1984 general elections, with Shamir as chairman of the Likud, the result was a political tie: 41 seats for the Likud and 44 for Labour. Subsequently, the two big parties established a National Unity Government with an agreement on rotation between the two chairmen. Shimon Peres was the prime minister until 1986, and Shamir replaced him. In the 1988 elections, Shamir enjoyed a victory over the Labor Party and served as Prime Minister until 1992.

The Likud underwent an organizational fusion, initiated by Shamir, with the Liberals and the Independent Liberals and small right wing parties such as Telem, Rafi-Ometz, and Tamy (a small religious party). They formed a single organizational unit which is the way the Likud functions to this day.

Shamir was not a leader supported by all party factions, and Levy and Sharon were among his key opponents. They institutionalized factional activity within the Likud, to the extent that the party entered the 1992 elections divided. In the elections, the Likud party suffered a crushing defeat, losing 11 mandates, down from 43 to 32. Members of the party and its leaders blamed the factional structure of the party for this painful defeat.

Following the election result, factional activity increased. Within the Shamir–Arens camp, new factions were formed: the Netanyahu faction and the Katzav faction (Moskovitch, 2004). The Netanyahu faction enjoyed the support of his patron, Moshe Arens (the defense minister), riding on the success of his role as Israel ambassador to the U.N.

There was also the Katzav faction which relied on a group of activists and mayors from southern Israel. Another group of leaders enjoyed special status within the party—Princes, nicknamed for the generation following the founding leaders of the Likud whose parents filled senior positions within the party, most of whom were previously attached to the dominant Shamir–Arens camp. The split within the party reached its peak as the 1993 internal elections approached. Netanyahu succeeded in overcoming his rivals, becoming chairman of the party.

Literature Review

The literature has focused primarily with the topic of management style and leadership in organizations and political parties. As an introduction to leadership styles, definitions of democracy and oligarchy are provided first.

Democracy means the rule of the people, referred to by Dahl (1971) as polyarcy. The principles of democracy are based on decision making by the majority and on man as a political being, free to express his interest and views. Power in society is decentralized, and there are pluralistic organizations in which the citizen can be involved. In an oligarchic regime, most of the power is centered in a small number of groups or people. Oligarchy has been mentioned in literature as authoritarianism or autocracy, and its legitimacy is based on tradition with power bestowed by god or a powerful family. The people in countries under this system are controlled by the government.

Although there is a strong connection between the regime and power distribution, oligarchy and centralized structure need to be distinguished: oligarchy is a regime that limits the freedom of the citizen and affects his or her lifestyle in every aspect. It is a wider definition than the structure. Centralized structure often exists in democratic countries managed by a small number of powerful elite (Katz, 1997; Kimerling, 1995; Lipset, Trow, & Coleman, 1956; Michels, 1949; Moore, 1966; Saward, 1994). The features of democracy and oligarchy are reflected in styles of leadership.

In the classic study on leadership style by Lewin, Lippet, and White (1939), we find that authoritarian leaders determine policy and dictate working methods and the direction of group activity, while democratic leaders behave in the opposite way and allow great freedom to the members of the group.

The democratic leader in organizations is referred to as supportive or participatory. Democratic leadership includes "consultation, joint decision making, power sharing, decentralization, empowerment and democratic management" (Yukl, 2005, p. 82). The leader's behavior is guided by orientation towards the employee and general supervision of workers (Filley & House, 1969). Group structure and organization tend to be decentralized, and the atmosphere is pleasant and unpressurized (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Hall, 1998; Likert, 1967;

Nancy, 2005; Northouse, 2001). Subordinates enjoy freedom, satisfaction, and greater productivity, and the democratic leader is more desirable than an authoritarian one in the eyes of the group (Filley & House; Hall).

The democratic approach was described by Blasé and Anderson (1995) as a "power with" (p. 15) model that "encourages the development of close relationships with subordinates. It also empowers subordinates to expect democratic participation as a right" (p. 15). The leader needs the ability to understand the needs of his or her members and subordinates (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993) and is characterized by human resource development orientation in managing the department (Scott, 1990).

On the other hand, authoritarian leadership style has been defined as "behavior that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience from subordinates" (Cheng, Chou, Huang, & Farh, 2004, p. 91). This style is characterized by a centralized and traditional hierarchical structure that creates distance between the leader and subordinates (Hall, 1998; Silin, 1976; Westwood, 1997). The authoritarian style has been referred to as oligarchic or autocratic (Hall; Kimerling, 1995; Michels, 1949). Unlike the democratic style, here the leader decides alone without the involvement of team members. This may create a stressful climate where complaints and blaming are common (Filley & House, 1969; Hall).

The power base varies from one style of management to another (French & Raven, 1959). The authoritarian leader typically uses compulsion and is more punishment oriented, whereas the democratic leader focuses on legitimacy and transparent behavior, thus creating a sense of identification with the enterprise among the group (Hall, 1998; Yukl, 2005).

Management style needs to be appropriate to the society and culture of the group members (Hollander, 1978; Wright, Szeto, & Geory, 2000). Culture has become an important factor in recent research on leadership. Schein (1992) and Hofstede (1997) defined organizational culture as ideas, norms, symbols, heroes, values, artifacts, and hidden assumptions that affect the organization and its leadership. According to Hofstede, power and distance are expressed as a primary feature in every culture and determine how members of a culture accept the distribution of power: Is the authority of people and leaders unequal (oriented by authoritarian style and centralized structure) or equal (more democratic style and decentralized)?

In Europe and the United States, democratic management is more common in business and educational organizations (McArthur, 2002). The most participatory managers were found to be German, Austrian, and Swiss, while Polish and Czech managers were the most autocratic. The U.S. and French managers lay somewhere between the extremes (Jago et al., 1993). The degree of subordinate participation is also dependent on culture. In Western societies, the worker tends to demand more involvement and the sharing of information (Bass, 1998; Osland, Monteze, & Hunter, 1998; Torres, 2000). In China, the group members do not expect to be involved in the decision-making process. However, leadership style is changing now in Eastern countries such as China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong as a result of modernization, industrialization, and globalization which tend to weaken the influence of authoritarian leadership. Instead, management style is becoming more characterized by benevolent leadership and consideration of employees needs (Cheng et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2000).

In general, cross-cultural studies tend to support the democratic style which is understandable in light of its consideration of subordinate needs which contributes to greater work satisfaction (Dorfman & House, 2004).

Leadership in Political Parties

A party leader is a primary mover for change and for the adaptation of the party to the environment in which it exists (Janda, 1990; Katz, 1997; Mishima, 2007; Muller, 1997; Wilson, 1989). Leaders in recent years have become more professional and flexible, and the party is more dependent on them (Mair, 2000; Muller, Plasser, & Ulrama, 2004). Most research into the organization of parties has found that the more powerful and important the role of the leadership in a party becomes, the weaker its administration and ideology (Katz; Katz & Mair, 1995; Panebianco, 1988; Webb, 2004). The party organization became an "empty vessel," and the leadership replaced it (Katz & Kolodny, 1994).

Parties are now more elitist in nature than in the past (Mair & Katz, 1994), and leaders wish to reserve their domain as far as possible in order to maximize their scope for strategic games of party competition. Leader's autonomy is growing, and the election campaign becomes a candidate-centered "presidential" style of leadership (Scarrow, 2004; Webb, 2004). Moreover, the strength and importance of the leader endows him or her with the ability to create change within the party (Janda, 1990; Janda, Hatmel, Heo, & Tan, 1995; Muller, 1997; Muller et al., 2000; Webb; Wilson, 1989).

The power of the leader within the party is a direct result of his or her ability to win an election (Moskovich, 2004; Muller et al., 2004; Von Beyme, 1996). Usually, in Europe and the U. S., when a party loses an election, a power struggle ensues, bringing about changes in the structure of the dominant coalition. One of the results of defeat may be the replacement of the party leader (Janda, 1990; Panebianco, 1988; Wilson, 1989).

There is a strong connection between power relations and organizational structure (Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). The social actor who acquires the most power can manipulate the party or organization structure to his or her advantage (Samuel, 2005; Yukl, 2005). Leaders in political parties promote changes in party organization, their goal being to strengthen their position. Party structure that was once decentralized tends to be more centralized after the reform.

The victories of Jorg Haider with the Freedom party in the Austrian election enabled him to shape party profile and to make all important decisions (Muller et al., 2004). Similarly, in the New Labor Party (Mair, 2000; Smith, 1998; Webb, 2004), Tony Blair instituted a constitutional revolution in which the leadership tried to establish more control over party decisions and activists. The Japanese Prime Minister Koizumi succeeded in strengthening his status in the Liberal Democratic party by centralizing the party system significantly (Mishima, 2007).

Based on this, we can learn about the leader's management style from his development of a democratic or oligarchic structure in his party. The result of a democratic/oligarchic leadership will be reflected; to this end, I established criteria that were used to analyze the character of party structure.

The Criteria for a Democratic Versus Oligarchic Structure

The following criteria were based on the work of Michels (1949) and researchers who followed in his footsteps (Hall, 1998; Hall, Harley, & Tomkins, 2000; Katz, 1997; Katz & Mair, 1995; Lipset et al., 1956; Mair, 2000; McCartin, Compa, & Sheldon, 2005; Panebianco, 1988; Saward, 1994; Stepan–Norris, 1997; Voss & Sherman, 2000).

1. Changes in leadership – If party leaders are changed frequently, the organization tends to develop in a democratic direction. However, if the leadership stays unchanged for a considerable period of time and other members of the party are unable to attain the position of leader, the party is more oligarchic (Lipset et al., 1956; Michels, 1949).
2. Electing the leadership – If party regulations forbid or make it difficult for candidates to be elected to party positions, the party tends to be more oligarchic. If the opposite is the case, then the tendency is democratic (McCartin et al., 2005; Voss & Sherman, 2000).
3. Control of information – In every party, there are bodies which control the distribution of information about decisions, jobs, and nominations. If only one dominant coalition is exposed to the information, the party tends to the oligarchic, but if there is a free flow of information to different factions, the nature of the party is obviously more democratic (Hall et al., 2001; Michels, 1949).
4. Internal opposition – If internal opposition is allowed to exist within the party and alternative leaders can compete for the chairmanship, the structure is democratic. But if internal opposition and alternative leaders are denied existence, the party is oligarchic (Lipset et al., 1956; Michels, 1949; Saward, 1994).
5. Centralized/decentralized party structure – A centralized structure is dominated by one person or small group who handles and determines the issues and nonissues in the party. Therefore, the leadership style tends to be more oligarchic. But, when the structure is influenced by several members of the group and power is shared on an equal basis, it can be defined as decentralized. If the leader tends to consider and consult the views of other people in the group, he or she tends toward the democratic leadership style (Hall, 1998; Katz, 1997; Lipset et al., 1956; Samuel, 2005; Saward, 1994).

This element can be evaluated according to the following indicators:

1. Elected positions in the party – Does one dominant coalition enjoy access to jobs and positions (centralized), or are party benefits divided among several factions (decentralized)?
2. The decision-making process in the party – Who takes part in the decision process? Is one dominant coalition (centralized) or several factions involved in the process (decentralized)?
3. The status of local branches – If the local branch is independent and decides policy without interference from the central administration, then the party tends to be more decentralized. But, if central party policy dictates to the local branches, then the party is more centralized.
4. Party factions – If the party is divided into factions, it tends towards a decentralized structure. But, if the party has few factions or one dominant controlling faction, it tends to be more centralized and oligarchic.

Research Method

This research was based on the qualitative method, taking the leadership of Netanyahu as a case study during the years of 1993-1996. I chose these periods for my research, because Netanyahu instigated radical change in the party constitution and regulations, and I wanted to understand the factors that led to this. I found the leadership style of Netanyahu intriguing. In order to understand more deeply the background to his leadership style, a method of data comparison with the former chairmen, Shamir, was used. The research method was based on two methods of data collection: analyzing documents and interviews.

Data

Documents. Most documents were collected from the Jabotinsky Institute. They included party rules and regulations and minutes from meetings of the Central Committee and the Secretariat and party conventions. For additional information, newspaper articles describing the events at the various conventions were also used.

Interviews. Some of the interviews were open (i.e., the interviewees were asked some general questions), and a casual conversation ensued. In most cases, however, the interview was planned, focused, and followed a structured questionnaire, adapted to each interviewee. A total of 30 people were interviewed, together representing a wide variety of party members. These included Likud party leaders, ministers from various governments, Knesset (Parliament) members, members of the party's Central Committee, and spokesmen and assistants in Likud governments. All the interviewees had participated in or observed directly the events referenced. The key figures in the party interviewed were Yitzhak Shamir and Moshe Arens, Minister of Defense. Knesset members interviewed included Yossi Ahimeir, a member of the dominant Shamir–Arens camp; Reuven Rivlin, a member of Levy's camp; Meir Shitreet, former mayor of Yavne and a minister in Shamir and Netanyahu's governments; David Reem, former mayor of Kiriat Ata; Michael Kleiner, a member of Levy's camp; Israel Katz, who built the Sharon camp but later became identified with Netanyahu's faction; Yoram Aridor, Minister of Finance during Shamir's government; and Uzi Landau, a member of the Shamir–Arens faction. All those mentioned by name gave permission to be quoted. However, most interviewees wished to remain anonymous; therefore, their names are not mentioned in the article.

In this study, I established criteria for democratic versus oligarchic structure which helped me to determine the style of management. The criteria are presented as an ideal type. Sometimes the findings contradict the model (as presented in the first criteria during Shamir's period), because reality is inconsistent and complicated. The nature of the leadership style was determined by the summary and analysis of all the criteria together.

Findings

The findings were analyzed according to the criteria for democratic or oligarchic party structure focusing on Shamir's leadership (1988-1992) compared to Netanyahu's leadership.

Changes in Leadership

It was during Shamir's chairmanship of the party that he was elected to the position of Prime Minister. The ministers in his government were as follows: Minister of Foreign Affairs, Moshe Arens; Minister of Commerce and Industry, Ariel Sharon; Minister of Justice, Dan Meridor; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Housing, Roni Milo; Minister of Transport, Moshe Katzav; Minister of the Environment, Ehud Olmert; Minister of Tourism, Gideon Pat; Minister of Economy and Planning, Yitzhak Modai; and Minister without Portfolio, Moshe Nissim.

Most of the appointments to these posts were unchanged during Shamir's premiership. Shamir led the government from his vantage point of head of the ruling faction within the party, and his ministers belonged to this group. Although this finding supports an oligarchic structure, other appointments indicate that Shamir's leadership style tended to be more democratic. Shamir's appointment of new young members of the Knesset to cabinet ministers, such as Milo, Olmert, Meridor, and Magen, reflects a tendency towards democratization, as these new members of the government brought influence to bear on the leadership.

In contrast, after Netanyahu was elected as head of the party in 1993, he worked rapidly to overcome opposition to his leadership from Benny Begin, Moshe Kaztav, and David Levy. However, Netanyahu did not make new appointments because his party was in opposition following defeat in the election (Janda, 1990; Mair & Katz, 1994).

Electing the Leadership

In Shamir's time, opponents within the party could compete with him for the leadership. According to party regulations Nos. 54 and 56 of the old constitution, all party positions from the chairman down were elected by the Central Committee. This can be described as democratic procedure.

After Netanyahu was appointed chairman of the party, he worked actively towards changing its charter. At a time when the Central Committee alone dealt with constitutional issues, Binyamin Netanyahu proposed that the chairman be granted sweeping authority in these matters (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993b).

In order to achieve this, he created two bodies under the chairman's sole supervision: the Administration (an executive body enjoying broad authority) and the Bureau (a body focusing on handling economic and social important issues). Netanyahu also initiated change in the internal party election system. Although some members of the Central Committee were opposed to altering the party constitution, the Central Committee approved Netanyahu's proposals by an overwhelming majority.

Disagreements voiced by Netanyahu's opponents illustrate the power struggles taking place within the party. Sharon expressed the following in his speech at the Likud Convention:

> My comment regarding the constitution was [made] out of concern for the party. In a democratic political party, there must be genuine democratic balances of power. It cannot

be that the party chairperson becomes the only body making all the decisions in the Likud, and that all other bodies turn into empty vessels. (Minutes of the Likud Constitution, May 17, 1993, p. 57)

Some party members were angered by the fact that the Bureau had been established as it was a body whose members were appointed rather than elected. As put by Dr. Zin at the same convention: "A Bureau which in fact is not elected is some kind of hybrid creature, which is not under the authority of the Central Committee" (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993b, p. 35). David Cohen spoke cynically about the same issue:

If the Chairperson wants someone, then he will appoint him? If he doesn't want him, then he won't? This is the ultimate in democracy, a Bureau that is not elected. Which is why I demand that it be elected by members of the Central Committee. (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993b, p. 37)

Netanyahu also initiated substantial changes in the internal party electoral system. Originally, a system was established whereby candidates were listed by groups of sevens and voted for in seven such groups; subsequently, a list of 50 candidates to the Knesset was compiled. Netanyahu changed this system to one of primaries, and this gave rise to opposition. Many of the party members who voiced opposition were supporters of Levy, Sharon, and Begin. David Cohen commented at the Convention: "It is a gross undermining of democracy and will lead to Americanization. . . . The party is turning into an aristocracy for the rich. What are these Primaries? . . . nothing but lots of money" (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993b, p. 40).

The effects of the primaries were complex. On the one hand, they gave the members of the party the power to determine the leader. On the other hand, they weakened the ability of Knesset candidates to be elected. Only candidates with sufficient financial resources could be elected, thus compromising the principle of equality before the law.

Attorney Motti Mishani also criticized the constitution sharply. Referring to the older, 1979 constitution, he said, "It's an old wine, but it's good" (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993b, p. 57). Some of the interviewees who had attended the convention claimed that Netanyahu did not respond to any of the issues they raised in criticism but pushed for a quick vote on the new constitution.

Netanyahu's radical alteration of the internal election system lead to the erosion in importance of the Central Committee. In this way, Netanyahu dismantled the power of Levy's supporters and encouraged his main rival to leave the party. Some members of the Central Committee voted to approve Netanyahu's proposals even when they threatened to undermine their very significant power. However, a majority of the members of the Central Committee supported Netanyahu's moves because they believed that he had the ability to bring them back to power following the painful election defeat of 1992. Party members saw Netanyahu as their savior. They believed that they had no choice if they wished to not remain in opposition. In fact, Netanyahu was subsequently elected Prime Minister in 1996. The change in the party structure is demonstrated in Figures 1 and 2.
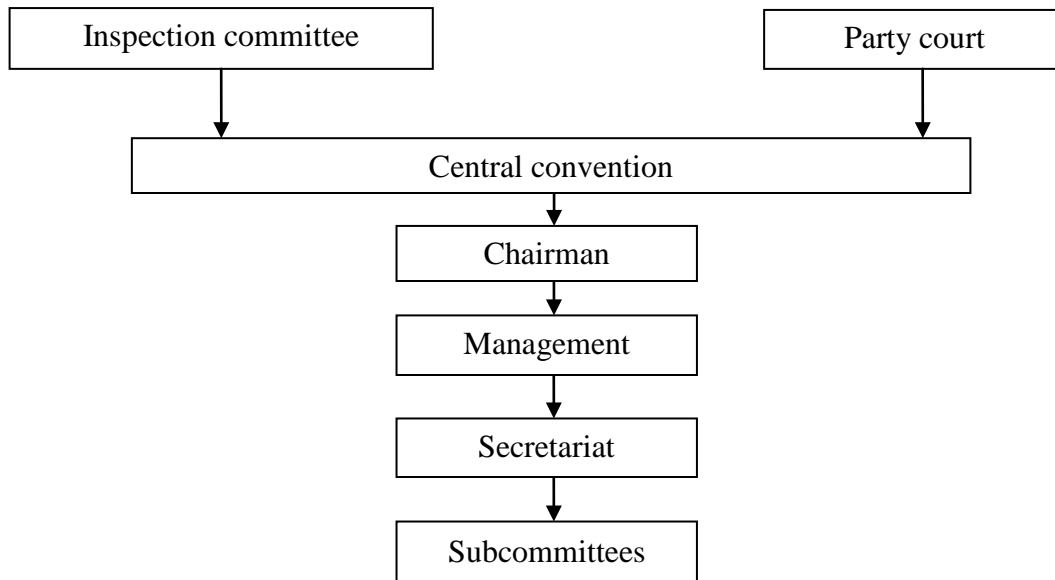
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┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────┐
│ Inspection committee │          │     Party court      │
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            ▼                                 ▼
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│                   Central convention                     │
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                 │  Subcommittees   │
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Figure 1. The formal structure of party bodies according to the old Constitution of 1979.

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┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────┐
│ Inspection committee │          │     Party court      │
└──────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────┘
            │                                 │
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                   Central convention                     │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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                 │   Secretariat    │
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                 │    Chairman      │              │
                 └──────────────────┘              ▼
                          │              ┌──────────────────┐
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                 ┌──────────────────┐    └──────────────────┘
                 │  Administration  │
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                 │  Subcommittees   │
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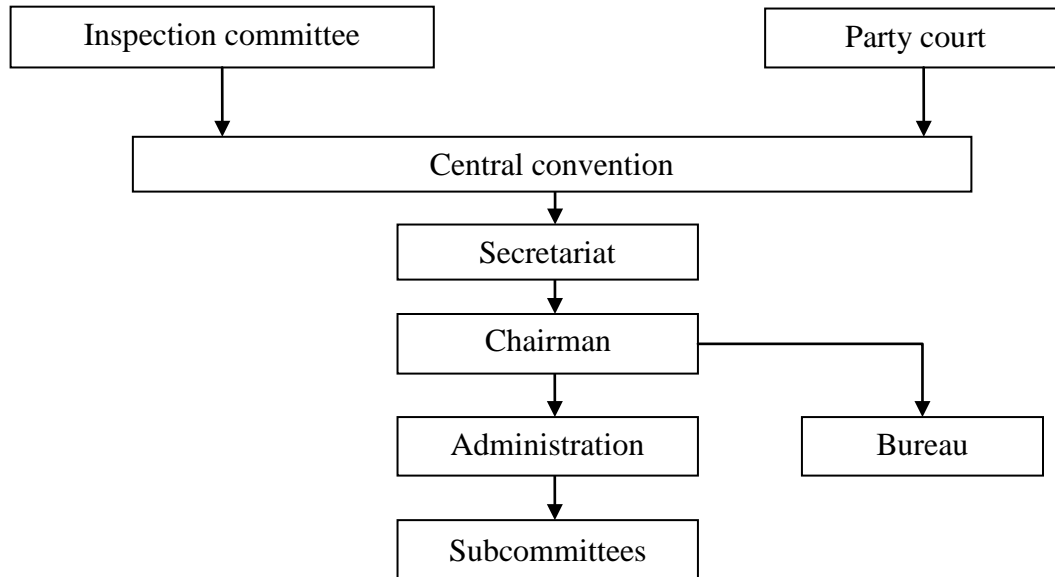
Figure 2. The formal structure of party bodies according to the new Constitution of 1993.

Control Over Information Within the Party

During the period of Shamir's leadership, the most important body in the party, in terms of control of the flow and distribution of information, was the Secretariat. It was a small body made up of only 12 members. All critical decisions were made in the Secretariat, and most ministers and members of the Knesset wanted to belong to it. Those that were excluded from the Secretariat felt that they did not know what was going in the party. The head of the Secretariat at this time was Moshe Arens, a key figure in the party along with Shamir, the Prime Minister. But, members of Sharon's and Levy's factions were also present, and information was available to opposing camps.

In contrast, Netanyahu's leadership saw a great reduction in the significance of this body. Netanyahu inflated the Secretariat to an unwieldy 60 members. It was opened up to the press and significant decisions were taken elsewhere in a new body that Netanyahu created—the Administration. Furthermore, at the head of the Administration stood his loyal friend and aide, Avigdor Lieberman, who worked hard to exclude Netanyahu's opponents from all sections of party organization including the Administration.

Internal Opposition

Under Shamir, party opposition was institutionalized (Moskovich, 2000, 2004). His opponents controlled important committees in the party. For example, David Levy along with Ruby Rivlin dominated the very important subcommittee in charge of party organization.

The influence of opposing groups was evident also in the local branches. Many in the northern and southern provinces of Israel were identified with Levy. He built his power base by dealing with the ethnic problem of immigrants from Asia and North Africa. These immigrants felt discriminated against by the dominant elite whose origins lay in Europe. The leadership of David Levy was strengthened by his role in assuming the fight for the lower classes in Israel.

Sharon's camp, though smaller, wielded influence in local branches in the center of the country. As a result of this support, Levy and Sharon were even able to challenge Shamir for the chairmanship of the party, although they failed to defeat him in the internal elections.

Coming to Netanyahu, we see that he managed to destroy the factional structure of his party, such that his opponents were stripped of any real power. After he became party chairman, most members of other camps joined Netanyahu, seeing him as a savior who would solve all their problems within the party.

Only David Levy remained a threat to his leadership, and Netanyahu managed to affect his departure from the party. In the years following 1993 power struggles, the Central Committee focused on the rivalry between Binyamin Netanyahu and David Levy. The hatred between them developed when Netanyahu served as Levy's deputy at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. According to Central Committee member Yitzhak Regev, David Levy never forgave Netanyahu for accusing him in the "affair of the tape." (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1995, p. 80)

Prior to the election for Likud leadership, rumors were spread about a sensational tape in which Netanyahu supposedly starred. Netanyahu accused David Levy of spreading rumors about the tape, without mentioning him by name directly. Following this affair, Levy boycotted meetings of the Central Committee and threatened to resign from the party. According to one interviewee, the fact that Netanyahu turned out to be a talented diplomat and spokesman abroad

(partly thanks to his command of English) cast a shadow over Levy as Foreign Minister who was notorious for his ignorance of English.

Levy finally resigned from the party after the Central Committee authorized Netanyahu's changes regarding the election of delegates. The party delegates were elected by the branches. The Likud delegates chosen to participate in the convention were members of the party's Central Committee and had been elected as follows: all members of the branches and of the Central Committee were entitled to choose 60% of the branch members. This enabled minority groups to operate and prevented any one branch or the Central Committee from gaining total control. Netanyahu wanted to change the balance of votes to an 80%–20% basis in order to guarantee that if he were elected party leader, he would be able to introduce delegates and branch members who supported him (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1995).

According to some interviewees, this was the final straw for Levy who was already thinking about resigning from the party (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1995). Members of the Knesset like Shitreet and Limor Livnat tried to prevent Levy from leaving. Most members of the Central Committee voted in favor of Netanyahu's proposal. The election results led to Levy's resignation from the party, and he went on to set up the new Gesher Party. After Levy's departure, Netanyahu was left without any other internal opposition.

Centralized/Decentralized Party Structure

Elected positions in the party. In the years between 1988 and 1992, the most important positions in government and the party were divided between opposing groups. Therefore, opponents such as Sharon, Levy, and Modai had important roles in Shamir's government and appointed their own people to influential positions.

One reason for this was that during this period, the Likud party merged with the Liberal party at the national and local levels, leading to much friction between the two parties. Consequently, many committees were formed which provided the forum for conflicts to be aired and worked out. For example, a special committee in the Secretariat was created where all factions in the party were represented: Rivlin (from Levy's camp), Ovadia Ely (from Shamir–Arens camp), and Ben Porat (Telem party, another party which had merged with the Likud).

Moreover, the Secretariat decided to create a new committee whose duty it was to accept new members from the merged parties (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1989). Its members were Kadosh (Shamir–Arens' camp), Rivlin (Levy's camp), and Landau (Sharon's camp). Even later in this period, a move to create a new constitution was made in the Secretariat (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1991) and as a result a constitution committee was formed with the following members: Meridor, Arens, and Kadosh (Shamir–Arens' camp); Hanegby (Sharon's camp); and Rivlin (Levy's camp).

Thus, it is clear that members of the Secretariat in this period represented all camps and parties which had been merged into the Likud party: Rafi Lalkin and Igal Horovich from the former Rafi–Ometz party, Ben Porat from the former Telem party, as well as Abu Hatzera and Azriel from the former Tami party. Leaders of the former Liberal party factions participated in this body: Izchak Modai, Moshe Nissim, Gidon Pat, and Pesach Gruper as well as leaders from the main Likud party factions (Shamir–Arens, Sharon, and Levy). These were a few examples to demonstrate how key positions were decentralized during Shamir's chairmanship. We will now see how it changed very drastically under Netanyahu's leadership.

After Netanyahu's election, the Secretariat was replaced by a new body called the Administration. At the head of this body stood only loyal members of Netanyahu's faction. Avigdor Lieberman became chairman of the new body and also director of the party, replacing Kadosh, a loyal relative of Shamir. Thereafter, Lieberman placed people loyal to Netanyahu in the party administration and its subcommittees. Thus, the party became more centralized.

The decision-making process in the party. In Shamir's time, all party factions participated in the decision-making process. As has been shown, all factions and former parties were involved in the process. The overriding issue of the day was how to carry out the incorporation of Liberal and Likud party representatives at the local branch level. It was agreed that candidates would be appointed according to the relative power of the two parties in each branch.

At the central level as well, many problems arose as a consequence of the merger of parties. In all discussions, the members of the Secretariat were required to consider and relate to the many and varied points of view. Even the slightest issue could be the catalyst for conflict, such as determining a date for central convention meetings. Acceptance by all the factions was required, and sometimes a meeting was cancelled after having been agreed upon. As Rivlin reported in a meeting: "it is ridiculous to send out invitations and then cancel them. This is not a good situation" (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1992).

However, the existence of these lively power struggles between the factions necessarily brought about a democratization of procedures in which acceptance between all factions was needed before making any decision. This situation was a direct result of all the mergers that had taken place in the Likud party. And, as a result of this process, the Shamir–Arens camp lost its dominance and control. In Netanyahu's period, all decisions were made without consideration for Levy's camp's interests. Moreover, in the Administration, the decision-making body at this time, only members of Netanyahu's camp participated in the process (Moskovich, 2000, 2004).

The status of the local branch. In both periods, local branches were dependant on the central party organization. An old regulation determined that internal elections and local candidates for municipalities would be controlled by the central party organization (National Liberal Likud Movement, 1993a).

Party factions. In the first period, the party was divided between several camps. Party mergers brought new factions into the picture. In addition, the entrance of the Liberal party introduced members of this party. So, based on this criteria, we can conclude that the party was decentralized. However, under Netanyahu, most members of the factions allied with him, with the exception of David Levy's camp with Levy subsequently leaving the party. Therefore, a review of most of the criteria show support for the conclusion that the party under Netanyahu's leadership became more oligarchic. The findings are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: A Comparison Between Shamir's and Netanyahu's Leadership

Shamir	Netanyahu	Criteria
Occurred more often	Occurred very rarely	Changes in leadership
Party regulations permitted election to party roles and positions	Party regulations impeded election to party positions	Electing the leadership
Information was available to opposing groups (Levy, Sharon, Modai, Pat, Gruper)	Information was not available to opposing groups	Control of information within the party
Existed	Did not exist	Internal opposition
Participated in party committees and in central roles and positions	Were controlled by Netanyahu's dominant coalition	Elected positions in the party
All factions were involved in the process	Only Netanyahu's dominant coalition was involved in the process	Decision-making process in the party
Dependent on the central party organization	Dependent on the central party organization	Status of local branches
Many factions divided the party: Levy, Sharon, Modai, Pat, Nissim Gruper, Horovich, Ben Porat, Abu Hatzera	Netanyahu's faction dominated	Party factions

Discussion

It is evident that changes in the party were promoted by Binyamin Netanyahu in order to deliberately develop an oligarchic party structure. Therefore, it can be said that his management style was authoritarian.

As Wilson (1989), Panebianco (1988), Janda (1990), and Mishima (2007) said, when a leader wins a general election, he enjoys great support from within his party. This was indeed the case with Netanyahu who received huge support from within the party. However, there were other factors which contributed to his popularity within the party, namely his professionalism as a leader coupled with his ability as a public speaker, enabling him to exploit the mass media to his advantage (Muller et al., 2004; Scarow, 2004; Von Beyme, 1996). Consequently, during his leadership, he enjoyed much positive publicity, building on his established reputation from former duties.

Netanyahu used his chairmanship to affect serious changes in the party constitution. Similar changes were conducted in the Labor party during Blair's leadership (Mair, 2000; Smith, 1998; Web, 2004) and in the Liberal Democratic party under Japanese Prime Minister Koizumi

(Mishima, 2007). These developments demonstrate the importance of control of regulations in order to influence the nature of the party (McCartin et al., 2005; Voss & Sherman, 2000) which made the Likud a more elitist party than in Shamir's time (Katz, 1997; Mair & Katz, 1994; Mishima, 2007).

Netanyahu's authoritarian style found expression in the way decisions were made: he made decisions alone, and the party structure became much more centralized. This management style incited a lot of criticism (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Hall, 1998; Nancy, 2005; Northouse, 2001) which Netanyahu used strong-arm tactics to overcome (French & Raven, 1959).

A condition of democratic leadership is the existence of internal opposition (Lipset et al., 1956; Michels, 1949; Saward, 1994) whose duty it is to supervise and criticize the leader. The latter is obliged to consider his opponents. The outcome is a more democratic style of management. But, Netanyahu dismantled the power of his rivals, the party remained without any real opposition, and the structure became more oligarchic.

The centralized structure that leaders create is effected by the culture of a political organization—the party. In nonpolitical organizations, the leader must not use power tactics when he is strong and the amount of overall power that is necessary is smaller. On the contrary, the more the leader uses power and compulsion, the more it reveals a position of weakness. Political tactics may damage the leader and harm his popularity, which is the reason that leaders often play political games on a hidden level (Minzberg, 1983; Samuel, 2005; Yukl, 2005).

The values, norms, and behavior are completely different in a political organization when the struggles and conflicts are so intense. A political party is like a battleground where the leader needs to defend himself or herself all the time. He or she cannot be sure of his or her position because opponents are constantly seeking to replace him or her. Under these conditions, the leader needs to demonstrate his or her control over the party. A democratic style of leadership, in these circumstances, can be interpreted as weakness.

Netanyahu's management style was suited to the Likud party whose culture was characterized by power struggle during Shamir's chairmanship. There were arguments at all levels, from government ministry positions and the Central Committee down to local branches. Party atmosphere was characterized by rivalry, conflicts, and animosity. Netanyahu was successful because his authoritarian style of management provided a means of resolving disputes within the party. After the weakness of Shamir's leadership, the authoritarian leadership could unite the divided party (Hofstede, 1997; Moskovich, 2000, 2004; Schein, 1992).

We can understand Netanyahu's behavior if we examine carefully the unique features of the Likud party before his appointment. Under Shamir's leadership, the factional system initiated a decentralized structure between the internal Likud party camps and factions of the merged parties. The factions worked against each other, and the result was party paralysis and the lack of an effective decision-making procedure. Shamir had been unable to control all the different camps and was forced to consider their wishes. He was so weak that he could not even decide the dates of the meetings of the Central Committee. Thus, we can understand his willingness to allow the participation of others.

The democratic leadership style in a political party can lead to collapse in a general election, as described during Shamir's chairmanship. Netanyahu, his successor, learned the lesson and initiated radical changes in party constitution and regulations and created a centralized structure. He succeeded in reviving the party and returned the Likud to power, but the party paid the price of becoming more elitist and oligarchic (Mair, 2000; Mishima, 2007; Scarow, 2004; Webb, 2004) under the authoritarian management style of the leader.

We can learn from this study that a democratic leader allows for the development of a factional structure that is more decentralized. The main reason that leadership becomes more democratic or oligarchic is connected to the distribution of power within it (Hofstede, 1997; Samuel, 2005). Destroying the factional structure of an organization or political party creates an authoritarian management. We can assume that if the leader is strong enough, he or she can prevent the creation of rival camps or internal opposition (Lipset, 1998; Lipset et al., 1956; Michels, 1949; Panebianco, 1988; Saward, 1994).

The Netanyahu case study helps us to understand that leadership is connected to situational factors. In this research, I did not focus on the personal aspect of the leader. Based on Katz (1997), Smith (1998), and Webb (2004) who studied Blair's leadership; Mishima (2007) who studied Japanese Prime Minister Koizumi; and Muller et al. (2004) who researched Haider's leadership; similar conditions in the party can be noted: (a) a new elected leader, (b) a popular leader who enjoys a great deal of power, and (c) a decentralized party structure. These factors lead to similar changes in the party: (a) wide ranging reform of party regulations, (b) the creation of a centralized structure, and (c) the empowerment of leadership and more authority passing to the chairman.

The party cases described by Katz (1997), Smith (1988), Web (2004), Muller et al. (2004), and Mishima (2007) dealt with party change and showed the influence on the leader's distribution of power but did not focus on leadership style directly. This case study of Netanyahu's leadership examined his style of management and explained the factors that led him to behave in an authoritarian way.

Conclusion

First, the management style of a leader is related to his power in the party. A weak leader has little choice but to lead his party in a democratic style, while a strong leader who enjoys support in his or her party can choose either to be democratic or authoritarian. Second, there is interaction between the leader and the structure. The authoritarian/democratic style of management is affected by factional structure. A factional structure obliges the leader to consider the wishes of his or her opponents; in a party dominated by one faction, the leader can ignore them. On the other hand, a strong leader can impact the structure by preventing factional activity within his or her party. Third, Netanyahu formed a centralized party structure with authoritarian regulations that helped him to overcome his rivals. He succeeded in manipulating the party to his advantage. Next, Netanyahu's management style was well suited to the political culture of his party. Finally, the leadership style in political organizations tends to be more authoritarian than democratic.

About the Author

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Appendix

Questionnaire

1. What were the conflicts between the factions during Shamir's period?
2. What was the procedure for election of candidates to the Knesset under the constitutions of 1979 and 1993?
3. Can you describe the party structure during Shamir's and Netanyahu's periods?
4. Why did Netanyahu initiate the changes he did?
5. The factional system party affected the activity of party policy and the process of decision making, can you describe this affects?
6. What was the nature of the conflicts between Binyamin Netanyahu and David Levy? How did Netanyahu succeed in removing opposition to his policies?
7. Why did he change the party electoral system in 1993?
8. How was constitutional change carried out?

Influence of Alternative Work Arrangements on Followers' Perceptions of Leader–Follower Relations and Leader Behavior

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This study analyzed whether alternative work arrangements, positioning followers physically and/or contractually in different ways relative to their leaders, their colleagues, and their companies, influence follower perceptions related to leader–follower relations and leader behaviors. Freelancing and telecommuting work arrangements were used in the study representing contractual and physical positioning, respectively. Univariate general linear model (GLM) analyses were conducted based on the followers' perceptions data coming from 135 sales representatives from the pharmaceutical sector. The study revealed that alternative work arrangements influence perceived leader–follower relations in sharing confidential information dimension but do not influence perceptions of followers related to their leaders' behaviors.

As organizations increasingly utilize alternative work arrangements, questions arise concerning the influence of those arrangements on some follower–related outcomes. By positioning followers physically and/or contractually in different ways relative to their leaders, colleagues, offices, and companies, different work arrangements may lead to varying follower perceptions of leader–follower relations and leader behavior. The advances in information and communication technologies (ICT) have helped establish alternative work arrangements and have increased the effectiveness of distant working arrangements. Thus, it has become challenging to lead people when they are distant, mobile, and independent.

The main research purpose in this study was to analyze whether different work arrangements influence follower's perceptions related to leader–follower relations and leader behavior. Although how and how often a leader communicates together with loyalty and commitment expectations may be influenced by work arrangements of followers, the main concern in this study is follower perceptions resulting from being different from the standard employed ones. For example, telecommuting followers may perceive infrequent face-to-face interactions as a sign of less paternalistic leader behavior, or freelance ones may have less reciprocal expectations.

As seen in Figure 1, both relational and behavioral approaches to leadership are incorporated in this study. Alternative work arrangements are depicted as influencing both leader–follower relations and leader behavior perceptions of followers. Leader–follower demographics such as age, sex, education, tenure in current organization, and experience were treated as control variables.

Theoretical development related to alternative work arrangements and leader–follower relations and leader behavior with the hypotheses studied are presented first. Then, whether alternative work arrangements affect follower perceptions related to leader–follower relations and leader behaviors is analyzed. In the last part of the paper, conclusions with limitations and further research directions are discussed.
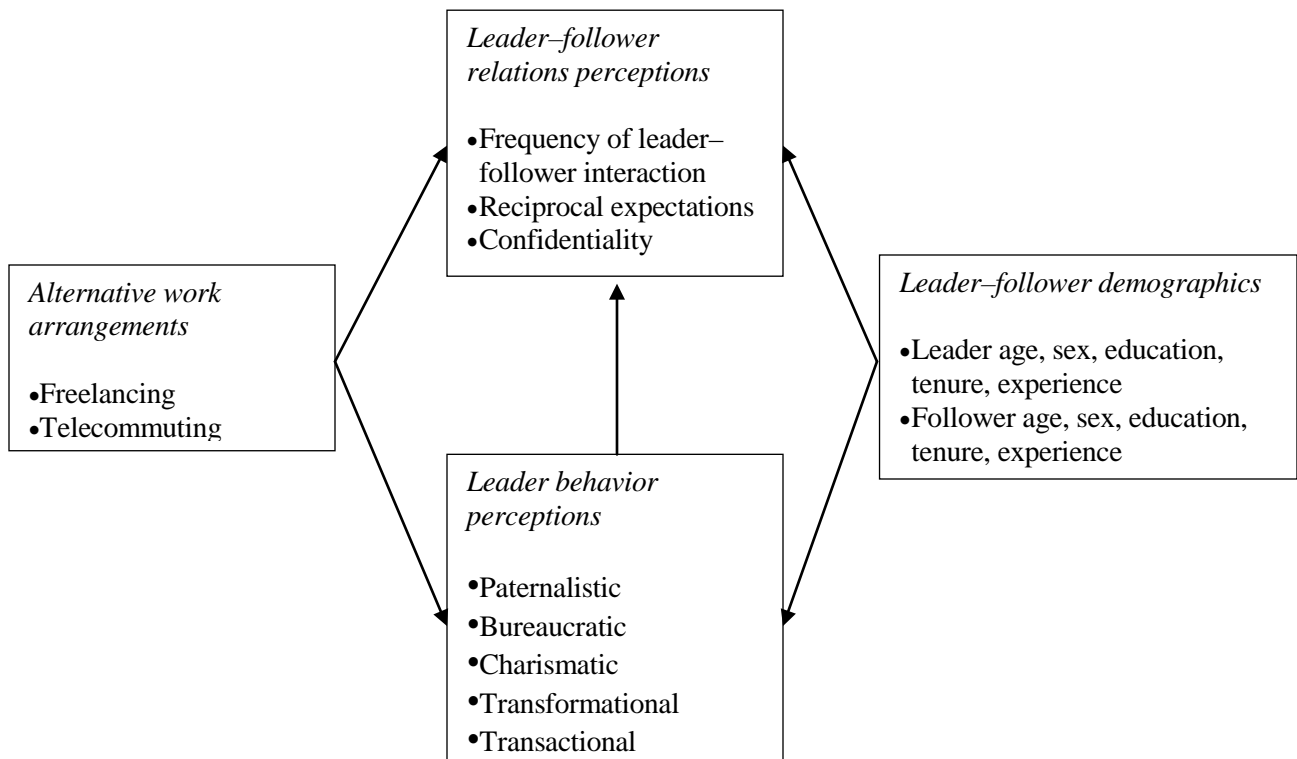

Figure 1. Influence of alternative work arrangements on leader–follower relations and leader behavior perceptions.

Theoretical Development

Alternative Work Arrangements

Economical conditions, employee's own preferences (flexibility, less working hours, variety, etc.) and advances in technology have lead to the utilization of different work arrangements in organizations in varying extents. As opposed to stable, long-term work arrangements, some alternative work arrangements like freelance working involves uncertainty in place, time, or amount of work (Polivka, 1996). Alternative work arrangements are different from

standard work arrangements in terms of administrative, temporal, and physical attachments (Ashford et al., 2007; Pfeffer & Baron, 1988).

The extent to which workers are under the organization's control is administrative attachment (Pfeffer & Baron, 1988). Reports have shown that there is a high number of individuals willing to work at their homes and do their jobs via their connections to their company networks (Grantham & Ware, 2004). In other words, they want to have control over their work environments. On the other hand, Ang and Slaughter (2002) emphasized varying degrees of control exercised by the employer over the employee in different work arrangements. They stated that employers could have more control on the contract workers by indicating definite instructions and procedures related to the work to be done by the contractors. This type of control is not that necessary for telecommuting nonfreelance employees since they presumably know their jobs better. Yet, some firms make their mobile or telecommuting employees use electronic diary systems and monitor their logged time periods to make sure that they are working. This control issue has potential effects on follower's perceptions of leader–follower relations and leader behaviors. For example, telecommuting employees feeling less control may find their leader less bureaucratic, or they may find this as a sign of their leader's favor to them and may perceive their relationship with their leader as better.

The extent to which employees expect employment to last over the long term is temporal attachment (Pfeffer & Baron, 1988). Employees under nonstandard work arrangements have limited future expectations within an organization (Ashford et al., 2007). Temporary ones presumably have more limited future expectations as compared to other work arrangements. Nonstandard working followers with limited future expectations within an organization may expect from their leaders less information and less resources. As a result of this calculation of reciprocity (Ashford et al., 2007), followers may perceive their relationships with their leaders as lower quality. Since in the current work atmosphere of uncertainty, almost every employee feels herself or himself as temporary (Ashford et al., 2007), the temporal attachment dimension of work arrangements was not included in this study.

The extent to which employees are physically proximate to the organization is physical attachment (Pfeffer & Baron, 1988). Alternative work arrangements vary in their levels of physical proximity. While telecommuters work more detached in this sense, in-house working ones are more attached. Due to decreased frequency of face-to-face contacts and increased frequency of technology-based contacts as a result of physical detachment from their leaders, followers under alternative work arrangements may perceive varying levels of communication frequencies, reciprocal expectations, and shared confidentiality.

When selecting alternative work arrangements to be included in the study, special attention was given to selecting the ones placing the employee's attachment at the lower end in any of the Pfeffer and Baron's (1988) dimensions. Pharmaceutical sector applicable alternative work arrangements such as freelancing (administrative attachment) and telecommuting (physical attachment) were used in the study. Freelancing means pursuing a profession without long-term commitment to any one employer. Electronically connected freelancers "join together into fluid and temporary networks to produce and sell goods and services" (Malone & Laubacher, 1998, p.146). Telecommuting means working from home some or all of the time (Pratt, 2000). Since telecommuters work at home and at times they prefer, Brocklehurst (2001) stated that organizations are not in easy terms to lead. He added that while telecommuting, peer control and, to some degree, leader control vanishes.

Leader–Follower Relations

Noting that a leader exists when there are followers, some researchers have focused on the relationship between leader and followers. Such dyadic researchers have concentrated on the exchange between a leader and a follower (Daft, 1999). Dyadic leader–member exchange (LMX) theory states that leadership should be customized for each member (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Those customized relationships benefit followers and organizations (Graen & Uhl-Bien). Newsome, Day, and Catano (2000) stated that "the leader and follower interaction pattern must evolve to accommodate the changing nature of these interactions" (p. 11). They asserted that since leadership takes place in an increasingly open system, the leader–follower interaction should be treated with consideration. Northouse (1997) indicated that one of the strengths of LMX is the fact that it makes us realize the importance of communication in leadership.

Leader–follower relationship factors highlighted in this study are frequency of leader–follower interaction, reciprocal expectations, and sharing confidential information. Frequency of leader–follower interaction represents how often the leader and follower are involved in a relationship. Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) indicated that high quality relations have more frequent leader–follower communications. Burt (1987) stated that the more frequent people's interaction, the more cohesion experienced. Armstrong and Cole (1995) mentioned that if people are in the same location, their communication frequency is higher. Since alternative work arrangements may influence communication frequency, one can expect leader–follower relations to affect followers' perceptions. The leader–follower communication of telecommuters who are more experienced with the organization and work away from the organization might be less frequent than that of freelancers who have less knowledge about the organization and the processes.

H$_1$:   The leader–follower communication of telecommuters is less frequent than that of freelancers.

Leaders have access to some economic and instrumental resources such as money, work opportunities, choice of work detail, a contract, service and some social resources such as support and protection, information, and votes (Mead, 1994). Followers have resources such as loyalty, service, information, and protection of their own interests. Mead mentioned the exchange of those distributed resources. The parties decide to exchange resources based on their perceptions of interests (Mead). The leader may need loyalty and service, while the follower needs work and training opportunities. Alternative work arrangements may influence those reciprocal expectations and affect leader–follower relations. According to Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni (1994), organizations do not want to invest in their freelancing staff but invest voluntarily in their telecommuting staff. Likewise, freelancers will not be very concerned with reciprocity in the long run.

H$_2$:   The reciprocal expectations are much less for freelancers than for telecommuters.

In the sharing confidential information dimension of the leader–follower relationship, there is a link to trust in the literature (Gillespie & Mann, 2003). The leader may have doubts about sharing sensitive information with followers. Firms enter into alliances showing less vulnerability from sharing confidential information (Todeva & Knoke, 2002). Thus, followers employed under

different work arrangements may perceive that their leaders share confidential information with themselves in varying extents. Since freelancers work for specified contract periods, organizations do not share confidential information other than the contractual work requirements' limits. However, telecommuters, being part of their organizations, have access to organizational resources and data.

H$_3$:   Telecommuters share more confidential information than freelancers.

Leader Behavior

There are several classifications of leader behavior in the literature. In this study, cultural and typical leader behaviors demonstrated by Turkish leaders such as paternalistic, bureaucratic, charismatic, transformational, and transactional behaviors were taken into consideration. Turkey is high on the group and family collectivism (House et al., 1999). Aycan et al. (2000) also stated that Turkey's paternalistic values are very high in their cross-cultural study of 10 countries. Expectation of paternalistic leadership behaviors such as providing employment opportunities and privileges to relatives and employees is related to those strong collectivist (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002) and paternalistic values. According to the prototypicality rankings of leadership attributes by region and country cluster, Turkey is highly positive in administrative dimension (Brodbeck et al., 2000). Bureaucratic organizational structure having its roots in the Ottoman Empire (Heper, 1976) nourishes bureaucratic leadership behaviors. In Arabic cultures, task and goal requirements necessitate transformational and charismatic leaders (Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001). Kabasakal and Bodur stated that Turkey scores the highest on the effectiveness of charismatic leadership style in the Arabic cluster. Transactional leader behavior is included in this study as one of the Turkish leader behaviors due to its universal nature.

A paternalistic leader protects, helps, cares, and guides the other party who is a subordinate loyal and deferent to the leader (Mead, 1994). Kim (1994) underlined the similarity between a paternalist leader and a father. The parties act in reciprocity terms in their relationship. This kind of relationship enables the involved parties to exchange certain monetary, social, and other types of resources (Mead). Almost no face-to-face interaction with their leaders may make telecommuters perceive their leaders as less paternalistic. Besides, to enable quick and accurate completion of their freelancing staff's assignments, leaders may behave paternalistically to them (taking care of many aspects of the freelancers' life, guiding and advising them).

H$_4$:   Telecommuters experience less paternalistic leader behavior than freelancers.

Bureaucratic leaders are defined by Weber (as cited in Mintzberg, 1979) as strictly applying the rules and procedures. They establish control layers. Routine describes the work atmosphere around those bureaucratic leaders. Mintzberg emphasized regulated formal communication and limited use of mutual adjustment due to various blocks to informal communication in the bureaucratic environments. Telecommuting employees feeling less control may find their leader as less bureaucratic. On the other hand, employers could have more control on the freelancers by indicating definite instructions and procedures related to the work to be done by the contractors (Ang & Slaughter, 2002).

H$_5$:   Freelancers experience more bureaucratic leader behavior than telecommuters.

Bass (1996) cited Weber as noting that charismatic leaders generally emerge during crisis periods. Charismatic leaders are stated to be able to transform followers' "needs, values, preferences and aspirations" (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991, p. 364). Daft (1999) stated that since those leaders "appeal to both the heart and the mind" (p. 335), they have a great influence on their followers. House, Spangler, and Woycke claimed that leader effectiveness depends on their personality and charisma and not only on their control. Since telecommuters work away from their organization, they may not feel the elements of their leader's charisma such as feeling good to be around her or him or eloquent communication or magnetic attraction (Bass, 1990).

H$_6$:   Telecommuters experience less charismatic leader behavior than freelancers.

Bass (1996) stated that transactional leadership can service the existing structure and readiness in an organization. On the other hand, transformational leadership adds to the existing structure and readiness by helping the followers to overcome their own immediate self-interests and by increasing their awareness of the larger issues. Bass (1996) reported greater stress creation of transactional leadership style and stress reduction of transformational leaders. Bennis and Nanus (1986) took transformative leadership as necessary to face the complexity and uncertainty that the future brings. Performance-based payments and warnings may make freelancers perceive more transactional leader behavior. Besides, freelancers may think that their assignment's accomplishment is what their leader looks for (transactional) rather than going beyond the expectations (transformational).

H$_7$:   Telecommuters experience more transformational leader behavior than freelancers.
H$_8$:   Telecommuters experience less transactional leader behavior than freelancers.

Methodology

Study Design and Data Collection Method

In the first phase of this study, the author communicated (both via emails and telephone) with HR personnel from pharmaceutical companies and was able to take information regarding their organizations' alternative work arrangements, their sales teams, and leaders.

In the second phase of the study, a survey was conducted. This survey was electronically posted to the followers from various levels of the representatives from the interviewed companies in the previous phase. Some sales representatives participated in the survey via cooperating pharmacists and doctors. Some cooperating pharmacists and doctors administered the surveys and enabled sales representatives visiting them to complete the surveys. Those participants were asked to evaluate (a) their relationships with their immediate manager and (b) their manager's behavior. They also answered statements related to their work arrangements and demographics.

Sample

The sample was a nonprobability sample, and it was one of convenience. The organizations studied were chosen from several pharmacy companies' lists. The participants were followers from various levels of those selected organizations who are not newcomers. Fifty six companies were contacted. Only four of them cooperated and administered the surveys. The noncooperating ones did not want to spare their employees' time for the survey. Most of the sales representatives participated via pharmacists and doctors as described. They were from various parts of Turkey (Edirne, Mersin, Istanbul, Malatya, Adana, and Izmir).

Of the 400 surveys mailed, 190 were returned for a total response rate of 47%. Of those 190, 65 were in ill condition. Out of 135 followers, 38 were female, and 97 were male. Regarding age distribution, 10 were between 18 and 24, 98 were between 25 and 34, and 27 were between 35 and 45. Regarding educational level, 111 were university graduates, 17 had masters degrees, 6 were high school graduates, and 1 had a doctorate degree. Forty-five out of 135 were telecommuting employees, while 23 out of 135 were freelancers. Sample characteristics are given in Table 1.

Operational Definitions of the Study Constructs

In this research, special effort was given to utilize and build upon existing scales. Where appropriate, new scales were developed to measure the items. Initially developed scales were examined by area experts, and necessary modifications were implemented.

Table 1: Sample Characteristics

Demographics	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	97	71.9
Female	38	28.1
Age		
18-24	10	7.4
25-34	98	72.6
35-45	27	20.0
Education level		
High school	6	4.4
University	111	82.2
Master	17	12.6
Doctorate	1	.7
Freelance arrangement		
Freelance	23	17.0
Nonfreelance	112	83.0
Telecommuting arrangement		
Telecommuting	45	33.3
Nontelecommuting	90	66.7

Categorical Variables

Alternative work arrangements. Freelancing was measured by a categorical (1/0) scale asking whether the follower works as a freelancer or not. Telecommuting was measured by a categorical (1/0) scale asking whether the follower works telecommuting or not. Employment arrangement was measured by a categorical scale where 1 indicated telecommuting, 2 indicated freelancing, and 0 indicated other.

Leader and follower demographics. Tenures of leader and follower were measured by interval scales ranging from 1 (*less than 1 year*) to 5 (*more than 10 years*). Experiences in the area of leader and follower were measured by interval scales ranging from 1 (*less than 1 year*) to 5 (*more than 10 years*). Sexes of leader and follower were categorical (0 = female, 1 = male). Education levels of leader and follower were measured by ordinal scales ranging from 1 (*high school*) to 5 (*doctorate degree*). Ages of leader and follower were measured by interval scales ranging from 1 (*18-24*) to 4 (*45+*).

Leader–Follower Relations

This construct comprised of one item for frequency of the interaction between leader and follower, five items for leader expectations, nine items for follower expectations, and three items for confidentiality. Leader and follower expectation items were identified from the literature (Mead, 1994; Rousseau, 2000) such as "My manager believes that I can provide her/him with protection of her/his interests," and "I believe that my manager can provide me with career opportunities." Confidentiality construct items included the following: "My manager shares confidential job specific information with me." Frequency of interaction was measured by an interval scale ranging from 1 (*several times in a day*) to 6 (*more than a monthly interval*). Leader expectation, follower expectation, and confidentiality items were measured by a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Leader Behavior

Paternalistic. Paternalism was measured by adapting the paternalism scale of Aycan (2001). In the original scale, there were 17 items. In this research, several items were dropped from the original scale, resulting in a scale with 8 items. The items included the following: "My manager tries to take care of many aspects of his/her followers' lives." A rating scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used.

Bureaucratic. This construct consisted of four items such as "My manager has a tendency to solve current problems by adding layers of control, forms or time consuming procedures" and was measured by a rating scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*).

Charismatic. This construct was operationalized by adaptation from Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scale (as cited in Waldman et al., 2001). There were seven items such as "My manager makes people feel good to be around him/her." A rating scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used.

Transformational. This construct was operationalized by adaptation from Bass's MLQ scale (as cited in Griffin, 2003). There were nine items such as "My manager stimulates in others new perspectives and new ways of doing things." A rating scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used.

Transactional. This construct was operationalized by adaptation from Bass's MLQ scale (as cited in Waldman et al., 2001). There were five items such as "My manager takes action if mistakes are made." A rating scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used.

Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted in four parts. In the first part, chi square analysis was conducted to make sure that categorical variables were independent. In the second part, factor analysis for scale refinement was implemented. In the third part, descriptive analysis of the constructs identified by the factor analysis was run. In the last part, univariate general linear model (GLM) analyses were done.

Chi Square Analysis

Chi square analysis was done to make sure that alternative work arrangements were independent from the other categorical variables. It was shown that Pearson chi square values were insignificant ($p > .05$) in all the analyses. Thus, follower's age, sex, education, tenure, and experience are independent from alternative work arrangements.

Factor Analysis for Scale Refinement

Factor analysis was used in refining the scales by identifying the dimensionality of the variables and then relating to the conceptual definitions. Before conducting component factor analysis, the appropriateness of factor analysis was assessed through the Bartlett test of sphericity and Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy. To select the number of components to be retained for further analysis according to the results of the component factor analysis, the latent root criterion was applied to the results for the extraction of component factors. To optimize the number of factors, the scree test criterion was used. Varimax rotation was applied to the factors to identify the loadings. The reliabilities of the subscales were represented by Cronbach's alpha.

The result of the factor analysis for leader–follower relations variables showed that there were four components with significant loadings ($> .40$). These components were named as follower expectations, leader expectations, follower reaching confidential information, and frequency of interaction. As shown in Table 2, total variance explained (71.26% > 60%) and Cronbach's alpha (.88 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

The result of the factor analysis for paternalistic leadership variables showed that there were two components with significant loadings ($> .40$). These components were named as behaving like a father and wanting commitment to company. As shown in Table 3, total variance explained (71.30% > 60%) and Cronbach's alpha (.80 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

Table 2: Leader–Follower Relations Factors

	Components				Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	3	4	
Follower expectations					.93
1. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide him or her with career opportunities	.791				
2. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide him or her with contract opportunities	.781				
3. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide him or her with long-term job security	.833				
4. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide support to him or her	.845				
5. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide protection to him or her	.817				
6. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide information to him or her	.724				
7. Respondent believes that his or her manager can provide vote to him or her	.828				
8. Respondent imagines a shared destiny with his or her manager	.662				
Leader expectations					.86
1. Manager believes that respondent can provide him or her with loyalty		.764			
2. Manager believes that respondent can provide him or her with hard work		.819			
3. Manager believes that respondent can provide him or her with information		.846			
4. Manager believes that respondent can provide him or her with protection of his/her interests		.766			
5. Manager imagines a shared destiny with respondent		.674			
Follower's reach to confidential information					.76
1. Manager shares confidential job specific info with respondent			.423		
2. Respondent has access to confidential company info			.945		
3. Respondent has access to confidential departmental info			.930		
Frequency of interaction					
1. Frequency that respondent interacts with his or her manager				.839	
Total variance explained = 71.26%					
Cronbach's alpha = .88					

Table 3: Paternalistic Leadership Factors

	Components		Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	
Behaving like a father			.90
1. Manager tries to take care of many aspects of his or her follower's lives	.836		
2. Manager advises and directs his or her followers like a father does	.920		
3. Manager tries to contribute to his or her follower's personal and occupational growth	.841		
4. Manager tries to behave like a father	.869		
Wanting commitment to company			.80
1. Manager wants followers to always think about their company's future and benefit		.825	
2. Manager wants followers to treat their company as their own family		.803	
3. Manager wants followers to be committed to their company and him or her		.854	
4. Manager wants followers to sacrifice their private life for the sake of their company in case of need		.643	
Total variance explained = 71.30 %			
Cronbach's alpha = .80			

The result of the factor analysis for bureaucratic leadership variables showed that there were two components with significant loadings (> .40). These components were named as bureaucracy and rule enforcement. As shown in Table 4, total variance explained (74.57% > 60%) and Cronbach's alpha (.69 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

The result of the factor analysis for charismatic leadership variables showed that there were two components with significant loadings (> .40). These components were named as charisma and performance expectations. As shown in Table 5, total variance explained (72.50% > 60 %) and Cronbach's alpha (.87 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

The result of the factor analysis for transformational leadership variables showed that there were two components with significant loadings (> .40). These components were named as transformation and questioning old assumptions. As shown in Table 6, total variance explained (71.90% > 60%) and Cronbach's alpha (.92 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

Table 4: Bureaucratic Leadership Factors

	Components		Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	
Bureaucracy			.72
1. Manager makes followers do routine tasks over and over	.839		
2. To work with manager, followers should understand certain standards, procedures, and methods even when they are no longer working	.800		
3. Manager has a tendency to solve current problems by adding layers of control, forms, or time-consuming procedures	.687		
Rule enforcement			
1. Manager enforces the rules		.948	
Total variance explained = 74.57 % Cronbach's alpha = .69			

Table 5: Charismatic Leadership Factors

	Components		Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	
Charisma			.90
1. Manager shows determination when accomplishing goals	.611		
2. Manager makes people feel good to be around him or her	.810		
3. Manager generates respect	.855		
4. Manager transmits a sense of mission	.855		
5. Manager provides a vision of what lies ahead	.857		
6. Respondent has complete confidence in his or her manager	.764		
Performance expectations			
1. Manager communicates high performance expectations		.956	
Total variance explained = 72.50 % Cronbach's alpha = .87			

Table 6: Transformational Leadership Factors

	Components		Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	
Transformation			.93
1. Manager aligns followers around shared purposes	.830		
2. Manager articulates an appealing vision of the future	.824		
3. Manager provides encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done	.850		
4. Manager stimulates in others new perspectives and new ways of doing things	.767		
5. Manager encourages expression of ideas and reasons	.831		
6. Manager deals with followers as individuals, considers their indiviual needs, abilities, and aspirations	.868		
7. Manager advises and coaches followers	.848		
8. Respondent admires his or her manager as his or her role model	.692		
Questioning old assumptions			
1. Manager questions old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs		.985	
Total variance explained = 71.90 %			
Cronbach's alpha = .92			

The result of the factor analysis for transactional leadership variables showed that there were two components with significant loadings (> .40). These components were named as rewards/punishments and attention to irregularities. As shown in Table 7, total variance explained (68.48% > 60%) and Cronbach's alpha (.72 > .60) were both satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha values of components were also satisfactory.

Descriptive Analysis

After combining all of the variables loading highly on a factor and taking the average score of the variables as replacement, descriptive analyses were conducted. According to demographic variables descriptives as displayed in Table 8, it can be concluded that ages of followers were mostly in the 25-34 years range, while their leaders' ages were mostly in the 35-45 range. Tenures of followers were mostly in the 3-5 years range while their leaders' tenures were mostly in the more than 10 years range. Job experiences of followers were mostly in the 3-5 years range while their leaders' job experiences were mostly in the more than 10 years range. Both followers and leaders were mostly males.

Table 7: Transactional Leadership Factors

	Components		Cronbach's alpha
	1	2	
Rewards/punishments			.75
1. Manager takes action if mistakes are made	.760		
2. Manager points out what people will receive if they do what needs to be done	.852		
3. Manager reinforces the link between achieving goals and obtaining rewards	.839		
4. Manager talks about special commendations and/or promotions for good work	.526		
Attention to irregularities			
1. Manager focuses attention on irregularities, exceptions, or deviations from what is expected		.957	
Total variance explained = 68.48 %			
Cronbach's alpha = .72			

Table 8: Demographic Variables Descriptives

Demographic variables	Min.	Max.	Mode
Age of respondent	2	4	3
Age of respondent's manager	3	5	4
Length of time respondent has spent in the organization	1	5	3
Length of time respondent's manager has spent in the organization	1	5	5
Respondent's work experience in the area	1	5	3
Respondent's manager's work experience in the area	2	5	5
Sex of respondent	0	1	1
Sex of respondent's manager	0	1	1
Respondent's education level	1	4	2
Respondent's manager's education level	1	3	2

When leader–follower relations descriptives in Table 9 were examined, it was concluded that communication frequencies were low. In addition, followers reached confidential information at low levels. Moreover, reciprocal expectations were observed to be high.

Table 9: Leader–Follower Relations Descriptives

Leader–follower relations	M	SD
Frequency that respondent interacts with his or her manager	1.63	.90
Leader expects from follower	3.90	.78
Follower expects from leader	3.51	.85
Follower reaches confidential info	1.86	.85

Leader behavior descriptives in Table 10 show that leaders were perceived by their followers as paternalist, bureaucratic, charismatic, transformational, and transactional at reasonably high rates.

Table 10: Leader Behavior Descriptives

Leader behavior	M	SD
Leader wants commitment to company	4.29	.66
Leader behaves like a father	3.25	1.11
Leader bureaucracy	3.06	.95
Manager enforces the rules	4.13	.71
Manager communicates high performance expectations	4.54	.60
Leader charisma	3.82	.89
Leader transformation	3.59	1.00
Manager questions old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs	3.08	1.11
Leader transaction rewards/punishments	3.72	.74
Manager focuses attention on irregularities, exceptions, or deviations from what is expected	3.40	.92

Univariate General Linear Model

To test whether meaningful differences exist between the groups created by the alternative employment arrangements, univariate general linear model (GLM) analyses were conducted. The demographic variables leader's sex, follower's sex, leader's education level, follower's education level, leader's tenure, follower's tenure, leader's experience, and follower's experience were treated as covariates. In the first group of analysis, dependent variables were leader–follower relations variables. In the second analysis, dependent variables were leader behavior variables. Results of the analyses are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11: GLM Analysis Results for Leader–Follower Relations

	Telecommuting M	Freelance M	None M	F (with covariates)
Frequency of communication	1.82	1.70	1.48	1.89
Sharing confidential information	2.20	1.91	1.62	5.36*
Leader expectations	3.81	4.02	3.91	.34
Follower expectations	3.62	3.66	3.39	1.44

Note. Covariates: Leader's and follower's sexes, ages, education, tenures, and experiences.
*$p < .01$.

It was observed that employment arrangement created groups with meaningful differences ($F = 5.36$, $p < .01$) in terms of sharing confidential informations, confirming H_3. According to the results in Table 11, telecommuting followers perceived themselves as sharing more confidential information with their leaders than freelancers. However, the other hypotheses related to leader–follower relations were not confirmed by the analysis results.

Table 12: GLM Analysis Results for Leader Behavior

	Telecommuting M	Freelance M	None M	F (with covariates)
Paternalistic	3.66	3.87	3.80	.35
Bureaucratic	3.46	3.14	3.30	.58
Charismatic	3.79	4.00	3.99	.87
Transformational	3.39	3.61	3.61	.77
Transactional	3.55	3.66	3.72	.94

Note. Covariates: Leader's and follower's sexes, ages, education, tenures, and experiences.

According to the results in Table 12, the hypotheses related to leader behavior were not confirmed by the analysis results. It was observed that some of the demographic variables affect some factors of leader–follower relations and leader behaviors. ANOVA results show that males' expectations from their leaders are higher than that of females ($F = 12.19$, $p = .001$). According to ANOVA results, the higher the leader's education level, the more he or she is perceived as charismatic by the followers ($F = 5.19$, $p < .01$).

Conclusion

This study revealed that alternative work arrangements affect leader–follower relations in terms of followers' perceptions related to sharing confidential information with their leaders. It was shown that telecommuting followers perceive themselves as reaching more confidential information than freelancers. Since freelancers work for specified contract periods, organizations do not share confidential information other than the contractual work requirements' limits. However, telecommuters, being part of their organizations, have access to organizational resources and data.

The hypotheses related to frequency of communication and reciprocal expectations were not confirmed by the study results. Since telecommuters do not work in the office and have more knowledge about the organizational processes, it was expected that freelancers would need more communication than telecommuters. Mean scores for telecommuters are greater than that for freelancers but not significantly. Telecommuting followers' use of alternative channels such as the Internet to conduct their work may lead to their perceiving themselves as communicating more frequently than freelancers. Organizations do not want to invest in their freelancing staff, and freelancers are not much concerned with reciprocity in the long run. On the other hand, organizations do invest voluntarily in their telecommuting staff. Thus, it was expected that freelancers would have less reciprocal expectations than telecommuters. However, the study results do not support this expectation. Freelancers may want to extend their contract periods or may want to become part of the organization. As a result, their expectations may become higher than expected. Besides, telecommuters feeling isolated and as if they are not part of their organizations may lead to decreased expectations. Low leader expectations from telecommuters may be due to physical distance; leaders may see telecommuters as less loyal, less hard working, and having less potential to provide information and protection.

Supporting the LMX theory (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), the results of this research demonstrate that special attention should be given to differing needs of different parties in an organization. A leader sharing confidential information with his or her followers may be seen as a sign of trust in followers. And, according to LMX theory, trust is part of high quality relationships. Therefore, the results of this research show that leaders should keep their telecommuting followers well informed and utilize sharing confidential information to have better perceived relations with their telecommuting followers.

According to the results, alternative work arrangements do not affect perceptions of followers related to their leaders' behaviors. This results show that, at least in the pharmaceutical sector, leaders should not worry about differential perceptions of their followers according to followers' employment arrangement types. To enable quick and accurate completion of their freelancing staff's assignments, leaders may behave paternalistically to them (taking care of many aspects of freelancers' lives, guiding and advising them). Telecommuters have less face-to-face interaction with their leaders. Therefore, it was expected that telecommuters perceive less paternalistic behavior. Mean paternalistic perception scores of telecommuters were less than that of freelancers but not significantly. Leaders' use of alternative communication channels to contact telecommuters as much as possible and to learn about their off-the-job life may lead to an increase in paternalistic leader perceptions of telecommuters. As a result of telecommuters feeling less control and freelancers having definite work instructions and procedures, it was expected that freelancers perceive more bureaucratic leader behavior. However, the study results do not confirm this expectation. Since leaders may call and check whether their telecommuting staff are working at random, and telecommuters' logged times may be checked whether they are logged in, telecommuters may feel more control and perceive more bureaucratic leader behavior. It was expected that telecommuters perceive less charismatic leader behavior than freelancers since telecommuters may not feel elements of their leader's charisma such as feeling good to be around her or him or eloquent communication or magnetic attraction (Bass, 1990). Mean scores for telecommuters were less than freelancers as expected but not significantly. This may be because they share a common vision element of charismatic leader behavior. Although telecommuters are not in-working (working at their company sites), they are part of their organizations and may share their leader's vision. This may lead to more charismatic leader perception than what was expected.

Due to freelancers' performance-based payments and warnings in addition to an emphasis on their assignment's accomplishment rather than going beyond the expectations, it was expected that telecommuters perceive less transactional and more transformational leader behavior than freelancers. Results of this study do not confirm these expectations. Although the mean transactional leader behavior perception score of telecommuters was less than that of freelancers as expected, the difference is not significant. Less transformational leader perception scores of telecommuters than what was expected may be due to less coaching, less advising, and less individualized attention perceived by telecommuters as a result of being not in-working.

There have been conflicting statements about the influence of demographics on leader–follower relations in the literature (Basu & Green, 1995; Deluga, 1998; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). According to this study's results, age, tenure, education, and experience demographics of followers and their leaders do not affect perceptions of followers related to any of the leader–follower relations dimensions. However, males' expectations from their leaders were higher than that of females while gender did not affect followers' perceptions related to the other dimensions of leader–follower relations. This may be because males may feel more of a right to demand reciprocity in exchange for their contibution.

There have been confirmatory studies about demographics' influence on leader behavior (van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001; Walumbwa, Wu, & Ojode, 2004). According to this study's results, age, sex, tenure, and experience demographics of followers and their leaders do not affect perceptions of followers related to any of the leader behaviors. However, it was found that the higher the leader's education level, the more he or she is perceived as charismatic by the followers. This may be because leaders with more education may generate more respect and more confidence from their followers.

Limitations and Further Research Directions

Since the survey was part of a longer one, the sales representatives had limited time to complete it, and the period in which the survey was conducted coincided with the pharmaceutical companies' recruitment period. Therefore, the response rate was low. In addition, in further studies, sectors other than the pharmaceutical sector could be used. Furthermore, leader behaviors studied may be extended to include more universal behaviors.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Leader–Follower Relations Items
1. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide him/her with career opportunities
2. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide him/her with contract opportunities
3. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide him/her with long-term job security
4. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide support to him/her
5. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide protection to him/her
6. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide information to him/her
7. Respondent believes that his/her manager can provide vote to him/her
8. Respondent imagines a shared destiny with his/her manager
9. Manager believes that respondent can provide him/her with loyalty
10. Manager believes that respondent can provide him/her with hard work
11. Manager believes that respondent can provide him/her with information
12. Manager believes that respondent can provide him/her with protection of his/her interests
13. Manager imagines a shared destiny with respondent
14. Manager shares confidential job specific info with respondent
15. Respondent has access to confidential company info
16. Respondent has access to confidential departmental info
17. Frequency that respondent interacts with his/ her manager

Paternalistic Leadership Items
1. Manager tries to take care of many aspects of his/her follower's lives
2. Manager advises and directs his/her followers like a father does
3. Manager tries to contribute to his/her follower's personal and occupational growth
4. Manager tries to behave like a father
5. Manager wants followers to always think about their company's future and benefit
6. Manager wants followers to treat their company as their own family
7. Manager wants followers to be committed to their company and him/her
8. Manager wants followers to sacrifice their private life for the sake of their company in case of need

Bureaucratic Leadership Items
1. Manager makes followers do routine tasks over and over
2. To work with manager followers should understand certain standards, procedures and methods even they are no longer working
3. Manager has a tendency to solve current problems by adding layers of control, forms, or time-consuming procedures
4. Manager enforces the rules

Charismatic Leadership Items
1. Manager shows determination when accomplishing goals
2. Manager makes people feel good to be around him/her
3. Manager generates respect

4. Manager transmits a sense of mission
5. Mmanager provides a vision of what lies ahead
6. Respondent has complete confidence in his/her manager
7. Manager communicates high performance expectations

Transformational Leadership Items
1. Manager aligns followers around shared purposes
2. Manager articulates an appealing vision of the future
3. Manager provides encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done
4. Manager stimulates in others new perspectives and new ways of doing things
5. Manager encourages expression of ideas and reasons
6. Manager deals with followers as individuals; considers their indiviual needs, abilities and aspirations
7. Manager advises and coaches followers
8. Respondent admires his/ her manager as his/her role model
9. Manager questions old assumptions, traditions and beliefs

Transactional Leadership Items
1. Manager takes actions if mistakes are made
2. Manager points out what people will receive if they do what needs to be done
3. Manager reinforces the link between achieving goals and obtaining rewards
4. Manager talks about special commendations and/or promotions for good work
5. Manager focuses attention on irregularities, exceptions, or deviations from what is expected

A Model of Feedback-Seeking Based on the Leader–Member Exchange and Communication Antecedents

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The purpose of this study was to understand the antecedents to the leader–member exchange (LMX) model and provide communication-based predictors of seeking feedback directly from supervisors in the workplace. The results suggest (a) conversational appropriateness and effectiveness are positively related to developing high quality relationship with supervisors, (b) perceptions of communication effectiveness are positively and significantly related to direct feedback-seeking strategies but are mediated by the quality of LMX, and (c) individual assertiveness levels do not necessarily contribute to the LMX nor does assertiveness help explain why subordinates seek direct feedback. Results suggest subordinates' perceptions of supervisors' interpersonal communication competence impact the quality of the subordinate and supervisor relationship and in turn impact how subordinates seek feedback from their supervisor.

Formal feedback within an organization is provided through performance appraisals (Larson & Callahan, 1990; Pearce & Porter, 1986) and other on-the-job interactions (Hackman, 1977). However, when this form of feedback is insufficient, employees actively seek informal types of feedback through direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, and observing their environment. Ashford and colleagues have led the feedback-seeking research since their seminal study that suggested that individuals were proactive seekers of feedback in organizations (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Bennett, Herold, & Ashford, 1990; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990; Walsh, Ashford, & Hill, 1985). It is possible that individuals may choose certain feedback-seeking strategies over others, depending on perceptions of their supervisor's relationship with them and their own communication traits. From a management perspective, it is critical to understand why a subordinate may choose one feedback-seeking strategy over another because it may provide insight into the subordinate's perception of the superior–subordinate relationship. This study helps to explain how subordinates determine what feedback-seeking tactic to utilize. This study suggests subordinates will first assess their assertiveness levels and communication competence with their supervisor and use

this to determine their quality of relationship with their supervisor before choosing a feedback-seeking strategy.

Review of Literature

The importance of feedback and feedback seeking in organizations is apparent through the amount of attention it has received in the literature throughout the last 4 decades. Early empirical research indicated that motivation and performance are significantly influenced by feedback (Ammons, 1956). More recent research has found that seeking feedback can improve performance because it can facilitate the establishment and achievement of performance goals (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Renn & Fedor, 2001).

Feedback-Seeking Strategies

Many research studies have stemmed from two methods of feedback seeking, monitoring and inquiry, as identified in Ashford and Cummings's (1983) seminal study. Monitoring involves individuals attending to and taking in information from their environment by observing the situation and behaviors of others to gather informational cues. Inquiry involves individuals seeking feedback by directly asking those around them for personal feedback. Ashford and Tsui (1991) further refined this model and suggested that monitoring of direct and indirect cues could be critical in feedback-seeking strategy research. Indirect refers to relying on roundabout information by not going directly to the source.

Information seeking. Like feedback seeking, information seeking refers to the seeking out of help and information needed to do work effectively (Katz, 1985). Miller and Jablin (1991), for instance, examined the means and tactics by which organizational newcomers seek information. They defined seven information-seeking tactics: overt questions, indirect noninterrogative questions, third parties, testing limits, disguising conversations, observing target's behaviors, and surveillance.

Individual differences in feedback seeking. Employees' personality characteristics or individual differences contribute to the process of feedback seeking. Individual differences play a role in how and why people seek feedback and warrants future research (Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995). An individual difference that impacts the superior and subordinate communication is a subordinate's level of assertiveness. Assertive people are able to initiate, maintain, and terminate conversations with respect to their interpersonal goals (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996). Assertive individuals stand up for themselves and do not let others take advantage of them. Merrill and Reid (1981) suggested that assertive communicators talk faster and louder, use more gestures, make more eye contact, and lean forward more in interactions. Therefore, it makes sense that assertive individuals would seek feedback differently than nonassertive individuals. To date, no research has examined an individual's assertiveness level as an individual difference that may impact the feedback-seeking process. According to Booth-Butterfield (2002), assertive communication enhances your competence in interpersonal interactions. Therefore, this study measures subordinates' assertiveness levels and subordinates' perceptions of interpersonal communication competence with their supervisors in order to understand its relationship with the way they seek feedback in the organizational setting.

Theoretical Implications

Leader–member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) suggests that superior and subordinate relationships lay on a continuum from low to high quality and are dependent on one's incremental influence. Incremental influence is the extent to which interpersonal influence is earned beyond one's formal position (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Low quality relationships are characterized by the use of formal authority, contractual behavior exchange, role bound relations, low trust and support, and economic rewards. High quality relationships are characterized by mutual trust, internalization of common goals, extra-contractual behavior, and the exchange of social resources, support, and mutual influence (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). There has been an abundance of research devoted to understanding the outcomes of high versus low quality exchanges, and even the most current LMX literature is devoted to understanding organizational outcomes (e.g., performance in Burton, Sablynski, & Sekiguchi, 2008; innovativeness in Lee, 2008; and organizational justice in Piccolo, Bardes, Mayer, & Judge, 2008). Although antecedents to the LMX relationship have been explored (e.g., gender in Wayne, Liden, & Sparrow, 1994; performance in Wayne & Ferris, 1990; and similarity in Bauer & Green, 1996), scant research has examined the role communication has on developing this relationship (Madlock, Martin, Bogdan, & Ervin, 2007). Certainly, how subordinates communicate with their supervisor in initial interactions is related to the quality of exchanges subordinates will have with their supervisors in the future. This study will examine perceptions of conversational effectiveness and appropriateness and its relationships with LMX.

Subordinates' perceptions of their supervisors' communication is a key element in studying interpersonal relationships in the organization context. If subordinates perceive supervisors to offer differential treatment, these perceptions will influence the organizational climate and may affect the way in which an individual will seek feedback from their supervisor. The perceptions of communication competence that occurs between a supervisor and subordinate in initial interactions may determine how the quality of the relationship further develops. According to Canary and Spitzberg (1987), competent communication involves both effective and appropriate communication. In the organizational context, competent communication can be achieved when subordinates' goals for interacting with their supervisors are achieved. This process is perceived to be done so in a socially appropriate manner. Considering your conversational partner's goal is often requisite for constructing appropriate messages (Lakey & Canary, 2002). The interplay between effectiveness and appropriateness has important implications for relational development and maintenance within interpersonal relationships, specifically supervisor and subordinate relationships.

This study addresses perceptions of the quality of LMX in order to predict feedback-seeking strategies. Feedback-seeking strategies may contribute to perceptions formed by supervisors. Therefore, by exploring how leader–member relationship functions, future research can identify specific feedback-seeking strategies that are most effective within the superior–subordinate exchange. In addition, this study contributes to a growing body of research that examines communication traits as predictors of the LMX relationship (Madlock et al., 2007)

Hypothesis and Research Questions

Although some research has considered the process of providing feedback in connection with LMX (e.g., Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Mueller & Lee, 2002; Scandura,

1999), no research to date has addressed the effects of LMX on the feedback-seeking process. In addition, there has been very little research linking communication variables such as interpersonal communication competence as specific LMX predictors (see Girton & Heald, 2002; Mueller & Lee, 2002).

It makes sense that those subordinates who are able to communicate competently with their supervisors will more likely develop high quality relationships. Interpersonal communication competence is comprised of two components: appropriateness and effectiveness (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). Conversational appropriateness is the extent to which one communicates suitably in a specific conversation, and conversational effectiveness is the extent to which individuals are able to accomplish their goal (Canary & Spitzberg, 1987).

Based on the proceeding discussion, the following hypotheses were derived:

H_1:   Members' perceived conversational effectiveness with their leaders is positively related to the quality of LMX.

H_2:   Members' perceived conversational appropriateness with their leaders is positively related to the quality of LMX.

According to Hazelton and Cupach (1986), "Communicators utilize acquired information to develop effective message strategy repertoires and to adapt to changing contexts" (p. 119). Therefore, this study suggests that subordinates' feedback-seeking strategy is dependent on subordinates' perception of their quality of relationship with their supervisor. Also, consistent with Waldron's (1991) finding that individuals with high quality exchanges report more extensive use of direct maintenance tactics, the following hypotheses were advanced:

H_3:   LMX is positively related with direct feedback-seeking strategies.

H_4:   LMX is negatively related with indirect feedback-seeking strategies.

Finally, from a communication perspective, assertive communicators speak up for one's self, make requests, and express feelings (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996). Therefore, it makes sense that individuals with high levels of assertiveness use more obtrusive means of seeking feedback than those with low levels. In addition, Booth-Butterfield (2002) suggested that nonassertive communicators are experts at beating around the bush, dropping hints, or attempting to get their ideas across solely nonverbally (e.g., use of the "evil eye"), resulting in less effective communication. As a result, there should be an inverse relationship with assertiveness and indirect feedback seeking. Thus, the following hypotheses were stated:

H_5:   Subordinate assertiveness is positively related to subordinates' perceptions of LMX.

H_6:   Subordinate assertiveness is positively related to direct feedback-seeking strategies.

H_7:   Subordinate assertiveness is negatively related to indirect feedback-seeking strategies.

Methodology

This study proposed subordinates' perceptions of their own assertiveness level and their perceptions of their conversational appropriateness and effectiveness with their supervisor

predict the quality of LMX which will, in turn, impact the strategies they proactively choose to seek feedback.

Procedure & Sample Demographics

A quantitative questionnaire was administered in selected MBA classes at a southeast private university. Participants were asked to recall their immediate supervisor as they filled out the questionnaire. Those participants who were not currently working were asked to think of their most recent immediate supervisor. Those participants who have or had an immediate supervisor were eligible to participate (See Table 1 and Table 2).

Table 1: Demographics

Variable	*n*	%
Major		
Business law	21	11.4
Economics	73	39.5
Accounting	30	16.2
Finance	32	17.3
Executive MBAs	29	15.7
Sex		
Male	112	60.5
Female	72	38.9
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	78	42.2
African-American	10	5.4
Hispanic	52	28.1
Middle-Eastern	3	1.6
Other	12	6.5
Age		
21-25	90	49.2
26-64	95	51.8

Table 2: Demographics Continued

	M	*SD*	Range
Years of full-time work	5.75	6.32	0-35
Months at present position	32.17	43.34	1-342
Months at present organization	39.28	61.47	1-624
Number of employees	1390.05	8077.91	2-100,000

Measurement

Measures of conversational appropriateness, effectiveness, assertiveness, LMX, and feedback-seeking strategies were contained in the questionnaire. In order to define the variables, a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was employed to confirm instrument dimensionality. A factor loading 60/40 criterion was employed; that is, the minimal principal item coefficient was set at ±.60 and, to be retained, that coefficient could not load on any other factor with a loading greater than ±.40. To be retained, a factor had to have at least two items meet the factor loading criteria. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was computed to determine each measure's internal consistency.

Conversational effectiveness and appropriateness. Spitzberg and Phelps' (1982) Conversational Appropriateness and Effectiveness Scale was used to measure the dimensions of conversational appropriateness and effectiveness with the original items modified to reflect a superior–subordinate relationship. Ten items comprised each scale. Response categories ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) to indicate the perceived level of appropriateness and effectiveness of their direct supervisor. Sample items for the appropriate dimension included statements such as, "Everything she/he said to me was appropriate" and "I was embarrassed at times by her/his remarks." In this study, the coefficient alpha for appropriateness was .92. Sample items for the effectiveness dimension included statements such as, "Our conversation was very beneficial" and "It was a useless conversation." The coefficient alpha for effectiveness in this study was .92. After the principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation, seven effectiveness items were retained (see Table 3), including one original appropriate item ("My supervisor is a smooth conversationalist"). This may be because the word *smooth* is unclear and could be interpreted as being more effective oriented. The appropriate factor also retained seven items (see Table 3).

Assertiveness. Assertive communicators are able to initiate, maintain, and terminate conversation according to their interpersonal goals (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996). Assertiveness was assessed using the assertiveness portion of the Socio-Communicative Orientation measure (Richmond & McCroskey, 1990). The assertiveness measure consisted of 10 items including "strong personality" and "takes a stand." Participants were asked to indicate the degree that each of the items applied to themselves on five response categories ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). In this study, the assertiveness coefficient alpha was .77. After the principle components analysis, the assertiveness factor retained four items (see Table 4). Only those items that were retained in the first factor were retained in the model. Items 8-10 fell under a second factor. "Takes a stand," "Defends own beliefs," and "Independent" were not interpreted by the subordinates to mean the same as the items retained in the first factor. This may be because the mean number of years in their present organization was only a little over 3 years (39 months). Because of the order of the scale in the survey, the subordinates may have perceived their assertiveness levels in a work situation instead of their overall assertiveness levels. If they only worked in their present organization a little over 3 years, they may have not been given the opportunity to take a stand or defend their beliefs. While the items in the first factor appear to be more personality based (i.e., aggressive, dominate, strong personality, and forceful).

Table 3: Factor Loadings for the Retained Items From the Communication Appropriateness and Communication Effectiveness Scale

Items	1	2
Effectiveness		
1. Our conversations are very beneficial.	.82	.30
2. Our conversations are useless.	.80	.29
3. Usually our conversations are advantageous.	.78	.37
4. Our conversations are ineffective.	.76	.34
5. Our conversations are unprofitable.	.76	.44
6. My supervisor is a smooth conversationalist.	.70	.22
7. I get what I want out of our conversations.	.63	.34
8. I achieve everything I hope to achieve in our conversations.	.53	.40
9. Sometimes, I do not know what is going on in the conversation with my supervisor.	.48	.26
10. I am uncomfortable throughout the conversations with my supervisor.	.36	.28
Appropriateness		
1. Some of my supervisor's remarks are inappropriate.	.31	.83
2. Some of the things my supervisor says are in bad taste.	.32	.79
3. I am embarrassed sometimes by her/his remarks.	.20	.77
4. She/he says things that they should not say.	.36	.75
5. Everything my supervisor says is inappropriate.	.32	.75
6. Occasionally, his/her statements make me feel uncomfortable.	.34	.74
7. My supervisor says several things that seem out of place in the conversation.	.31	.65
8. Her/his conversations are suitable to the situation.	.52	.60

Table 4: Factor Loadings for Items From the Assertiveness Scale

Items	1	2
1. Forceful	.82	.05
2. Dominate	.80	.10
3. Aggressive	.70	.04
4. Strong personality	.62	.35
5. Assertive	.55	.46
6. Acts as a leader	.53	.42
7. Competitive	.51	.29
8. Takes a stand	.28	.78
9. Defends own beliefs	.05	.77
10. Independent	.02	.76

LMX. LMX was assessed using the seven-item version of the LMX scale (Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura & Graen, 1984). The instrument asks participants to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*). The coefficient alpha for the scale in this study was .89. One factor emerged from the principal components analysis with varimax rotation, and six items were retained (see Table 5).

Table 5: Factor Loadings for the LMX Scale

Items	1
1. To what extent would you characterize the effectiveness of your working relationship with your supervisor?	.89
2. To what extent do you have confidence in your supervisor's decisions such that you would defend and justify them even if he or she was not present to do so?	.85
3. To what extent does your immediate supervisor understand your work problems and needs?	.83
4. Again, regardless of how much formal authority your immediate supervisor has, to what extent can you count on him/her to "bail you out" at his/her expense when you really need it?	.81
5. To what extent do you feel your immediate supervisor has recognized your potential?	.81
6. Regardless of how much formal authority your immediate supervisor has built into his/her position, to what extent would he/she be inclined to use his/her power to help solve problems in your work?	.78
7. To what extent do you know how satisfied or dissatisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?	.48

Feedback seeking. Overt (direct) ($\alpha =. 74$) and indirect ($\alpha =. 87$) feedback-seeking items were measured via Miller's (1996) Information Seeking Tactic scale. Overt inquiry involves seeking feedback by directly asking those around them for personal feedback. Indirect inquiry involves individuals attending to and taking in information from their environment by observing the situation and behaviors of others to gather informational cues and/or seeking information through indirect questioning. The measure asks participants to respond to statements on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*). After the principle components analysis, the direct information-seeking tactic factor yielded four items; the indirect feedback-seeking strategy factor yielded nine items (see Table 6).

Univariate, Bivariate, and Multivariate Analysis

First, univariate analyses on the main variables were performed to provide descriptive statistics on the sample data. The means ranged from the 3.81 for the direct feedback-seeking variable to 2.54 for the indirect seeking variable. In addition, intercorrelations were computed. Indirect feedback seeking was not correlated with any other variables in the model. Therefore, it was dropped from the final analysis.

Table 6: Factor Loadings for the Retained Items From the Direct and Indirect Feedback- Seeking Scale

Items	1	2
Indirect feedback-seeking strategies		
1. Through my nonverbal behavior, I would hint to my supervisor or coworker that I would like to know this information.	-.03	.76
2. I would ask questions about the subject in such a way that they would not sound like questions.	.07	.72
3. I would let my supervisor or coworker know indirectly that I would like to know the information.	.05	.66
4. I would indicate curiosity about the topic without directly asking for the information.	.03	.66
Direct feedback-seeking strategies		
1. I ask my supervisor if I am meeting all my job requirements.	.47	.34
2. I ask my supervisor how I am doing.	.40	.39
3. I would ask specific, straight to the point questions to get information I wanted.	.70	-.15
4. I would identify what I did not know and ask for the information.	.66	-.12
5. I would go directly to my supervisor or coworker and ask for information about the matter.	.62	-.05
6. I would not beat around the bush in asking for information.	.61	-.13

Multivariate Analysis

  Structural equation model. The modified model incorporated (a) assertiveness, conversational effectiveness, and conversational appropriateness as the predictor variables and (b) LMX and direct feedback seeking as the outcome variables. The directional arrows in the model in Figure 1 represent regression coefficients (i.e., betas) that quantify the influence of each predictor on the dependent variable, partialing out the effect of the other predictors. The curved arrows between assertiveness, communication effectiveness, and communication appropriateness represent the correlations between the predictors but does not indicate a hypothesized causal influence in either direction. The arrows between the latent variables and the scales are regression weights that quantify the influence of the construct on each indicator (i.e., factor loadings). Each response from an independent variable will have (a) the level of the trait due to the dependent variable and (b) the residual (error), the level of independent variable that was not accounted for by the dependent variable. The circles in the model represent the residuals.
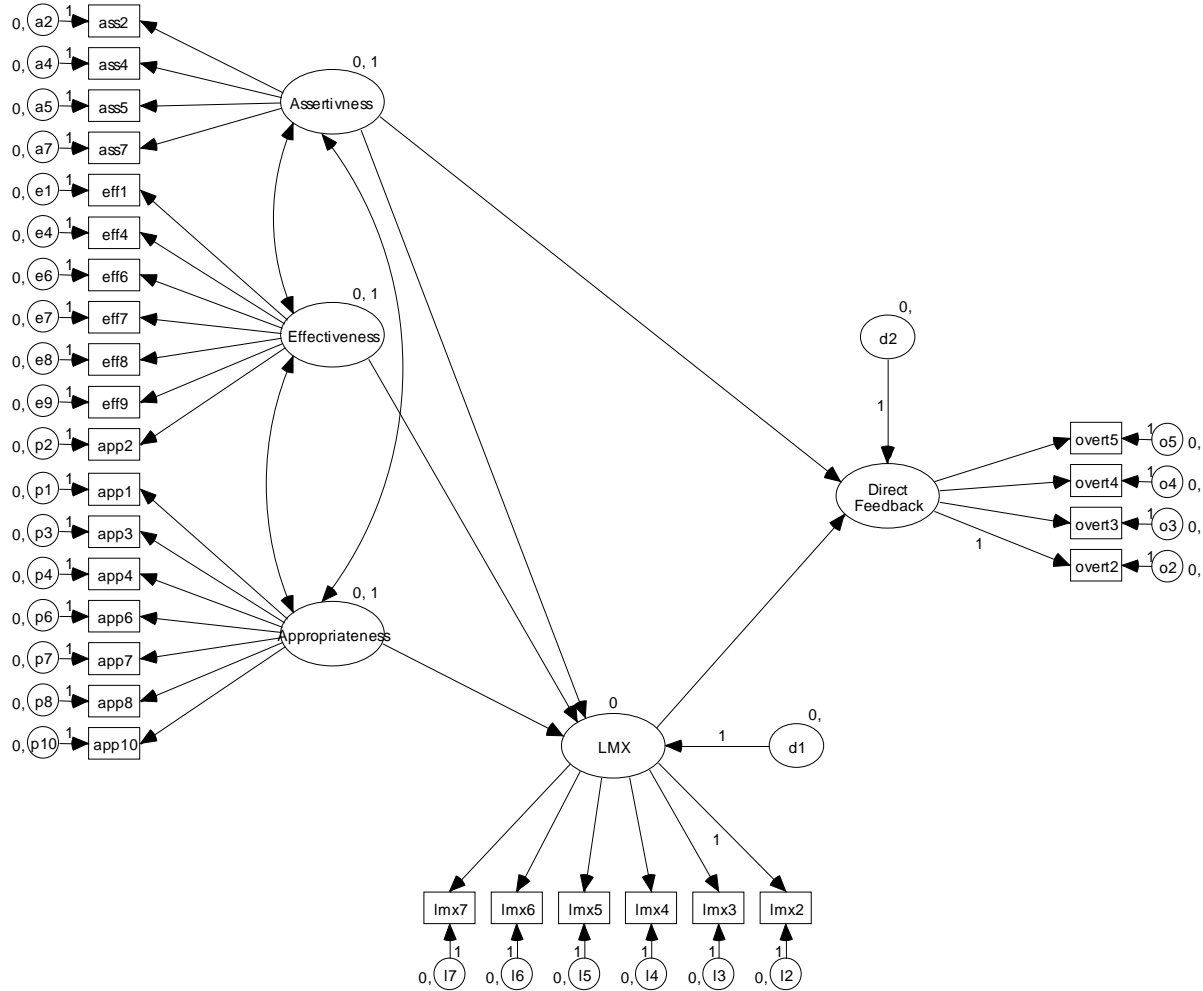
Figure 1. Full structural equation model.

Measurement vs. structural model. There are two components of the full structural equation model: measurement and structure. The measurement model defines relations between the observed and unobserved variables. The measurement component of the model shows that conversational effectiveness, conversational appropriateness, and LMX have seven indicator measures and assertiveness, direct, and indirect have four (see Figure 1).

The structural component specifies the indirect and direct relationship of the latent variables in the model. In our model, there are six unobserved variables: assertiveness, effectiveness, appropriateness, LMX, indirect feedback, and direct feedback. The structural model defines the relationship among these variables. In our model, the structural component of this model represents that indirect and direct feedback seeking is derived from subordinates' perception of their LMX which in turn is influenced by their perceptions of their levels of assertiveness and conversational effectiveness and appropriateness. It also suggests that appropriateness has a direct effect on the indirect and direct feedback-seeking strategies.

To estimate the model, exogenous variables are assigned a standardized metric (i.e., z-score) by fixing the variance of the factors to a value of 1.0. That is, because one path from each of the three independent factors (assertiveness, effectiveness, appropriateness) is fixed to 1.0, their variances can be freely estimated.

The variances of the endogenous variables (LMX, direct feedback, and indirect feedback), however, are not parameters in the model. It is not possible to fix the variance in the endogenous latent variables (i.e., outcome variables); their variances are dependent on the exogenous variables. Therefore, it is necessary to provide a metric for each of the latent variables because they do not possess an inherent measurement scale. To establish the scale, one parameter in each set of regression paths is fixed at 1.0. For example, in the LMX scale, one item's factor loading (i.e., LMX7) was set to 1.0. So, LMX is measured on the same scale as that item. The metrics for both indirect and direct feedback were also fixed in this matter.

Goodness of fit. In modeling LMX as a mediator in the relationship between communication variables and feedback seeking, the chi square goodness-of-fit statistic was significant, indicating that the model may not fit the data [χ^2 (342, $N = 185$) = 541.60, $p < .05$)] Due to the relatively small sample size in this analysis ($N = 185$), an adjunct discrepancy-based fit index may be used as the ratio of chi square to degrees of freedom ($\chi2/df$). A $\chi2/df$ ratio value less than 5 has been suggested as indicating an acceptable fit between the hypothesized model and the sample data (MacCallum, Brown, & Sugawara, 1996). With a $\chi2/df$ ratio value of 1.58, the proposed model may have an acceptable fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended the use of the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), the Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as fit indices for model evaluation for small samples sizes. The TLI value of .93 indicates that this model is a 93% improvement over the null model. Over .90 is considered an acceptable fit (Hoyle, 1995). In addition, our RMSEA value of .06 was acceptable (Hu & Bentler). The SRMR value of .60 was not adequate. However, a larger sample size might adjust this value.

Table 7: Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations for Assertiveness, LMX, Direct, Indirect, Communication Appropriateness, and Effectiveness

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Asssertiveness	-					
2. LMX	.12	-				
3. Direct	.17*	.26**	-			
4. Indirect	-.01	-.04	.03	-		
5. Appropriateness	-.02	.61**	.15	-.04	-	
6. Effectiveness	-.02	.74**	.16*	-.05	.71**	-
M	3.46	3.55	3.81	2.54	3.36	3.70
SD	.64	.87	.80	.83	1.01	.91

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Hypotheses Testing

H$_1$ predicted that members' perceived communication effectiveness with their leaders is positively correlated with the quality of LMX. This hypothesis was supported. The standardized regression coefficient between effectiveness and LMX indicated a significant and positive relationship ($\beta = .79$, $z = 8.08$, $p < .05$). The effectiveness variable explained 62.8% of the variance in LMX.

H₂ predicted subordinates perceived communication appropriateness with their supervisors is positive. This hypothesis was supported. The standardized regression coefficients between the predictor variable, appropriateness, and the outcome variable LMX indicated a positive relationship ($\beta = .11$, $z = 1.42$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the appropriateness variable only explained 1% of the variance in LMX.

H₃ predicated that LMX is positively correlated with direct feedback-seeking strategies. This hypothesis was supported. The standardized regression coefficient between LMX and direct feedback-seeking strategies indicated a positive and significant relationship ($\beta = .30$, $z = 3.19$, $p < .05$). Therefore, LMX explained 9.1% of the variance in seeking feedback directly.

H₄ predicated that LMX is negatively correlated with indirect feedback-seeking strategies. Indirect feedback seeking was dropped from the model because it was not correlated with any of the variables in the model. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.
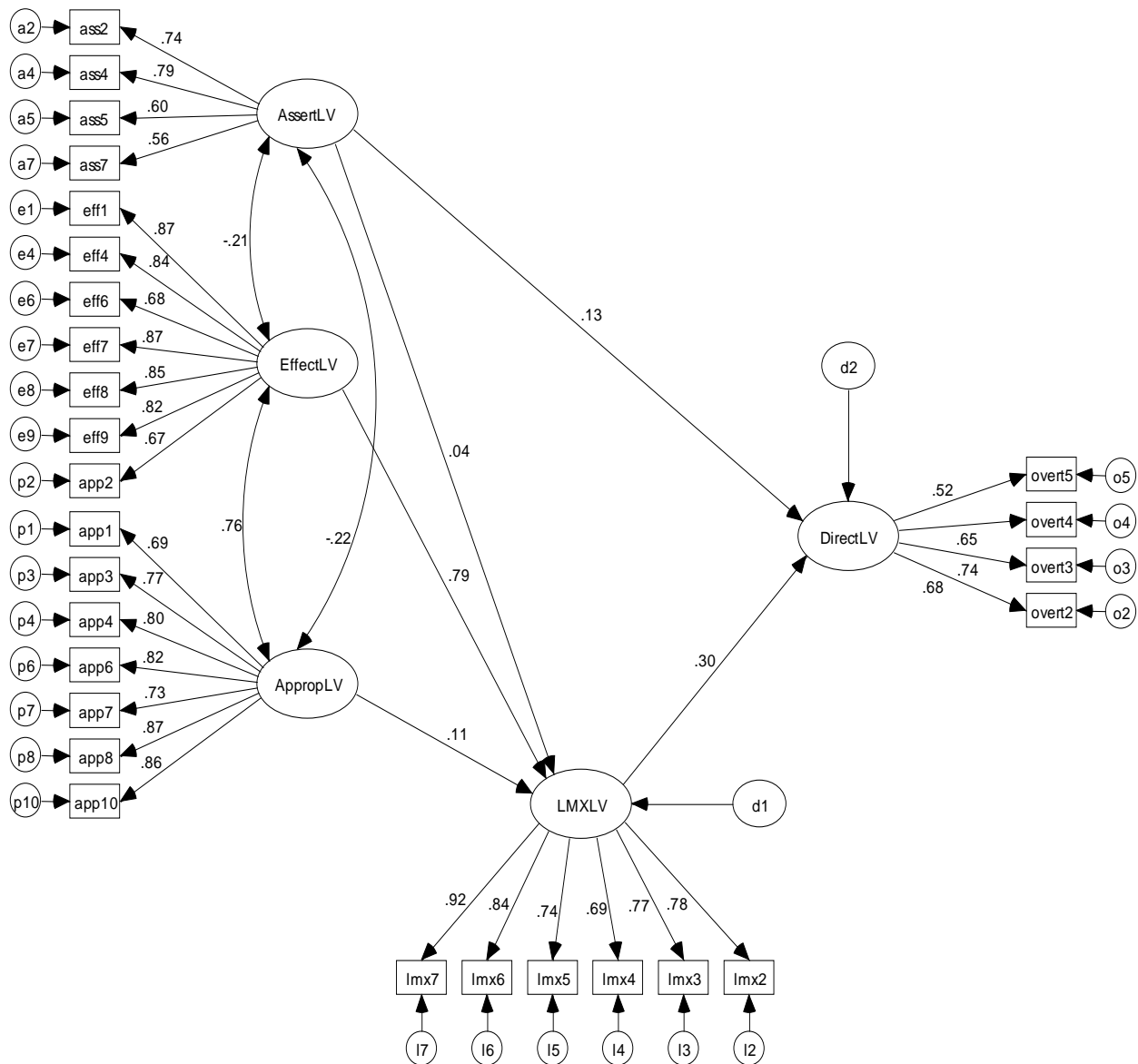
Figure 2. Full output structural equation model.

H_5 predicted that assertiveness has a positive relationship with LMX. The standardized regression coefficient between assertiveness and LMX was positive and not significant ($\beta = .04$, $z = .76$, $p > .05$). This does not explain a lot about the relationship of LMX (.16%). However, this is the contribution of assertiveness after controlling for the other predictor variables (e.g., effectiveness and appropriateness).

H_6 predicted that assertiveness has a positive relationship with direct feedback seeking. The standardized regression coefficient between assertiveness and direct feedback-seeking strategies was positive but not significant ($\beta = .13$, $z = 1.22$, $p > .05$). Therefore, the assertiveness construct explained 1.2% of the variance in direct feedback seeking.

H_7 predicted that assertiveness has a negative relationship with indirect feedback seeking. This hypothesis was not supported. Together, the predictor variables in the model explained 89.1% of the variance in LMX (i.e., $R^2 = .89$).

Discussion

This study investigated the superior and subordinate relationship and explored how they communicate in order to develop a LMX. A high quality LMX has many important benefits for a subordinate including having access to resources and having information before those who have low quality exchanges. This study also examined how subordinates' perceptions of their LMX will predict how they seek feedback. The results of the study partially supported the hypothesized relationships that (a) conversational appropriateness and effectiveness is positively correlated with LMX, (b) LMX is positively correlated with direct feedback seeking and negatively correlated with indirect feedback-seeking strategies, and (c) assertiveness is positively correlated with LMX and direct feedback seeking and negatively correlated with indirect feedback seeking.

Conversational Effectiveness and Appropriateness

Conversational effectiveness and appropriateness are two components of communication competence. This study found that there was a direct, positive, and significant relationship between conversational effectiveness and LMX. This suggests that subordinates who perceive their conversations with their supervisors are effective will have what they consider to be a high quality LMX. It makes sense that if a subordinate gets what they want out of their conversations and feels as though their conversations are beneficial, useful, and advantageous, they will more likely perceive they are engaging in a high quality exchange with their supervisor.

There was also an indirect, positive, significant relationship with conversation effectiveness and direct feedback seeking. Suggesting that subordinates first evaluate their relationships with their supervisors before engaging in direct feedback-seeking tactics. If individuals believe they have high quality LMX, they will engage in direct feedback-seeking strategies. There was no relationship, however, between indirect and conversational effectiveness or LMX.

The study observed conversational appropriateness to have a direct, positive, and nonsignificant relationship with LMX. In addition, there was an indirect, positive, and nonsignificant relationship with conversation appropriateness through LMX to direct feedback seeking. This, of course, is controlling for all other predictors in the model (i.e., assertiveness and effectiveness). Conversational appropriateness was correlated with LMX and accounted for

37% of the variance. This suggests conversational appropriateness does explain much of LMX after controlling for conversational effectiveness.

Assertiveness

From a communication scholar's perspective, assertiveness refers to the extent to which you initiate, maintain, and terminate conversation (Richmond & McCroskey, 1990). It appears from this study that how assertive people may be does not play an important role in developing high quality exchanges. This was evident here by a positive but almost nonexistent relationship between assertiveness and LMX.

In addition, the results suggest just because an individual is assertive by trait does not necessarily mean he or she will be seeking direct feedback directly from his/her superior. This is an important implication. It may be that supervisors believe that their employees will come to them if they have questions or concerns because they are assertive individuals. This study found a positive but nonsignificant relationship between assertiveness and seeking feedback directly.

LMX

LMX has a direct, positive, and significant relationship with direct feedback seeking. This finding suggests that if subordinates perceive their supervisor has put them into a high quality exchange relationship, they are more likely to seek feedback directly than those in the low quality exchange relationships. This finding is interesting because those individuals already believing they have a positive relationship with their supervisor will tend to ask direct questions, while those who do not perceive high exchanges are less likely to ask direct questions. This explanation may prove beneficial for supervisors because, if subordinates perceive they do not have a high quality exchange, they may be less likely to come to the supervisor with questions or concerns and perhaps rely on less than reliable sources.

Feedback-Seeking Strategies

This study contributed to the LMX theoretical framework by helping to explain subordinate feedback-seeking behavior. The findings suggest that subordinates' perceptions of their LMX play a role in engaging in direct feedback-seeking strategies. This finding has an important implication for supervisors. It is important for supervisors to realize that although they may believe their employees will come to them if they have questions or concerns, subordinates might first evaluate the quality of communication behaviors and the overall exchange. If subordinates do not feel their supervisors communicate effectively, they may be less likely to perceive they have a high quality LMX and less likely to engage in direct questioning than those who believe they are engaged in a high quality exchange.

Limitations to This Study and Suggestions for Future Research

One limitation to this study was its convenience sample of graduate business school students. A random sample of subordinates in a specific organization may help explain if the results would hold true in a business rather than educational setting. For example, future research

might explore differences in a hospital or a law firm or differences between organizations, especially if superior–subordinate relationships are strictly defined (e.g., doctor and nurse).

Future research might also take into account nested variables present in organizations. For example, a more complex design that looked at organizational levels, superior levels, and subordinate levels might be conducted if a large sample was obtained. A hierarchical linear model (HLM) type of multiple regression analysis might better examine if such nested relationships exist. HLM allows researchers to consider more than one unit of analysis, employing multilevel data (Byrk & Raudenbush, 1992).

Summary

This study posed a structural equation model that identified the relationship between assertiveness, conversational appropriateness and effectiveness, LMX, and direct feedback-seeking strategies. The findings contribute to the goal of understanding the antecedents to the LMX and the predictors of seeking feedback directly. First, this research suggests conversational appropriateness and effectiveness are positively related to LMX. Second, perceptions of communication effectiveness are positively and significantly related indirectly to direct feedback-seeking strategies but are mediated by the quality of LMX. Third, individual assertiveness levels do not necessarily contribute to LMX nor does assertiveness help explain why subordinates seek direct feedback. In conclusion, there remains little doubt that communication variables contribute to developing high quality LMX. Further, LMX is a critical variable that subordinates should consider when deciding whether to seek direct feedback from supervisors.

About the Author

Dr. Kristen Campbell Eichhorn earned her Ph.D. from the University of Miami in 2003 and serves as assistant professor at the State University of New York at Oswego, where she teaches research methods, communication theory, and interpersonal communication. She also has taught a wide variety of other courses, including organizational communication, nonverbal communication, persuasion, and business and professional communication. Her primary area of research is interpersonal communication in organizational, instructional, and health settings. Her research has been published in a variety of journals, including the *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *College Student Journal*, *Communication Research Reports*, *International Journal of Leadership Studies,* and *Public Relations Review*. She also is the coauthor of the book, *Interpersonal Communication: Building Rewarding Relationships* (with Candice Thomas-Maddox and Melissa Bekelja Wanzer).
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Cultural Value Orientation, Personality, and Motivational Determinants of Strategic Leadership in Africa

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Strategic leadership has been proposed as critical to organizational effectiveness. As African economies transition from socialist to open market states, strategic leadership will be instrumental to the effectiveness of African organizations. Unfortunately, few studies of strategic leadership in African organizations exist. To fill this gap, a model of strategic leadership is proposed here. Strategic leadership is viewed as a behavioral competence that top and lower level employees can develop, a view consistent with extant studies of strategic leadership. In the model, strategic leadership depends proximally on motivation to lead and to follow and distally on personality and cultural value orientation. Theoretical and practical implications for management of organizations in Africa are discussed.

Several decades of research have shown leadership as vital to organizations. Extant studies have found that one particularly important type of leadership that influences organizational development, growth, and competitive advantage is strategic leadership (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hitt & Ireland, 2002). Strategic leadership, referring to styles and skills executives use to influence the strategic orientation of organizations, includes behaviors that show vision, direction, purpose, and context for employees and propels the latter to follow strategic, tactical, and operational policies (Ireland & Hitt, 2005). It positively influences organizational change, learning, innovation, and performance as leaders use change-oriented behaviors to restructure organizations (Vera & Crossan, 2004).

Currently, African countries are transitioning from state-controlled to capital market structures (Ikiara, 1999). As a result, organizations are exposed to intense competition particularly from multinational corporations taking advantage of economic liberalization programs. Strategic leadership, therefore, seems important because it is more likely to enable African organizations to integrate effectively in the global economy (Ikiara), learn, and gain legitimacy (Zoogah & Abbey, 2008). The extent to which strategic leaders provide strategic direction and motivation determines not only the effective transition of the organizations but also their growth and development. In other words, strategic rather than traditional leadership seems critical to African organizations. Yet, studies of strategic leadership in Africa seem lacking. A

review of the leadership literature in Africa shows descriptive but not empirically and conceptually rigorous studies of strategic leadership. Without rigorous models, executive behaviors may not be appreciated.

The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to propose a conceptual model of determinants of strategic leadership in the context of African organizations. Specifically, this research focuses on cultural orientation, personality, and motivations of individuals to lead and follow. First, a review of the literature on strategic leadership in general and specifically in Africa is discussed followed by the conceptual framework. Implications for management and practice are discussed in the conclusion.

Grounding the Problem

Leadership, one of the most studied concepts in organizational behavior (Northouse, 2004), has been defined from various perspectives and studies with different approaches (Hartog & Koopman, 2001; Northouse). Characterized by process, influence, group context, and goal attainment, leadership refers to the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward the achievement of a set mission and its goals and objectives. Research in leadership have established trait, skills, style, situational, contingency, transactional, and transformational approaches (Northouse).

Within organizations, extant interest seems to be on strategic leadership. Strategic leadership theory evolved from upper echelons theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) and focuses on the instrumental ways dominant coalitions impact organizational outcomes and the symbolism and social construction of top executives (Vera & Crossan, 2004). It has been suggested that strategic leadership differs from traditional leadership in two major ways. First, it focuses on the strategic level of organizations and views executive work as relational, symbolic, and strategic activities (Vera & Crossan). In contrast, operational leadership (e.g., path–goal, contingency, Leader–member exchange) focuses on leaders' task- and person-oriented behaviors as they attempt to provide guidance, support, and feedback to subordinates. Second, while strategic leadership focuses on the creation of meaning and purpose for the organization (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001), operational leadership focuses on execution of purpose and enactment of meaning. However, researchers have used elements of operational leadership theories such as trait and styles (Bryman, 1986), information processing, contingency (Fiedler, 1967), and leader–member exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987) to understand interactions of top executives especially when they focus on "characteristics of individuals at the strategic apex of the organization" (Boal & Hooijberg, p. 516).

Activities of executives which sometimes intertwine with operational processes of organizations include strategic decision making (i.e., creation and communication of visions for the future); development of key competencies and capabilities; development of organizational structures, processes, and controls; management of multiple and diverse constituencies; selection and development of successors; development, sustenance, or transformation of an organization's culture; and establishment and modeling of ethical infrastructural mechanisms (Hambrick, 1989; Hickman, 1998). A review of the literature shows four dimensions of strategic leadership. First, transformational and transactional theories have been applied to top-level managers (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Along with visionary leadership these "can contribute to a more realistic view of top management" (Vera & Crossan, 2004, p. 223).

Others have suggested situational and functional leadership as additional dimensions, arguing that focusing on only transformational and transactional dimensions may not be appropriate because they neither capture the plethora of situations executives face nor enable executives to fulfill some important functions that are essential to leadership effectiveness (Zoogah, 2008b). Uncertain environments and relatively unstable environments require leadership behaviors consistent with the specific needs (i.e., demands and values) of the situation (Card, 1997) because an executive always has to "gain understanding and mastery of a situation" (Gabarro, 1987, p. 238) and "develop a sufficient power base and credibility to gain acceptance as the organization's leader" (Gabarro, p. 238).

Consistent with that view, Zoogah (2008b) suggested that strategic leaders' ability to exert influence on situations, particularly ambiguous and unpredictable ones, influences leadership efficacy. Using demands (expectations or obligations created by situational characteristics—high and low) and functions (active features or characteristics that define situations—sociocognitive and economic) dimensions of situations (Vansteelandt & Van Mechelen, 1998), Zoogah (2008b) proposed four generic situations that generally emerge from uncertain environments (deprivation, conflict, exploitative, and opportunistic situations) and affect organizational functioning and processes. The behaviors of strategic leaders in these situations affect organizational productivity. Further, functional strategic leadership dimensions integrating Chemers' (2000) and Hackman and Walton's (1986) functional leadership models suggest image management, relationship development, resource deployment, and conflict management as four major functions executives have to fulfill as strategic leaders (Zoogah, 2008b).

Strategic leadership integrates transactional, transformational, situational, and functional leadership behaviors. Research has identified antecedents (absorptive capacity, capacity to change, managerial wisdom; Boal & Hooijberg, 2001) and outcomes (learning, innovation, competitive advantage, and organizational effectiveness) of strategic leadership in traditional organizations and strategic alliances (Elenkov, Judge, & Wright, 2005; Zoogah, 2008b).

Even though these studies are significant, they adopted a macroperspective by focusing on the work of top executives, not only as a relational activity but also as a strategic and symbolic activity (Hambrick & Pettigrew, 2001). They focused strategic leadership on the dominant coalition of the firm (Vera & Crossan, 2004). This view is significant. However, it limits strategic leadership behaviors to the strategic apex which seems contrary to social and empirical realities (Card, 1997; Hughes & Beatty, 2005). As a result, others have suggested a microperspective in which focus is on the behavior of all organizational members (operatives, managers, and executives) as influence mechanisms that regulate organizational processes and systems (Card; Northhouse, 2004). The studies seem to ignore the cultural context of strategic leadership. Decades of research in strategy and organizational behavior have shown the effect of societal and cultural environments on organizations. So, leadership scholars have suggested integration of context in leadership studies because of its criticality (Avolio, 1999, 2007).

Fourth, previous studies focused on developed economies (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001); strategic leadership in transition and developing economies seem limited even though organizations in these countries require those behaviors to function effectively. Further, views of strategic leadership, especially those from non-Western cultures, provide additional perspectives that enhance our understanding. Finally, previous studies have adopted the perspective of only the leader without consideration of followership which effectuates strategic leadership (Avolio, 2007).

Consequently, this study improves upon previous research by adopting a microperspective for three main reasons. First, strategic leadership is viewed as an individual difference characteristic where an individual behaves in a way that facilitates achievement of organizational strategic objectives or goals. Second, there is a focus on the dominant behaviors of executives as individuals and employees which influence organizational goals (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001). Third, the developmental characteristics of strategic leadership are important for training. Extant research has suggested that strategic leadership has trainable characteristics (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). In this paper, the focus is on the African cultural context. By developing individuals with strategic leadership skills and abilities, African organizations can benefit from organizational learning, innovation, and productivity which have been found to be associated with strategic leaderships (Elenkov et al., 2005; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Vera & Crossan, 2004). The contextualization of strategic leadership within Africa not only extends our understanding of leadership beyond developed and Western contexts but also assists organizations therein to develop the requisite competence. Finally, followership is integrated which effectuates strategic leadership in Africa.

Leadership in Africa

Few, if any, consistent studies of leadership in Africa exist even though Africa's need for effective leadership is tremendous (Ndongo, 1999). In their review of leadership in non-Western contexts, GLOBE researchers Dorfman and House (2004) did not identify systematic studies of leadership in Africa. However, they found that a few countries in Africa exhibited behaviors suggestive of in-group collectivism. There seem to be three major problems with their study. First, not only is their sample not representative (only 7 out of 52 countries), but the classification seems to be arbitrary and inconsistent with cultural and societal understanding. Egypt and Morocco are classified as Middle Eastern probably because of the Islamic religion. No country from East Africa and only one country from West Africa (Nigeria) is represented. The other four countries are all from Southern Africa. Second, the authors defined sub-Saharan Africa as black Africa which seems incongruous with African definitions (Awedoba, 2005). More importantly, the majority of the participants exhibited moderate behavioral characteristics (ingroup collectivism, societal collectivism, institutional collectivism; 4-5 on a scale of 7) which suggests either contamination (participants were not purely African in cultural practices) or nonrepresentation (participants were from urban areas which tend to have modern values rather than rural areas which have traditional values).

The few African scholars who have examined leadership behaviors in African organizations have focused on operational or supervisory leadership which is concerned with leadership in organizations (Ugwegbu, 1999). In a review of leadership in African organizations, Ndongo (1999) found that the majority of leadership studies use Western and traditional theories; "there are no indigenous African models of leadership" (p. 110), and the "the few existing studies have mainly reviewed leadership concepts while mostly neglecting to empirically study the leadership styles and practices of today's African organizations" (p. 110). Others have found that African leaders and managers are authoritarian, inflexible, and insensitive (Odhiambo, 1995). Leadership development, preparing individuals for executive positions, tends to be idiosyncratic, ethnically linked, and not skill or merit based, resulting in a "state of ineptitude and mediocrity" (Odhiambo, p. 15), accounting for the dearth of strategic leadership in Africa.

African organizations need strategic leadership "marked by a concern for the evolution of the organization as a whole, including its changing aims and capabilities" (Selznick, 1984, p. 5). However, the paucity of studies of executives at the strategic apex of African organizations (Ndongo, 1999), cultural hetereogeneity of the Africa continent (Awedoba, 2005), and resistance of organizations to empirical investigation (Ugwegbu, 1999) are factors that compound the challenges of strategic leadership studies in Africa. A few conceptual and empirical studies were performed by D. M. Mbiti (1977) and Merwe and Merwe (1985). D. M. Mbiti suggested that leadership studies in Africa should focus on what managers do rather than who they are because executives formulate and implement policy and perform ceremonial and executive functions. He referred to first-line and middle-level managers instead of executives at the strategic apex perhaps because his study occurred during the colonial era when few Africans in organizations had executive positions, and only whites who were colonial masters occupied those positions (Ugwegbu).

As a result, "there is an acute shortage of quality leadership and management in Africa" (Kiggundu, 1988, p. 226) and a need for the "emergence of new leadership" (Kiggundu, p. 226), one that would transform African organizations. Merwe and Merwe (1985) took this challenge and examined the distinctive characteristics of South African chief executives in publicly quoted companies to identify career route and behavior patterns of executives. Strategic leadership as an art and discipline (Freedman & Tregoe, 2003), therefore, still seems lacking, making the need to develop that competence urgent. Consistent with extant views of strategic leadership as a microlevel behavioral competence (Hughes & Beatty, 2005; Taylor, 1995), strategic leadership is conceptualized as an individual level behavioral competence to facilitate development of individuals for the important roles of influencing African organizations' productivity and competitiveness. Next, the conceptual model is discussed.

Conceptual Framework

In this section, a model of determinants of strategic leadership in the context of Africa is proposed (see Figure 1). It is consistent with our definition that strategic leadership is the process of developing visions, creating executable plans, making strategically consequential decisions, stimulating and motivating followers, and engaging in supportive exchanges with peers and subordinates given volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous environments of African organizations. Strategic leadership first depends proximally on the motivations to lead and to follow and distally on personality and cultural orientations of individuals.

Strategic Leadership from an African Perspective

Strategic leadership from an African perspective takes into consideration the African cultural context. It focuses on what executives at the strategic apex do because those behaviors cannot only be transferred through training and development but are also influenced by the cultural norms, values, and beliefs of Africa. A focus on behaviors also accounts for the hetereogeneity of African cultural characteristics. Whether executives are in white (Southern Africa), traditional (sub-Sahara), or Islamic (North) Africa, they have to exhibit the same behaviors when they initiate strategic activities. Second, the model integrates followership and suggests that behaviors that facilitate fulfillment of organizational behaviors, utilization of competencies, promotion of processes and controls, execution of succession, integration of

cultural systems, and enactment of social and ethical systems effectuates strategic leadership. The integration of leadership and followership components fits with the cultural context of Africa where leadership (e.g., chieftaincy) effectiveness is defined by followership (J. S. Mbiti, 1999; Ndongo, 1999).
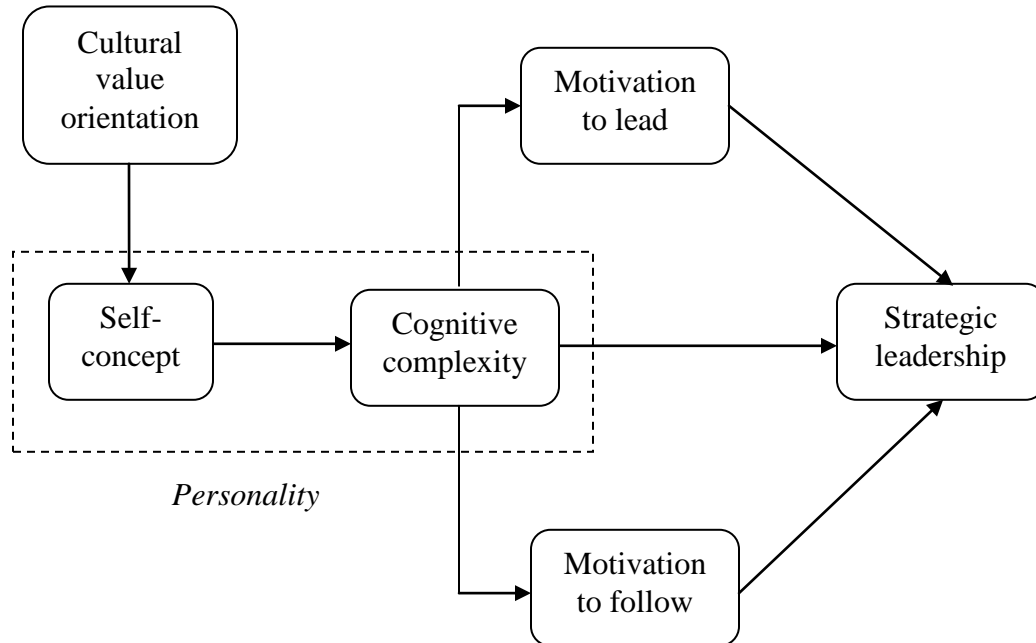

Figure 1: Determinants of strategic leadership in Africa.

Africa is a composite of tribal groups and diverse heritages. As a result, no one cultural pathway can define it; there are a multitude of languages, kinship structures, economic organizations, and leadership arrangements across Africa (Awedoba, 2005). Swahili (Kenya) differs from Yoruba (Nigeria) and Akan (Ghana). In Eastern Africa, the majority of economic organizations traditionally focus on nomadic activity while in Western Africa, it is agrarian or agricultural (Gyekye, 2002). Basic strategies and orientations towards those organizations seem different. Compounding these differences are the triple heritages: southern Africa seems to be dominated by whites, while northern and central (i.e., sub-Saharan) Africa are dominated by Arabic and indigenous Africans respectively. Leadership structures in these heritages are different (Ugwebgu, 1999).

Despite these differences, similarities exist between the different African countries and ethnic cultures (Awedoba, 2005). These similarities suggest *Africanity* which is the "special configuration of various features and cultural patterns that may be encountered in the study of African modes of livelihood, beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, even in languages, and artistic expression" (Awedoba, 2005, p. 21). Several studies from anthropology (Greenfield & Bruner, 1966), sociology (Ahiauzu, 1986), and psychology (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) have found that African countries, particularly those of sub-Sahara, are collectivistic. They have shared practices and meanings that suggest an interdependent cultural pathway characterized by "social intelligence, which is more developed in the interdependent person characteristic of Africa" (Greenfield, Keller, Fuligni, & Maynard, 2003, p. 464) as well as conformity to established

social norms of responsibility and honesty, politeness, respect for elders, and loyalty to family (Greenfield et al.). Leadership in collectivistic countries and African countries tends to be "paternalistic and nurturant" (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004, p. 462), focused on "relational interactions and behaviors" (Gelfand et al., p. 462), and "reflect[s] cultural values of interdependence, collaboration, and self-effacement" (Gelfand et al., 462). The socialization processes of collectivist cultures shape and regulate the behaviors of individuals within the society or in economic organizations. Individuals are regulated to think and behave interdependently. Socialization defines the personality of individuals and indirectly influences their motivations to lead and follow (Greenfield et al.). Next, the first socialization factor, cultural value orientation, is considered.

Cultural Value Orientation

Africans today inhabit two worlds "which are not necessarily clearly separable" (Awedoba, 2005, p. 22). Even though they have been influenced by Western culture, Africans do not necessarily abandon their traditional roots. Modernism, sometimes synonymous with Westernism (Edoho, 2001), is a cultural value that a strategic leader in modern Africa has to combine with traditionalism. Traditionalism generally refers to the tendency to adhere to accepted practices, belief systems, and normative values that are determinants of accepted behavior within a particular cultural context (Edoho). In the context of Africa, it refers to adherence to traditional cultural values such as religious practices, humanity, communality, morality, family, politics (i.e., chieftaincy), economic system, knowledge, and aesthetics which are unique to Africa (Gyekye, 2002). African traditional religion, differing from Christianity, Islam, Budhism, Hinduism, Judaism, and other religions, regulates the attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors of individuals with respect to ethics, social solidarity, harmony, and cooperation. It is "built into the culture of the people and so is a way of life" (Gyekye, p. 17).

Socialized by systems characteristic of traditional or indigenous Africa, traditionalists develop values that focus on the following: recognition of all humans beings as members of one common human species (Gyekye, 2002), sharing of a common social life, commitment to the social or common good of the community, appreciation of mutual obligations, caring for others, interdependence, and mutual solidarity (Gyekye, 2002). Traditionalists also focus on collectivistic rather than individualistic values (Greenfield & Bruner, 1966), tend to be more developed in social intelligence (Mundy-Castle, 1974), and exhibit loyalty to the family or society rather than the individual (Nsamenang, 1996). Embedded within traditionalism is an ethic of fair (not necessarily equal) distribution where everyone has access to the resources and goods of the community, a belief that leaders (i.e., chiefs) govern communities using consultation and consensus based on the principle of trusteeship, and an obligation to promote human well-being within the community (Awedoba, 2005; Gyekye; J. S. Mbiti, 1999). Further, it promotes the ethic of responsibility as superseding the ethic of individual rights even though the latter are also given due recognition (Gyekye). In sum, traditionalists define themselves relative to traditional collectivist, metaphysical, moralistic, and spiritual orientation.

Modernism which seems to apply to all societies transitioning toward newer or modern practices and beliefs, is also a cultural value that defines Africans (Awedoba, 2005). Four contingencies (colonization, Judeo–Christian advocacy, nationhood, and economic cooperation) seem to account for the association of modernism with Westernism in the context of Africa. All countries in Africa except Ethiopia were colonized. They have also been exposed to Judeo–

Christian religions through missionary activities. Independence resulted in nationhood through which African countries emerged as amalgamations of several disparate and diverse tribal groups (J. S. Mbiti, 1999; Odhiambo, 1995; Ugwegbu, 2001) where individuals adopted novel cultural practices of other tribes (J. S. Mbiti). Further, national cooperation in recent times has also increased the interaction of Western and African societies.

The pathway of modernists in Africa consists of values that differ distinctly from those of traditionalists (Awedoba, 2005; Edoho, 2001; Gyekye, 2002; J. S. Mbiti, 1999). Modernists are associated with behavioral characteristics such as rationalism which is reinforced by the Judeo–Christian ethos (Edoho, 1999). They also tend to have individualistic orientations and technological intelligence based on rational ethos (Greenfield et al., 2003). Further, modernists have an independent developmental pathway where social obligations are individually negotiated to maximize personal choices and individual rights (Raeff, Greenfield, & Quirozet, 2000). They adopt practices and belief systems consistent with Western and Judeo–Christian ethos (Edoho, 2001).

In sum, modernists and traditionalists have different cultural pathways because of different "culturally relevant developmental goals" (Greenfield et al., 2003, p. 464). The system of beliefs and ideas concerning the nature of the ideal child (i.e., who the child is or should be) and the socialization practices that regulate the behaviors and define the self-concept of the young differ between modernists and traditionalists (Harkness & Super, 1996). These ethnotheories which are shared and negotiated impact self-concept perceptions. Instead of perceiving themselves as part of the group, modernists perceive themselves independent of the group and thereby engage in competitive rather than cooperative behaviors. The possible selves of traditionalists seems to be associated with the past self, present self, and ought self while those of modernists seem to be associated with the future self, important self, and ideal self (Zoogah & Abbey, 2008). Activities and experiences that develop and expand the self may also be different. Modernists are likely to focus on activities that challenge them to improve, while traditionalists may engage in experiences that enable them to preserve traditional values. In other words, they may strategically select events, networks, attitudes, and behaviors that may affect how they gain knowledge, influence, and possibly follow others. Thus, cultural value orientations of modernists and traditionalists are likely to shape their perceptions of who they are and distally influence strategic leadership.

Self-Concept

Self-concept is a system of affective-cognitive structures about the self that lend coherence and structure to the individual's self-relevant experiences (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Norman & Aron, 2003). The self-concept is "an important influence in regulating behavior, functioning to organize an individual's interpretation of the world, determining what stimuli are selected for attention, and what inferences are drawn" (Norman & Aron, p. 500). Created from past experiences and socialization, the self-concept varies contextually and temporally (Markus & Nurius; Showers, Abramson, & Hogan, 1998). The tendency of individuals to display one self in one context or time and another self in another context or time has resulted in the dynamic self (Showers et al.). In this paper, the focus is on two aspects of the dynamic self: self-complexity and possible self. Self-complexity refers to the number of self-aspects or subselves a person has and the amount of independence among those self-aspects, that is "idiographic representations of the self that correspond to various roles, relationships, contexts, or activities" (Ryan, LaGuardia,

Rawsthorne, 2005, p. 432). Individuals with high self-complexity are able to regulate themselves in multiple roles and activities and behave consistently with the norms of the given context (Koch & James, 2004).

Possible selves refer to the types of selves that individuals acquire as a result of past and future experiences. Two selves pertinent to this study are future and hoped-for selves. Future self refers to the perception of individuals in the future while hoped-for self refers to anticipated selves individuals desire (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Both influence the motivation of individuals to lead and to follow (Markus & Wurf, 1987). If individuals perceive a future self that is promotive (i.e., enhances their career progression), they may be motivated to lead and follow. On the other hand, if they perceive a future that is demotive, they may resist influence by strategic leaders.

Few studies of self-concept in Africa exist. Mpofu (1994) found that Africans defined their self-concepts as collectivistic and moralistic. In another study, it was found that Been-tos (individuals who have lived in developed or Western countries and returned home to Ghana) perceived themselves as high in self-complexity (Zoogah & Abbey, 2008).

Self-complexity and possible selves influence thinking patterns or cognitive complexity of individuals (Ryan et al., 2005). Because self-complexity is a function of multidimensional and overlapping orientations, it relates to cognitive complexity through integration competence or behaviors. Self-complex individuals are able to identify linkages using the multiple and overlapping roles they have executed in the past. It relates to cognitive thinking of individuals (Streufert & Swezey, 1986). Possible selves also relate to cognitive complexity through recognition of separate roles: future versus past, expected versus hoped-for. The ability to differentiate these roles is a function of thinking (Streufert & Swezey). Self-complexity and possible selves may therefore influence cognitive complexity of Africans.

Cognitive Complexity

Differences in thinking patterns (*how*), action preferences (*why*), as well as thought contents (*what*) emerge from the self-concept of individuals (Streufert & Swezey, 1986). Cognitive complexity, initially developed as a personality measure (Gruenfeld & Hollingshead, 1993), refers to the cognitive style of individuals or the characteristic way or manner in which individuals process information (McAdams, 2002). It focuses on *how* individuals construct meaning or organize information instead of *what* they think or knowledge content (Streufert & Nogami, 1989). The cognitive style of individuals defines the extent to which they think differentiatedly or integratively (Streufert & Streufert, 1978). Differentiation (the recognition of multiple perspectives on an issue) and integration (recognition of conceptual connections such as tensions and trade-offs among differentiated dimensions) influence individual and managerial performance (Streufert & Swezey; Tetlock, Peterson, & Berry, 1993). In addition, cognitive complexity relates to strategic leadership (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001); complex leaders use a broader variety of leadership components, are more capable of and make more use of collaborative leadership, make more use of feedback, tend to receive feedback, and tend to receive more favorable follower ratings (Streufert & Castore, 1971). Cognitive complexity is sometimes considered interactive complexity because individuals process information on "the basis of the complexity of the individual and the characteristics of the environment" (Streufert & Streufert, p. 87) to which he or she is exposed.

A review of conceptual and empirical studies of cognitive and interactive complexity in Africa does not show any substantive findings. However, the socialization processes and environment of Africa provide insight on the cognitive complexity of Africans and its relationship to strategic leadership. First, several studies have shown that indigenous Africans are socialized to be interdependent, care for others, and recognize the link they have with others (i.e., integration). On the other hand, they are taught to uphold and defend traditions, practices, values, and people on the society (differentiated; Awedoba, 2005; Gyekye, 2002; J. S. Mbiti, 1999). The latter tendency is related to unquestionable acceptance and compliance with organizational practices and meanings. For example, individuals tend to follow chiefs without questioning the rationale or efficacy of the leaders (Gyekye). Even though the resultant thinking patterns are complex, they can diverge towards integration and differentiation.

The tendency to integrate or differentiate is transferred from communities to organizations such that those who can process information about stakeholders (e.g., competitors, financiers, communities, and customers) and integrate it with that from organizational processes are likely to behave in unique ways toward constituents (Ugwebgu, 1999). They may see connections and linkages between organizational processes and stakeholders (Tetlock et al., 1993). They are also more likely to integrate their future and hoped-for selves with rationales for influencing individuals and groups. That integration may help them adopt behavioral styles that link to organizational processes and outcomes. For example, they may evaluate the impact of their behaviors on not only employees but also communities to which their organizations are linked. In deciding to follow or lead, individuals with differentiated cognitive styles are likely to focus more on the organization or themselves without consideration of constituents and other environments.

Thus, cognitive complexity may influence motivation to lead (MTL). MTL refers to the decision of individuals to aspire toward strategic leadership roles; strategic leaders' decisions to assume strategic leadership training, roles, and responsibilities; their persistence in exhibiting strategic leader behaviors; and the extent of their efforts to perform the activities of strategic leaders (Chan & Drasgow, 1999). Previous studies have shown that MTL depends on individual characteristics (Chan & Drasgow; Kark & van Dijk, 2007), one of which is cognitive style (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001). Integratively complex leaders think and focus on how they can transform employees, organizations, and communities (Streufert & Swezey, 1986). This tendency may be attractive to subordinates or serve as a basis for future leadership by the individual himself or succession agents. Such leaders use more collaborative behaviors and use and receive more feedback (Boal & Hooijberg; Tetlock et al., 1993). In contrast, differentiatively complex individuals tend to focus on achieving specific goals and adopt transactional behaviors (Tetlock et al.). Their motivations may be limited to merely executing roles without expanding or integrating other behaviors that improve their organization and subordinates.

Cognitive complexity is also likely to influence motivation to follow (MTF), the decision of individuals to submit to the influence of leaders. Extant research has suggested that followership is an integral element of effective leadership (Avolio, 2007; Kark & van Dijk, 2007) and emerges from the decisions of individuals to engage different aspects of the self-concept (Kark & Shamir, 2002). The self-concept of leaders prime followers' motivation by appealing to followers' higher values, engaging in image-based rhetoric, and articulating what followers and organizations can gain and develop into (Kark & van Dijk). Further, leaders function as behavioral role models for followers. Applied to strategic leadership, organizational strategies become sources of appeal and influence. For example, when strategies lead to

increased productivity, employees benefit through compensation. Another way strategic leaders can motivate individuals is to establish infrastructure that facilitates followership. For example, if they establish purpose, maintain core competencies, and develop sustaining cultures and ethical systems, employees may be motivated to follow (Hitt & Ireland, 2002). Transactional behaviors (e.g., contingency rewards) may also motivate employees to follow strategic leaders (Northouse, 2004; Vera & Crossan, 2004).

MTL

Extant perspectives of leadership have suggested that leadership is a function of the motives of individuals to assume leadership roles and behaviors (Avolio, 2007; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Kark & van Dijk, 2007). As a result, several motivation theories including self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985), self-regulation (Higgins, 1997), flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 2002), and expectancies (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) have been applied to various types of leadership: authentic (Gardner et al.) and transformational (Chemers, 2000). The importance of motivation has led to a new construct, MTL, an individual difference variable that "affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affects his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (Chan & Drasgow, 1999, p. 482).

According to Chan, Rounds, and Drasgow (2000), three motives drive individuals' MTL: affective/identity, socionormative, and noncalculative. The affective/identity motive suggests that individuals who assume leadership roles like or prefer to lead and see themselves as leaders. Such individuals tend to be extroverted, competitive, and achievement oriented as well as confident in their own competence (Chan et al.). The socionormative motive arises out of individuals' sense of social duty and obligation and a desire to accept social hierarchies even though they may reject social equality. The third motive, noncalculative, is associated with individuals who do not consider the costs and benefits of leading. This is unlike the other two motives where the costs and benefits of leading are evaluated. Subsequent research has identified personality constructs, general cognitive ability, sociocultural values, leadership experience, and leadership self-efficacy as antecedents of MTL (Chan & Drasgow, 1999; Kark & van Dijk, 2007). MTL also has been found to influence participation in training, competence development, and leadership performance (Chan et al.).

Previous research has examined MTL with respect to supervisory leadership (Kark & van Dijk, 2007). In this paper, it is extended to strategic leadership because strategic leadership is viewed from an emergent perspective where individuals develop strategic leadership behavioral competence based on the personality and cultural value characteristics. The strategic leadership literature has suggested that the motivations of top management influence their effectiveness in developing and implementing organizational strategies (Ireland & Hitt, 2005). It seems likely that individuals will be motivated to assume strategic leadership roles and responsibilities especially if it would help promote their self-concept (Lord & Hall, 1992). The motives that underlie MTL in supervisory leadership also apply to strategic leadership. Executives may accept top management responsibilities because they like strategic leadership roles or they perceive them as enhancing their self-concept and identity out of social obligation without prior computation of the costs relative to benefits of strategic leadership.

These motives are likely to be prominent in African organizations. Some individuals may like strategic leadership because of its influence on their self-concept and identity. In traditional

Africa, social status and prestige are important because of the hierarchical structure and masculine characteristics of the society (Gyekye, 2002; J. S. Mbiti, 1999). Executive positions and strategic leadership are mechanisms to achieve and promote social status. The socionormative motive also manifests especially when individuals assume strategic leadership roles out of obligation to their organization, community, and country. The cultural characteristics of Africans suggest that leadership is ascribed; individuals become leaders by virtue of their role within the social structure (Ugwuegbu, 2001). For example, the eldest of a family automatically assumes leadership over siblings. The latter are obligated to follow just as the elder is obligated to lead. Further, it is not uncommon for governments to appoint individuals to strategic leadership roles in organizations (Ndongo, 1999). Third, individuals sometimes assume strategic leadership roles noncalculatively especially when no other individual is available, qualified, or obligated. Unlike the other motives where individuals calculate being strategic leaders, this motive suggests accidental assumption of executive roles. That tendency seems common in African organizations (Ndongo; Ugwegbu).

Executives are expected to effectively fulfill executive roles. So, their motives may drive their engagement in strategic leadership activities (Card, 2003). Individuals who have MTL strategically may engage in training to improve strategic conceptualization behaviors out of personal volition. For example, they may participate in strategy games or role plays to gain an appreciation of certain strategic behavioral orientations. They may also initiate and support systems that develop the unique competence of their employees. Such behaviors rarify their human capital, making it difficult to imitate. Further, they may institute ethical practices that distinguish their organizations. In addition, socially obligated executives may leverage external networks especially through those who appointed them to improve their organizations (Ireland & Hitt, 2005). For example, the social capital accumulated with regulatory agencies can be used to influence the operations of their organizations.

MTF

Extant views of effective leadership have suggested that followership is important. Howell and Shamir (2005) observed that "followers also play a more active role in constructing the leadership relationship, empowering the leader and influencing his or her behavior, and ultimately determining the consequences of the leadership relationship" (p. 97). Avolio (2007) suggested that leadership theories must consider the dynamic interplay between leaders and followers. Consequently, several studies (Gardner et al., 2005; Grint, 2005; Kark & van Dijk, 2007) have found that followers' characteristics (e.g., self-awareness and self-regulation) and motivations (Välikangas & Okumura, 1997) influence their orientation towards leaders.

Across all these studies, MTF is an individual difference variable that affects an individual's orientation to submit intensively and persistently to influence by a leader (Gardner et al., 2005; Kark & van Dijk, 2007). There are different motivations of followers to submit to leaders' influence. Välikangas and Okumura (1997) suggested utility, identity, and value as major motives that drive followers to submit to leaders' influence. Viewed from a behavioral change perspective, these motives suggest that followers will change their behaviors if they perceive compliance, identification, and internalization of leaders influence as meaningful for them. The utility motive refers to "the acceptance of influence in order to gain specific gratification or rewards and/or avoid deprivations or punishments" (Välikangas & Okumura, p. 314). The leader may be perceived to control rewards or punishment which the follower seeks to

achieve or avoid. The identity motive refers to acceptance of influence deemed important to the follower's identity. The individual perceives following the leader as positively affecting his or her personal and social identity. Personal identities relate to social identifies "because they form over time as a consequence of the actor's reflections on his or her self-interaction with others" (Gardner et al., 2005, p. 351). Indeed, extant research has shown that the self-concept is one important factor influencing followership (Gardner et al.) and leadership (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). The third motive, value, is a form of internalization and refers to "the acceptance of leadership influence that is congruent with a person's values" (Välikangas & Okumura, p. 315). A follower's behavior is internally motivated unlike the others that are externally motivated. For example, self-enhancement may be a personal value that fits with a leader's transformative behaviors.

Followers have two basic self-regulation systems, one that regulates achievement of rewards and focuses on promotion goals and another that regulates the avoidance of punishments and focuses on prevention goals (Higgins, 1997; Kark & van Dijk, 2007). Promotion and prevention motives influence transformational and transactional leadership respectively. Shamir (2004) suggested five motivations of followers: (a) position based where followers respect leaders' formal positions, (b) calculated where follows adhere to leaders to help them achieve their goal, (c) safety based where followers believe leaders will help them fulfill needs for security, (d) meaning based where followers dread chaos and rely on leaders to provide order and meaning, and (e) identity based where followers seek to enhance their own self-esteem by identifying with leaders they perceive as powerful and attractive. In sum, these studies have shown that MTF relates to leadership. As a result, these principals have been applied to other forms of leadership such as authentic (Gardner et al., 2005), transformational, and transactional (Kark & van Dijk, 2007).

In this paper, they are applied to strategic leadership in Africa. As executives who control organizational resources (financial, psychological, etc.), strategic leaders can influence the motivations of employees to follow them. First, executives have authority and may be followed because of their positions. Second, they have the ability to reward and punish. Third, they establish and sustain culture within organizations and can create order and meaning for employees. Further, they select and/or endorse positions within organizations. Executives, therefore, have the ability to fulfill the needs (physiological, safety, and self-actualization) through rewards and promotions and shielding from firing in times of restructuring and downsizing. Finally, the level of positions of executives (strategic apex) tends to attract admiration from lower-level employees (Card, 2003). As a result, the ability of strategic leaders to influence the motivations of followers seems strong.

In African organizations, this tendency seems stronger because of deprivation, limited opportunities (i.e., fewer organizations), authoritarian characteristics of executive positions established through cultural and colonial legacies, social and political networks which tend to be easier at the strategic apex level, conflict arising from aggressive power struggles, and the appeal of the strategic level and opportunism (Kiggundu, 1988; Ndongo, 1999; Ugwegbu, 2001). Employees are more likely to follow strategic leaders because they will be perceived to help remove deprivation or provide opportunities for them. Employees who desire authority may also follow executives if such behavior is perceived to reflect on them vicariously. In other words, the strategic apex appeals strongly to employees desirous of rising to that level. Third, employees who expect to benefit from the networks of strategic leaders may be motivated to follow the

latter. The political and social networks of executives tend to be more influential because they link to governmental and professionally influential people.

Strategic leaders may prime followers' motivation by appealing to followers' higher values, engaging in image-based rhetoric, articulating what followers and organizations can gain and develop into, and serving as role models (Kark & van Dijk, 2007). Another way by which strategic leaders motivate individuals to follow is through the establishment of infrastructure that facilitates followership. For example, if they establish purpose, maintain core competencies, and develop sustaining cultures and ethical systems, employees may be motivated to follow (Hitt & Ireland, 2002). These activities are likely to be perceived as influencing the personality, competence, and image of employees.

Implications for Research and Management

African economies are transitioning to capitalist systems (Ikiara, 1999). As a result, organizations face increased competition from multinational corporations due to regulatory changes that facilitate an influx of foreign companies. One factor that assists African organizations function effectively is strategic leadership which generally influences innovation, learning, competitive advantages, productivity, and human capital development (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Zoogah, 2008a). However, extant research has shown a lack of theoretically grounded models of strategic leadership in Africa (Ndongo, 1999). In this paper, the process of facilitating strategic leadership research in African organizations by proposing cultural and personality determinants is introduced.

The model seeks to show the emergence of strategic leadership as an individual level behavioral competence. First, it assumes that employees in African organizations have the capacity and desire to develop strategic leadership competence. So, individual level factors are proposed to influence strategic leadership. These are not the only factors; other factors may be identified (e.g., gender). However, studies on the role of personality in leadership seem wanting probably because of negative perceptions of psychology in African cultures (Ugwuegbu, 2001).

Africa is heterogeneous in its composition; there are white, Arabic, and traditional cultural heritages. Strategic leadership is likely to be different in these heritages because executives' behaviors are a function of cognitive and behavioral socializations consistent with those cultures. Therefore, strategic leadership in Africa may involve making decisions across different cultures, personalities, orientations, and motivations.[1]

Suggestions for Empirically Testing the Model

Leadership scholars have suggested that context be integrated in leadership models because of its moderating role (Avolio, 2007). Context has also been shown to influence strategic leadership (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001). This research concurs that different contextual variables are likely to moderate the proposed relationships. For example the relationships between MTL and MTF and strategic leadership, on the one hand, may be moderated by external (political and legislative) and internal (organizational restructurings and labor management relations) contingencies. Unstable political systems as well as restrictive regulations may affect strategic leadership successions. The types of organizational restructuring (organization wide, subsystem

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[1] I thank a reviewer for suggesting this point.

based, transformational, incremental, remedial, and developmental) are likely to affect the relationships between MTL and MTF and strategic leadership. There seems to be little research, if any, on organizational restructurings in Africa (Ndongko, 1999). As a result, their influence on leadership is not clear. Nevertheless, given that leadership in Africa tends to be ineffective during major challenges (Kiggundu, 1988), it seems likely that strategic leadership's effectiveness may depend on the type of restructurings. These contextual factors are not limited to only Africa and encourage empirical research to identify contextual factors that are unique to African organizations.

In addition, this research suggests that the model be tested using individual employees. As an idiographic model, there are two ways it can be examined. First, it can be tested from a competence perspective. In other words, researchers may ask if the determinants influence the strategic leadership competence (i.e., ability to be strategic leaders) of individual employees. Second, it may be tested with current executives at the strategic apex by examining how their cultural values and personality affect their current behaviors as strategic leaders. These two approaches are consistent with extant views of leadership models in Africa (D. M. Mbiti, 1977; Ndongo, 1999; Ugwegbu, 1999). By integrating transformation, transactional, situational, and functional leadership behaviors, researchers can use second-order confirmatory factor analysis to establish supervisory and strategic level leadership behaviors (Zoogah, 2008b). In sum, strategic leadership studies may target employees, executives, and subordinates as the unit of analysis.

It also must be noted that the model is not limited to only organizations; it can be extended to the country level. Presidents of African countries can be examined for their strategic leadership abilities (i.e., the extent to which they are able to strategically orient their countries to improved economic development). The elements of strategic leadership (human capital development, ethical systems, etc.) can be applied to African presidents. Levels of corruption and education can proxy ethical infrastructure and human capital systems respectively. Therefore, future research of strategic leadership of African governments or presidents is encouraged.

Future Research Directions

Future research on the outcomes of strategic leadership is suggested. As discussed, research has identified several outcomes of strategic leadership. The effect of strategic leadership on these outcomes in the context of Africa will not only increase the external validity of strategic leadership but will also help African organizations maximize those outcomes. Such research may identify outcomes unique to Africa. For example, Zoogah (2008a) suggested that African organizations may gain cooperative advantage which could supplement competitive advantage. Even though several studies have shown that strategic leadership influences organizational outcomes such as (a) competitive advantage (Hitt & Ireland, 2002), (b) cooperative advantage, and (c) effectiveness that is associated with working in concert with others and developing capacities to connect individual efforts and harness resources beyond individual African organizations (Zoogah, 2008a) seems lacking in Africa. Unlike competitive advantage that is based on the assumption of conflicting objectives, derives from individualistic cultural contexts, and is associated with industrial competition, cooperative advantage is associated with the current era which emphasizes interorganizational cooperation (Zoogah, 2008a). It is based on the assumption of mutuality of interests and seems to fit collectivist cultural contexts.

In contrast to individualists who have to learn to cooperate, collectivists naturally cooperate as a result of socialization and acculturation processes (Triandis, 1995). African organizations, therefore, seem more likely to exploit cooperative advantage because of their cultural characteristics which are more related to cooperation (Greenfield et al., 2003). Western organizations *learn* to maximize the potential of cooperation, but African organizations seem to have a unique advantage of cooperative competence. Executives of African organizations can facilitate cooperative advantage using strategic leadership (Zoogah, 2008a). Four ways by which executives in African organizations can facilitate cooperative advantage include harnessing of African resources, using social control to institute transparency systems, establishing informal mechanisms that facilitate network development, and governing transactions to minimize costs (Zoogah, 2008a).

In addition, research on firm characteristics and strategic leadership is suggested. Organizations in Africa fall into three categories: foreign owned, localized but modernized, and localized and rural. Organizations are also small, medium, or large. Strategic leadership in each of these organizations may be different because the strategic needs are different. In foreign-owned organizations (e.g., Barclays), strategic leadership may be Westernized (i.e., purely Western). It thus may differ from localized but modernized organizations that tend to have African executives. African executives are likely to blend Western and African leadership characteristics. In localized and rural organizations, strategic leadership may be purely African. Further, motivation to lead and to follow will also be different because of the composition of employees. Third, environmental contingencies faced by each type of organization will vary. Nevertheless, all of them need strategic leadership to function effectively.

Managerial Implications

The model also has practical implications for African organizations. First, it suggests that African organizations should focus on strategic rather than traditional leadership. Strategic leadership seems to have greater potential to enable them to transition effectively from protective and socialist economies to competitive and capitalist ones. Second, it suggests that African organizations and economies begin to establish mechanisms that would develop individuals for future strategic leadership. Orienting individuals to develop behavioral competencies that facilitate strategic leadership effectiveness will help in this regard. Strategic leadership training would be one mechanism. The third implication is that African organizations have to establish infrastructure that facilitates strategic leadership. Ethical systems that show transparency could be established. These will signal to foreign and local investors the potential of African organizations and may also increase employees' desire to follow and lead.

Conclusion

In this paper, a conceptual model of determinants of strategic leadership in Africa is proposed which is consistent with extant views of strategic leadership. The model suggests that individual employees' behaviors are critical to the effectiveness of strategic leaders within African organizations. If African organizations are to succeed in their transitions, then not only do executives have to exhibit strategic leadership behaviors, but employees have to play a critical role in that process. By examining cultural values, personality, and motivation, the emergence of strategic leadership as a constellation of dominant behaviors is empirically shown.

The model benefits not only leadership scholars but management researchers who seek to understand organizational effectiveness from a strategic perspective. In addition, African organizations can benefit from the model. Validation of the model may help organizations establish mechanisms and infrastructure that facilitate strategic leadership development. Researchers could examine the extent to which the behaviors of African political leaders are strategic and how cultural values and personality as well as motivations influence their effectiveness. These benefits suggest a contribution to African leadership and organizations. I hope that future research will validate the model as well as identify other factors that influence strategic leadership.

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The Structure of Role Transition: A Phenomenological Study of Successful Executives from Five Countries

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Previous studies exploring how leaders make successful promotion transitions overlooked the turn from mid-level to functional management. Little research exists that describes this transition from the experience of successful executives. The goal of the present study was to examine the essential structure of managerial role transition. This article discusses the transition strategies of successful executives from multiple countries who work in a Fortune 20 global technology corporation. Drawing upon previously untested models and conducting qualitative research the writer argues that leader effectiveness in making the transition into executive management requires shifts in four domains: cognitive, relational, behavioral, and role perspective. Within and pertaining to each transitional domain, transitional leaders combine four approaches: releasing, learning, adapting, and adjusting. The researcher provides a testable theory and model of managerial role transition.

Despite ongoing interest in leadership development (Charan & Colvin, 1999; Charan, Drotter, & Noel, 2001; Council, 1997; Drotter, 2002; Fernandez-Araoz, 2001; Rothwell, 1994; Sessa & Taylor, 2000; Treverton & Bikson, 2003) and the potential risks and benefits to companies and investors, researchers know little about how leaders develop as they ascend organizational hierarchies. Charan et al. and Kaiser and Craig (2004) claimed that the failure of leaders often results from failing to effectively "turn the corner" at critical transitions in their career. Mahler (1986) identified four critical career transition points as manager's advance into higher-level management positions. Leaders progress through a series of job roles, beginning with managing self, moving to managing others, being a functional manager, and then moving on to a business manager, moving through increased levels of management responsibility (Charan et al.; Mahler, 1986). At each ascending level, management positions require particular focus, moving from short-term, tactical deliverables, to strategic, long-term horizons, with more focus on the external environment and cross-enterprise management (Kotter, 1982a; Kraut, Pedigo, McKenna, & Dunnette, 1989). Failure to make these shifts can prevent success at higher levels.

The research focused on the leadership transition from manager-of-managers to functional manager. The phenomenon explored was the essential structure that contributes to a

person making this career transition successfully. The functional manager level was chosen because it is a critical turn within the progression to becoming a senior executive (Charan et al., 2001) and there is little research about this transition. While some research has been conducted on the transition of individual contributor to manager (Hill, 2003) and from mid-level manager to general manager (Kotter, 1982b), very little research exists about the transition to a functional manager level. Kaiser and Craig (2004) attributed the lack of success in transitioning leaders to the next level: (a) to a lack of understanding of the nature of level differences, (b) to the fact that promotional decisions are usually made on the basis of past performance, (c) to the reported experience that individuals receive little support during transitions, and (d) to the finding that strengths can become weaknesses over time, causing people's careers to derail (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1989). A paucity of theories and models exists concerning how managers make the transition to functional manager. To fill the gap, this article extends previous leadership frameworks by presenting a theory to explain and model to show how managers navigate the turn between two important roles.

This article focuses on the construct of transition in the form of promotion, which, according to Mahler (1986), creates a *career crossroads*. Mahler defined *crossroad* as "a change in position which requires a drastic change in behavior" (p. 257) and that a significant turn must be made by the newly promoted leader in order to succeed at the higher-level role. Mahler identified four career crossroads, or critical turns, from one level of contribution to a higher level in a large decentralized organization. According to Charan et al. (2001), "Each passage represents a major change in job requirements that translates to new skill requirements, new time horizons and applications, and new work values" (p. 7), referred to as the leadership pipeline (TLP). The TLP framework was used in this study because it clearly delineates the roles associated with each level of the management hierarchy (Charan et al.).

Leadership Ascendance

In large organizations, several levels of management hierarchy exist through which individuals may ascend. Career advancement for individuals who want to develop into senior-level managers is usually established by progressively increased responsibilities along the hierarchy (Mahler, 1986). At the individual contributor level, the focus is on competence, intelligence, organizing skills, and ability to perform and achieve results on individual or team-based tasks.

At the first turn in the management hierarchy (Charan et al., 2001), competent individual contributors move to front-line management, requiring a shift in focus from individual performance to leading through others. The manager must focus on placing people in jobs, planning and assigning work, and motivating and coaching direct reports (Hill, 2003). The second turn involves moving from managing individual contributors to managing managers, requiring an additional shift in thinking and focus to empowering and coaching first-level managers. The third turn shifts from managing managers to taking on the role of functional manager, requiring an effective leader to value work outside his/her specific experience area and achieve outcomes through two levels of management. A functional manager is usually a member of a business team and reports to a general manager or a business manager (Charan et al.). At this level, a manager must move to a broad, long-term, strategic perspective. The fourth turn, from functional manager to business manager, requires a manager to integrate multiple functions and to determine a suitable business model to create revenue growth (Charan et al.). Kotter (1982b)

argued that the general manager role requires strategic focus in the midst of ambiguity and the ability to achieve outcomes through a large group of people without direct control over them. The fifth turn, from business manager to group manager, requires a leader to run multiple businesses (Charan et al.). In the last turn, from group manager to enterprise manager, a leader becomes a long-term strategic thinker and the leader of the entire company, linking to external constituencies such as board members and shareholders (Charan et al.). For a functional career path, such as Human Resources or Information Technology, the framework remains the same for the first three turns but changes for leaders on the turn from functional manager to business manager; instead of moving to a "business manager" role, leaders move to a group functional manager level.
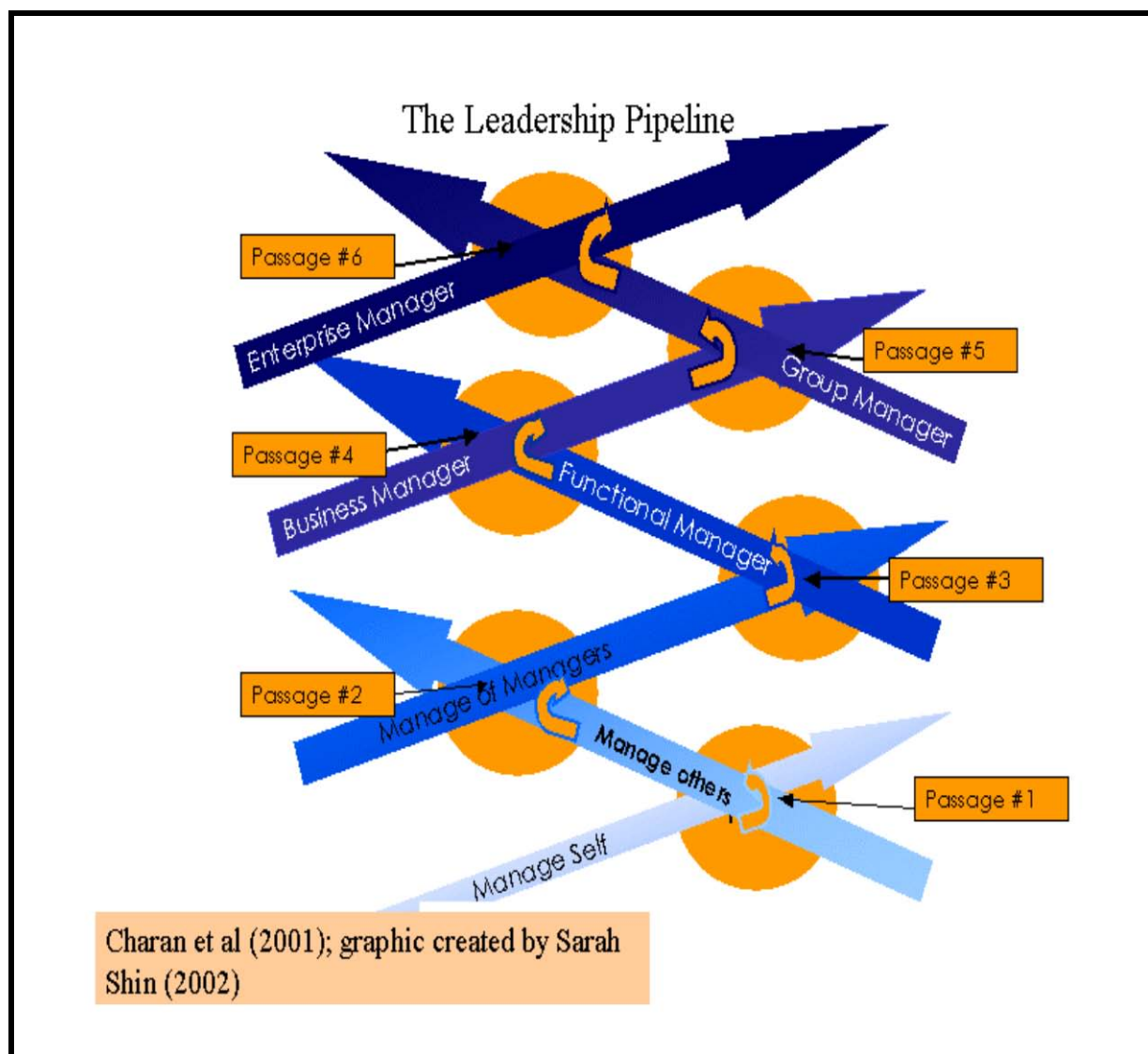

Figure 1. The leadership pipeline.

In many companies, the functional manager level is the beginning of an executive hierarchy, in which the leader is seen as a part of a leadership cadre directing the future of the organization (Charan et al., 2001). Functional managers typically have an expanded area of responsibility and budget, often with a multi-area focus. At this level, the manager must focus on leading managers of managers and on creating a strategic direction (Charan et al.; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2002). The functional management role has increased emphasis on negotiating beyond boundaries, dealing in a political environment, and focusing on the business strategies as opposed to functional strategies. Lombardo and Eichinger (2002) presented differentiated and detailed competencies for managers and executives based on their studies of 300 leaders; the executive competencies are similar to the description of the functional manager role in Charan et al.'s work. They include managing vision and purpose, possessing business acumen, dealing with ambiguity, being political savvy, being comfortable around higher management, managing through systems, and driving for results (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2002).

Leader Transition

While there is abundant literature describing the characteristics of effective leaders, (Bennis, 1984, 1989; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996; McCall, 1998a), there is less research on the nature of the transitions leaders experience as they ascend the leadership hierarchy. A few studies exist on managerial transitions with differing research foci. Hill's (2003) work profiled people during their first year as manager, experiencing the career transition moving from individual contributor to first-level manager. Lombardo and Eichinger (2002) profiled individual contributors, managers, and executives and developed a competency model. However, these studies did not track the specific transition between the levels studied, nor did they examine how leaders made the transition successfully from their perspective.

Hyatt (1990) conducted a study of people undergoing a career change and found that people progressed through a series of stages. This sequence involved a trigger event, a downtrend (being stuck), and two stages involving defining oneself and one's path, followed by starting over. Gabarro's (1987) study of ascending general managers and functional managers focused on the construct of *taking charge* which is defined as the process by which a manager establishes mastery and influence in a new assignment. Gabarro's study focused on the segments of work that a new general manager addresses in a sequence, rather than the adaptations of leaders to higher roles.

Based on anecdotal evidence, Mahler (1986) and Charan et al. (2001) asserted that a major promotion creates a shift in job requirements, which translate into changes for the leader in skill requirements, time horizons, and work values. Neither specified what it is that enables individuals to navigate such a transition successfully. Kotter (1982a) conducted an in-depth study of general managers without studying other transitional aspects such as attitudinal and behavior shifts. While each study adds to the extant literature, little research exists that explains the transition from manager-of-manager to functional manager, and no research was found that identifies the essential structure of change that may contribute to a successful transition to functional management.

Methodology

A phenomenological case study (Gummesson, 2000) was used to explore the essential structure of managerial transition (Charan et al., 2001; Drotter, 2002; Bebb, 2004) from manager-of-managers to functional managers within a global, Fortune 20, high technology organization. The phenomenological approach focuses on understanding and describing human experience (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Gummesson). Phenomena can be understood in terms of its figure and ground relationship within various or discrete contexts (Moustakis, 1994). The participants' stories of experience, rather than observed behaviors, are the data collected (Bogdan & Biklen). From a hermeneutic analysis of the interviews, themes emerge of participants' experiences. Themes begin to emerge after six or seven interviews have been subjected to detailed interpretive analysis (Colaizzi, 1978). Analysis was halted when no new themes emerged.

Sample

Fourteen functional managers were purposefully selected (Patton, 2002) from a population of 138 exceptionally performing functional managers without restriction to global location, gender, race, age, or any other demographic characteristic (Table 1).

Table 1: Total Eligible Candidate Population

Region (in HRMS system)	Number eligible	%	Gender	Number eligible	%
Americas	104	75.4	Male	119	86
Europe and Mid-East	28	20.3	Female	19	14
Asia-Pacific	6	4.3			
Total	138	100		138	100

Participants were from Germany, France, Peru, Italy, and the United States. The ethnicities of the participants were European, Euro-American, Latin-American, and Native American. Twelve were male and two female, and they ranged in age from 36-55. Fifty-seven percent of participants had been functional managers for 1-5 years, 29% had been functional managers for 6-10 years, and 14% of participants had been functional managers 11-15 years. For several participants, English was a second language. Managerial levels of the participating organization were charted to the appropriate levels on the leadership pipeline (Charan et al., 2001). Table 2 presents the demographic data of the participants.

Table 2: Participant Demographics (N = 14)

Demographics	Number	Percent
Gender		
Male	12	86
Female	2	14
Years as Functional Manager		
1-5	8	57
6-10	4	29
11-15	2	14
English as a Second Language		
Yes	6	43
No	8	57
Age		
36-45	10	71
46-55	4	29
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	6	43
European or European Caucasian	5	36
African American	1	7
Native American	1	7
Other	1	7
Country of Origin		
United States	8	57
Germany	2	14
France	2	14
Peru	1	7
Italy	1	7
Region (in HRMS system)		
Americas	3	21
Europe and Middle East	11	79

Note. All values other than gender were self-reported by participants.

Six vice presidents were asked to identify exceptional performers based on the criteria (Patton, 2002) of exceptional performance as defined and established by Charan et al. (2001) and by their performance rating. The criteria for exceptional performance was based on Charan et al.'s definition of exceptional performance. The criteria included:

1. Results: consistently exceeded operating, technical and professional results requirements
2. Management effectiveness: effectively planned, organized and controlled area of responsibility and communicated to required parties
3. Leadership and relationships: demonstrated excellent leadership ability, including establishing strategic direction, enabling direct reports, and building constructive working relationships with many constituencies
4. Value: their manager would fight to keep this person, rehire them, and consider them for the toughest assignments. (p. 149)

To address the reliability of the identification of exceptional candidates, at least two of the vice presidents had to agree that a person was an exceptional performer in order for the participant to be included in the study (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). These participants were confirmed by being rated at one of the top two rating levels in each of two years of company management performance ratings (Mohrman & Mohrman, 1998) to ensure that they were considered the highest-performing functional managers. Nominated employees who only scored highly in performance ratings in one of two years, or were only nominated by one vice president, were not included in the final participant list.

Data Collection

The data collection procedure was semi-structured, behavior-based, in-depth interviews conducted onsite, audio taped, and transcribed by an independent transcriber (Maxwell, 1996). The interview format involved asking direct questions and interaction between investigator and participant (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991), allowing both relevant and comparable responses and fuller replies (Bradburn, 1983) producing more self-revelations by participants. The Mahler and Gaines (1983) and Drotter (2002) interview protocols, as well as findings from the literature, formed the basis for the Management Transition Interview (MTI) (Bebb, 2004) developed and used in this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis began after each interview was completed, and the process was replicated throughout the data collection. The process included listening to the recordings and reading the interview notes from which themes and observations were noted (Symon & Cassell, 1998). From this output, a summary for each participant with observations was generated (Fetterman, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1984), and then a preliminary coding scheme was developed.

After coding each interview, an analysis of each question for all 14 participants was completed, then responses were categorized across each question, and finally the frequency of answers was noted. After completing the coding of each question, the categories or themes that had the highest frequency of answers for each question were determined (Ely, 1991). After identifying the strongest themes for each question, the underlying themes that ran across all questions were determined by their highest frequency (meta-level) and labeled. Then the themes were segmented and a structural pattern of factors emerged from the participants' self-reports of the job shifts and their adjustments. The factors included: (a) preparation for the new executive role, (b) awareness of work requirement changes, (c) shifts in focus and execution, and (d) shifts in approaches and attitudes.

To provide a testable framework of the transition domain associated with the managerial transition into executive level, I developed the transition domain model (Table 3) to represent the multi-factor approach to their successful transition. From the data analysis, the participants seemed to transition along four domains: cognitive, relational, behavioral, and role perspective, as they moved to the (executive) functional manager role.

Table 3: Transition Approaches

Domain	Releasing	Learning	Adapting	Adjusting
Cognitive	Relinquishing old assumptions	Inquiring and learning	Forming new cognitive models	Checking and verifying
Behavioral	Realizing deficiencies	Experimenting with new behaviors	Requesting feedback	Consciously improving
Relational	Giving up old biases	Valuing different perspectives	Forming partnerships that build agreements	Checking in with network
Role perspective	Realizing new work requirements; giving up familiar work	Taking on new work	Consciously managing time and priorities to make time for new work	Correcting

Table 3 depicts the four domains and illustrates how the functional managers shifted (their approaches) on these four levels simultaneously. For instance, in the cognitive shifts, participants realized that the work required them to think differently. It challenged their previously held assumptions and required replacing them with new beliefs. In the relational domain, participants realized that they had to align with peers with whom they had previously opposed, in order to form alignments to accomplish their objectives. In the behavioral domain, the participants practiced new skills that were required, such as presenting to large audiences. In the role perspective shifts, the functional managers changed the amount of time they spent on different types of work, reducing the time managing tactical aspects, and increasing their time on strategic planning. Each of the approaches used by the participating managers is interesting and significant. The fact that participants combined approaches and used them at different times indicates a strategic ability to select approaches situationally.

Results

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the essential structure of managerial transition from the experience of successful functional managers. Analysis of interviews revealed that the essence of the transition includes a four domain, four-approach structural schema. The schema demonstrates the complexity of each person's process as she/he navigated the transition from manager-of-manager to functional manager. All participants made shifts in each domain, and all used each of the four approaches as part of the transition into the higher-level role. From the data analysis, the participants seemed to transition on four domains: cognitive, behavioral, relational, and role expectation, as they moved to the functional manager role. Within and pertaining to each transitional domain, the transitional manager used combinations of four approaches: releasing, learning, adapting, and adjusting. To provide a better frame of the transition domain, the researcher developed the transition domains model. Table 3 shows the four transition domains and four transition approaches used by the transitional manager ascending to functional manager

The experience of navigating the transition between the manager-of-manager and functional manager role presents significant challenges for promoted leaders. To meet the challenges, the participants in this study appear to have succeeded by employing a multidimensional, multi-approach strategy. The combination and sophistication of approaches participants used to make these shifts is remarkable in their complexity. The results indicate that successful leaders use techniques indicated by several different models simultaneously. They demonstrated self-awareness and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995), an openness to feedback, reporting an ability to reflect on their current and desired performance, and an ability to adjust over time (Bennis, 1989; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). They demonstrated numerous learning styles, including learning from experience, from observing others, and from trial and error (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Risk taking, willingness to fail, performing badly at first and improving over time, and adjusting to feedback, allowed these leaders to learn the new skills required at the executive level.

All of the participants (100%) indicated that what prepared them for the functional manager role were specific challenging assignments they had assumed or a series of different job experiences prior to their current position. Moreover, all the participants advised people who aspired to become executives to take the most challenging jobs so that they would be forced to adapt.

> When you're making transitions from manager to manager-of-managers to functional manager, you can't be afraid to take the tough assignments. You need to step up to the jobs that most people may not want because there's a high chance of failure just because people may not want to change or people might not be open to particular ways of thinking or to this particular change that's being recommended.

Dimension One: Cognitive

The first domain focuses on experiences that participants identified as being important cognitive shifts necessary in assuming the role of functional manager.

Approach 1.1: Releasing. Requirements of previous jobs compelled participants to create certain assumptions and cognitive models. Participants had to throw out old cognitive models, accelerate their learning curve, and adjust the boundaries of their learning context (cross business in nature, and large scale with urgent time pressures). Their new roles forced them into a new way of thinking.

Thirteen of 14 participants (93%) reported that one transition in mindset they made was from focusing on a smaller portion of the organization, such as their own organization or region, to a pan-company perspective. One hundred percent of participants reported that the focus of work had expanded significantly beyond their previous domain, which was a single IT asset, such as supply chain in a specific business or region, to a pan-company perspective and area of responsibility. Many gave examples of leading projects that were transforming work across the company, integrating organizations, and consolidating systems to have consistent cross-company approaches. The participants reported that the drivers for cross-business collaborating were corporate initiatives to link products and services, the need to provide integrated solutions to customers, or the need to reduce costs. Participants reported they became focused on broader organizational problems, and their focus could no longer be just on their own organization.

The participants changed their understanding of the "playing field" they were operating in: previously it was only their domain, now they began redefining the area of responsibility to include the entire company and releasing previously held notions. One participant noted:

> At the functional manager level, the view of the universe, I look at the holistic system across the company. Viewing the GO or BCO (my organization) as a microcosm of the broader. What I've tried to do is instead of optimizing my little piece of the universe, is to realize it's a system, and try to understand the other dimensions, the other influences, what the other organizations need, and see if we can get together and work toward a common set of goals. . . . What I've tried to do as functional manager is more look at the entire ecosystem.

Approach 1.2: Learning. The one theme that emerged consistently through all of the participant interviews was that these functional managers had developed an open, flexible, inquiring approach to problems that allowed for a deeper understanding of complex situations. For example, one functional manager discussed an approach of entering new situations with an attitude of inquiry, trying to understand from others across multiple levels in the organization what their view of situations were, and learning from them before moving toward decisions. Another functional manager confirmed the importance of inquiring with other leaders about their needs, interests, and thinking on issues:

> If you want to create collaboration and trust, and you really want to hear what's on and you really want to figure out what's in somebody's head, you have to ask them. You have to ask them in a way that you really are sincere about hearing what they have to say. My approach has always been to do that in a, "Hey, I'm here to help you. What do you think we should do? What would you do if you were in my shoes, what would you do?"

Approach 1.3: Adapting. Another major transition that 12 out of 14 (86%) participants identified was the move to focus more on building business capabilities, as opposed to building technical capability. One said:

> The transition that I've had to make from being a manager to a functional manager is, I'm not the technical expert anymore. There's not a need for me to be as close to the business or to the problem or to the technology, but to allow the experts to bring me the data and for me to provide some sense of guidance to what it is they need.

Many also acknowledged having to shift consciously from their area of competence, their technical expertise, to a more business orientation: "You have to become more of a business manager. There's a transition in mindset where I had to be more engaged with business and business direction and less concerned about the technology and platform we were using." However, several leaders also noted that they had to stay current with the technical area in order to understand their team's direction and to be able to manage their team. Therefore, they had to balance their new business perspective with retaining at least some of their technical edge.

Approach 1.4: Adjusting. The functional managers talked about their acceptance of change, and all spoke about the need to make adjustments:

> You just need to adapt. If you don't adapt, I don't think you're going to make it. If you agree and if you recognize that the change is everywhere, then you need to adapt your mental process, your perception, your focus, your philosophy, your

belief. Because it's a new world. At some point, you have your own internal body and mind that is catching up with that, verifying, and adjusting.

Additionally, participants discussed the ever-increasing speed of change and the need to have an ability to adapt and adjust. One described the affect the merger had in shifting his thinking about change:

The business of the merger really forced me into a different mode of thinking. How could you be so comfortable with IT solutions, then a simple announcement on one Monday morning can completely change your whole IT architecture, structure, solution, culture, everything. How business now is the driver of everything.

Dimension Two: Behavioral

One interesting finding is that while developing the strategy for a particular area of IT (such as supply chain) was an important role for the IT functional manager, the participants reported that the development of strategy was not enough to be effective at this level. Participants said they needed to develop strategy and make sure their team delivered results. They had to combine strategy development with the execution of that strategy leading to the delivery of IT results. In order to bridge from strategy to implementation, the participants realized they needed a broad range of skills and began to realize their deficiencies. In doing so, they actively experimented with new behavior even when that meant taking risks. Part of the risk-taking was actively seeking feedback on performance from multiple perspectives.

Approach 2.1: Releasing. Participants said that self-awareness was a critical asset in their ability to shift. One said that accurate self-awareness was a key attribute in executive effectiveness, enabling a person to have an accurate perception of how his or her behavior was being perceived. Several of them mentioned recognizing a weakness and designing an action plan to address that area. Many told stories of how they realized something about themselves; being too task focused, not being assertive enough, and how they had to begin consciously to shift, working to change their behavior in order to be more effective. Their ability to assess accurately where they were currently performing relative to their goal allowed them to monitor their progress and keep adjusting and improving their behavior in specific targeted areas.

Approach 2.2: Learning. One way that participants said they shifted was by trying new approaches or learning by doing. Twelve out of 14 (86%) said they tried new things and analyzed what worked and what did not work. Many participants reported that they lacked effective presentation skills to speak to large audiences, as this skill had not been needed in their earlier manager-of-manager's role. They reported the need to improve their effectiveness in presenting to large groups and struggled to gain confidence and skill in this area. Many had to learn to design their messages carefully for employees and managers at different levels. Building and leading a successful organization also involved learning different approaches to engaging employees in the work of the organization, through personal relationships, managing by wandering around, and holding informal forums for talking with employees.

Approach 2.3: Adapting. Six (43%) of the participants mentioned mentors or coaches who helped them prepare for future roles. Four of them described in specific detail how mentors had taught them specific knowledge and had coached them on specific ineffective behaviors.

Another supported the personal support that she received from a long-term mentor who had been influential for several years in her career. Several spoke of specific leaders who gave them feedback about a specific area of weakness. Proximity and exposure to senior leaders enabled participants to observe those leaders in a variety of situations: with customers, with other leaders, and in decision-making and communications sessions.

Another way the leaders shifted successfully to the functional manager job was by responding to feedback. Several discussed getting and responding to feedback and observing both the successes and mistakes of other leaders as ways they learned to shift their behavior. Some of this feedback came from their direct manager:

> In some cases, I think it was somebody clearly setting an expectation, by itself. An example is, working for [person A]. So [person A] has a reputation that, some people would say is deserved and some people wouldn't. But [person A] is very straightforward. So as I'm cruising along doing my work, he would come and say, "You're totally doing exactly the opposite of what I expect you to do." He was very clear. So that's how I learned I wasn't doing the right thing.

Approach 2.4: Adjusting. One of the behavioral shifts that seemed to require conscious attention and monitoring was in trusting others to do work that the manager-of-managers may have done him or herself before. One functional manager explained his shift in this area:

> You have to delegate. One hole you can fall into if you don't make it up to the functional manager level is you tend to try and take on everything yourself. Now you have six or seven managers to do that work that they should be doing. You've got to be careful not to get involved in everything too deep. There's a fine line there. Nor can you sit up in your functional manager chair and throne and say, "Well my managers are going to handle all this."

Study participants focused regular attention to monitor whether they were finding the right balance between leading and delegating, and it seemed to need their focus to be in what they considered an optimal zone.

Dimension Three: Relational

All participants (100%) agreed that they had to shift their focus to collaborate and align with other people in order to be successful in cross-business initiatives. In order to ensure the success of their teams and initiatives, the participants spent much more time than they had in their previous role aligning, or linking with people, their strategies that needed to build a greater willingness to understand opposing viewpoints, let go of old biases, form new partnerships, and verify with others.

Approach 3.1: Releasing. All participants (100%) agreed that they had to shift their focus to collaborate and align with other leaders in order to be successful in cross-business initiatives. The need to build alignment with cross-organization constituencies forced functional managers to focus more on their influence skills to build sponsorship with senior executives, partnerships with peers, and find common interests to move initiatives forward. Several participants explained that they had to move out of the comfort zone of their technical competence and work on their relationship-building efforts, which for many, was not their strongest area. One described this shift in the following manner:

So I would say in a manager-of-managers role my interactions, with the executive level, tended to be more status reporting and issue escalation, where at a functional manager level your interaction is more of a dialogue, and sort of thought sharing. It tends to be more of a two-way conversation.

They quickly learned that they needed to influence up in order to get projects and budgets approved, or to get sponsorship for key projects. One described the shift as follows:

When you start to make the shift of functional manager, you realize that you have to also influence up. So if you're spending all of your time with people that are at your level or below you, versus spending some of your time with people that are at your level or above you, and are you able to influence? And if you're dealing with people that are above you, you have to show sensitivity, to know how to speak in their language, to influence them.

Approach 3.2: Learning. Nine out of 14 (64%) of the participants agreed that a main focus of work in the director job was to create alignment between often competing organization entities, including business units, departments, and cross-business initiative teams. Obstacles to getting work accomplished at the director level were based on a lack of agreement between the competing constituencies.

I would say the biggest challenge at the functional manager level is alignment. It's very hard to align your plans, your people, your objectives in a complex world, because you have this multi-interest role. You cannot just stand up and say, "this is what we do and this is where we go." In a more complex environment, on a functional manager level, in a multi-business environment, this alignment is not there naturally. So it doesn't come naturally because you have these different interests. You're in a constant state of improvement.

Approach 3.3: Adapting. Another transition that these leaders made was to focus on leading the people in their organization to accomplish their objectives. The functional managers discussed different aspects of leading an entire organization and aligning it with the company's goals. The focus became much less on their contribution or their project team, but much more on building agreements across the organization.

In order to accomplish this, the functional managers spent more time working with and coaching their managers. They spent time trying to engage and retain the few critical leaders on their teams. They increased their focus on working through and coaching their managers, who are often managers-of-managers, and being less directly involved in the tactical work of individuals and teams.

Approach 3.4: Adjusting—this is more of a role or cognitive section. As IT functional managers they often began discussing future IT architectures and gaining agreement across the company. Sometimes this involved choosing the IT platform or software vendor that the company would use in a particular domain, a commitment that would determine the direction of an IT capability for many years to come. Participating in such collaborations required experimentation and feedback. One participant discussed how a cross-boundary initiative came into being:

My work for C___, for customer-to-cash work that was done, was a huge accomplishment. For the first time we were able to create a company-wide strategy and

architecture around how we served customers. We created a governance process on the business side that paralleled that, which was not easy, given the company culture at the time. We all had to open up and really talk.

Taking the time and interest to participate in large teams that had many different viewpoints required additional patience, inquiry, and checking in with other task force members in order to ensure that all perspectives and needs were being addressed. Because of the attention and adjustment to members of the task force, a new company-wide strategy was approved and finally implemented.

Dimension Four: Role

Most of the findings related to the role requirements shift confirm previous theories (Charan et al., 2001; Gabarro, 1987; Kotter, 1982a; Mintzberg, 1979). To clarify the distinction between the manager-of-manager's role and the functional manager's role a work requirements table was created. In this table, various elements of the two roles are contrasted to illustrate the changing work requirements (see Table 4). In every domain, there are distinct differences illustrating the changes the functional managers were required to adapt to. This demonstrates that this leadership turn was not simply an amplification or extension of work previously done at the manager-of-manager's level, but instead required different work. Table 4 shows the difference in work requirements between manager-of-managers and functional managers in IT.

As the work requirements changed at the functional manager level, the participants shifted their work priorities. Dimension four focuses on what functional managers did differently at this level. In navigating the role requirement shifts, the functional managers shifted through releasing old cognitive models and behaviors, adopted an inquiring attitude, formed new cognitive models, self-assessed, and verified their performance.

Approach 4.1: Releasing. Nine out of the 14 (64%) functional managers mentioned the work at the functional manager level had much more emphasis on changing the status quo. Half of the participants stated that change management was a critical work focus at the director level. Participants stated that change management was a critical work focus at the functional manager level and understood that they had to release old ways:

> What's the most important task in my jobs as a functional manager has been around organizational change. The first thing you learn about change is that you have to move out of your own comfort zone with the past; then you can help others let go and move on.

Approach 4.2: Learning. The observation of these leaders was that the job requirements at the functional manager level forced them to think differently, broaden their view, take on new work, and manage themselves differently. Many discussed that what they experienced when they started their jobs as functional managers, they often felt they had the correct answer or were "right." However, because of their responsibilities, requiring them to work cross business and cross-boundary, they reported feeling compelled to rethink their assumptions about how to make things work:

> One thing I didn't talk about that was a big "aha" for me. Right about when I moved into a functional manager's role, I had to change my mindset that I was smarter than everybody else. There's this mindset, and I see a lot of my managers still have it, that "I know the way the work needs to be done around here and

these other guys just don't seem to have a clue on what they're supposed to do or how they can be helpful." When I was in the infrastructure job, I had to embrace the rest of corporate. Typically, R&D [research and development] doesn't like IT and thinks they're stupid, the business always thinks anybody at corporate doesn't really have their feet on the ground or know really what needs to be done. And I needed to dismiss that.

Approach 4.3: Adapting. As the work requirements changed, the functional managers reported that they needed to adapt their work focus and priorities. It appears there is a one-for-one relationship between the eight major work requirements changes (Table 4) from the manager-of-managers' level to the functional manager level, and eight of the nine work shifts that these successful performing functional managers made. The participants had remarkable agreement on the nature of work changes and the need to adapt.

Twelve of the 14 (86%) participants stated that the work at the functional manager level had shifted toward strategy and vision setting, as opposed to the operational and tactical focus in the IT manager-of-managers' job. Many talked about developing company-wide IT or organization architectures and setting long-term direction both technically and organizationally. One participant described his experience:

> Over time, then, the role becomes more strategic. We can solve this "one-off" symptom, or we can understand the root cause and say, maybe we need a different strategy to fix this. Most of the jobs I've been in have been brought in to help fix something or improve something if it wasn't broken. So I have spent a lot of time developing a strategy, a vision, getting buy-in, using data in a way and presenting it in a way that maybe other people haven't looked at, which gives the company-wide picture.

As the work shifted to focus more on strategy development, participants reported the amount of time and energy they devoted to strategy increased at the functional manager level:

> You try to identify what your strategic issues are, who you have to work with, what the general obstacles are to get there. This defines to a degree who you need to work with, who you need to influence, what needs to happen, so that you can successfully reach what you're trying to achieve. You have to adjust your focus and attention and you have to check in with your stakeholders.

While functional managers agreed that a primary focus of their job was to develop strategies, many emphasized that even though they were spending a greater percentage of their time on strategy and strategic-level issues, they still needed to deliver results on projects managed within their organization. One described the range of adaptation this way:

> You are part of the strategy plan. You'd better understand your part of the industry, the strategic plan, the product roadmap of the manufacturing strategy, the marketing strategy, the customer strategy. You get exposed as well to being able to shift from, very high-level strategy discussion and process to a rational plan, so I mean it's a combination of getting exposed to [level] of processes or multi-functional manager and processes, but as well being able to fly from a very high level to very low level frequently, or transform the strategic issues into operational plans.

Table 4: Work Requirements

Category	Manager-of-Managers	Functional Manager
Work boundaries		
Time span	Short term	Longer term (12 months-5 years)
Reach	One system, one region	Enterprise-wide, pan-company or multiple regions
Complexity	Medium	High
Size of team	2-50*	20-250*
Annual budget	$.5M-10M	$2M-50M
Work content focus		
Relationships	Focused on team and close peers	Partner with other leaders across company; influence up to executives
Nature	Tactical, problem solving, some IT strategy development	More strategic; involved in developing IT and business strategies
Trajectory	Primarily down into team/group	Out and up—aligning with peers, influencing managers
Level of involvement	Highly involved in day-to-day operations	Reviewer, overseer of operations; manage through management team
Major focus areas	IT systems performance	Optimizing IT budgets and finances
IT focus	Multiple systems	Multiple systems in an IT domain
Employee focus	Developing individuals, connecting personally with employees	Engaging employees in vision and direction
Technical focus	Strong, primary focus	Medium—knowledgeable enough to review systems, but not primary focus
Resources	Resource management	Funding and resource acquisition; Selling value of initiatives to get prioritized over other groups/initiatives
Success Factors		
Knowledge base	IT System	Understanding business capability
Delivery	IT System performance (results)	Delivering IT Strategy *and* results
Leadership	Technical	Business
Team accountability	Managing my team	Driving organizational capability in larger, more diverse team; responsible for employee engagement of entire organization

Category	Manager-of-Managers	Functional Manager
Change efforts	Smaller, more contained changes	Leading organizational change
Change focus	Incremental improvement	Changing nature of how organized and how do business to meet company goals
Accountability	Solve for my team	Solve for company
Organizational identity		
Organizational identity	Business group	Company
Organization responsibility		
Performance	IT systems	Business capability
Success	Business group success	Company business performance success, (stock price, market share, competitiveness)
Approach		
Approach	Telling/directing subordinates	Aligning peers, inquiring

Approach 4.4: Adjusting. The next way that participants said they shifted was by trying new approaches or learning by doing. Twelve of the 14 (86%) said they tried new things, analyzed what worked and did not work, learned by practice, and learned from "bumps and bruises" of experimenting:

> I have a strong belief here. It's learn by doing, meaning that–I think there is no better way to learn than–just go and do. Sometimes, you need to have a little bit of practice and theory if you never had the swim class and you jump in the swimming pool, you may have some trouble. But there is no other way to swim than to go in the pool. I think it's the same here, I learn by doing.

Summary and Discussion

This study contributes to the developing body of knowledge about successful managerial transitions. The opportunity to have in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 14 exceptionally performing functional managers at a leading global high technology organization offered a valuable window into the essential structure that enabled their effective transition and subsequent successful performance. When challenged with promotion, leaders approached the transition along four domains (cognitive, behavioral, relational, and role) and shifted through releasing, learning, adapting, and adjusting. In making the transition successfully, the leaders developed new performance patterns necessary to ascend the management hierarchy. In moving up the managerial hierarchy, the participants learned that leaders at the functional manager (executive) level are expected to lead by understanding the company-wide business strategy, that they must build strategic alliances across organizational boundaries, ensure that their teams have a plan to implement their strategies, and authorize their managerial staff to lead their teams to successful

execution. They are expected to work through multiple levels of the organization, both up and down, in aligning leaders and employees to their strategic vision, communicating their plans, and engaging their people in carrying them out. Additionally, they need to adjust their style and performance to reflect feedback from other players, constantly changing internal and external conditions and shifting company demands.

Theoretical Implications

This study supports previous research in a number of areas and provides the first empirical research related to Charan's leadership pipeline model and the first examining the transition from managerial to executive levels. Emotional intelligence and learning agility (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996, 2002) play important roles in managerial success (Kotter, 1982b; Goleman, 1995). The study presents evidence contradictory to perspectives of theorists such as Argyris (1993) that promotion presents barriers that stop the continuance of learning.

Challenging, varied assignments provide important preparation for developing managerial talent, probably most important when role transitions require significant changes in the four domains (Lindsey, Homes, & McCall, 1987; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2002; Kaiser & Craig, 2004; McCall et al., 1988). Successful transitioning leaders use multidimensional approaches (Gabarro, 1987; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000; McCall et al.). Mentors serve an important role in leader development (Lindsey et al.; McCall, 1998). Becoming adept at gaining alignment and collaborating with other organizational leaders proves to be vital (Connolly & Rianoshek, 2002; Kraut et al., 1989). Creating new cognitive models, challenging assumptions, setting aside biases, and opening to other perspectives was critical to success (Bennis, 1989; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). As Gabarro (1987) noted, in the taking hold and immersion stages of a new role, key tasks are to orient and evaluate the situation, build a cognitive model of the organization, and understand business products, competition, and cost structures. In the immersion stage of taking a new role, the leader seeks to gain insight into a more detailed concept of what needs to be done that is a time of "important continued learning" (Gabarro, p. 29). Making cognitive and behavioral shifts, including stopping old behaviors and being willing to delegate more, was also critical to transition success (Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974; Kaiser & Craig, 2004; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2002; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This work shift is similar to McCall's (1988b) finding that the "overwhelming scope" of the executive job forced leaders to delegate more and rely on the capability of their organization.

Moving up the organizational hierarchy requires leaders to shift perspectives such as moving from a purely functional view to an approach of perceiving the function as it fits within the organization's strategic goals (Charan et al., 2001). Adaptability and a willingness to take risks and having a high self confidence, which was another characteristic of learning individuals (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000, 2002), allows new executives to develop. Lombardo and Eichinger (2002) argued that success and promotions actively work against people retaining their learning agility. However, an opposite pattern emerged in the data of the current study. The successful executives of this study sought out feedback from people at all levels of the organization and tried to adjust their behavior in light of that feedback. They began challenging their assumptions and opening their thinking to see what they did not know, which has been said to be a key capability in effective leaders (Bennis, 1989). The executives seemed to maintain an inner scorecard on many of these factors, noting how they were doing on each of them.

Conclusions

　　　While the number of participants in this study is relatively small, the advantage of this study is that it provided an opportunity to learn in depth from 14 exceptionally performing IT functional managers at a Fortune 20 organization as they spoke about their work, the work shifts they experienced when they moved to a higher-level role, and approaches they used to facilitate their transition. One may be able to assume that the exceptionally performing functional managers at this large global enterprise may be some of the top IT functional managers in the world.

　　　Parts of their story confirm elements of previous research about the importance of learning agility, change heartiness, and adaptability. However, this study details the more specific elements of this leadership transition into the cognitive, behavioral, relational, and role perspective changes. This model is worth exploring and seeing if it applies to leaders of different functions at the functional manager level and helps explain the success of these leaders at this executive level.

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Practitioner's Corner
Quality Management for Education Reform

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Principles of quality management have been successful in the business realm, producing quality products and services through a structured and comprehensive delivery system. Standardization reduces the variance of each task and improves overall effectiveness. Performance and attention to the bottom line are the measurement of success. Principles of quality management have been applied to student learning in an effort to produce widespread educational reform, but teachers have reported negative results when it comes to the effect of standardization on their job perceptions. In an effort to quantify how standardization of the American educational system has affected classroom teachers' perceptions of their jobs, a study was done based on data from a sample of 184 elementary teachers (K-6) from 16 different elementary schools in a medium-sized suburban district. Contrary to the rhetoric, some very surprising results were discovered. Teachers who implemented standards-based education to a higher degree reported decreased levels of stress, increased levels of job variety and career commitment, and no effect on job autonomy.

Principles of quality management leading to standardization have been applied to education and have become central to international educational reform efforts in Canada, Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In the United States, the implementation of the federal *No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001* has mandated that states establish tough new academic standards and hold schools, and ultimately teachers, accountable for increasing the academic achievement of all students (Hargrove, Walker, Huber, Corrigan, & Moore, 2004). Changes in the nature of teaching jobs brought about by environmental and political pressure has forced educators to measure success by the bottom line—increases in test scores. However, attention to bottom-line criteria only may not completely tell the story of the success or failure of the intended change. Gilmore, Shea, and Useem (1997) warned that unanticipated side effects can undermine or even defeat an intended change.

Further, managerial actions required to implement a desired change may evoke unintended responses such as resistance by teachers to the increased pressure to implement standards-based education as a vehicle for increasing students' test scores. While a reasonable

amount of pressure is healthy, too much pressure can lead to teachers disliking their jobs and possibly exiting the teaching field (Hargrove, Walker, Huber, Corrigan, & Moore, 2004). Bob Chase (2001), former President of the National Education Association, argued that standards-based accountability required by NCLB is having a negative impact on the teacher profession and teacher morale, squeezing out the creativity and discretion of skilled teachers. In a speech to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chase complained that tests drive everything including curriculum, promotion, and graduation decisions and are driving some of our most creative teachers to look for other careers. He called teaching a profession in crisis.

In January 2003, The National Commission of Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) presented evidence that the current teacher shortages are partially related to the problem of nationwide teacher retention (Hunt & Carroll, 2003). The NCTAF study estimated that almost one third of America's teachers leave the field during their first 3 years of teaching, and almost half leave after 5 years. With this level of attrition, America's schools may face serious problems finding highly qualified teachers for every classroom (Hargrove et al., 2004), as required by NCLB and hoped for by every parent of a student in the public school system.

Tye and O'Brien (2002) reported a growing discontent and increasing attrition among experienced California teachers due to the "test mania" (p. 24) that pervades the state. In a study of alumni of the teacher preparation department at Chapman University, Tye and O'Brien received responses from 114 teachers (12.6% of the sample) who had graduated between 6 and 10 years before. Teachers who already left teaching had described the pressures associated with accountability (high-stakes testing, test preparation, and standards) as the main reason they found the work environment to be negative. Tye and O'Brien also measured the discontent among those experienced teachers who were still teaching at the time of the survey. Teachers complained that state standards and high-stake tests dictated the curriculum regardless of the professional judgment of the teacher.

Flaws in the implementation of standards-based education may force educators to reconsider the entire system without recognizing its inherent profitability. Standards-based education is a system of performance-based accountability focusing educational policy, administration, and practice directly on teaching and learning. The alignment of curriculum is possible by defining goals, allocating authority, managing incentives, building capacity, measuring progress, reporting results, and enforcing consequences related to student performance (Adams & Kirst, 1999). The success of standards-based reform implementation is important because of the fairness of the system for students. Reeves (2002) explained that students can be evaluated two ways: by comparing a student's performance to an objective standard or to the performance to other students. The traditional bell curve, used for years in the classroom, has compared a student's performance to other students ensuring that the largest percentage receive C's while a lower percentage of students end up on the high or low end of the grade continuum. This works fine in athletic competitions such as the Olympics where an athlete's success is compared to others to see who is the fastest runner or the highest jumper. However, in other fields, such as licensing drivers, brain surgeons, and jet pilots, merely beating the competitors, or grading on a bell curve, does not ensure the safety of the patients or passengers. Students who demonstrate proficiency meeting an objective set of standards is as important in the classroom as it is in the operating room to ensure that students acquire the required body of knowledge.

As leaders make the case for the fairness of standards-based reform, they must also pay close attention to its implementation because teacher support appears to be waning, according to

The Business Roundtable (2003). In two separate surveys, 73% of teachers supported standards, accountability, and testing in 1999, compared to 55% of teachers supporting the same in 2001. The decline in teacher support for standards-based reform may be explained by teachers' negative job perceptions and feelings of increased job stress, reduced job variety, and reduced career commitment.

The effect of standards-based education on job characteristics such as job stress, job variety, job autonomy, and career commitment is important for three reasons. First, management research is interested in redesigning jobs to reduce the problems of alienation at work and to increase productivity. Second, the psychological study of work motivation can be highly related to the characteristics of the work itself. Third, the study of leadership has sometimes ignored the influence of task characteristics on the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction and performance (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976).

In an effort to quantify how principles of quality management through standardization of the American educational system have affected classroom teachers' perceptions of their jobs, a study was done based on data from a sample of 184 elementary teachers (K-6) from 16 different elementary schools in a medium-sized suburban district. Teachers self-reported how well they had implemented standards-based education by responding to a 14-point checklist created by Reeves (2002). Stress was measured by the Job-Related Tension Index (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Amazingly, teachers self-reported a reduction in stress with higher implementation of standards. Stress appeared to be created by the change process itself, and the more comfortable teachers were with standards, the less job stress they reported.

One explanation for the perceptions of lowered job stress with higher standards-based implementation is that there is "good" stress as well as "bad" stress. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stated that people assess stressful situations as either potentially threatening or as potentially promoting mastery, personal growth, or future gains. The stress related to standards-based education may be viewed by teachers as good stress that promotes mastery and personal growth in their teaching craft. The good stress also adds to their perceptions of high job variety and high career commitment as teachers invest time and energy to attend trainings and collaborative meetings to implement standards. The stress associated with standards-based implementation may be viewed as obstacles to overcome rather than debilitating stress that reduces career commitment.

In the same way, challenge stressors and hindrance stressors (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehly, & Boudreau, 2000) may also explain teachers' perceptions of job stress related to standards-based implementation. Challenge stressors include demands such as high workload, time pressure, job scope, and high responsibility. These stressful demands are many times viewed as challenges to be overcome in order to learn and achieve. Hindrance stressors include stressful demands that thwart personal growth and goal attainment. Teachers may consider the stress associated with standards as a demand to be met to enhance their personal growth as a professional. Teachers who have implemented standards-based education at a high level have mastered the demands of the challenge stressors. Since standards-based education is in its 7th or 8th year of implementation, teachers with a high level of standards-based education implementation found a reduction in stress and an increase in career commitment as they reach personal growth and goal attainment.

Another job characteristic that seemed to create negative job perceptions for teachers during the implementation of standards-based education was reduced job variety. Job variety is the degree to which employees perform a wide range of operations and use a variety of

equipment and procedures (Hackman & Lawler, 1971) or the extent to which a job involves performing a number of different tasks and frequently encountering exceptional circumstances requiring flexibility (Dean & Snell, 1991). Standards-based education appears to reduce job variety because it requires that teachers use a uniform set of standards mandated through the federal, state, and district levels.

In this study, however, teachers who perceived a greater extent of standards-based implementation in the classroom also reported a greater extent of job variety. The increased job variety may have been reported because of the changing demands placed on teachers to learn new skills and change the way they have done things in the past. As teachers got to the place of high standards implementation, their report of job variety also significantly increased.

Reduced job autonomy was another job characteristic that may have been affected when quality principles were applied to the teaching profession. Hackman and Lawler (1971) defined autonomy as the extent to which employees have input into their schedule, choice of equipment, and procedures. In the teaching field, job autonomy is valued for four reasons: (a) teachers believe that they are the ultimate authority in the teaching–learning process because of their expertise in specialized fields, (b) teachers believe they have the right to organize the learning process as they see fit, (c) teachers have few school rules that affect teaching and learning within the classroom, and (d) teachers feel that they have the legitimate right to say no to some district policies as a matter of professionalism in a bureaucratic organization (Hanson, 1996).

Autonomy in the classroom has always been constrained by limits imposed by the state legislature (e.g., choice of books from an approved list), the court system (e.g., no prayer in the schools), the school board (e.g., student instruction must be individualized), or the principal (e.g., teachers and students must be in the classroom by 8:00 AM). However, the network of constraints imposed by standards-based education has begun to permeate the teaching–learning process, an area traditionally reserved for teachers.

In this study, teachers' perceptions of job autonomy were not affected by the implementation of quality principles in the form of standards-based education. The lack of effect may be explained by the professional and leadership context of teaching that includes a strong sense of teacher job autonomy. Further, teachers currently "enjoy the protections of a tenure system that provide consequential job security and a buffer that allows them actively or passively to resist many requests or even demands from supervisors" (Bess & Goldman, 2001, p. 421). Even though standardization would appear to give teachers less freedom to make autonomous choices in their job, teachers may already have such a strong sense of autonomy that the extent of standards implementation does not affect teachers' perceptions of job autonomy.

Career commitment was one of the greatest concerns for leaders decrying the effect of standards-based implementation. The term *occupational commitment* has replaced the term *career commitment* in recent studies because of a potential confusion with the definition of career as a series of jobs, vocational choices, and other work-related activities over the individual's lifetime. Occupational commitment is defined as the psychological link between a person and his or her occupation that is based on an affective reaction to that occupation (Lee, Carswell, & Allen, 2000). Lee et al. defined an occupation as an "identifiable and specific line of work that an individual engages in to earn a living at a given point in time, made up of a constellation of requisite skills, knowledge, and duties that differentiate it from other occupations and, typically, are transferable across settings" (p. 801).

Occupational commitment was measured by a seven-item measure by Blau (1985). The results of the data produced significant results opposite from what was expected. A greater extent

of standards-based education implementation had a significant positive relationship with career commitment. Further, job stress and job variety mediated the relationship between standards-based instruction and career commitment. This mediation demonstrated that the positive relationship of the extent of standards-based education implementation with career commitment could be explained through the effects of job stress and job variety on the nature of teacher's jobs. The mediation confirmed Lee et al.'s (2000) findings that job stress is negatively related to career commitment. However, the higher extent of standards-based implementation reduced job stress, thus positively affecting career commitment.

These findings have strong implications for the future of systems designed to create an atmosphere of quality management. Many times when strict structures and processes are in place with tight monitoring and sanctions for implementation the expectations would be that the climate would be stressful and demoralizing. Instead of teachers feeling stressed and burned out, a higher degree of standardization appears to have enhanced teachers' job outcomes.

The data results demonstrate positive job outcomes for teachers who have participated in the change to a higher extent of standards-based implementation. Gilmore et al. (1997) stated that although change brought improvements such as quality, service, productivity, and risk taking, it also created negative effects in regards to workplace climate and employee morale. The negative effects of workplace climate and employee morale were not indicated in the data results. This research adds to the body of knowledge about employee reaction to change called for by Meyer and Herscovitch (2002) who described a paucity of research on employee reaction to change.

The data from this study do not support the dire warnings or rhetoric of highly qualified teachers leaving the profession en masse due to high stress and unhappiness with the nature of their teaching jobs since the implementation of standards. In fact, a higher extent of standards-based implementation actually showed a positive relationship to reduced stress and a greater extent of job variety and did not significantly affect a teacher's view of autonomy. These results are very significant for those who support standards as the fairest way to evaluate students (Reeves, 2002). Teachers are finding standardization to actually enhance their job outcomes as they implement the requirements of programs such as NCLB to a higher degree.

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Book Review: Peter G. Northouse's (2009) *Introduction to Leadership: Concepts and Practices*

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For more than 20 years, students have relied on Peter G. Northouse for expertise and scholarly acumen in the dynamic discipline of leadership studies. Writing now to students and leaders in every profession and at every stage of development, Northouse (2009) makes the complexities of leadership theory practical and applicable to everyone in an interactive and engaging format.

In *Introduction to Leadership: Concepts and Practice*, Peter G. Northouse (2009) embarks on a mission to lift the veil surrounding the complexities and nuances of leadership, making them more understandable and accessible to leadership students and practitioners. Northouse, a professor of communication at Western Michigan University, is highly esteemed for his work in leadership studies and communications. As both an academician and consultant he has explored the art and science of leadership for more than 20 years and is perhaps best-known for his seminal work, *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (1997), a theory-rich textbook designed and written for undergraduate and graduate students, currently in its fourth edition.

In response to the needs of a different audience, Northouse now turns his attention from the theoretical to the practical by providing instruction on the "how-to's" of leadership. It is impossible, of course, to completely divorce the two and maintain the integrity of the discipline, and Northouse clearly attempts to provide enough theory to support the methods he introduces so that the reader is not left with the misperception that leadership is a shallow discipline whose full essence and effects can be realized merely by following step-by-step instructions.

The book is organized into ten interactive chapters, each devoted to one aspect of leadership practice. The chapters include questionnaires, observational exercises, and reflection and action worksheets designed to guide the reader through personal exploration of each topic. The reader is encouraged to engage in some of the activities prior to reading each chapter, and this technique would certainly be helpful to newcomers to the field.

Highlights

Northouse begins with the challenge of defining leadership in chapter 1. Five common definitions are provided along with a list of "Universal Leadership Attributes." Northouse's stated position is that leadership is an amalgam of all five definitions and is, indeed, demonstrated in those universal attributes. He also clarifies that the purpose of leadership is to create "change for the greater good" (p. 5).

Chapter 2 illustrates various leadership traits by discussing the lives of eight "notable" leaders: George Washington, Harriet Tubman, Eleanor Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Mother Theresa, Nelson Mandela, Bill Gates, and Oprah Winfrey. Northouse posits that the careful study of these eight leaders reveals different leadership traits and styles that are recognized as key contributors to success. He also presents an overview of the results of studies conducted by social scientists related to effective leadership traits.

Venturing a bit deeper, the philosophy of leadership is addressed in chapter 3 and Douglas McGregor's theory X and theory Y is used to illustrate how philosophy informs style. The research findings of Lewin, Lippitt, and White are then presented as the authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire styles are highlighted.

Northouse examines leadership behaviors and categorizes them into two groups: tasks and relationships, in chapter 4. Because the two are "inextricably tied together" (p. 8), he postulates that the effective leader will be highly competent in both areas and intuitive regarding the mix required in any situation. He presents a thinly cloaked view of Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model to effectively explain the leader's challenge of integrating task and relationship behaviors in appropriate requisite measure.

Just as leadership behaviors were categorized in chapter 4, chapter 5 presents three categories of leadership skills: administrative, interpersonal, and conceptual with explanation and examples of each. The chapter includes an instructive model illustrating how the three types of leadership skills coalesce in an integrated and effective leader. Concrete examples are provided and specific skills taught for each category. Emotional intelligence, conflict resolution, and basic problem solving are among the core leadership skills addressed.

In chapter 6 the reader is introduced to the importance of vision in effective leadership. Characteristics of effective vision are presented along with Martin Luther King, Jr.'s, "I Have a Dream" speech and John F. Kennedy's inaugural address. Vision's importance to transformational and charismatic leadership is noted but not explored.

The following chapter provides insight into the leader's responsibility and role in creating a culture conducive to achieving the vision. To that end, group behaviors are discussed and several communication and feedback skills, including performance management, are presented. The chapter also includes a helpful table on providing constructive feedback.

Northouse then transitions into an exposé of some of the most common leadership challenges by devoting chapter 8 to the matter of "out-group members." Here he illustrates the leader-member exchange theory (LMX) and provides specific behaviors leaders can adopt to prevent and/or remedy out-group issues and their deleterious effect on organizational life.

Chapter 9, "Overcoming Obstacles," gives the reader insight into seven additional barriers to leading effectively including ill-defined goals and/or directions, poor motivation, and unsuitable tasks. Path-goal leadership theory is presented and explained.

In the final chapter, "Addressing Ethics in Leadership," Northouse tackles the complex concepts of ethics, character, and values. Using the Josephson Institute's character model, he

explains how the leader's ethics direct his actions. The five bases of power are included in the discussion on power's effect on ethics. Values are described as "ideas, beliefs, and modes of action that people find worthwhile or desirable" (p. 167). According to Northouse, people rarely hold the same values.

Observations

Given the depth and breadth of leadership as a discipline, the voluminous literature, and the expressed purpose of this book, there were likely many difficult decisions about which concepts could be excluded while still providing an accurate and complete overview. I imagine the exercise to be as unwieldy as attempting to write a calculus book for first graders. Still, there were a few notable exclusions that would have enriched the reader's understanding and appreciation of leadership.

For example, in chapter 1, Northouse notes that leadership is about change yet pertinent information regarding change theory, change management, or the concept of leader as change agent is strikingly absent from the book. Instead, change is mentioned in the discussions about conflict management (chapter 5) and vision (chapter 6) as part of the framework for those topics. The new student of leadership, as well as the leader-in-training, would benefit from even the most cursory presentation of change management concepts and tools, however. For example, Kurt Lewin's (1936) force-field analysis tool for planning and implementing change along with his classic change model: unfreeze, change, and refreeze, come quickly to mind as does John Kotter's (1999) 8-stage process. All are practical leadership constructs that are easily understood and applied.

It is also interesting to note that only one philosophy of leadership, theory X and theory Y, is presented in chapter 3, and its roots are embedded in modernist thinking during an era when the majority of jobs were industrially-based. We now find ourselves in the knowledge age, however, which requires a new philosophy of leading. In light of the evolution of leadership theory and practice since the early 1960s when Douglas McGregor advanced theory X and theory Y, the exclusion of contemporary transformational leadership theories (Bass, 1998; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1999; Greenleaf, 1991; Yammarino & Avolio, 2002) from the conversation about leadership philosophy was a surprising and disappointing omission.

The choice to exclude these important developments becomes even more curious when, in chapter 10, Northouse defines ethical leadership as "a process by which a good person rightly influences others to accomplish a common good: to make the world better, fairer, and more humane" (p. 158) which is a hallmark of transformational leaders. Northouse does reference James MacGregor Burns' work in delineating ethical, modal, and end values, however (p. 167).

Finally, the values discussion in chapter 10 would have been more meaningful had it included an explanation of how values are formed. Northouse's assertion that values can be learned is overly simplistic because "values are simultaneously components of psychological processes, of social interaction, and of cultural patterning and storage" (Rokeach, 1979, p. 17). Further, empirical data suggests a finite number of values so that individuals hold the same values but prioritize them differently (Rokeach). This is of vital importance because the leader's challenge is not achieving reconciliation for a number of conflicting values but partnering with followers to identify shared values, facilitating understanding of individual and organizational values' hierarchies, and creating alignment.

Overall, however, the book accomplishes its intended purpose for its ideal audience by providing practical suggestions on becoming a better leader. A wealth of information is presented in an unassuming style that should appeal to both students and practitioners. Northouse's artful integration of real leaders' stories into each chapter illustrates key concepts, further enabling the audience to more readily identify with them. Written in laymen's terms, it is easy to follow and engages the reader in a reflective practice of leadership, a skill that alone is worth the cover price. The book should appeal to students in introductory leadership courses in any academic discipline as well as to anyone embarking on a new leadership journey.

About the Author

Dr. Susan Gibbons is a graduate of the School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship at Regent University, where she earned a Doctor of Strategic Leadership degree. She is an affiliate faculty member at several Christian universities and also provides consulting services to business owners, corporations, and churches. Susan brings 20 years experience to her teaching and consulting work in her areas of expertise: strategic leadership, human resources management, and healthcare administration.
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Book Review: *The Handbook on the Knowledge Economy* (2005), Edited by David Rooney, Greg Hearn, & Abraham Ninan

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The purpose of this book review is to introduce the reader to the challenges in putting in place the necessary elements of what may be needed for a knowledge-based economy or organization.

The Handbook on the Knowledge Economy (2005) is an essential piece which explains the use of knowledge today in organizations and governments worldwide. The book explicitly states its purpose by outlining a central theme which is to inform the reader on explaining what knowledge is and how it works socially, organizationally, and economically. It is necessary to know the functionality of knowledge in order to improve and create a more fluid organization. The editor of this textbook collected research which introduces the reader to the historical character of knowledge, followed by outlining the risks involved when addressing the social capital of knowledge. The handbook moves on to a series of essays on the cultural capital to issues and policy related to the knowledgebase. It does address the much-acclaimed issues related to intellectual capital, giving the reader an opportunity to review how values play a role in the knowledge economy.

Rooney, Hearn, and Nina's (2005) collection on concepts, policy, and implementation of knowledge progresses through various applicable formalities addressing strategy and implementation and also imagination and creativity when considering the results of using knowledge. It also allows the reader to understand the position of culture, values, power, communication, risk perceptions, and ethics that are central and effective for knowledge systems. In outlining some of the most critical pieces of this handbook, let me highlight a few that will catch your eye as we consider the use of knowledge and its importance.

In chapter 6, Pillay writes about "Knowledge and Social Capital" and takes into account the ways in which knowledge becomes an asset for society. He highlights the premise that James (1909, as referenced by Pillay) stated clearly, that knowledge as its most basic level is derived from personal meaning and the understanding of the relationships to this meaning. These

relationships are greatly influenced by culture, social experiences, and technological artifacts. The prefix is that social capital is built on two types: human and cultural. Pillay continues to unveil the process of social and cultural experiences which lead to a tension between the economic and social capital. In conclusion, as Pillay derives to his final statements, the author confirms that

> The development of a global transactional economy and the pursuit of self-interest driven by capitalist ideologies, our moral and social values have been gradually transformed to support an ethic of single minded competitiveness. Morals related to "social good" are being eroded by the push for a market-driven society – a world where economic maximization seem to be the only focus. (p. 85)

Pillay continues to voice the need to understand and manage tradeoffs inherent in the tensions between the different types of capital posited here. This should then bring us to a holistic model by which we may promote a balanced knowledge society.

The other piece which strikes me as an interesting factor in considering the knowledge economy is the creativity within the process. Mark Banks, in chapter 17, writes about "Managing Creativity in the Knowledge Economy." Banks notes that there are many options to an organization who wishes to become more creative. This is not only importing specialized trainings into the workforce but actually maximizing on the incubators and generators already at work. There are specific structures that act as incubators in organizations today, and most do not know what they are. Banks moves the reader to the understanding of using a "community of practice" which works as a group of people informally bound together, sharing knowledge in order to pursue a goal or to solve problems in an organization. He suggests that the practice is a key role in providing creative venues for organizations. The shift becomes challenging when you define creativity among the various industries: how do you actually do this? Leadership must insist that creativity requires direct management. The other side of the coin is not only the challenge to manage but to actually bring change to the organization. There are many opportunities in creativity; however, there is a "poor state of knowledge" about creativity in the workplace. Banks suggests that firms, managers, and organizations alike consider the following questions:

1. How is creativity defined in the context of a firm?
2. Who possesses it and in what form is it expressed?
3. What value is placed on creativity as an internal resource?
4. How do intrinsic and extrinsic organizational structures enhance or undermine creativity? (p. 226)

The compilation of the various chapters is a rich representation of how knowledge is treated from its varying angles, considering the challenge to understand it from a social, economic, and organizational perspective. I do believe these chapters will provoke more thought and encourage readers to consider the importance of managing knowledge wisely.

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