

LEADERS, FOLLOWERS AND PROBLEM SOLVING IN ORGANISATIONS

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

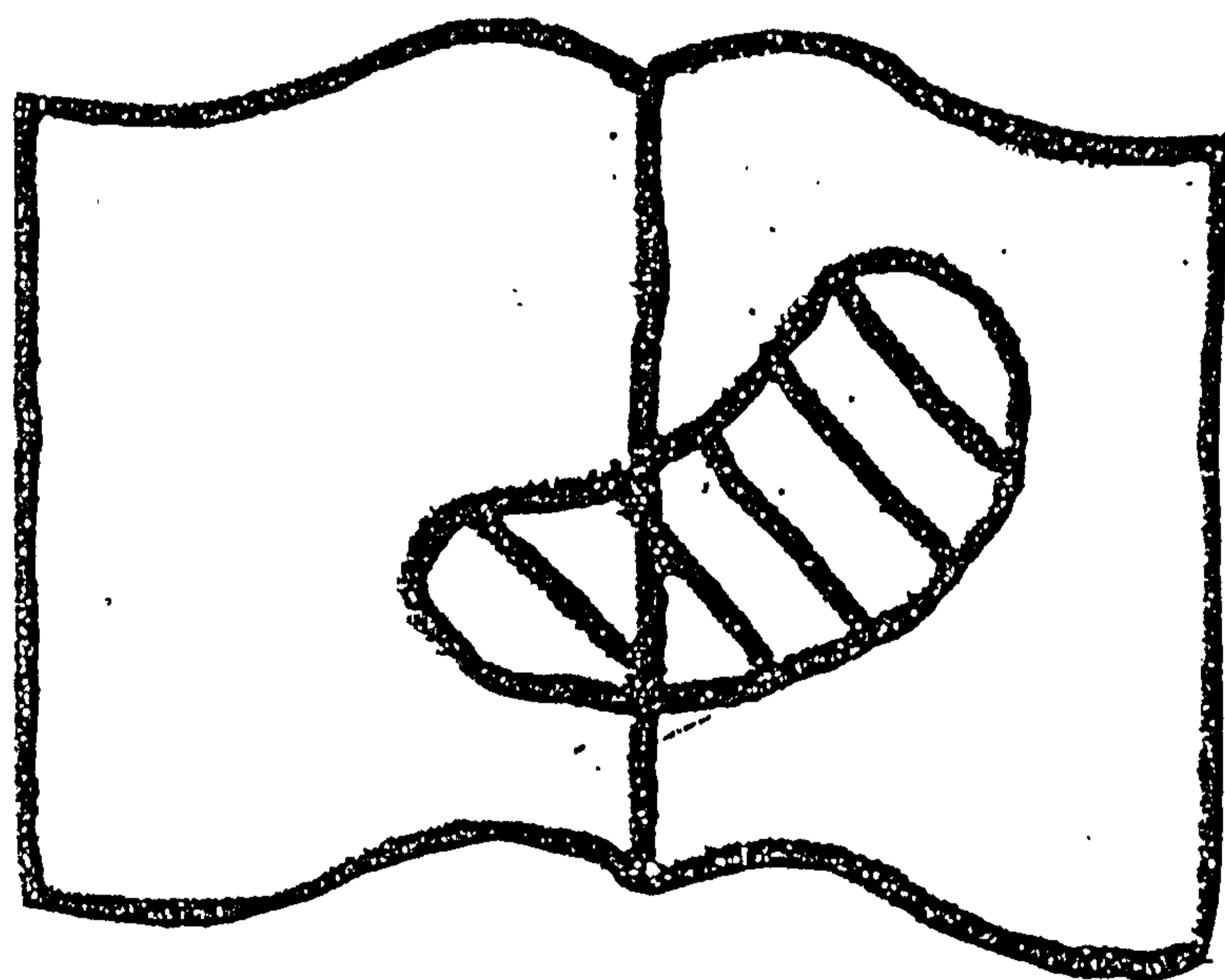
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ABSTRACT

The distinction between management style and leadership style has been confirmed in this research by examining the working relationships between leaders and followers in 6 separate sites of a computer systems organisation. The relationships between 4 areas of organisational outcome, (performance/effectiveness, job satisfaction, anxiety, and depression) and the perceptions of the leadership styles of the follower's most significant manager and the organisational environments of culture and climate were studied. A systemic model of these relationships has been constructed and elaborated. From a follower perspective, 4 distinct leadership factors are articulated. One factor is concerned with the future of the organisation (Visioning) while another factor is concerned with managing within the organisations (Organising & Resourcing). The results highlight the weak conceptual and structural distinctions between the facets of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership in the literature. e.g. Bass, Avolio & Jung (1995) and thus support Kotter (1982, 1990, 2001) and House & Shamir (1993).

The leadership factors of managers deemed to be "most significant" and the organisational environment are related. In particular, the factor of Organising & Resourcing is related to Teamwork in the organisational environment while the leadership factor of Visioning is related to the organisational culture in terms of the variables of Mission, and Communication, and the organisational climate variables of Work Goals, Work Demands, and Work Supports. These results support the views that one of the main purposes of leadership is to form and maintain the organisation culture. (Bennis, 1989; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; and Schein, 1985, 1990, 1997).

Also, significant managers with the style called People Orientation have a direct impact on the well-being of their subordinates. In particular, People Orientation is negatively related to anxiety and depression, while organisational culture, via the variable of Mission is also negatively related to anxiety, and Teamwork, and Mission are both negatively related to depression. The results imply that solutions to stress that do not address the leader/follower relationship and neglect the need for a mission and teamwork ethos in the organisation culture are misdirected and prone to failure.

The results further show that leadership style is not related to the follower's cognitive style (adaption or innovation) on the KAI.

Cognitive style is however related to Work Demands, thus it appears that follower's construe the tasks and problems in line with their cognitive preferences confirming that the KAI is heavily associated with ideation.

The practical implications are:

1) Followers see a distinct difference between the visionary elements of leadership and the organising and resourcing components of management. Followers also identify a process of communication that is common to both management and leadership as well another important factor labeled People Orientation.

2) Managers with this style of people orientation have a direct link to the feelings and well-being of followers as measured by anxiety. Increases in the style of People Orientation are likely to be linked to reduced state anxiety and reduced depression in followers. Individual performance/effectiveness is largely accounted for by Work Goals with the moderating effect of the combination of KAI and teamwork rather than the direct impact of management.

3) Followers in this research seem to be in a developmental dilemma where their need for support and encouragement from management can inhibit them from solving problems in line with their preferred cognitive styles. In such circumstances, behavioural outcomes may be different from the norm and thus paradigm breaking for both the relationship with the manager, and with the organisation.

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview - The Purpose of this Research

Within the literature on leadership, the relationships between the individual and the organisation variables tends to be segmented. With this segmentation, the research and the understanding tends to be confined to a part of the total picture such as the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture, or between leadership styles and individual differences. The first purpose of this research is to integrate the segmented literature on key organisational variables by articulating the systemic relationship between the key variables of:

- 1) Organisation culture
- 2) Organisation climate
- 3) Leadership style
- 4) Individual differences of cognition (problem solving style) and affect as expressed in terms of anxiety, depression and job satisfaction.

The second purpose is to express the relationships between the key variables as a model. The model will help managers to clarify the distinction between the attributes of leadership and the components of management by showing the interconnections between the key variables so that practicing managers may see more clearly the variables that they are more likely to influence.

1.2 Outline-Concepts of Leadership and Management

In Britain and Continental Europe, the Rowntree organisation is not only known for its dark chocolate and their after-dinner mints. In 1923, one of the Directors (Sheldon, 1923) developed a concept of management. It was not that he was the first to do so however it is believed that he was the first to combine social ethics with the practice of management.

The Philosophy of Management, (Sheldon, 1923), coincided with an increasing social awareness in Britain and the widened responsibilities of people who managed others.

While writers like Taylor (1911), and Gantt (1916), had accepted the notion of management as an extension of science and engineering, Sheldon's principles were market-focused. He saw the needs of the community as a whole as the purpose of the organisation. No more grand Victorian country houses or estates, with the industrialists emulating the landed gentry: management should now be governed by principles based on service to the community instead of exploitation.

And so management, at least in Britain, was to be seen as a distinct function, separate ownership by capital and different again from labour. Management, although not a science, could be doing research using the scientific method to optimize the use physical and human resources to produce products and services giving prime consideration to social responsibilities.

In operational terms, Sheldon had separated the management process into three areas:

- 1) Administration, that is setting the policies for the organisation, plus co-ordinating and integrating the various functions and having the final say.

- 2) Management as the implementers of the policy produced by the administrators. This implied doing things within the limits and boundaries set by the administrators.
- 3) Organisation, that is the co-coordinating of the resources of people, such as material, technology and production to produce the goods.

It was believed, (George, 1968), that Sheldon did more than those before him, to conceptualise management and promote it to a higher theoretical level, although, at about the same time, Fayol (1923) was writing about the functions of management which he described as planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling.

Henry Ford had already experimented with an assembly line using men like horses to pull a vehicle, while others worked on the car as it moved. With his interest in people as machines, Ford established his "Sociological Department" at Detroit in 1914 to study human behaviour from the efficiency viewpoint. With the attitude of efficiency, he required his staff (managers?) to keep a close check on the behaviours of (Ford) employees both on and off the job. The role of management from a Ford view was implicit. (Baritz, 1960).

Scientific management as an extension of Engineering had already been discussed by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and had been proposed by F.W.Taylor. (Taylor, 1911 and Nelson, 1980).

In 1918, Lenin had a view on scientific management. "The Taylor system, the last word of capitalism in this respect, like all capitalist progress, is a combination of subtle brutality of bourgeois exploitation and a number of its greatest scientific achievements in the field of analysing work, etc. The Soviet Republic must at all costs adopt all that is valuable in the achievement of science and technology in this field." (Lenin n.d pp 332-333).

While the influence of Sheldon (1923), and others such as Fayol (1923), Mayo (1933,1945), McGregor (1960), and Drucker (1969) has made an enormous impact on the concept of management, the general direction was probably inevitable in the light of the convergence of life in organisations with other changes in society. Despite these early influences and the availability of their writings, some managers today have probably not read widely nor even heard of Sheldon. With the Enron affair of creatively moving liabilities of the main balance sheet to subsidiaries, managerial ethics is now a hot topic for managers.

Despite the acquisition of some professional status for management, the word "manage" has two possible roots in western culture. In Italian, *maneggiare* means handling things, especially horses. In contrast, the French *menager* meant dealing with the house and the cuisine - a form of housekeeping. (Mant, 1960). The language of management has also continued to change. While Sheldon used the term administration for Policy and similar strategic activities, today administration is the process of getting things done through structures and processes rather than people. Today, Sheldon's definition of administration has changed to strategic management e.g. Garratt (1987), and more recently to transformational leadership. (Bass, 1985).

Management therefore is now more clearly confined to operating within the parameters defined by the strategists. Managers deal with the operations of the organisation by getting work done through people. This was once called production management, but with a widened remit in post-industrial organisations, the process has been renamed operations management.

It is no longer confined to manufacturing, but encompasses the clerical type of support functions in the back rooms of organisations like banks, insurance companies, and universities.

Thus strategic management, and operational management have become common terms. The latest development, which follows the same parallel path and differentiates between two approaches to management, is transformational leadership and transactional leadership. (Bass, 1985).

Strategic management covers the business environment, structure, leadership, and culture. Operational management covers planning, organising, and doing. It is concerned with such issues as jobs and the nature of work, group composition, and the contributions of the individual.

Some authors, like Garratt (1987) have elaborated this separation of strategy, from the facets of operations by a metaphor. Garratt describes directors as the brain of the firm and managers and workers as the body. The brain does the thinking and the body carries out the actions in line with the brain. The mind-body separation has been a useful concept to urge the directors to stop meddling in the jobs they used to do before being promoted and instead shift their focus to thinking about the future by looking at the organisation's relationships with the external environment. The parts of the environment are customers, competitors, regulators, shareholders, dignitaries and politicians.

From a different cultural perspective, Japanese management has been widely reported indirectly in the literature and directly in the UK via the automobile transplants such as Nissan at Sunderland, Honda at Swindon and Toyota at Derby. A visitor the Nissan plant in Sunderland will be amazed that despite the clarity

and the distinction between the roles of managers and operators, operators participate and carry out a lot of the quality controls usually allocated to managers in European organisations.

Looking back in time, Japan had been isolated from the West for over two hundred years when it entered the industrial/technical age about a century ago. There appeared to be no rumblings in the social structure as detected in western society by Sheldon (1923). In contrast to England for example, Japanese industry was initiated by the Emperor, and not by entrepreneurs or wealthy landowners. It was done in the context of a rigid social structure based on communal effort, integration and will power.

While the individual was the focus in western society, the smallest unit in Japan was the family. With the growth of industrialisation, the next unit in size was the "work" group or department family, and the biggest family of all was the organisation. The company President was seen as head of the big family or the company household. (Norbury & Bownas, 1974). Thus one of the several internal elements of the Japanese organisation was formed on the paternal but caring aspect rather than the male aspects of society. However, the external management traditions of Japan have probably descended from the Samurai warriors and the Merchants since both of these groups would have had most contact with other provinces and the outside world.

While these differences in cultural origin might have lead to a similar management dilemma of masculine versus feminine, as in the West, the goals were different. The Japanese collectivity meant that wealth was shared in units, like the family and the extended family.

Japanese houses were small, made of wood and had partitions or screens, not walls, so being aware of the needs of others started from birth and continued. It is only now that western style “bungalows” are being built in Japanese rural areas. However, technology initially from abroad was also a driver of the internal organisation and the model for the Japanese organisation became:

Japanese Industrialisation = Japanese social structure and spirit + Western skills and technology.

The continuity and relative stability of the Japanese social structure has implications for the concepts of management and leadership in all organisations. First, the social relationships are important to all members. The long hours the Japanese spend at work are not just spent doing the task but talking about work and socialising. This has elements of caring and bonding as well as knowing what your colleagues and the organisation are up to.

Explorations of child-rearing practices in Japan have also indicated the close nature of attachment in infancy with strong bonds to parents and the subsequent development of psychological dependency in adulthood. In defining well-being, Keys, Ryff & Shmotkin (2002) state that “Eastern perspectives may, for example, overshadow imagery of the happy, upbeat, striving, potential-reaching self with conceptions that are about connection to others, meeting obligations therein, and achieving fulfilment through carefully managed social ties”. (p1019).

The President in a Japanese organisation is expected to handle the key domestic and international relationships, which will enable the organisation to make its way in the world. The qualification for this role is acceptance by the organisation. It is a mutual emotional commitment. This relationship lasts beyond the time span of any particular issue, task or project.

The qualities for the president are contacts and experience to relate to the external world. The internal role is largely that of selection of staff to ensure the right cultural fit between the manager and the organisation.

One such president defined the internal component of his role as:

“The responsibility of the President is to move personnel, to place the right man in the right job, to develop the human resources of the company and to foster the willingness of all employees to participate in the conduct of the business.” (Nihon Keizai Shimbun, 1971, p21, quoted in Norbury & Bownas, 1974)

Thus two distinct functions of managers and leaders emerge from the literature from the USA and the UK. In contrast to the European experience summarised as functional rather than managerial professionalism in Hofstede, (1993).

First of all, irrespective of style, managers and leaders both deal directly with individuals and groups. Second, managers and leaders create the conditions, which give the organisation its basic character and communicate directly or indirectly what the organisation stands for, the priorities, and such things as the range of acceptable behaviours. These are norms, which provide a structure. The norms may be within a broad or a narrow band but they establish the context, defined essentially by the external environment within which work is done. In some cases, the business context and the organisational culture are clear and simply need to be communicated.

In other organisations however the culture needs interpretation. The manager then acts like a priest intervening between the present and the needs of the future, by a visionary interpretation. Edelman (1964, & 1977) has pointed out that rhetoric can be used to give meaning to physical outcomes and thereby create legitimacy and justification. Pettigrew (1977) refers to the management of meaning as a process to create legitimacy for one's own demands and to “de-legitimize” the demands of

others. Linguistic studies of communication in organisations have shown how language can control the agenda. In a school for example, the principal controls staffing issues via language (Gronn, 1983) or slang is used in a financial institution to distract attention from money. (Taylor, 1987).

There are many such examples from Britain. With privatisation, the Utilities and British Rail have all had cultural re-interpretation for both employees and customers, but especially for employees. (Smith, 1990; Clarke, 1991; Hall & Jaques, 1983; and Thatcher, 1993).

The fact that purposes vary from organisation to organisation requires an understanding of the organisations culture. At the deepest level, this means understanding the assumptions that are deeply rooted and often taken for granted. The actions of people in organisations may be understood by the mental calculations that they do when making a decision. The actions can also be understood by the interpretations or the meanings of events and their place in the organisational constellation.

In some interpretations of organisational culture and the associated processes it is assumed that the environment presses on the person who is largely a passive receiver and who responds accordingly. For others, the view is that people actively “construe” their environments. The personal construct theorists such as Kelly (1955, 1963) and Bannister & Fransella, (1971) see “construing” as a process of combining past, and present structures and their contents so that the ultimate meaning of the environment to the individual is a relative one. In the work context, this would imply that a jobholders view is partly contingent on what is perceived and how it is described. This interpretation permits individuals to collaborate on tasks, and have

social relationships that are satisfying but occupy different thought worlds. (Fletcher & Stead, 2000).

In summary, the research in this dissertation is concerned with the individual differences of cognition, as well as feelings and affect in the context of the person's nearby organisational environment measured in terms of climate, culture, management and leadership.

This interest has become more urgent because the direction of western society and western organisations away from manufacturing to knowledge organisations.

Just as traditional management improved productivity in manual work, modern management must manage "knowledge work". Drucker (1999). For others, the challenge is to respond to others who are motivated by service, as in voluntary organisations or by the inherent complexity of the job to enable people to think, to be creative and to solve problems. Drucker, (2002); Hesselbein, Beckhard, & Goldsmith (1995), Kanter (1993), Sagawa & Segal (1999).

The issue of enquiry concerns the creativity, innovation or more generally the cognitions (problem solving styles) of individuals working under the umbrella of an organisation.

The purpose of this research is to elucidate the relationships between the followers, their managers and the psychological attributes of the organisation as knowledge emerges and problems are solved. This means determining the relationships between the managers and or leaders and their followers, directly, and via the environmental conditions, which give it the organisation it's character.

CHAPTER II - LEADERSHIP

Man's task in life is to give birth to himself. Erich Fromm

2.1 Emerging Dimensions - Leadership as a Process Distinct from Management.

In a survey of their MBA students, just before graduation, Goshal & Sull (1977) found that students were unimpressed by current management. "Few managers of large companies are seen to be generating new economic value. In contrast to entrepreneurs who are lionised for creating wealth and institutions de novo". They go on to say, "managers (in these new organisations) have been even more obsessive about creating an exciting work environment in which people could constantly develop their own knowledge and skills". (Goshal & Sull, 1997). In the first stage, women attempted to emulate men by developing the same skills. This often meant the outward behaviours of being assertive, perhaps aggressive, dominating and directing. Their aim was to develop as women but with the male managerial attributes. In Thatcherian terms, this was the Iron Lady. (Adonis & Hames, 1994).

However, after having chosen that route and been successful, many women have looked back and reflected on the process. Some have concluded that the whole "game" of masculine management was not for them and that they did not have to play the game according to the rules of men. Some have now decided to manage or lead in a feminine way. One sign of the change is that women in managerial positions are more transformational than men in their leadership styles

In an early textbook on management, leadership was described as influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal. (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1959). Ten years later, Hersey & Blanchard defined leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation". They also stated that the leadership process was a function of the leader, the follower, and the situation. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Despite this trilogy, much leadership research continued in a singular vein.

A further definition suggested that:

'Leadership is a process of giving purpose or meaningful direction to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose.' (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p281).

Over the last 10 years, the differing viewpoints have prompted a new synthesis for leadership as distinct from management. In Britain under the Conservative Government there was a radical approach to political leadership that resulted in a different type of reaction from organisations. It was the type of response that involved an emphasis on efficiency and with a focusing on the core businesses and the associated downsizing of the human resource. (Pierson, 1994, 1996). The visionary and radical political approach, generally via policies was not matched by a comparable visionary management approach in organisations. After all the downsizing and the refocusing on core businesses, the steam from these management initiatives has now run out and the organisations are now looking at new ways of regeneration. People say that this renewal now needs leaders instead of managers. (Graham, 1993, Kanter, 1997; Morgan, 1998; and Nichols, 1996).

Looking back over the history of leadership, the impact of WWII raised the visibility of the “Great Man” approach to leadership. With Churchill, Eisenhower, Hitler, and Stalin in power, the consequence was a search for the personal characteristics or traits of the great men. Lanning’s recent list of the top 100 military commanders has caused annoyance in Britain. The rankings do not include Churchill because technically he was not a soldier. Washington is ranked as number 1, Eisenhower, number 18, and Hitler, number 14. (Lanning, 1997).

One of the difficulties with the great man approach to studying leadership was that although many people were appointed to the leadership role, the criterion for inclusion in a study was often success after the event. Furthermore, some who were successful initially were unsuccessful later on, so despite the assumptions that the leadership characteristics were enduring traits that were consistent over a range of situations, there was practical evidence that some of the great men also learned of the situational implications as they led while others did not.

In studies of leadership, the potential for promotion called “promotability” has been used as a criterion. This is an estimate of mobility to a higher hierarchical level. The assumption was that since these people had reached the upper echelons of their great organisations, they must not only be good leaders but also have different personal characteristics from those who are not promoted. The Centre for Creative Leadership (CCL) has collected the data from their leadership training programs. Personality measures such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the California Psychological Inventory, the Kirton Adaption - Innovation Inventory (KAI) and the Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation-Behaviour (FIRO-B), plus cognitive measures (Shipley, and Hidden Figures).

The data summaries show more similarities and virtually no differences between those at the top of the organisation and those at the middle or lower down. (Van Velsor, 1982).

As an extension of this approach via the hierarchy, other researchers at CCL have used the notion that at critical stages in the upward organisational movement of managers, some would reach their limits. The researchers used this “plateauing” in managers to explore differences by examining the attributes of those who had “arrived” versus those who had “stayed”. The research produced a list of the fatal flaws of those who stayed. The essence of these plateauing studies was that those who arrive and those who remain have many similarities. Both groups are bright (i.e. intelligent), have had a wide range of jobs, and were ambitious and achieving. But on approaching a higher level however, the initial strengths such as dominance and bias for action as advocated by Peters & Waterman (1972) become weaknesses. The authors conclude that at the higher level, people needed to be less abrupt, less abrasive and have a wide range of polished interpersonal skills to deal with the more complex internal and external relationships. Mc Call & Lombardo (1983). Since some managers in the research sample were unable to change their approach, this is also partial testimony to the enduring nature of their personalities or personal characteristics across situations.

2.2 The Study of Leadership Traits

Initially, the study of leadership was more a study of the traits of great people rather than of leaders. Long lists of attributes were produced. Stogdill (1948) pooled more than 100 studies of leadership qualities that were conducted between 1904 and 1947

and then again in an enlarged the study in 1974. The following traits were identified:

- 1) intelligence
- 2) alertness
- 3) self-confidence
- 4) initiative
- 5) persistence
- 6) insight
- 7) responsibility

Although the assumptions were that these were qualities possessed by leaders, Stogdill (1948) believed that leadership was a relationship between people in a social situation and therefore people do not become leaders simply because they have the traits. The traits must be relevant to the situation in which the leader was operating.

Twenty-five years later, Stogdill repeated the analysis with more than 150 studies that had been done since the last review. On this occasion ten characteristics were produced, some similar to the first review. (Stogdill, 1974). The traits were:

- 1) drive for responsibility and task completion
- 2) persistence in reaching goals
- 3) originality in solving problems
- 4) initiative in social situations
- 5) self-confidence
- 6) acceptance of the consequences of one's leadership decisions and actions
- 7) high stress resilience
- 8) high tolerance of frustration
- 9) ability to influence others behaviour
- 10) ability to structure social situations

With a different method, from a follower perspective, Lord, De Vader & Alliger (1986) found that characteristics like intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were key factors in subordinates' perceptions of leaders. These findings shifted the locus of leadership towards the recipient's experiences of their leaders so that the traits identified could be used across a wide range of situations to separate the leaders from the rest of the managers.

Bryman (1992) has also continued the trait approach in leadership while Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) persist with the view that whatever the situation, leaders are different from other people. In the final analysis, using the trait approach, the following constellations appear to stand out:

- 1) intelligence
- 2) self-confidence
- 3) determination
- 4) integrity
- 5) sociability

The trait approach implies that the leader can transcend the situation. In the series of BBC programmes with John Harvey Jones, the ex chairman of ICI, he was called "The Troubleshooter", and tackled single-handed, six or so troubled organisations from toy manufacturer, pottery, NHS hospital to car manufacturer. The managers and employees often reported that they were quite impressed by the rapidity with which Harvey Jones could understand the nature of the organisation and diagnose the problems.

It is fair to say however, that despite his pre-eminence, and his rapid diagnostic abilities, some managers thought that their situation was unique. For example Charles and Peter Morgan, of Morgan cars, disagreed with his advice and refused to take part in the follow up series, although Charles did start an MBA at Coventry. Other companies like Capella the fruit juice company listened to Harvey Jones's advice and went against it. They did appear in the follow up programme and explained that they were a family business and had a different perspective from an industrialist. Meanwhile the troubled toy manufacturer went bust and the follow-up programme returned to an empty factory. (Harvey-Jones & Massey, 1990).

So while the trait approach appears straightforward and concentrates on the quality of the leader, and identifies six or so distinguishable psychological characteristics, it downplays the situations. It also has a very fundamental weakness in that it does not recognise the process of acquiring respect and trust so that others will follow. The satisfactory interaction between leaders and followers is a precondition for leadership.

Harvey Jones had worked his way up to the top of ICI from the ranks of the middle managers. He had a history of being involved with colleagues and situations. He could talk to employees as people at their place of work. He also managed strategic issues in the boardroom as well as interacting with others. In coming to the organisations in the Trouble Shooter series, he may have been technically correct with his diagnoses and solution but without the established working relationships with the managers and the employees of these troubled organisations, there was no real trust or learning so his recommendations in general were not considered relevant.

The views were listened to, and discussed, and often attacked, but not often acted upon. In some cases, it appeared that the participant organisations wanted reassurance from a high profile person rather than an opportunity for the mutual exploration of the problems.

Since Stogdill had suggested in 1948 that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations, the research linking people to situations continued.

2.3 Leadership Styles

The Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University had continued the research and developed the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire. (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). In the end, the lengthy questionnaire was reduced to two variables:

- 1) Initiating Structure and
- 2) Consideration

Initiating structure referred to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between him and the members of the work group and to the establishment of well-defined channels of communication and methods of procedure. The variable of consideration referred to support, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of staff. (Halpin & Winer, 1957).

At about the same time, the Michigan studies (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Likert, 1961,1967) were taking place and identified two variables:

- 1) Employee orientation
- 2) Production orientation

Slightly later, the Managerial Grid of Blake & Mouton, (1964) was in essence the same concept with two variables:

- 1) Concern for production and
- 2) Concern for people.

Each axis of these two orthogonal variables was drawn as a grid divided in to 9 units.

The cardinal points were represented by co-ordinates.

For example 9,9 was described as “Team” or “Ideal Executive”, and 1,1 at the opposite diagonal was described as “Loner” or non-management. It was evident however that there was a time and place where each of the five main style or a style between these points would be the optimum style to use. The use of the word concern implied that while the thinking underlying the style would remain constant, that is the **concerns** for production and people, the actual behaviour could change to suit the situation. While Blake & McCauley (1991) and Misumi (1985) have suggested that 9,9 is generally the most effective style, Yukl (1994) concludes that the research in terms of outcomes is inconclusive. The strongest finding is that leaders who are considerate have satisfied followers!

The mixed findings from this research plus the views of managers themselves as the initiators of their own behaviours who believed that they do have to adapt their behaviour to the situation inevitably lead to the ensuing contingency approach.

In 1967, the situational variables emerged with a “contingency” model. (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler’s idea of a leader was that this was the person who was appointed, elected, or informally chosen to direct or co-ordinate the work of others in a group. Fiedler was specific and excluded social or therapy groups and confined his model to groups that performed formally assigned or specifically stated tasks.

The three major situational variables were:

- 1) Leader-member relations
- 2) Task structure
- 3) Position power (of the leader)

Leader-member relations refer to the attraction and loyalty the members have for the leader.

With task structure, if the task is specified well defined and clear and the outcome demonstrable, then the task structure is high. This is also the first approach to give due recognition to “position power”, although Stogdill (1948, 1950) recognized the dominant personality trait. The issue of sources of power was also later incorporated alongside the theory of situational leadership. With Fiedler’s approach, if the leader is a senior member of the organisation and can reward people then position power is high. As the leadership situation varies from high to low, there are then eight possible combinations of these three variables. The most favourable situation for influence on the group is one where:

- 1) The leader is well-liked, i.e., has good leader-member relations
- 2) He has a powerful position, i.e., high position power and
- 3) Is directing a well-defined task, i.e., high task structure.

Overall, the contingency approach has been a well-balanced and thorough approach to leadership. It does not expect leaders to be effective in every situation that they may have to deal with. Fiedler has produced a measure and a body of research also supports it for example, Peters, Harked & Pullman (1985); and Strube & Garcia (1981).

The method for determining for task motivation (low score) or relationship motivation (high score) is the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale. It has a sophisticated underlying rationale, based on the psychoanalytical concept of projection. By assessing someone else, that is the least preferred co-worker, the leader is indicating how much he is willing to relate to this person who may be getting in the way. Unfortunately, the rationale for this scale is difficult to explain to managers who complete the instrument.

A further problem with the scale is the instructions for completion. It is not clear whether one is selecting the least "liked" co-worker or the least preferred one and what the differences in interpretation and their implications might be.

The exclusion of social and therapeutic groups from the definition above is an issue that I will return to later. At this point however, it seems strange in the light of the leader-member relations dimension. Although Fiedler started off with two axes, he then drew them into a single continuum, thereby reducing the effectiveness of the model.

Some time later, but starting in 1989, Fiedler returned to the model with a variant. In this revised model, the concept of task structure was replaced by intelligence and experience, and a new concept of "stress contingency" was introduced. Instead of intelligence and experience being separate dimensions, he implied that they too were on a continuum. (Fiedler, 1995).

Fiedler concluded that a leader's intelligence and experience could often work against each other in solving problems. He implied that the presence of stress could result in lower performance for intelligent leaders.

They do however perform better in low stress situations. Experience however works in the opposite direction and increases performance in high stress situations but not in low stress situations.

Fiedler's recommendation was that stress ought to be reduced for leaders to enable them to use their intelligence! Sternberg (1985) with his triarchic theory of intelligence takes issue with the definition of intelligence obtained from intelligence tests and on the low correlation of intelligence with experience in Fiedler's latest approach. Sternberg's criticism of Fiedler is difficult to justify because he presents no data along side his theory.

Zaccaro (1995) takes issue with Fiedler's notion of stress reduction for senior managers. The fact is that many problems at the leader level are invariably ill-defined and need to be defined in order to be solved leads Zaccaro to imply that reducing stress in such an environment, as proposed by Fiedler is not really a viable option.

The final point however concerns problem solving and the ways the situations are perceived and eventually defined by their owners. Kirton (1976, 1980, 1990) has developed a theory of problem solving style and a measure of cognitive style. He has shown that people who he calls adaptors prefer structured situations, while innovators prefer unstructured ones. The implication, underlying Kirton's approach is that adaptors have a cognitive style and a preference that enables them to feel congruent with their structured situation while innovators have a different cognitive style that also enables them to feel congruent with their unstructured situation! Fiedler's notion that leaders feel more in control in structured situations would need further clarification.

A further modification of the original model from the Ohio Studies produced a tri-dimensional model. (Hersey & Blanchard,1969). Later on this became known as “Situational Leadership”. Reddin (1967) has also developed a broadly comparable approach with his Three Dimensional (3-D) Theory.

Despite the development of these models that take into account the leader’s interaction with the follower and the follower’s interaction with the task and the environment, the search for psychological characteristics of leaders continued.

The distinction between managers and leaders and between managerial processes and leadership processes was beginning to emerge but was yet to have its greatest impact. The subject matter of real leaders as the objects of study was only beginning.

2.4 Leadership as an Expression of Personality

Although the standard personality tests were designed to understand individual differences by identifying the fundamental characteristics underlying behaviours (usually by factor analysis), they have been extended in their original form, often with items that have clinical overtones to identify leadership potential. The criterion studies such as those by Cattell and colleagues are examples of this research. (Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970).

Personality tests were subsequently devised for organisational use, as distinct from general or clinical use by avoiding the clinical type of questions and using occupational language, and then factoring the answers. The Occupational Personality Questionnaires of Saville & Holdsworth (1977) are probably the best known in the UK.

With a diversity of personality theories and measures, the long-standing debate about the contribution of the competing theories has reached a point where 5 core factors are now the robust focus of contemporary approaches to personality.(Costa & McCrae, 1993). Costa & McCrae (1985) developed their own instrument called NEO with 5 dimensions:

Neuroticism

Extraversion

Openness to Experience

Agreeableness

Conscientiousness.

Hogan (1982) using his own version of the “Big 5” personality dimensions of

Costa & McCrae (1985) found that effective leaders to have the following personality characteristics:

1) Intellectance-high

2) Adjustment-high

3) Prudence-high

4) Ambition-high

5) Sociability-variable

6) Likeability-high

In the field of personality theory and measurement, despite the proliferation of apparently different theories and instruments, there has been a growing sense of agreement about the fundamental and minimal although comprehensive nature of the “Big 5” dimensions of personality.

According to Costa & McCrae (1993). "The five-factor model has provided a unified framework for trait research; it is the Christmas tree on which the findings of stability, inheritability, consensual validation, cross-cultural invariance, and predictive utility are hung like ornaments". (p302).

The Gordon Personal Profile was used as part of an assessment programme at IBM to distinguish people who perform at high and low levels on a variety of tasks. (Morrow & Stern, 1990).

Superior performers were high on:

- 1) Ascendancy
- 2) Sociability
- 3) Vigour
- 4) Original Thinking

Poor performers were people who were described as being low on participation and having little impact on group performance. They also scored higher on Cautiousness.

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) was developed by Harrison Gough. (Gough,1957). Scales have been added as Gough has observed the behaviour of people and become concerned about some "moral" issues in society. These are called "folk" scales.

Although, the primary scales of the CPI were designed for people in general rather than leaders in particular, Gough has researched the use of the CPI scales in the identification of leaders and the prediction of leadership behaviours. Gough used criterion studies to differentiate higher and lower ratings of leadership. His samples were from husbands and wives, students and cadets. The criterion levels were determined by asking "significant others" for their assessment of the person's leadership.

Leadership criteria were correlated with the following CPI scales:

- 1) Dominance
- 2) Capacity for Status
- 3) Sociability
- 4) Social Presence
- 5) Self-Acceptance
- 6) Independence
- 7) Empathy

and with the following at a lower level:

- 8) Achievement Motivation
- 9) Intellectual Functioning
- 10) Social Poise
- 11) Self-Assurance

The CPI has been condensed to higher levels of abstraction in which two vectors for interpersonal orientation and normative preferences interact to form four life styles. Leaders from all settings (in the USA) tend to be characterised by the box defined as “interpersonal involvement and pro-normative beliefs”. This leadership style may be appropriate for a steady-state organisation, however where change and innovation are needed, people from the box described as “interpersonal involvement and normative skepticism” will often the assume leadership role. (Gough, 1990).

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The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a typological measure of personality. It is strictly a measure of preference rather than of actual behaviours. For example question 1 asks when you somewhere for the day. Would you rather

- a) plan or
- b) just go. (Myers Briggs Form G)

The data showed that people in higher levels of management (although not necessarily leaders) are shown to be in the middle on the scale for Extraversion vs-Introversion but more “sensing”, that is, factual in dealing with issues. On the third scale of Thinking vs Feeling, they are more “thinking”, that is, rational in their decision making and more “judging” on the fourth scale, that is, wanting certainty in their decisions.

It is worth pointing out at this stage that the problem solving style inventory, the KAI and Myers-Briggs correlations for a wider population, do not follow the same pattern as for the senior managers above. The relationships for MBTI and KAI are Sensing (-0.62), Intuition (+0.50, approximately), and on the Judgment-Perception scale (+0.50, approximately). (Kirton, 1987). People who have preference for “Intuition” and making decisions according to personal preferences or their own individual rationality, that is “Feelings” and who are supposed to value people are therefore under-represented in these leadership groups (McCauley, 1990). Using a translation of the MBTI, (Osborn and Osborn, 1990) found that Latin American managers were more “Extraverted” and more “Feeling” than their American counterparts. This is a result that one would probably expect from stereotyping.

2.5 Leadership and Interactions with Task and/or Followers

Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose. Jacob & Jaques (1990), p281. In defining jobs, Stewart, (1982) said there are three parts of any job:

- 1) Demands- things that must be done
- 2) Choices- things that are optional either in the tasks or one's approach to them
- 3) Constraints- things that must not be done.

Although the leadership process is often implicitly assumed to be top-down, the situation in modern organisations may be different. Many tasks, especially those defined as problem solving tasks, have technical issues embedded in them. They cannot be solved without a certain level of knowledge. It is often the case that the leader is less knowledgeable than the people doing the task.

As long ago as the 60's, Victor Thompson (1961) wrote: "Authority is centralised, but ability is inherently decentralised, because it comes from practice and training rather than definition. Whereas the boss retains his rights to make decisions, he has less and less ability to do so because of the advance of science and technology". (p47).

In modern organisations, where the pyramid has flattened, status differentials have decreased and expertise is higher in the professional employee than the manager, followers are an integral part of the leadership process. (Hollander, 1986; Lord & Maher, 1989 ;Hersey & Blanchard, 1969: Vroom & Yetton, 1973; and Reddin, 1967).

In another model of leadership, Vroom & Yetton (1973) describe the leadership process via decision-making in solving problems. In this model, two basic questions have to be answered:

- 1) is there a right or wrong answer to the problem? (which they "Quality")
- 2) do people need to be involved in the problem solving process for implementation?
(which they call "Acceptance")

A decision tree, with decision points, enables the "leader" and hopefully the follower! to see and understand the path from the answers to these questions to one of four possible leadership processes;

- 1) leader decides alone
- 2) leader decides with follower's help
- 3) leader decides with group's help
- 4) leader and group decide together, that is mutual decision-making

The Vroom and Yetton approach has often been viewed by practicing managers as mechanistic.

There is little room in the model for a corporate or individual management philosophy and this author has found that managers follow the branches of the decision tree to arrive at a recommended process but if it does not agree with their philosophy of participation, they over-ride it with their chosen style. In other words, subordinate acceptance of a leader's decisions and the availability of information is a moderator in the Vroom-Yetton leadership process. (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom, 1984; Vroom & Jago, 1978; and Vroom & Jago, 1988).

The model does however slow down the decision making process and make managers think about the issues involved, particularly the issue of rationality and the separate issue of participation. The decision tree also enables some form of transparency.

A similar problem arises in the Situational Model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) where participation is also an issue. Here too, the leader has to treat each person or group differently depending on the nature of the problem to be solved. For each task he or she has to ask:

- 1) Do they have the knowledge and skill to do the task to the standard required?
- 2) Are they motivated or willing to do this?

The responses to these questions are placed in one of four categories labeled maturity or “readiness” levels and reflected back so that the leader can choose the one appropriate style from the four presented (Telling, Selling, Encouraging, and Delegating). A mismatch, between the follower’s readiness and the leaders behaviours as specified by the theory may lead to “ineffectiveness”. This criterion of “effectiveness”, the third dimension, is not in terms of actual outcome but in terms of likely outcome. It is based on the theoretical match between the leader’s style and the follower’s “readiness”.

For example, telling followers what to do when they are already accomplished and motivated is a waste of breath. It may also annoy them. This would be rated as a mismatch and an ineffective style. Leaving them alone to fend for themselves when they have neither the capability nor the motivation to do the task would also be rated as “ineffective” and irresponsible! In examining, moderators, mediators and substitutes for leadership, the high level of task maturity where the follower could perform the task without leadership is an example of a leadership substitute. (Howell, Dorfman & Kerr, 1986).

While the lineage from the Ohio Studies via Blake & Mouton, Fiedler, and Reddin to the situational leadership model is evident, Hersey's original interest was with parents as leaders and children as followers. Because the parents are sometimes followers, with the children as leaders, he was interested in the notion of leadership as a **process**, operating separately from hierarchy, and the recipients, be they subordinates, colleagues, or bosses or outside contractors all of whom can be described as followers.

This concept has even been called partnership, with the notions of managers and subordinates as partners for the organisation, as for example in an organisation like Semco. (Semler, 1990; Sagawa & Segal, 1999). However, despite the possibility of a partnership type of relationship between leader and follower, the leader's sources of power from rudimentary force to the more sophisticated expertise and skill are recognized in the theory.

The major problem with situational leadership however has been with the definitions of process and style as well as the measurement of subordinate characteristics as individuals or group members.

The initial definitions of followers were in terms of "maturity" which was further divided into job maturity to do the task, and psychological maturity to persist and be independent. The latest version of this concept of maturity is now called "readiness". The four levels of follower classification, and the level diagnosed for the followers, prescribes one of the four styles for the leader that will be most "effective".

In a study with school teachers and their principals construed as leaders, the prescriptions from the model were followed. For new teachers who were judged by the principals to be low readiness or maturity, the prescribed style of "telling", that is providing information on what to do, etc, produced more satisfaction and better

performance than the other styles. The model was not supported however for teachers with moderate levels of maturity, on the followers scale where the recommended leadership style would be coaching, or encouraging. (Vecchio, 1987). Blanchard, Zigarmi & Zigarmi (1993) in their 25-year review of situational leadership agree that the scales and the concepts of follower characteristics needs further research.

A final concern is with the items in the situational leadership style questionnaires. Twelve situations are presented. Four options are presented for each situation. The options are thinly disguised versions of the four leadership styles. The respondent is asked to choose one only! While the theory is moderately extensive, the measures are fairly transparent, and the choices are limited to one of the four situational styles for each situation. Overall, the instruments are educational tools rather than robust and reliable measures.

2.6 From Management To Leadership

Recent research has seen an interest in what has variously been called charismatic, inspirational, or visionary leadership. (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bass, 1985, Tichy & Devanna, 1990.).

In response to global economic conditions, managers have often responded with caution and pessimism. Their decisions have often resulted in downsizing and the sale of parts of organisations (a sort of organisational emigration or deportation) rather than the development of them. Such managers have been viewed as “rentiers, living off their companies past legacy like dissolute heirs squandering the family fortune.” (Goshal & Sull, 1997).

Many organisations can go no further with downsizing as they have outsourced most functions and reduced the infrastructure to a skeleton. They are almost virtual organisations. According to Bennis (1989), Kanter (1992, 1997) and Drucker (2002), new leadership processes are required. Some managers have been unable to change their approach to include a more visionary type of style.

From a political science perspective, Burns developed the notion of “transformational” leader as a person who enriches the outlook and behaviour of followers. (Burns, 1978). With this political perspective, Burns’ leaders were people who understood the motives and needs of the followers and formed overlapping longer-term goals. This type of leadership is powerful not because of force or position power, but because it recognises the nature of both the leaders and the followers needs and attempts to be congruent with them. In a way it is democratic leadership. In the 90’s these ideas were incorporated in children’s toys. A toy initially presenting itself as a car could by manipulation be converted into something completely different like an animal for example.

Others have developed Burns’ notion of the leader as a transforming leader for example, Bass (1985) and Bennis & Nanus (1985). The other and more mundane but still important approach of operational leadership or “transactional” along with the style of *laissez-faire* are also included in the models.

A key aspect of the notion underlying transformational leadership is the need to have a longer-term perspective. The purpose or vision is all about what opportunities might be available to the organisation if it is really stretched. This long-term purpose is what Hamel called “Strategic Intent”. (Prahalad & Hamel, 1989).

The strategic intent of an organisation may go beyond the lifetime of its members. It serves as a reminder as to what is potentially possible with creative effort. It can also give continuous focus and direction to the members. Vision is in the future and objectives are for the present but the whole idea of this approach is to attempt to bring the future into the present. In so doing, structures and people can be alerted to the possibilities for the future while still working in the present.

In a similar vein to Burns; House (1977) proposed a theory of charismatic leadership. Charismatic leaders act in ways which are unique to them and which have very personal effects on their followers. Princess Diana was said to be “charismatic”. She exuded beauty, charm and grace. She also had millions of willing followers.

The Oxford English Dictionary defines charisma as:

- a) the ability to inspire followers with devotion and enthusiasm
- b) an attractive aura; great charm
- c) a divinely conferred power or talent (Swannell, 1992, p169).

House (1977) identified four behaviours of charismatic leaders:

- 1) they are strong role models of beliefs and values
- 2) they demonstrate their competence
- 3) they promulgate goals with moral ideals
- 4) they communicate high expectations with an attitude that their followers can achieve these high expectations

The likely effects on the followers are:

- 1) trust in the leader
- 2) a belief in their similarity, and affection for the leader

3) emotional involvement with the leader

4) raised goals and enhanced self-confidence

The fourth item is of interest to organisational performance. Research in psychophysiology in comparing people who set goals with those who do not, indicates that the goal setting process releases stimulants to action. (Frankenhaeuser & Johansson, 1986). Actions following goals, if completed or rewarded will then be followed by pleasant feelings (Bryan & Locke, 1967; Latham, Mitchell, & Dossett, 1978; Locke & Latham, 1984; and Locke, Motowildo, & Bobco, 1986).

The model, which implements the concepts of Strategic Leadership and Operational Leadership as well as non-leadership was formulated by Avolio, Bass, & Jung; (1995). The model is an additive one. It took the basic building block for transactional leadership from the previous authors such as Blake & Mouton; Reddin; Fiedler; Hersey & Blanchard and added the building block for transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership alone produced the “expected” or reasonable or traditional outcomes from followers but when the transformational component was added to it, the result was superior performance, or “performance beyond expectations”.

The leadership model has the following facets (not factors):

1) Transformational Leadership

1.1) Charisma

1.2) Individualised Consideration

1.3) Intellectual Stimulation

1.4) Inspirational Leadership

2) Transactional Leadership

2.1) Contingent Reward

a) Rewards

b) Promises

3) Transactional Leadership

3.1) Management-by-exception

a) Active

b) Passive

4) Non-Leadership

4.1) Laissez-Faire

The additive model has also been described as a single continuum as follows:

Laissez-Faire-----Transactional-----Transformational

The facets in detail:

Transformational Leadership

1) Charisma.

These leaders are role models who have high standards of moral conduct, and who are conscientious. They are respected and trusted. They provide a sense of purpose or a mission.

2) Individualised Consideration

These leaders are in touch with the needs of their followers. They listen and respond. They act as coaches and advisors

3) Intellectual Stimulation

This style both challenges and supports ways of thinking. It challenges followers

beliefs but it also encourages people who try new and novel approaches to problems

4) Inspirational Leadership

Communicating high expectations to followers actually works according to Locke, & Latham, (op cit). This inspirational approach does this by lifting the horizon and encouraging team members to a goal that is both higher and larger than their own.

In contrast, Transactional leadership involves giving and receiving. The leader gives a clear indication of what is required within the framework and those followers who successfully carry out what is required are rewarded. (Deets & Moreno, 1986). In the past it might have been called operational leadership or management. While the components of transactional leadership are personalised and individualised, this form is much more instrumental in its approach to people. The specific components are:

Transactional Leadership

- 1) Contingent Reward. Describes the reinforcement to the follower's behaviours with:
(a) tangible benefits like money, or (b) the promise to be included in a reward system
- 2) Management-By-Exception is the managerial equivalent of the engineering control mechanism.

In the active form, (a) the correction is immediate. In the passive form, (b) the correction comes after a deviation from the norm.

Non-Leadership (Laissez-Faire)

Laissez faire however is unlikely to be a response from the subjects in many USA studies. The French translation means to leave alone or not to be bothered. An example of one of the 6 items on this scale is "However I do my job is OK with him/her". Avolio, Bass & Jung (1995). American researchers such as Bass and

colleagues have ready access to military academies where one of the major aims is to develop the leaders for the future where there is a strong undercurrent that the leadership skills can be taught or developed.

In a study of senior US Army Officers and industrial leaders, correlations between the transactional style of contingent reward and subordinate effectiveness, and subordinate satisfaction ranged from 0.4 to 0.5 as judged by the followers. In contrast, those leaders who were described as Transformational received ratings that produced higher correlations from 0.6 to 0.7. (Bass, 1985 and Waldman, Bass & Einstein, 1986).

Transformational leadership in these projects was observed to be when leaders acted to broaden and elevate the interests of followers. It was for the good of the group rather than the individual. It aimed to raise their confidence and produce heightened levels of motivation and extra effort. This was confirmed by Bass (1985); Avolio & Bass (1988) and Bass & Avolio (1996).

The findings however are based on the judgments of the leaders by their colleagues and subordinates. In a study by Hater & Bass, (1988), leaders were evaluated by their bosses in addition to the others named above. The managers described as transformational also received higher performance ratings from their bosses.

The research on transformational leadership reported above has described the dynamics from the perspective of the average member of the group. It is evident however that leadership processes may be more complex and involve both the group and the individual. The approach of Dansreau, Alutto and Yammarino (1984) looked at leadership behaviours from an individual perspective as well as a group level of analysis.

In a longitudinal study of US Naval Academy graduates, (Yammarino & Bass, 1990), used a modified form of the earlier leadership measure to create nine leadership scales, similar to those described above. In addition, their questionnaire contained three outcome measures:

- 1) Extra effort by subordinates
- 2) Satisfaction of subordinates
- 3) Effectiveness

Data was collected after graduation as officers and while on active duty, and performance measures were collected from the superiors of the officer cadets.

These were merged into two major measures:

- 1) a recommendation for early promotion
- 2) a performance evaluation based on mission achievement, the integration of personnel and the completion of assigned tasks

The most recent recommendation for promotion was also used, that is

- 3) promotion recommendation

The results showed that the outcome of Extra Effort was related to many of the MLQ styles with a correlation co-efficient greater than 0.14, (p less than 0.05). It is now much clearer that the process of influence is more like motivation rather than the development of a vision.

Blinkhorn & Johnson (1990) highlight the insignificance of low correlation coefficients in large matrices (particularly from measures of personality) so if 0.30 is used as the minimum appropriate level there is no such relationship.

Effectiveness in the above study however was related (at r above 0.30) to:

- 1) Transformational Leadership
- 1.1) Charisma

1.2) Individualised Consideration

1.3) Intellectual Stimulation

1.4) Inspirational Leadership

and in the next set

2) Transactional Leadership

2.1) Contingent Promises

2.2) Contingent Rewards

2.3) Management-by-Exception (Active)

That is, the facets except Management-by-Exception (Passive)

Satisfaction was related to exactly the same leadership styles as above at r above 0.30. The three outcomes were all negatively related to Non-Leadership (Laissez-Faire), that is, at $r = -0.30$.

Even though a new version of the MLQ was used in the above study, the authors concluded that the relationship between the leadership measures (as rated by subordinates) and performance measures (that is, the consequences as rated by superiors) were consistent with previous research (Hater & Bass, 1988).

In studying the correlation matrix (between leadership styles and the performance measures), reproduced here as Table 2.2, there is a question as to why so many apparently different leadership styles, correlate with the three outcome measures and show so little apparent selectivity or discrimination.

While the Bass model implies that transformational leadership acts like a steering wheel or guidance system over and above the transactional facets, the individual elements of 1) charisma, 2) individualised consideration, 3) intellectual stimulation, and 4) inspirational leadership and the assessment of their components implies individual differences but instead of showing differential effects on the outcomes, all but one correlates highly with the outcome measures.

Perhaps the outcomes and the performance measures, for example “extra effort”, and “effectiveness” are in themselves, too broad and not fine enough to tease out selective relationships with each component of style.

The measures of extra effort and effectiveness however are the managerial equivalents of assessing engine performance by brute horsepower.

The facets of transformational leadership might not be acting as a steering wheel but instead be acting as a turbo-charger to encourage extra effort. In other words, the concept is identical to motivation. Other outcome measures, more suitable for people such as Drucker’s “knowledge workers” might be better.

Outcomes such as producing creative solutions to problems, innovative implementation of solutions, empowering subordinates to lead projects, teamwork, or fostering unity plus respecting individual differences would be realistic outcomes for many commercial organisations, and perhaps for the military as well, particularly officers.

In Britain, ‘extra effort’ by employees and managers has been seen in a range of organisations from those that are UK-based to global ones according to Adonis & Hames (1994) and Guest (1990).

More recent reports however, for example Kanter (2001) says that younger professional people today aim to work smarter, not harder. One interpretation of the work harder ethic by the psychoanalysts is that the concern for extra effort or commitment was a requirement of senior management to shore up their tottering defenses of hierarchical authority. This authority flies in the face of evidence from the service industries and the knowledge organisations where a lot of the power is close to the people who do the actual tasks.

As Miller (1993) wrote 'Now there is much pressure on him as there has been on the rest to be compliant in order to survive, except that he has to go beyond that and display energy, enthusiasm, and commitment that he does not necessarily feel.' (p310).

There is also the problem concerning the separation of the individual leadership facets into their two categories of

- 1) transformational and
- 2) transactional.

The correlation matrix of Yammarino & Bass (1990), table 2.2 shows that the cluster of the transformational items has a strong positive link with two of the transactional components named as 1) Contingent rewards for promises (LCP), and 2) Contingent rewards for rewards (LCR). In this study, contingent rewards, is strongly linked to individualised consideration at $r=0.80$ in matrix for the Navy Fleet study. It is possible, that for this sample, contingent reward is interpreted by the recipient as a sign of individual consideration, rather than the monetary nature of the reward itself.

Table 2.2 Correlation Matrix from Yammarino & Bass (showing overlaps)

Leadership Measure	LCH	LIC	LIS	LIL	LCP	LCR	LMA	LMP	LLF	CEE	CEF
TRANSFORMATIONAL											
Charisma (LCH)	X										
Individualized Consideration (LIC)	80	X									
Intellectual Stimulation (LIS)	78	71	X								
Inspirational Leadership (LIL)	84	83	83	X							
TRANSACTIONAL											
Contingent Rewards P (LCP)	61	62	60	67	X						
Contingent Rewards R (LCR)	72	80	65	78	61	X					
Mgmt-by-Exception A (LMA)	46	41	62	52	39	42	X				
Mgmt-by-Exception P (LMP)	14	18	10	17	16	16	16	X			
NON-LEADERSHIP											
Laissez-Faire (LLF)	-57	-54	-67	-56	-33	-45	-57	15	X		
OUTCOMES											
Extra Effort (CEE)	17	27	24	22	04	22	25	03	-35	X	
Effectiveness (CEF)	87	73	74	79	48	66	50	11	-60	27	X
Satisfaction (CST)	89	81	73	82	53	72	44	19	-55	22	86
Note: N=186, r>14, p<.05 r>19, p<.01											

From Yammarino.F.J. & Bass.B.M. (1990) , p163

Intercorrelations Among MLQ Leadership and Outcome Measures Based on 793 Subordinates' Averaged Responses: Navy Fleet

Further, a hierarchical cluster analysis of the individual facets of the leadership components of correlation matrix reproduced above shows the following linkages, represented by average correlations:

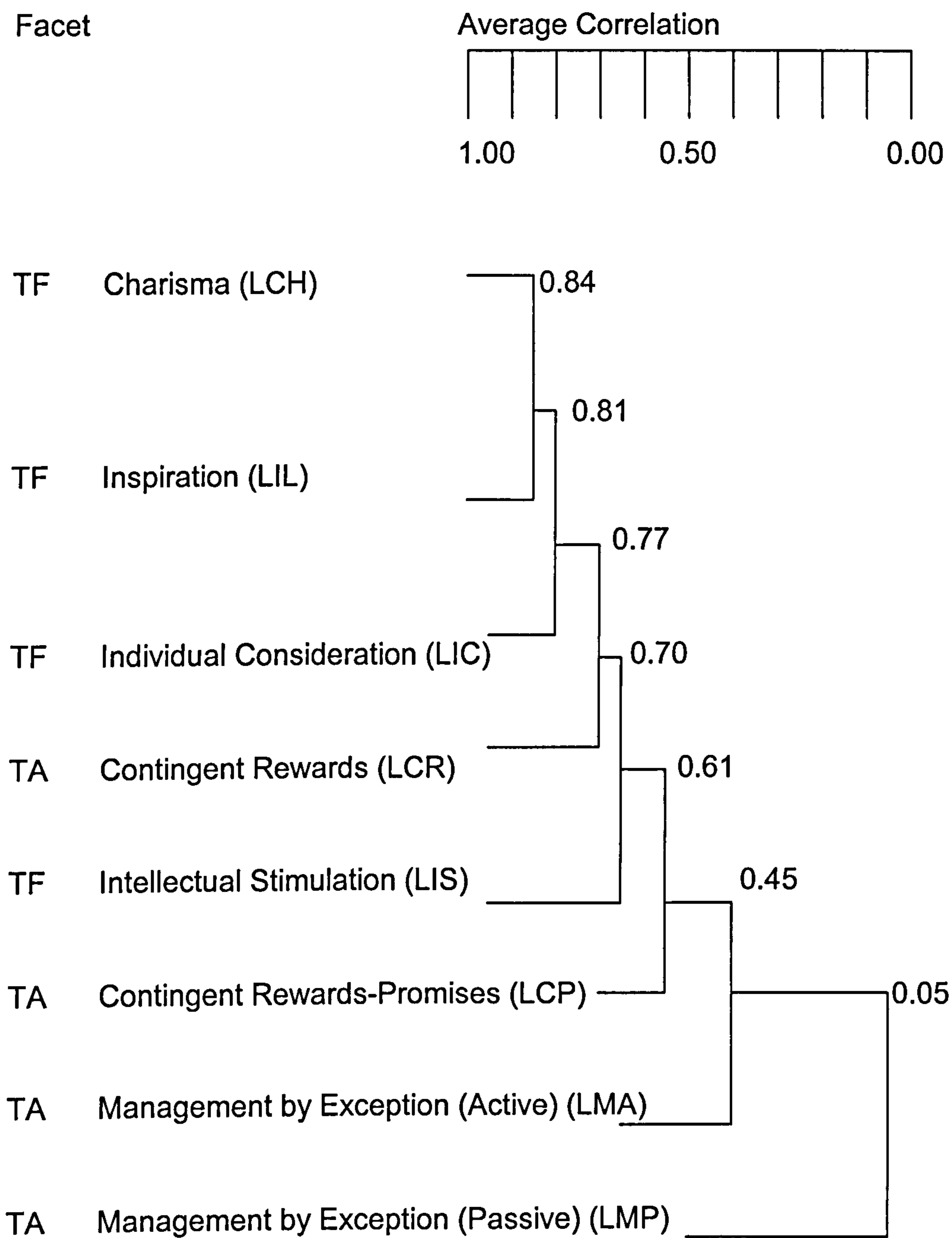
Two transformational facets LCH and LIL are linked at 0.84.

This pair (LCH & LIL) are then linked to another transformational facet LIC at 0.81.

These 3, ((LCH & LIL) & LIC) are then linked to LCR at 0.77 and it is here that the first 3 facets of transformational Leadership are joined by a facet (LCR, Leadership by contingent rewards, actual) from the transactional list. The analysis continues with another transformational facet linked in to the preceding cluster at 0.70. LIS comes in at 0.70, followed by LCP at 0.61, LMA at 0.45 and then there is a large gap until LMP is linked at 0.05, implying that it is the separate facet not linked to the preceding clusters. This last facet LMP, Management by Exception (Passive) is possibly the only transactional component since all the others appear to be closely associated with the transformational facets? A similar conclusion was obtained by Macit (1997) but after he had completed his research with the Bass MLQ. Macit suggested that the Transactional scale of the MLQ (Short form) needed further development.

The data is displayed below from a hierarchical cluster analysis.

Figure 2.3 Dendrogram using average correlations on MLQ



TF = Transformational Facet

TA = Transactional Facet

Data from Yammarino & Bass (1990) P163.

Intercorrelations among MLQ Leadership and Outcome Measures based on 793 subordinates average responses, Navy fleet.

Blinkhorn and Johnson (op cit.) in their article on “desperate measures” have indicated how difficult it is for the proponents of personality tests to get correlations between the factors and outcomes exceeding 0.30. And while there is some confusion as to whether or not the transformational leadership styles are personality traits (Bryman, 1992), the high correlations are distinctive.

It might be possible that the relatively high correlations, for example with the three outcome measures, are an artifact of the methodology. If the measurements had high visibility and were made at the same time as the outcomes had been produced, the question arises as to whether or not this research intervention, with all the associated special attention, constitutes a reward in itself? The so-called Hawthorne effect. (Mayo, 1945).

The study of implicit leadership theories is of importance. (Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977). Although the instrument used was not the MLQ, but the Ohio one, the underlying principle is the issue. Rush et al. showed that when subordinates were asked to rate an imaginary leader, the subordinates produced ratings that were a good approximation to the ratings for the real leaders. Rush interpreted this data as evidence that people have their own theory that overrides what they are asked to do, that is describe or rate a specific person. If however, their real leader was a significant person in their life, he or she might have been the person they imagined.

At this stage, transformational leadership is probably a concept offering an explanation for economic growth in the 90's. In addition to the people named above, others have studied transformational leadership or the underlying factors.

Tichy & Devanna (1986), also studied transformational approaches. Then there was charismatic leadership (House, 1977), visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988), and leadership as distinct from management, (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and Kotter (1990). Kanter has a string of titles following similar themes from “When Giants Learn to Dance”, 1990; “Frontiers of Management”, 1997, to “Evolve: Succeeding in the Digital Culture of Tomorrow”, 2001.

The whole notion of transformational leadership supports the ideas of mega-growth in organisations. It engages the concept of “strategic intent” as proposed by Prahalad & Hamel (1989). These authors suggest that people and organisations are truly creative in the widest sense when they are stretched well beyond their normal boundaries with limited resources.

While vision is a key element of this approach to leadership for growth, it is not a clear and distinct facet in the model of Avolio & Bass (1988) and Bass (1985), nor is there a clear definition of what vision is in the literature. The common aspect of vision is concern with the future or the long term, but for Conger (1999) it is an ideal state in terms of goals, while Boal & Bryson (1988) see the view of the future in terms of values and identity while Strange & Mumford (2002) see vision as the ways people should behave to achieve the future ideal state.

But as a warning, vision is not enough in itself. (Cotter, 1990). More recently Hamel (2000) stated that “Enron has an incredible track record of creating bold new businesses built on radical new business models. Now, Enron has achieved this almost magical mix of entrepreneurship inside with the ability to leverage enormous scale and discipline to get things done.” (p2). A different view is given after the collapse where Thomas Frank (2002) describes Hamel (2000) leading the revolution as “Enronphilia”.(p1).

Although it is not clear as to whether or not the transformational elements are personality traits (Bryman, 1992), it will be argued later from the skewed shape of the distributions of the data in the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire manual (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995) that the facets of the leadership behaviours are more like competencies. As such, the behaviours can be learned and are therefore amenable to training so that the distributions after learning will no longer be normal.

In another military study, this time by Clover, (1990), subordinates were asked to judge their superiors on the MLQ. It was found that “upper” performing squadrons rated their officers in charge significantly higher ($p=0.001$) than “lower” performing squadrons on both overall transformational leadership and each of the components of:

- 1) Charisma
- 2) Individualised Consideration
- 3) Intellectual Stimulation
- 4) Inspiration

The F value for perception of the Officer-in-Charge was the highest of all ($p=0.001$).

Clover also describes some qualitative differences between the Transformational and the Transactional leaders obtained by interviews. With Transactional leaders, the comments from subordinates mentioned their feelings of:

- 1) Frustration
- 2) Morale (decreased)
- 3) Trust (lack of)

Clover mentions however that the data from the research and the feelings expressed at interviews show a different picture concerning both transformational as well as non-transformational leaders.

“The picture and feelings are quite different, literally opposite, when dealing with comments about perceived non-transformational leaders. Comments about these officers deal with such things as experienced frustration, decreased morale, perceived lack of integrity, self-serving behaviours, lack of trust, inequity, poor interpersonal skills lack of insight into others and harsh arbitrary judgments. Needless to say, none of the rational reactions to leadership. Rather they represent emotional reactions to role models.” Clover (1990), p182 in Clark & Clark (1990).

Much of the preceding discussion of transformational leadership has an underlying theme that organisational behaviours, at least on the part of leaders ought to be rational. While Clover was aware of the feelings expressed by the subordinates in his study most of our research and interventions are still survey-based, at least at the beginning. Others however take a different view. Psychoanalysts such as Tavistock staff would have seen emotionality and irrationality as real issues in the study of leadership. For psychoanalysts, emotionality is very much at the core of their approach to group dynamics and leadership.

The subordinate’s feelings of frustration, lack of trust and low morale that Clover describes from the interviews are possible signs of what Bion (1961) called “basic assumptions”. The starting point for this approach however, is to switch to a psychoanalytical approach in the organisational dynamics.

2.7 Leadership, Work and Social/Emotional Issues

The psychoanalytic approach to groups and leadership is based on the notions from Kleinian theory and from group observation. The proposition is that groups have two modes of operation:

1) a work mode

2) a social / emotional mode

When the group is responding to a demand from the world outside itself then it is in the work mode. That is producing ideas, goods or services for an internal or external customer. In contrast, when it is concerned with itself as a group entity, for example, group status, prestige, or survival then it is likely to be thinking and behaving in the social/emotional mode. These views on these emotional modes are usually hypotheses to be explored in real groups.

The research was done in real groups in organisations and at events like the 10-day conferences on leadership conducted by the Tavistock Institute. (Menzies, 1970; Miller, 1989). The active method of research was direct participation in the group as an observer, combined with interpretation of the group process and intervention with succinct statements at the group level. Questionnaires did not appear to be used for data collection, although there was no doubt, a model, an underlying structure and mental list as to what to look for, or sense and feel. (Bion, 1961). While the work mode of the group was open for all to see, the social/emotional workings were often underground and were inferred by the professional observer in the tradition of the psychoanalytic method of Klein. (Bion, 1961).

To accelerate the emergence of social / emotional issues, in the events such as the conferences or training courses, many of the usual structural features of commercial operating organisations such as the roles and the hierarchy are not defined for the event. The training programme is set up with broad boundaries to define the limits, but no clear tasks, roles or agenda. Participants are not formally introduced to each other at the beginning. The uncertainty and anxiety produced by the gaps in

these social conventions, and the lower task structure, initially leads to social/emotional behaviours and some unconscious defenses to it. The consultant's interventions are designed to invite the group to explore these issues with the aid of rationality, and then move the development of the group upward.

The process of handling the consultant's intervention is analogous to the analytical view on the development of thought in babies. Having been separated from the mother, the baby while waiting for her hoped return, ruminates over the issue and develops thought processes. (Winnicott, 1965).

The relevance to real organisations is that social/emotional behaviour is also present, but is dormant or unconscious and often masked by the tasks, the organisation structure and the rituals of organisational life.

The emotional issues in the group imply that while people were not working on the task, the members will have unarticulated issues with the leader (dependency to counter-dependency) and with the task (fight versus flight) and unconscious liaisons with other members (either male or female) called "pairing". These thought patterns and attitudes are more than quirks of the individual; they are a set of views, which are shared, often unconsciously, by the group members via a human communication process like osmosis.

If the issue was dependency, then the shared thoughts are that the leader is more powerful or more expert, so he can solve the problem-on his own, not with us. In counter-dependency, the group cannot come to terms with the leaders power, so they devalue the leaders potential contributions or ignore them altogether. If it is flight, the problem is too difficult for mere mortals, so best avoid it. If it is pairing, the group has high hopes that two people in the group will solve the problem by birth of a new idea.

The group consultant's view is that by understanding and coping with these human-emotional processes, the individuals and the group are able to work with each other and engage the tasks in a mature fashion. The energy tied up in the defenses is freed for productive work on the task. But as Jaques (1976) wrote: "It is not my intention to suggest that social tension and mistrust are merely psycho-pathological phenomena, and that if everyone were psychoanalysed then social disruption and destructive conflict would disappear. However free from psychological suspicion the members of society might be, they will have to discover how to design their social institutions to enable constructiveness to express itself".

Rice summed up the Tavistock approach to leadership at one of the Group conferences: "Mature work groups expect their leaders to mobilize the appropriate assumption for task performance. If the appropriate assumption is dependent, the leader has to be dependable but realistic; if pairing, potent, but with due regard to the limitations of his potency; if fight, constructively aggressive, brave but not foolhardy; if flight, able to extricate the group from a difficult situation, but no coward; nor must he expect to be able to solve all the group's problems in the process of extrication". (Rice 1975, p27).

This approach to organisations has almost a cult following. Organisations that are regular users return for repeats and insist that their new members should at least have the same sort of experience in an open conference.

Research on these groups in organisations and their basic assumptions that has not been done in the group psychoanalytic vogue is limited. In the parallel field of psychotherapy, Eysenck's (1952) meta-analysis of others published work showed

that psychotherapies such as psychoanalysis, produced a 30 % success rate.

More recent research, for example, the survey of US consumer's experiences with a range of psychotherapies (Seligman, 1996) shows much more satisfaction than reported in the earlier studies although, the research methodology of the survey, conducted without control groups for example, has been criticised.

Miller's (1993) book offers some success stories, some partial success stories and some failures for the psychoanalytical approach in a range of organisational settings. For example, a church, an airline, a hospital, and at the Maze prison in Northern Ireland. The starting point for the leader according to the psychoanalytic approach would be to participate in the group engage in process observation, determine the group's mode of operation that is, task or social/emotional and if the latter interpret the sub-modality within that. He/she then has to adopt the appropriate leadership behaviours. If the primary aim of the group were to solve the customer's problem, and not engage in therapeutic analysis for personal awareness, then the normal technical problem-solving sequence would be followed.

Kets de Vries, who did clinical training at the Canadian Institute of Psychoanalysis has studied "neurotic" organisations and acted as a consultant to them. (Kets de Vries, 1984). This level of analysis (neuroticism) is somewhere between the normal and the pathological. For Kets de Vries, the fantasies and the worldviews of the top executives, pave the royal road to understanding their organisations. For analysts of this persuasion, the fantasies are anything but fleeting and superficial dreams.

Instead they are enduring, powerful and covert psychological processes that can determine all key parameters of the organisation from the culture, to the climate, as well as the approved leadership styles, plus the relationships with people both inside and outside the organisation.

Despite the extensive findings from therapeutic situations, Kets de Vries is amazed why so little of these issues and so few of the findings have been transferred to the managerial literature on organisations. Although the following quotation is lengthy, it is worthy of inclusion because it is in the language of the analyst and encapsulates the assumptions and the microscope they might use with both individuals and organisations.

“Psychoanalytic object-relations stress that interpersonal interactions as well as instinctual needs are central in the development of personality.

Child observation reveals that behaviour is determined by an individual’s mental world, populated by enduring representations of ones self and others. These develop through the process of maturation and human interaction and become encoded as stable and directive forces.

The mental representations become organising units, enabling the individual to perceive, interpret, and react to her environment in a meaningful way. Instinctual needs are typically linked to these mental representations and are transformed into wishes of various kinds, which become articulated through “fantasies”. Fantasies can be viewed as original rudimentary schemata that evolve in complexity, as scripts (scenarios) of organised scenes that are capable of dramatization. The dominant fantasies of an individual are the scenes that prevail in his “private theatre” in his subjective world. They are the building blocks making for particular neurotic styles and are thereby determinants of enduring behaviours”. (Kets de Vries, p19).

For analysts, the psychoanalytic approach offers a more complete view of people and of the processes in organisations. Kets de Vries is critical of the poverty involved with the singular approaches of cognition, affect, motivation and personality. Instead, analysts aim to understand the human drivers of the organisational processes like strategy, leadership, climate and culture and their derivatives. For him, an organisation is nothing without the people.

While Kets de Vries with his analytical approach attempted to put the person back into the organisation, his case studies are of organisations which had depressed financial results, like lower profits rather than depressed people as the starting point.

Bales (1950, 1989) also approached groups through the notion of group thought processes, although he was less emphatic about the unconscious aspects or the psychoanalytic view that they were fantasies. For Bales, group thought processes are developed as follows:

- 1) issues are selected for discussion or items injected are taken advantage of and used.
- 2) both sets are used for enlargement, and elaboration
- 3) the elaboration is performed co-operatively by the members
- 4) the group process is interactive and as it gets going more people participate so that it is analogous to a nuclear chain reaction

In contrast to this depth approach described above, one cannot ignore the very powerful advertising and promotion by telephone and software companies of low face-to-face contact groups, the so-called virtual groups.

With modems and advances in software, some people, including problem solvers are encouraged to telework. They form leaderless groups. The research in this area is already voluminous. These “virtual” groups have been compared with face-to-face interactive groups. So far, it is probably fair to say that “virtual” groups offer no clear-cut advantages other than travel time and costs to the problem solving processes when compared to face-to-face groups. (Oravec, 1996).

In summary to here, there is evidence that there is a construct called Leadership and that there are qualitative differences between the types of leaders, for example Transformational and Transactional, and although some of the outcome measures like “effectiveness” and “satisfaction” do not as yet discriminate between the two types, both discriminate between “Leadership” and Laissez-faire as “Non-Leadership”.

Earlier descriptions of strategic leadership and operational leadership still seem valid and approximate alternative labels for transformational and transactional leadership respectively. The delivery process for strategic leadership might have to be uplifted to be more inspirational and charismatic. Reports of subjective “feelings” do however discriminate between “Transformational” and “Transactional” types of leadership.

Kouzes & Posner (1987) adopt a slightly different approach to leadership. First they claim to measure behaviour and second they do have a scale broadly tapping the way the leader deals with the emotional domain of the followers.

Their questionnaire, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) measures five dimensions:

- 1) Challenging the Process
- 2) Inspiring a Shared Vision

- 3) Enabling Others to Act
- 4) Modeling the Way
- 5) Encouraging the Heart

Leaders encourage the heart by

- 1) recognising contributions
- 2) celebrating accomplishments

Typical items in “Encouraging the Heart” are:

I praise people for a job well done

I make sure that people are recognised for their contributions.

These facets on the LPI however are not quite like the basic assumptions of the psychoanalysts apparent in working groups, nevertheless, all these leadership behaviours in the LPI are said to account for more than 80% of the behaviours described in interviews (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). In contrast, the impression one gets from the psychoanalytical approach to groups is that a large proportion of the behaviour would be accounted for by emotional or unconscious processes.

The LPI is completed from two perspectives:

- 1) Self
- 2) Others

The performance measures were the extent to which the manager / leader:

- 1) meets the job-related needs of followers
- 2) has built a committed work group
- 3) has influence with upper management

plus the extent to which the followers are:

- 4) satisfied with the leadership
- 5) believe the practices are appropriate
- 6) empowered by the manager.

While the incorporation of scales dealing with some forms of emotionality is in the LPI, it skims the implicit concerns expressed by the Tavistock approaches. The analytical method is one of interpretation. The basic assumption modes are supposed to be unconscious or at a low level of awareness to the untrained observer and therefore there is doubt as to whether or not a self-report or an observer's questionnaire like the LPI will tap the basic assumption modes. The conceptual line on the psychoanalytic approach goes right back to Freud!

2.8 Levels of Diagnosis and Interventions in Organisations.

While the power of unconscious forces and processes are the concern of psychoanalysts, their clients as organisations and their staff may be less willing to engage such "unconscious" forces at work, particularly if these forces are successfully held at bay as Miller (1993) reported. The notion that an intervention with people or groups is like peeling an onion is a popular analogy in psychology.

Harrison (1970) in his article titled, "Choosing the depth of organisation intervention", recommended that one should start from the outside with behaviour and work towards the inside, leaving the unconscious or deeper aspects until last. The fact that some issues are unconscious, are associated with emotion and resistance and are not readily amenable to change is a practical reason for this approach. The ethics of intervention and the contract with the client also imply limitations on the depth of the issues explored and the subsequent interventions.

In the therapeutic domain, following Eysenck's attack on Psychotherapy lead people to an alternative strategy where behaviour therapy treats the symptom as the problem and does not seek an underlying cause. There is however contrary evidence that the skills are not enough in themselves. In intimate situations, the skills may be honed but the relationship components for example trust, authenticity, openness and genuineness have to be tackled as well. Masters and Johnson's revolutionary but direct approaches to therapy, had in the UK to be followed up by relationship building attitudes and skills. (Mackay, 1976)

2.9 The Organisational Context

So far, the research surveyed has implicitly focused on the attributes of the leader and had an excursion into the characteristics of the followers, either as individuals or members of groups. A more comprehensive understanding of leadership in organisations must take into account the characteristics of the organisation. Three aspects are required:

- 1) The leaders characteristics (personality or behaviour)
- 2) The leaders impact on organisational functioning and culture *and vice versa*
- 3) The characteristics of the task/problem

In addition to the research already described, other researchers have studied the Need for Power (McClelland,1975; McClelland & Burnham, 1976); Time Span Capability (Jaques, 1976); Street Smarts (Wagner & Sternberg, 1985); and Intelligence (Most, 1990). These singular approaches can only lead to a partial understanding of the leadership process. A systems view is more than likely to be required as per Emery (1969).

2.10 Leadership and Organisation Culture and Climate

Schein (1985) is insistent that the purpose of leaders in organisations is to create or change the organisations culture. "Organisation cultures are created by leaders, and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management and.....the destruction of culture. Culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin. In fact there is a possibility - underemphasized in leadership research – that the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create an manage culture "(p2).

He continues and explains that leaders create, embed, and often attempt to change the existing cultural assumptions and that these changes are ultimately seen in the mission, goals, structures and working procedures of the organisation.

2.11 Historical Evidence for the Leader's Impact on Organisation Culture / Climate

The literature for practitioners testifies role of the great people to the creation, development, and reinforcement of an organisation's culture and it's gradual decline with their departure. Often, the impact of these people has far exceeded their actual financial ownership of the organisation. Howard Geneen of ITT was reported to have established ITT as a place to learn about the real world of business. As a new recruit to ITT, an MBA from Harvard, Columbia, or Wharton might have had a good start, but it was not enough. In addition to formal education, managers needed to have their skills honed at ITT. This then became known the Geneen University at ITT. The process was a type of action learning activity based at work, where the people acquired skills not formally taught in colleges or universities. The culture created at ITT was a fearful, financially focused culture. (Bowles, 1977).

Geneen (1985) interrogated managers in regular business review meetings. Soon afterwards, the manager in turn was encouraging his close colleagues to do the same things. Managers obliged either by conformity or by obedience, and so these methods of working became accepted as part of the ITT culture. In contrast, Sampson (1995) has the more sinister view that Geneen was a psychopath who was prepared to do anything for himself and ITT.

The prominence of leaders and leadership together with their espoused values and beliefs has resulted in a critical reaction. The issues begin with the whole notion of psychological dependence articulated by the analysts with Miller (1993); Miller & Hawkins, (1994); Kets de Vries (1985, 1989), and Kets de Vries & Miller (1987). In dependency, people struggle with the concept that they are grown up (adults) and wish to return to childhood. The critics of leadership outline how the process of personal development requires intellectual debate and dissent, even in organisations. But the emphasis for Bass (1990), Bennis & Nanus (1997) and Strange & Mumford (2002) is that leadership theories, practices and processes with their outputs of “shared values and visions” will go beyond the social processes of sharing and understanding to modification. In other words, cognitions are not merely shared and appreciated by others while remaining different but will ultimately become similar or common. Tourish & Pinnington (2002) for example have subjected transformational leadership to a critical analysis. They view this type of leadership as a corporate cult deliberately designed to assert cohesion and thereby downplay the role of active participation and intellectual dissent while simultaneously reinforcing the manager’s belief in the need for and the efficacy of his/her own leadership. For Bass (1985),

however, transformed followers can now act on the values they have come to collectively accept.

2.12 Integration

While Stogdill's early definition of leadership (Stogdill, 1950, p3) described leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement", others have not confined it to groups.

Writers such as Hersey & Blanchard (1969); and Vroom & Yetton (1984) have models underpinned by moderators that encompass the follower as an individual. Schein, (1985) elevates the leaders locus of influence even higher to the large group or the organisation. The specific recipient for Schein is not the individual or the group but a more amorphous layer described as organisational culture. In this shift upwards and outwards, since face-to-face contact was more difficult, and the message had to be suitable for all, the emphasis was on the leaders role as interpreter, or manager of meaning, or in turbulent times, as the "sense-maker". In organisations primarily concerned with the community, education, social services, and minorities, the issues are more likely to be concerned with values. (Kanter, 1972, 1993).

Whatever it was or is, leadership is a distinctive form of influence, which in reality may be formally or informally exercised. Being based on expectations of the recipients it has an enormous psychological component that includes cognitions as well as emotions and behaviours. It is probably fair to say that the research in leadership has been in tandem with the developments in society. Each has influenced the other.

Organisations that have attempted to have a participative and fellowship leadership approach have not been sustained. The co-operatives that still exist in the UK have not been promoted as organisational forms for all. The small, and very large UK-Asian businesses based on the family have not been openly promoted as the way forward, despite their apparent success. The Middle-Eastern businesses based on mutual obligation are also quiet. The software house that started with women only, F International has been renamed as Xanza, thereby disguising its roots.

Overall, the mainstream research has followed the developments in the society at large. The sequence and the stages has broadly been as follows:

- 1) The trait approach
- 2) The style approach
- 3) The contingency approach
- 4) The transformational approach

The trait approach was a congruent approach up until WWII. The belief in society at the time, as demonstrated by the occupants of top positions in organisations was that leaders were born and not made. The research discovered three distinct areas that separated leaders from the rest. They were physical appearance, intellectual abilities, and personality. However, as the research continued, the inconsistencies halted this research until it was resurrected in the 1980's.

The evidence of the traits was still much the same: masculinity, intelligence, and dominance.

However, with a neat twist, in line with the trends of upward appraisal in society and some organisations (not considered in the first wave of research studies) the earlier traits or their variants put the owners in a good position to be seen as leaders. That is, the traits influence how people are perceived, at least until they demonstrate very clearly otherwise.

The next phase of research concerned the style of leaders. Having had to recruit people for leadership positions for WWII, and having a limited pool of people with the appropriate traits, training of the next cadre was devised. War Office Selection Boards, went for people with potential for leadership. This approach has continued until today. The version that is known to most managers will be Situational Leadership.

In line with changes in society and developments in organisations, for example project or task leadership, and with less emphasis on seniority as a base, leadership was defined as a **process** and the participant's roles were leader, and follower. But there was a problem, in that sometimes one style was best, in other cases it was not, so this lead to the third phase-contingencies.

While the most familiar approach was by Fiedler (1967), it has continued to evolve to a recent version. (Fiedler, 1995). The strength of the contingency approach has been to re-assure a leader that he cannot theoretically be a leader in all situations he might be faced with. That is, the situation may not be favourable to the leaders combination of style attributes. The variable that anchors this style is Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (LPC) that measures task motivation versus relationship motivation. Since this style is like a trait, it is relatively fixed and un-movable.

The final twist however comes in the latest version (Fiedler, 1995) where situational favourableness is construed as situational control. Therefore, some types of leaders will need the problems redefined and simplified for them in advance, so that they can remain in control! This might be a problem for most managers. Despite these limitations, the notion of a contingency approach is supported by researchers and even more so by practicing leaders. In the model for Transformational leadership, the block diagram from Bass & Avolio (1990) shows the feed-in from transformational leadership **after** the outcome of transactional leadership. It is like a booster or guidance system. This boost with guidance produces performance beyond expectations.

While the measure may have psychometric problems, for example the intrusion of contingent reward from its theoretical position in the transactional cluster, into an association with individualised consideration in the transactional group, as perceived by the subjects, as shown in the correlation matrix in Yammarino & Bass, (1990), other concerns remain. First is the nature of the outcomes measured. While extra effort and a global measure of effectiveness are important, other variables such as creativity, innovation, teamwork, and empowerment are not considered as outputs. In some ways the outcome measures used by Bass and colleagues are the modern equivalent of Frederick Taylor's quest for higher output from his pig-iron worker.

There seems to be no point in being charismatic leader, and inspiring subordinates with a grand vision simply for a modern version of Taylorism. As Turner remarked "It may be inspiring to hear of staff risking their life in a snow storm to deliver supplies...but when the product is a high-salt, high-calorie junk food, doubts about

whether some of this shining dedication is misplaced begin to arise.” (Turner, 1986, p108)

The concept of creativity as bringing something new into being ought to be uplifted by the notion of transformational leadership. Using the Kirton (1987) Adaption–Innovation (A-I) theory of problem solving and the associated measure, the KAI, adaptors with the propensity to bring incremental changes would be stretched while innovators who prefer to do things differently would be supported. In other words, innovators could **transform** the whole problem solving process, or any stage of the process from problem definition to implementation. It is in the domain of creativity that transformational leadership should offer the greatest opportunity for people and organisations. The visionary component is needed in the model along side the inspirational component of transformational leadership in order to create a framework for the innovator to re-conceive the problem, or any of the stages in the problem solving process. As Clapp & DeCiantis, (1989) showed in looking at the relationship between preference for a particular problem solving style (KAI) and behaviour as seen by long-standing colleagues in Shell. Staff who were measured as Innovators had preferences and behaviours that corresponded whereas, Adaptors were seen to exhibit more innovative behaviours, while still remaining adaptive in terms of preference, according to their KAI scores.

The relationship between perceived leadership, and problem solving style, in terms of its constructs, rather than the behaviour is a key part of the research examined in this study.

The second point concerning transformational leadership is the over emphasis on rationality. When Clover (1990) interviewed subjects following their completion of Bass's MLQ, their emotional reactions were played down as being irrational and although Kouzes and Posner with the LPI did interview their subjects and found a correspondence of 80%, between interview and measure, it was more to check the validity of their instrument than to explore for issues beneath the surface in followers. While the Tavistock approach recognises the task aspects of leadership, their approach invariably looks for other issues beneath the surface of the group using the psychoanalytic method. It also looks for the whole person, the whole group in the process and the ways individuals define themselves as part of the group. The approach has a selected and a dedicated following with some success stories, for example Miller (1993).

CHAPTER III - ORGANISATION CLIMATE AND CULTURE

Out of clutter, find simplicity; from discord, find harmony; in the middle of difficulty lies opportunity. Albert Einstein.

Three rules of work

3.1 The Uses and Misuses of Culture

In analysing countries and their agriculture, geographers and wine-makers have been able to distinguish between climate and culture. With wine for example, the French culture and traditions have had a profound on wine making all over the world, but these processes have been demystified by a more a fundamental and scientific analysis in the new world. But with a word like culture developed metaphorically from the idea of cultivation, that is, the process of tilling and developing land, it is not unusual for the French to say that the distinguishing feature between their wines and others is "le terroir". For most people however "le terroir" is simply "the soil", but not for the French.

How is culture being used in this situation, and what is the reality? The reality is that wine is a commodity. In an industry of oversupply, the culture surrounding the product has become more visible than the product itself. This idea of enhancing the product with cultural overtones is not new. Long ago, in response to a lack of demand for wine, the French established tasting societies with members who dressed like medieval judges, paraded in processions and conducted church-like rituals to celebrate the product. The juice of the mundane grape has been raised in status. In New Bond Street, London, products like cosmetics, watches, diamonds, and handbags are all elevated in price and status. In some cases, the brand name is prominently displayed on the product and is as important as the functionality.

Sometimes, competitive products are called “impostors”. Pride & Ferrell (1987) describe how a new brand of perfume, selling at \$7.50 and designed to compete with a product selling at \$32.50, is positioned as an “impostor”.

“Each impostor brand has a chemical composition similar to the designer brand it imitates. Even laboratory tests indicate that the impostor and the original brand have chromatograms that indicate a similar fragrance. Instead of selling image, Parfums de Coeur sells price”. (Pride & Ferrell, 1987, p532)

When it comes to life in organisations, is a similar process in place? Are some jobs so meaningless and boring and have no valued external purpose that they have to be surrounded by a culture of importance embodied in an elevated “mission” statement. Van Maanen (1991) for example, describes Disneyland, Florida as “the Smile Factory”.

In other cases, the purpose of the organisation is to dominate the market or “to kill the competition” so it has to be metaphorically cleansed by surrounding itself with a culture containing virtuous overtones. In cases, where the purpose is downright nasty, like killing people as in war, the cultural message has to legitimise the action. In cases where a nation is being attacked, justifying the defence of the realm is comprehensible to the nation. In other cases, where the issues are far away and unlikely to impact commerce or trade, the reasons promulgated such as redressing the dignity of the nation, as when nations felt that they were humiliated by previous defeats at war, is used to propel the reluctant population at home and abroad forward. Without the population providing the resources, little can be done.

The Vietnam war, eventually lost credibility with both the American people and the soldiers because they could see no proper reason for it. (Bateson, 1953; Draper, 1969; Levy, 1978; Herring, 1979; Chomsky, 1971; and Shlesinger, 1967).

3.2 The Nature and Meaning of Work

The attempt to create uniqueness is a characteristic that not only pervades wine and war, but also the cultures of organisations and writers approach to it. In studying organisations, the starting point is the meaning of work. When Apple Computers was in financial trouble some ten years ago, Steve Jobs, one of the original founders decided to recruit a chief executive. In trying to persuade John Scully from Pepsi Cola to join Apple, Scully was reluctant to join so Jobs said to him "Do you want to sell sugar water for the rest of your life, or do you want to join me and change the world?" (Peters & Waterman, 1985; Scully, 1995)

One possible scenario is that the social culture defined by Keesing (1974) as an individual's theory of what fellow citizens know, believe and mean would be carried into the organisation. (Hofstede, 1980, and Jaeger, 1986). The surrounding culture however, includes more than the people who go to work. Some of the family work at home and some work at school so certain aspects are unlikely to be carried across to the organisation. (Rice, 1984; and Barkhow, 1980)

Studies of Mc Donalds, IBM, and Disneyland have shown that these corporations aimed to produce monocultures. Some of the studies have also shared this managerial emphasis, for example Barley, Meyer, & Gash (1988), and they have come to the conclusion that organisational cultures were composed of consistency,

comprising an organisation-wide consensus and clarity. In the 1980's some 10 years after Lieberman & O'Connor (1972) study where the initial views switched from the dominance of external variables to the dominance of leadership, researchers attempted to explain the sustained financial performance of American organisations by examining the core values of the organisation. (Barney, 1986). The core values were the transparent ways in which they conducted their businesses and related to employees, clients and customers as well as supported by internal issues such as flexibility and innovation. (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, and Peters & Waterman, 1982). These core values were not only ways of improving HR but were vital guidelines to ensure a firm's financial performance.

But there were critics. For the critics, research has to scratch the veneer presented by the members of organisations. The first set of critics are concerned with cultures that permeate all levels and are not based on reality or its implications, but are based on fantasies. The fantasies are the underpinning of the organisation culture and that in turn determines the practices at both the strategic and operational levels. The fantasies are derived from the inner world of powerful stakeholders who dominate the nature of the culture. Ultimately the fantasies are to the detriment of the financial performance of the organisation. (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986, and Deal & Kennedy, 1998). To detect all the components and their dynamics, the researcher has to observe the conflicts and look deeper for the causes or source of the differences. In a few cases, researchers have been accused of "selling out" to management by not presenting the alternative arguments and the supporting research that shows that beneath an apparent monoculture there may be differences. (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989).

In one case, the researchers said that the notion of an integrated culture or monoculture was “dominant, but dead”. (Calas & Smirich, 1987). As some researchers have explored deeper layers of the organisation culture, they have found differences. (Willmott, 1993). Although, the results are far from clear, probably reflecting the underlying complexities and the adaptability of the subjects, the organisations also stretch the capacities of the researchers to figure out what is going on. In research, for example, by Louis (1985), differences in the perceptions and the opinions of the subjects were associated with status, jobs, gender, and race. This type of study is a counterweight to those who propose that organisational culture is a monoculture made up of attributes that are consistently and uniformly seen, understood and acted upon, by a critical mass of people.

A definition of organisational culture from the managerial perspective is given by Schein (1985), “culture is a pattern of basic assumptions-invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration-that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” (p7).

3.3 Culture: A Vital Issue with Confusing Terminology

Denison (1996) in an extensive review describes how the issues studied in the 1980's and labeled as climate were still studied in the 90's and then called culture. One writer reviewed by Denison was perverse enough to suggest that culture was anything not described as climate!

A clear distinction between culture and climate is still difficult to discern in the literature on organisations. Classroom discussions with managers on organisation culture are certain to have people nodding in agreement that there is such a phenomenon. If the discussion moves to organisation climate or environment then people seem much less interested and return to their original terminology. Further discussion reveals that each person is likely to have a different view of culture, of what it is, or which dimensions are most important. They are often preoccupied with certain elements of their own organisation's culture, for example customer orientation, product quality, or even having a "winning" culture.

Most people will however agree on the pervasive and almost subtle influence of culture, however when they get into detail, the attributes they define as part of the culture like the core underlying assumptions and expectations are likely to differ. The customers also have views of the organisation's culture. For example, the M&S culture might be simply described as high quality product with fair and paternalistic treatment of staff. MFI might be summed up as cheap and cheerful, staffed by people with a similar disposition. To some extent, the desire of managers to see organisation climate as culture is also reflected in the interchangeable or overlapping use of the terms in the literature. However, as far back as 1896, the psychological properties of the large group were important issues. In *The Psychology of the Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind*, Le Bon, (1896) wrote that "Crowds are somewhat like the sphinx of the ancient fable: it is necessary to arrive at a solution of the problems offered by their psychology or to resign ourselves to being devoured by them." (Le Bon, 1896; p19).

The British have been bombarded with “cultural” solutions to their industrial problems by Americans and by fans and employees of Japanese organisations, for example. Trevor, (1991), and Wickens, (1987). The push was probably initiated by Peters & Waterman, (1982) via the book *In Search of Excellence*, and the subsequent road shows by Tom Peters and his entourage.

In business, the neglect of differing organisation cultures has had devastating consequences. At the level of specific decisions, surveys of corporate acquisitions in both the USA and Europe have concluded that they often failed to fulfill expectations. (Kitching, 1967, 1974). The Harvard Business School has researched some 2,000 acquisitions made by 33 US companies since the 1950's. About half of these once prized acquisitions have since been divested. A range of differences has been suggested as the causes of these organisational divorces. One of these has been that the organisational incompatibilities are due to cultural differences. These differences in behaviour and their ideological anchors (Harrison, 1972; Scruton, 1985) become much more evident when working together after the merger. Different organisations, despite similar or complementary products serving the same customers, often have different philosophies about the ways they should function. These differences often have deep roots. They have been reinforced by years of successful practice. (Goold & Campbell, 1987; Campbell & Somers, 1992). The customers value or appreciate the product and the organisation. In return, the organisation is rewarded with money and Queen's Awards. The staff feels the glow of approval, but after an acquisition, the underlying differences of opinion on how to run the enlarged operation become more acute. At the time of the acquisition, the discussion via the “due diligence process” centers on the tangible assets that can be seen or which appear in the accounts.

The fabric such as the relationships and values that binds these assets together, like the organisation structures and the different philosophies and management approaches are rarely debated, except at a superficial level. Secrecy would probably be the reason for not conducting “cultural audits”, using a measure such as the “Cultural audit”, Fletcher & Jones, (1993) or the Harrison, (1972) measure of “organisational ideology”, prior to acquisitions or mergers.

As can be seen from the failures, the managers have some additional challenges and opportunities to be creative with the acquisitions in integrating both the physical and the psychological assets into a merged organisation. However, instead of natural synergy between the people, the differences create what Pearson (1995) has called “cosergy” representing the real costs of a diversion of management thought, emotion, time, energy and money away from the primary purpose of the organisation to sorting out the internal differences and interacting with the external world.

In 1997, Smith Kline Beecham, and Glaxo Wellcome revealed that they had been in discussions about a possible merger. After some exploration, they had decided to go no further due to “cultural differences”. Some authors, mainly journalists, had attributed the decision to stop to the egos of the most senior managers and the conflict over their relative roles in the new company. In the defense of the companies, the Chairman of Smith Kline Beecham had commissioned action research on organisation culture, and co-authored a book as a consequence of this research that had been in print for some time before the termination of the talks. (Bauman, Jackson, & Lawrence, 1997). By 2001, the merger had gone ahead.

3.4 Concepts of Organisation Culture and Climate

Culture and climate as a widespread and generalised form of influence in organisations has received a lot of attention over the last 20 years (Cooper & Payne, 1978; Fletcher, 1991; Harrison, 1972; Hofstede, 1990; Ekvall, 1986; Rousseau, 1988; and Schein, 1985).

In 1968, Litwin & Stringer developed the notion of organisational climate for motivation as a “molar conception.” (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Their research interests were to study:

- 1 the relationship of leadership style and organisation climate
- 2) the effects of climate on the motivation of individuals and employees.
- 3) the relationship between climate and job satisfaction, and performance.

They elaborated their concept by defining organisation climate “as the quality or property of the organisational environment that is:

- a) perceived or experienced by the organisation members and
- b) influences their behaviour.”

Atkinson who was interested in three motives (achievement, social and power) influenced the approach and orientation of Litwin & Stringer. He had defined organisation climate as “the summary of the total pattern of expectancies and incentive values that exist in a given organisational setting.” after (Atkinson, 1957).

These researchers were trying to unravel the relationship between the properties of the organisation’s internal environment and the effects on people.

Via theory and research, a 31-item questionnaire, providing 6 dimensions of climate was produced. (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

The dimensions were both tangible (like structure) and less tangible (like risk). They are:

- 1) Structure
- 2) Responsibility
- 3) Risk
- 4) Reward
- 5) Warmth and Support
- 6) Conflict

The questions regarding these dimensions ask people about the **feeling** or sense that they have in the work situation or the organisation. These feelings are individual psychological states and are concerned with the ways in which the generalised environment rather than the specific environment such as a leader or manager, motivated the individual. In a similar vein but using perception as a descriptor instead of “feelings”, (Reichers & Schneider, 1990) defined climate (not culture) as “the shared **perception** of the way things are around here.” ‘More precisely, climate is shared perceptions of organisational policies, practices and procedures, both formal and informal. Multiple climates are thought to exist in organisations.’

Another definition emphasising the individual view rather than the joint view was from Rousseau: “Essentially, climate is individual descriptions of the social setting or context of which the person is part. What the individual describes, whether it is the organisation’s decision-making processes, relations with superiors, or interactions with co-workers is neither specified nor constrained by the climate construct.” (Rousseau, 1988).

British anthropologists have long been interested in culture. To trace the development of societies where life was not written down, they visited and lived with the people concerned. In looking at our own society, anthropologists have commented on the work and different sections of society. With an increase in the number of people working from home for example, newspapers are filled with articles about downshifting. The process of leaving the City of London and 100 hours a week plus a big salary for a quieter life in rural Sussex is regularly described. In this new scenario, work becomes intertwined with household activities and the problem is to draw the boundaries between them. Although there might be a trend back to home-based activities, most people still work in big organisations. (Henley Centre for Forecasting. Reported in Rees, 1998, p9).

To some extent, the issues with culture, and climate have become more acute. With increased mobility, both temporary and permanent, the need for psychological continuity and stability in life has become an issue. To ensure some stability, there has been a need to find ways of bringing people together and binding them to each other. In the past, where people made life-long commitments to their organisations, for example in service to the Crown and overseas for a small "salary", the organisation was viewed as a collective to which people belonged rather than a group of independent administrators or craftsmen who joined together. Collaboration, interdependence, shared concerns; mutual help and being "one of us" were all part of the ethos. Without such bonding, it was unlikely that Britain would have been able to "administer" the colonies, via people, in the absence of fast transport and telecommunications. In the place of this permanent bonding, many concerns and interests are now highlighted which may have the purpose of assuring some temporary bonding in one organisation.

Such policies and practices are capable of being continued from one organisation to another and provide a form of stability. Issues, which are now highlighted, are: mental well-being in the workplace (Cooper & Payne, 1994); flexible working, (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995) as well as policies on discrimination (sex, race, age etc.). One or all of these may be attempts to provide some continuity across organisations.

More cultural changes were initiated as Britain experienced waves of cultural education from abroad. Tom Peters book with Waterman (Peters and Waterman, 1982) and Peters' subsequent lecture (haranguing) tours have testified to this. The cultural issues have largely been from a business perspective. Excellent enterprises, largely American, were brought to life by these authors. It was rumoured that after the first publication, many other organisations were offering themselves as research sites for the next edition!

The next cultural wave came from Japan. A key spokesman was Morito from Sony who appeared to do little other work than sell Japanese national culture, the Sony corporate culture and work practices. Wickens (1987) as an employee of Nissan UK has also extolled the practices of the European-based Japanese organisations. With the arrival of Nissan, Toyota and others to Britain, many people were able to see that the Japanese culture and work practices could coexist with British people and their national cultures. The practical consequences are that a Toyota out of Derby will have slightly fewer faults on average than the same model produced in Japan. (Pascale, 1982; Murata & Harrison, 1991; Gordon, 1988; and Trevor, 1991).

These writers and speakers, and the managers in the organisations in the literature above, adopt an implicit perspective that the culture of the organisation has some

tangible and intangible components that can be managed, controlled or reshaped, just like the products they manufacture or the Media. This is the organisational culture as a control mechanism, and as another expression of the command, communicate, and control ideology.

For Dickson (1983), the approach that management can identify organisational culture, and manage it to improve the effectiveness of the organisation is one of the central myths of organisations. In some cases, the national culture supports the practice so that teamwork in Japan and co-operation in Sweden will readily transfer to the organisation. Porter's (1990) work on the competitive advantage of nations, describes the integration of resources including national culture.

Peters and Waterman (1982) write about an overarching set of corporate values that have been "bought" by both the managers and employees. These values and practices are like a mental road map containing the motorways, but omitting the minor roads.

Broadly, the formation of culture divides into four approaches. The first is the transfer of national culture to the organisation or by the transfer of the common experiences of employees who have been trained by craftsmen or professional bodies. (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Berger & Luckman 1966). The educational process from the professionals may even stipulate modes of dress, ethics, posture and gestures and practice. The scene of a London Crown Court today with wigs and gowns for the lawyers and suits for the public is a mixture of the modern and the medieval.

The second approach to the formation of culture is structural.

Members are subjected to similar structural characteristics such as a computer to feed and forms to be completed for activities from performance appraisals, to expenses and budgets. Few members can avoid these forms. (Payne & Pugh, 1976).

The third approach to the formation of organisation culture is perceptual. No matter what the properties of the environment, the individual interprets the properties in line with their own personal constructs and values. (Kelly, 1955; Schneider & Reichers, 1983, and Schwartz, 1994).

The fourth approach is interactive. Here the individuals engage with each other in a dialogue so that the social process of sharing leads by discussion and negotiation to common set of core constructs in terms of content and structure for the all the members of the organisation. This is the basis of the organisational culture. (Kelly, 1955).

While the notion of dialogue looks simple, the process of transfer from the individual to the organisation has been a key concern for the proponents of the learning organisation. (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Garratt, 1987; and Senge, 1990). The extension and elaboration of individual learning into organisational learning and then into the learning organisation is incredibly difficult as the participants deconstruct and reconstruct meaning via critical events in the life of the organisation. Oswick, Anthony, Keenoy, & Mangham, (2000) offer a solution in what they describe as a “polyphonic perspective”.(p887).

The view of Schein (1985) is that the organisational culture is transparent and open for all to “buy into”, and that it is available for management to construct and maintain, like any other organisational entity.

The concept that all people might have an input to the content of the culture is not uppermost in the mind of the authors in that the idea of “stakeholders” with a genuine say in the process is not fully recognised. Nor is the possibility that employees might exhibit coping behaviours and adjusted attitudes, or be simply learning new ways of working without changing their core values and beliefs. For Goffman (1959), people might adopt the espoused behaviours and attitudes of the organisation because of the importance of higher-level constructs. These constructs might be analogous to Darwinian survival. Despite these apparent changes in behaviours and attitudes, the underlying values have not changed.

Milgram (1974) however in his controversial and powerful experiments demonstrated how the behaviour of paid subjects representative of “ordinary” people could be changed under the directions of his staff in assumed authority to such an extent that the subjects would inflict apparent pain on another person in his experimental obedience laboratory.

In research conducted some time after the Thatcher revolution in the workplace, the researchers found that underlying wishes and attitudes of many managers had not changed despite their longer hours and apparent increased commitment to their organisations. (Scase & Goffee, 1989).

A more sophisticated approach and certainly a more time consuming one is where organisational culture is formed and maintained by the interactions between people. It can start off with management in the driving seat, but they are able to open themselves for a genuine discussion and debate about the beliefs, values and mission of the organisation, so that the result is a negotiated blueprint that is broadly accepted by all parties.

Pettigrew (1985) describes the approach in ICI whereby change was managed but in a framework with controlled participation. Management still believed that they were primarily responsible for the future of the organisation however the knowledge, involvement and commitment of many others were incorporated into the final result.

Although this controlled process is not fully participative, the need for some form of agreement elevates the part of the discussion and the ultimate agreement to shared symbols and meanings as well as practical intentions. The result is that the culture is not only a pattern of the attributes that the organisation has but something that the organisation is as well. (Young, 1989; Berger & Luckman, 1996; and Morgan, 1983).

Since the process is not like a political democracy and the stakeholders have a negotiated process to determine the agreed culture, it means that different interests are at stake. In some cases, the resulting culture may be transparent and open for all to see: in others, aspects might be consciously hidden. Visitors to Japan experience this situation when staying in big city hotels. These hotels have alternate floors, one for western visitors and one for the Japanese. Attempts to cross the boundaries are met with polite refusal, unless the visitor insists in Japanese! Breakfast is also held in separate restaurants, and the western visitor would have to work hard to find the Japanese breakfast room and gain entry.

So far, the picture has been confusing. Organisational culture and climate have been used as if they were synonymous. The topics of interest to the researcher such as employee motivation, employee stress, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, or employee well-being, have usually determined the issues examined.

Whatever the specific interests of researchers, managers and directors, for example, Bauman et al. were very interested in the cultures or climates and the implications for their merging organisations and probably not very concerned with the distinctions between the two concepts.

The psychoanalytic approach (Bion,1961; and Kets de Vries & Miller,1987) has a depth perspective to organisational cultures. These authors and practitioners are concerned with unconscious processes and shared or common group fantasies. For these analysts, the true meaning of any human phenomena can only take place with due consideration of the unconscious elements. Furthermore, when the process of group development is participative and internally orientated, then the more apparent it becomes that the concept of an organisational culture is a human construct. It is an abstract concept, but never the less important. It is the distillation of organisational life at this high level of abstraction that gives people a sense of meaning to their work and some boundaries for their stability. According to Brichto & Harries, (1997) religion has now been replaced by a variety of explanations called “spirituality” to account for the non-material dimension of human desire. Despite the decline in church attendance, researchers at Kings College have identified more than 500 new religious movements. The view that religious faith was once considered to be a form of blind allegiance and therefore called “the opium of the masses” has changed because as a global phenomenon, interest in religious phenomena appears to be on the increase again. Even with the explanatory advances of Science, there is still a need to endow human life with purpose, which science being “ethically sterile” cannot provide. (Tyler, 1998).

While the application of the methods of the physical sciences to the study of people has expanded, for example via psychometric testing, as the advertisements for training in the Psychologist demonstrate. (See the Psychologist, September 1997, back page). Some believe this has gone too far. Thirty years ago, Maslow (1967) for example warned that we should not only study people as **objects** but study them as **subjects** as well.

The view from the psychoanalytic movement is that human behaviour is so complex and varied that traditional scientific method is of little value in studying human activities such as culture.

3.5 The Psychoanalytic Approach to Organisation Culture

The starting point for this approach is child development and particularly the process of maternal attachment. The idea is that behind the form of the person, for example, who they are and what they do; there is an interactive process that actually creates the person. The first relationship is often with the natural mother. While parents cannot see the viewpoint precisely from the child, the initial behaviour is one of dependency. Despite the child's supposed wish to remain in the comfort of the womb, biological processes eject it into the world. As babies arrive in the world, some need help, others are eager to go. The mother provides what the analysts call a "holding environment". (Winnicott, 1957).

This holding environment initially supports the physical needs of the infant but as the child grows, the infant's social relationship becomes a psychological relationship. In the latter stages, the relationship is both giving and taking: it is now a two-way process. The infant takes active steps, like holding on, calling, crying and so on to stay attached to the mother.

Schaffer, (1984) labeled this relationship as “interlocution” and described the process as interpersonal synchronicity. The mother and baby become tuned in to each other’s needs. As Winnicott, (1965) implies the child creates the mother. Harlow’s experiments with monkeys showed that it was comfort rather than food, which the infant monkey sought in the relationship with the mother. (Harlow, 1958). With babies, the relationship with the mother is gradually extended to other members of the family, like fathers and other children. As the baby grows it gradually distinguishes between itself and others.

This process of differentiation leads to an understanding of ones own self and of others as separate beings, and of their interdependence. Separation is initially traumatic (as some analysts describe the trauma of birth) and later separation can produce confusion, uncertainty and noise however if the parent has been consistent and is able to respond when the child becomes over-anxious and frustrated then a trust relationship develops. In other words, the holding environment is experienced as eventually being dependable and reliable.

The quality of this holding environment is the key as to whether the infant and the child will take the steps forward and withstand the associated risk of anxiety to experience new things. (Bowlby, 1969). The first relationships within the family are extended to others outside.

When it comes to adulthood and the work environment, the psychoanalytic view is that employees want to be group members. Thus the “basic assumptions” of the emotional issues of fight vs flight, dependency vs counter-dependency and airing, seen in working groups and interpreted by Bion (1961) are organisational forms of the family relationships in childhood.

When people are together they may appear to be a group, however when the bonding goes beyond the social relationships to psychological involvement, then the members recognise, perhaps **unconsciously**, that there is something shared that makes them a group. It is this trigger of unconscious recognition of a group mentality, as distinct from a collection of individual mentalities that signifies a group. This is as proposed by Bion (1961). It is the “us” of the group as distinct from “them”. Kelly (1963) in a similar vein says “people belong to the same cultural group not merely because they behave alike, but especially because they construe their experiences in the same way” (p94). People then know what is expected of them.

As the group becomes an entity in its own right, the group works at developing its own identity and boundaries. According to Erikson (1959) the group refines the identity by a process of condensation of the group’s ideas. In some cases, a special uniform is produced, or a badge like the ones for Japanese quality circle members, or as in street gangs, distinctive designer clothing.

In the broadest of all interpretations, the psychoanalysts imply that the need for us to belong to a group for social contact, and for psychological reasons such as a “higher” shared purpose has its origins in the family, and represents a wish to return to the maternal relationship as an infant. Darwin conceived of the selfish gene and the group. The group was important because it could be seen as a “breeding group”, thereby facilitating survival of the gene. (Barrett, 1977; and Dawkins, 1989). In this way, organisational cultures are constructs perceived by the members as “holding environments”. They provide the organisational equivalents of families.

Organisational cultures also provide the boundaries for people to feel reasonably safe within. If they are truly comparable to families, then they have to be perceived and felt as trustworthy in order for people to be themselves and be part of the organisation. The latter relationship is ideally one of interdependence. In such a mature relationship, the task, that is externally oriented thoughts and behaviours, will be the preoccupation of the group. If however, the organisation culture as a holding environment is not trusted, then the member's pre-occupations will not be on the task. (Rousseau, 1990; 1994). For Bion (1961) it will be a "fight" culture, for example "kill the competition". In other cases, the work will be left to the leader "it is his problem, not ours", as in a dependency culture; while in other cases it might be a culture where the responsibility is left to others. This avoidance might take the form of two or three experts in the group being delegated to come up with a new solution that will solve the problem on behalf of the group. For many managers, these concepts of culture as unconscious needs are perhaps too much to deal with. Their aims to make a product or to make money are sufficient in themselves; there is no need for any additional understanding. (Miller, 1993).

The managers might also have their own biological families and they may distinguish between their biological offspring, who might resemble them, and the contract with their employees.

Other managers however will extend their family with a paternalistic view of the organisation, as was previously mentioned in relation to Japanese leaders perceiving themselves as the head of the organisational family. In Britain, the villages of Bourneville (Cadbury) and Port Sunlight (Lever) with well-ordered rows of houses, schools, and churches, are evidence of this family extension.

However today many modern organisations, including Universities, have contracted employees, at all levels, including middle and senior levels.

For some the psychoanalytic approach is flawed. The first concern is about maternal holding environments. Some are of very poor quality. When Masson was director of the Freud archives, he discovered Freud's personal correspondence concerning the exploitation and abuse of children in families.

Masson then suggested why it was suppressed. Freud's first paper on child abuse had received a frosty reception from his colleagues, so for once the unpopular theme was never returned to. Masson accused Freud of cowardice and of protecting his own ego. Masson was then dismissed from his job but by then he had the evidence from Freud's private correspondence and it was also too late because Freud's controversial paper was already in the public domain. (Masson, 1984).

Psychoanalytic approaches have also been criticised for being too dependent on the ideas of the founders and not easily capable of experimental validation, notably by Eysenck. Further, the whole approach has such a defensive armory of being self-monitoring and self-confirming that there is always a psychoanalytic explanation whichever way the experimental evidence points. (Eysenck, 1952a, 1952b). Nevertheless, psychoanalysis is one of the major approaches to relationships. In organisations it gives some underlying clues as to why some employees want to be members rather than work for themselves and why they want continuity of employment. Concern for progression like a career and with some stability and permanence impels employees to construct variables like organisational culture, rather than transient phenomena like organisational climate.

However, as Freud expressed and later suppressed, families can also be a framework for exploitation by the parents, so organisational cultures need to be examined from the top down. Parents in organisations, such as directors and senior managers can exploit their employees as evidenced by current research and legal cases on bullying.

If the organisation has a mission statement, it may be transparent and negotiable. It might also be opaque, and having been developed by unconscious processes, might not disclose the underlying purpose. Even the proponents are not aware of what they aim to do. In a less dependent approach, and more in tune with a developmental perspective rather than a regressive one, Winnicott (1960) saw cultural life as an area where the individual could be creative, and spontaneous and **choose** to be compliant. This area, the so-called cultural life space was an area intermediate between the **dream** and the **reality**. Miller's (1993) descriptions of situations where organisational changes in both structure and culture were stopped, despite tangible business benefit are examples of this process. Miller interpreted these reactions as fear of personal responsibility and accountability.

3.6 Complex Organisations and Large-Group Dynamics

Shifting this notion of culture from societies to organisations means that organisations could be thought of as mini-societies. In fact some of the big ones like BP and Shell are financially bigger and stronger than some Eastern European countries!

These huge organisations have their own distinctive patterns of working which may be attenuated or supported by the national culture. (Hofstede, 1984).

A manager can move from one country to another with the same corporation and

still feel some cultural continuity. In Britain, a building for Siemens employees is the same design as one in Germany and fully imported in pieces down to the last nail. In the field of accommodation, the Hilton hotel chain aims to have every one of its hotel rooms, basically the same in any part of the world, so that the guest would feel at home. Stability and familiarity are the key components here.

Morgan (1986), in "Images of Organisation" has offered a dozen perspectives on organisations, including culture. One chapter is subtitled "Organisations as psychic prisons". (Morgan, 1986, p199). As a prerequisite to survival, he recommends that one should observe the day-to day functioning of ones own organisation as if one was an outsider and an anthropologist." (p121). The idea behind such observations is that the signs, symbols, behaviours and rituals have the properties of consistency and pervasiveness. The word culture implies a pervasive way of life. It is a set of deeply seated beliefs and deeply set values about the way work should be organized, how authority is used, how people are rewarded and how they feel about these values and beliefs. (Pfeffer, 1991, 1992; Berger & Luckman, 1966; Schein, 1985, 1992, 1999; and Williams, Dobson. & Walters, 1996).

Culture can also be a very economical way of influencing behaviours. It is much more economical for senior managers to have implanted rules or guidelines for behaviour than having to interact with people individually and frequently or in a small group, each time something has to be done. It is a form of organisational socialisation. (Smircich, 1983).

Again from Gustave le Bon, who wrote. "The complexity of social facts is such, that it is impossible to grasp them as a whole and to foresee the effects of their reciprocal influence. It seems, too, that behind the visible facts are hidden at times thousands of invisible causes. Visible social phenomena appear to be the result of an immense, unconscious working that as a rule is beyond the reach of our analysis. Perceptible phenomena may be compared to the waves, which are the expression on the surface of the ocean of deep-lying disturbances of which we know nothing." (Le Bon, 1896, p8).

It is probable that in an organisation when the culture has grown without any deliberate and systematic intervention then the resulting atmosphere and environment will be formed in a gradual and subtle way by it's history and the personal **needs** of its members. The distribution of needs will be in tune with the power differences in the organisation. The products and services will also influence the technology of the organisation, and it's processes and procedures, so that it is quite possible for a parallel system to operate. The Royal Navy for example still trains Officers in one establishment and Ratings in another, despite the fact that they will ultimately work alongside each other as a "team" on a ship when they "pass out".(Harvey -Jones & Massey, 1995).

The early studies by Tavistock for example in the Durham coalfields (Trist, Murray & Pollock, 1963; Trist & Bamforth, 1951; Woodward, 1965) demonstrated that the technology of production had an impact on organisational features like culture and structure. This was their notion of an organisation as a "socio-technical system. (Emery, 1959, 1980; Emery & Trist, 1965, and Trist, Higgin, Murray & Pollock, 1963).

In *Robots, Men and Minds*, Von Bertalanffy, (1967) attempted to change the direction of psychology towards anthropology, almost to the point of suggesting that the environment might be random. Emery (1965), in his paper, on the causal texture of organisational environments, articulated the characteristics of different types of environments. Emery's socio-technical systems implied that the best outcome was obtained by joint optimization of the social and the technical systems. For example, in environments where there is uncertainty, shared values and co-operation are the management processes to cope with this.

The key to Emery's approach, which is similar to Von Bertalanffy's, is that the open systems approach requires an adequate conceptualisation of the environment so that relations can be established between the organisation and the environment. Further, the people in the organisation, need processes or the perceptual attributes to extract the information from the environment and use it to arrive at strategies which will at the least protect the organisation, or better still, develop it. (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973). In the absence of this environmental information, people engage in intrapersonal and interpersonal conflict within the organisation. (Rubin, 1978).

The early studies by Lawrence & Lorsch (1967) looked at the distinguishing features of three high-performing organisations. One company was in food, one in plastics, and one in containers. The issues assessed, and described as facets of the culture, were formality, interpersonal relationships, customer versus product quality and time perspective. For each business they were different and judged to be aligned to the nature of the business.

The issue of the alignment of the culture to the organisation's objectives, and the supportive nature of both the local and national characteristics as in Porter's thesis on the competitive advantage of nations (Porter, 1995) is sometimes seen as the major task of senior managers.

In the merger of two pharmaceutical companies to form SmithKline-Beecham, the authors in an interview to launch their book said: "The organisation as hero does not mean a free-for-all, with groups doing their own thing. It actually means the opposite: creating a highly disciplined environment in which all major activities are aligned and linked toward a single purpose. In this model, senior management guarantees that the process is consistent with the culture it is trying to create and that the organisation's input is aligned with the overall corporate goals." Mc Graw Hill, (p13).

In examining changes in HR managers and management, over the last 20 years in the UK, Guest (1997) has indicated how HR has become much more directive and aligned to the "business" purposes of the organisation.

As an interim summary, Denison (1996) in an extensive review of culture and climate indicated how the two terms had been used synonymously by academics. The phenomena studied have also changed over the last 20 years. What was initially studied as climate was later described as culture and vice versa. Despite the lack of conceptual and operational clarity, research has continued and organisations have continued to try to understand and manage their organisational environments as cultures and climates.

In an attempt to anchor the concept of organisation culture, the comprehensive work of Hofstede (1984, 1990a, 1990b, 1993, 1995) and the accompanying definition of culture as “mental programming” indicates the depth of the issues involved. Mental programming is about the management of minds. In national cultures, a range of institutions and agents work together to shape and maintain the values, beliefs and other deeply held assumptions about the ways things are done and what is valued and shared as a nation. Some of the communication processes are subtle and not easily transparent to the recipient.

Climate on the other hand, might be defined and understood as a more proximal layer of the environment. Here it is more transparent, more open to dialogue and more easily modifiable. It has less to do with the management of people minds, and more to do with work practices, the management of people’s work and the associated organisational structures. It also has the potential for change and development, and may work as a stepping-stone for the gradual and progressive elaboration or change of core values, beliefs and assumptions. For Schneider (1975), there are many types of organisational climates and it is better if climate is viewed as a multi-dimensional parameter chosen to be relevant to the area of interest.

3.7) Measuring Organisation Culture and Climate

Anderson and West via their Team Climate Inventory, (Anderson & West, 1994), described climate as “the personality of team-working” and listed four attributes which are measured by their inventory.

1 Participative safety

2 Support for innovation

3 Vision (the clarity, value of it, and attainability)

4 Task orientation

5 Social desirability of

a) social aspects

b) task aspects

According to West (West & Slater, 1995; and Slater & West, 1995) the parameters of climate have added value to the understanding of innovation in organisations.

West's notion of participative safety is in agreement with the psychoanalytic approach of trust in the maternal holding environment that is needed for growth in terms of personal differentiation and integration. An alternative approach however might be to follow West's comment about climate being a type of organisational personality and gauge organisational climate with the individual personality inventories combined in appropriate ways. To overcome the many problems of combination, a very early approach by Cattell (1948) to define the personality of the group was called "group syntality theory". One part of the theory was concerned with the traits that people brought independently of the group while the other part, the syntality, came from group membership. These group traits, such as decision-making, dominance, etc are inferred from the behaviours of the group. The third aspect was concerned with internal group structure represented by roles, status, and communications. It is fair to say that this approach did not achieve widespread use although Hergenhahn (1990) has revived the concept and reminds us that both the personality represented by individual traits, and the group syntality according to the group traits are needed to

predict a person's behaviour.

Returning to the Team Climate Inventory (Anderson & West, 1994), inspection of the factor analysis, raises some questions. The factor loadings are surprisingly high (0.80) for an instrument measuring climatic elements such as learned behaviours or competencies. It is not possible to confirm this however, since the items in the factor analysis appear to be incorrectly labeled. (Anderson & West, 1994; Table 6: Factor analysis loadings for the TCI, p39). Several of the items also look similar, for example item 14 "we interact frequently" looks like item 26 "members of the team meet frequently to talk both formally and informally." Items like these are what Cattell labeled as "bloated specifics".

Fletcher & Jones (1993) have a number of interests in their approach to organisational culture and climate and were particularly interested in organisation culture as "levers for action." They write that "the concept of organisational culture refers to the overall ethos of the organisation: those characteristics, including both psychological and structural elements, which affect the perceptions and behaviour of employees. (Fletcher & Jones, 1993). The authors continue by delineating 3 levels of organisational culture:

- 1) at the highest level, organisational culture is a general indication of organisational health.
- 2) at a more specific level, organisational culture can be viewed in terms of its effects on employees work.
- 3) at the next level, it is "an aggregation of the cognitive interpretations" of

people.

The authors say that it is this third level that is of key significance from an organisational perspective, particularly in terms of maximising the commitment, performance, and well-being of staff. These areas of interest are displayed in a measure called “the cultural audit.” (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991).

The implicit model is one where the environment impacts the individual directly and through the moderator of personality. All the measures obtained are self-perceptions.

This cultural audit has three domains:

- 1) The causes of problem that is the properties of the culture or climate
- 2) The outcomes (from individuals)
- 3) The moderator

In detail:

- 1) The causes of the problems are:
 - a) Work demands
 - b) Interpersonal relationships in the workplace
 - c) Work supports and constraints
 - d) The physical environment
 - e) The mission
 - f) Communication

g) Goals

h) Teamwork

2) The outcomes (from individuals) are:

a) Performance

b) Organisational commitment

c) Job satisfaction

d) Stress and strain (in terms of feelings of anxiety and depression)

3) The moderator is:

a) Personality.

The instrument is claimed to be unique in that 3 states are measured for each question and therefore each scale:

1) perception of one's own situation

2) perception of the situation of people around you

3) an estimate of one's ideal situation.

Overall, it provides a view as to how the organisation's "culture" is perceived.

According to (Ekvall,1987) there are two distinct approaches to the concept of organisational culture or climate. One is represented by the views expressed above as an attribute that can be observed and studied for example via inventories; the other is phenomenological.

In the phenomenological approach, the organisational climate is regarded as a “perceptual and cognitive structuring of the organisational situation common to organisational members.” This latter view is that an active process of engagement with the organisation assimilates the organisation climate. “Individuals encounter these various phenomena (organisational) and try to interpret them so that the world becomes comprehensible. They create a cognitive map for themselves.” (Ekvall, 1987).

Kirton & McCarthy (1988) examined the notion of people fitting into an organisation. They were primarily interested in the idea of cognitive differences between the people as problem solvers being sources of incompatibility. Using the Kirton inventory (KAI) as a measure of cognitive style they found that when the gaps between the managers and the staff exceeded 10 points on the KAI, then early signs of discomfort and stress would appear because the people with these differences would be potentially occupying different thought worlds when they were trying to solve the same problems. As the differences in KAI increased, the discomfort would turn to dislike, then a devaluation of the alternative approach and ultimately to departure.

The Fletcher cultural audit covers immediate issues of work demands, work goals and work supports, and more amorphous issues like mission, and communication. Using the distinctions above (section 3.6), this audit would be classified as a measure of culture and climate. The individual’s proactive approach to the world, in contrast to a passive or gradual acclimatisation process like osmosis, was articulated by (Kelly 1955). In his two volumes on the Theory of Personal constructs, Kelly views man as a scientist (but without the white coat) trying to make sense of the world. Man has views that are like scientist’s hypotheses that he tests against reality. If they are

validated by confirmation from others or by working in practice, they are incorporated into one's thinking as a set of stable, structured, and organized bipolar dimensions. This structure, its contents and their interrelationships are the personal constructs. They remain intact until changed by subsequent experience.

While individuals can choose whatever labels they want for their constructs, some theorists believe that the cognitive emphasis has gone too far and that feelings should be put back into the picture.

In the *Psychologist*, (Apter, 1997) complained that although his reversal theory was twenty years old, it had not been incorporated into the mainstream of Psychology. Reversal theory reinstates motivation and emotion as central concerns in understanding behaviour. Further, they cannot be solely reduced to cognitive processes but must be explored in terms of their own logic. The theory states that "there are a number of identifiable and discrete ways of experiencing the world, which are universal in the sense that every body experiences things through the same set", however he goes on to say that we pass through qualitatively different states as we experience the world and this means "we not only differ from each other, but also over time from ourselves." (Apter, 1997, p218). Reversal theory to some extent contradicts the consistency of personality as implied by the trait approaches. (Eysenck, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1985, 1992, 1993). Apter gives examples of people who seek high arousal in selected situations, for example sky diving, while avoiding it in others, such as work. (Apter, 1997).

In the 1970's, Hofstede who was the Personnel Director of IBM worldwide became concerned about the possible negative impact of IBM's Personnel practices and

policies in all countries. His concern was that while IBM was producing universal computers, it also appeared to have an assumption that there ought to be universal staff members as well, irrespective of the culture and norms of the 40 countries they were operating in.

Personnel Policies and Practices were being disseminated from IBM's Headquarters (in the USA) without much consideration or sensitivity to local traditions and practices. Hofstede's massive study, via some 116,000 questionnaires to IBM employees in these 40 countries covered cultural issues plus managerial practices. Hofstede says, "I define culture as the collective mental programming of the people in an environment. Culture is not a characteristic of the individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience." (Hofstede, 1984, p310). His questionnaire measured 4 dimensions:

- 1) Power Distance (the acceptance that unequal power and privilege is normal)
- 2) Uncertainty Avoidance (the extent to which the society believes that uncertainty is bad and then sets up procedures to reduce uncertainty)
- 3) Individualism (the extent to which the society believes that the individual is independent or alternatively part of a tight social network – collectivism)
- 4) Masculinity (the extent to which the society believes that it is natural to be domineering or "macho" instead of "feminine" and caring)

The results are presented as a set of 2 dimensional maps with countries clustered around each pair of dimensions. The positioning of a particular country on one of Hofstede's maps is an indication of the likely responses of some people in that

country and in IBM in relation to:

1) Motivation

2) Leadership

3) Organisation

4) Policy

The results showed that about 50% of the variance was accounted for by national culture and despite the conceptual distinction between organisational culture and national culture, the outcomes or areas of interest of motivation and leadership are similar to those studied by “climatic” psychologists according to Denison (1996). An alternative to this cultural view of Hofstede, expressed by Apter, (op cit) is that “reversal theory opposes the increasing spirit of cultural relativism which has in the form of social constructionism, come to pervade much of psychology. Instead, the emphasis of reversal theory is on cultural universals, and its assumption is that human nature is everywhere and at all times, fundamentally the same”. (Apter, 1997, p217).

A similar approach but to values at the organisational level rather than the national culture, with the mental programming definition of culture by Hofstede was implied in Harrison’s notion of “organisation ideology.” (Harrison, 1972) where he describes ideology as a set of values, styles of behaviours that characterises what kind of organisation you belong to and what your own beliefs are. The concepts are translated into an instrument with four types of ideologies covering a range of management practices and issues. The types are:

1) Power Ideology (a set of beliefs around the need to control people and things and therefore to pay less attention to other beliefs)

2) Role (a belief in boundaries and in the importance of rules regulations, job descriptions and procedures and a dislike of flexibility)

3) Task (the goal or end point is most important and the means must be adjusted to this)

4) Personal/Developmental (the belief is that the organisation is largely for learning and the personal development of the staff)

The person is asked to reflect upon the nature of their organisation in a series of issues and respond as it "is now" and what would be "ideal". For example: question 8

The basis of task assignment is:

1) the personal needs and judgment of those in authority

2) the formal divisions and functions of responsibility in the system

3) the resource and expertise requirements of the job to be done

4) the personal wishes and needs for learning and growth of the individual organisational members.

Ranking of the answers over all the issues produces the dominant ideology

The areas are:

1) a good boss

- 2) a good subordinate
- 3) a good member of the organisation gives priority to.
- 4) people who do well in the organisation
- 5) the organisation treats the individual
- 6) people are controlled and influenced by
- 7) it is legitimate for one person to control another's activities
- 8) the basis of task assignment is
- 9) work is performed out of
- 10) people work together
- 11) competition
- 12) conflict
- 13) decisions
- 14) the appropriate control and communication structure
- 15) the environment is responded to as though it were

Initially, the instrument was used as a diagnostic tool to raise employees understanding about most of the underlying beliefs in their organisation. The assumption was that if these beliefs were brought into awareness, they would provide a platform for changing the organisation.

Since the 1970's it has been used in Organisation Development but there were objections to the notion of "ideologies" because managers did not believe that their organisational practices were based on sound principles rather than "ideologies".

The instrument however does appear to get at a set of powerful beliefs and assumptions underpinning managerial practices and policies. It can also highlight gaps between "actual" and "ideal" on any of the 15 items and in terms of the overall rankings.

3.8) The Dynamics of Organisations.

As le Bon (1896) said: "The power of words is bound up with the images they evoke, and is quite independent of their real significance. Words whose sense is the most ill defined are sometimes those that possess the most influence. Such, for example, are the terms democracy, socialism, equality, liberty, etc., whose meanings are so vague that bulky volumes do not suffice to precisely fix it. Yet it is certain that a truly magical power is attached to those short syllables, as if they contained the solution of all problems. They synthesize the most diverse unconscious aspirations and the hope of their realisation." (p117).

The dynamics of the crowd or large group are clearly different from those of the small group. Bales (1950) definition of a small group was: "A small group is defined as any number of persons engaged in interaction with one another in a single face-to-face meeting or series of such meetings, in which each member receives some

impression or perception of each other member distinct enough so that he can, either at the time or in later questioning, give some reactions to each of the others as an individual person.”(p33). Face to face interaction as in the small group is unlikely to take place with the leader in a crowd. In fact it is more likely that the members of a large group, as Le Bon implied, identify with the “image” of the leader rather than the person. It is the charismatic component of leadership. The extraordinary response of many of the British public to Princess Diana is an example. She did not know them personally, but they felt, or believed that they knew her. People were willing to stand and queue for five to seven hours to sign a book of condolence. The crowd in itself, also appeared to have developed a set of beliefs about her vulnerability, or perceived mistreatment by the other Royals. (Abrams, 1997; Aron & Livingstone, 1997; Sayers, 1997). The beliefs were also likely to be subjected to condensation. (Erikson, 1959).

In organisations there are small groups within bigger groups (divisions) and these are within larger groups - the organisation. The dynamics of intergroup relations, particularly co-operation and competition have been well documented. (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood; & Sherif, 1961; and Turner, & Giles, 1981). The associated distortions of the perception of one’s own group and the attributions of motives about the others in competitive situations (we are good, they are bad) are also well known.

The dynamics of large groups are different from those of small groups so Schein (1980) suggests that if the competing groups can identify an external goal, then the groups have the possibility of work together. Such however are the self-reinforcing dynamics of the in-team, and the unconscious nature of the thought processes which resemble “groupthink” (Janis, 1972) that substantial barriers to outsiders and other views are built up within the group. Conflicting groups might only be coerced to co-

operate with each other when the organisation's survival is threatened. However, having established the psychology of "us" versus "them", this switch would require quite a re-orientation of perception.

British society was reported to have all pulled together during WWII, but afterwards, women for example who drove trains, and taxis, and who built tanks and aircraft were encouraged to return to home duties. In this situation, the requirements for war, largely determined by men and those in power were for unified effort. When the job was done, a similar group decided that a different set of requirements were to be met. In this case, the political and the cultural systems were linked. Key decisions were made in a social, economic and political context however it was the political and economic context that swayed most of the decisions. In a similar way, organisations can be viewed as political systems. For example Pettigrew (1972, 1973, 1977).

Political processes in organisations coincide with groups of people when they have different interests. These interest groups are likely to have different values, and therefore different goals. But overall, they have different ways of thinking about things or different rationalities that provide the political energy to motivate their actions and reactions. In organisations, the resulting culture is the outcome of processes of competition between the rationalities expressed through the language and the values of the technologists; of production; of accounting and the functional interests of specialists such as information technology (IT), planning, or personnel. In British Aerospace some five years ago, the IT function had become so big, in terms of consuming money, and employing so many specialists, and so complex that questions about its purpose as a function were raised by senior managers. The senior managers had experienced difficulty in managing and controlling it. Since the

core business was considered to be aircraft design and production, BAe decided to outsource the whole of its IT function. Although the function remained within the organisation, with people often in the same offices as before, the function was now a service, with a service contract to the main business of aircraft manufacture. This was a move, which recognised the politics of a powerful and knowledgeable interest group, when it was “internal”.

Action research with simulations like the Prisoner’s Dilemma, is well documented. The dilemma is basically a simulation or a game that can be construed as win-win for all parties or win-lose. Both the structure of the simulation and the personalities of the participants coalesce to make the simulation tilt to be more competitive and less co-operative between groups. Participants have to work hard to reconstrue the situation as a co-operative one, with a possible win-win outcome. The dynamics of the simulation are such that even when the participants know each other beforehand, it does not improve co-operation. So, despite the presence and importance of overarching organisational objectives, Dunphy and Dick’s (1987) research shows that in large organisations, particularly 2000 people plus, the members are motivated more by the roles and standards of their formal and informal groups rather than the attributes of the organisation as a whole.

For Pettigrew, (1985), the point at which political processes become most transparent is in times of change. The concern for organisational resources in times of a steady state situation is intensified even when a change is anticipated as well as executed. The changes can ultimately affect the distribution of resources like salaries and other forms of money, promotion opportunities, careers, and jobs; in fact the whole lifestyle of work. In the lead-up to the actual changes, the anticipatory process is one of

influence.

The organisational culture can be shaped by the politics in the organisation. The organisational culture is embedded with values, beliefs, stories and myths, which serve to amplify and legitimise the actions of one group and attenuate and delegitimise the actions of others. The management of meaning is one of the key attributes of leadership, and of organisational culture. As Pettigrew (1985) wrote, "While providing a general sense of orientation, culture treated as a unitary concept...lacks analytical bite. A more useful approach is to regard culture as the source of a family of concepts and to explore the role that symbolism, language and belief, and myth play in creating practical effects" (p44).

Diamond (1991) has an interest in political psychology and is particularly concerned with the possibility of institutions being used for tyrannical purposes. Diamond writes: "Organisations are human-made environments. They are produced and reproduced by groups of people as particular ways of relating and working. They would not exist without group consensus or collusion upon a set of unconscious values, norms, and ideas" (p510). In the same vein, Allaire and Firsirotu (1984), and Pfeffer (1981) believe that the concept of organisational culture goes beyond explicit culture expressed by Schein, (1980) to myths, values and ideologies.

Although language has the capacity to provide apparent order and coherence, McLuhan's famous adage that the medium is the message, implies that the medium of presentation is also important and now an important part of organisational culture. (McLuhan, 1994). In organisations, interest groups ensure that the language and myths give legitimacy to new ideas while outlawing old ones, and rejuvenate an old

idea under threat. When an idea is faced with opposition, as signified by behaviours of people or by an articulated strategy, or values in the organisational culture, one way of moving towards acceptance is to modify the idea or just rename it and convert it to so that it becomes aligned with the current values and organisational priorities, so that the idea survives.

A case study quoted in Clegg (1996) illustrates this. Intel was primarily interested in devices such as microprocessors that are at the heart of any computer. The philosophy at the time had been to develop the best line of these. At the time it was the 386 and this led to 486, 586, and so on. There was however an interest group led by an engineer (Kohn) who had been talking for ages about a radical process to be put on a chip called a reduced instruction set, or RISC processor. Since this new and radical approach might replace the 386 series and was not in the Intel management's mindset, the interest group renamed the product as a co-processor that would work **alongside** the existing 386 series. They continued to obtain funds to develop this new processor. While the Intel board members have a clutch of PhD's, the interest group got around them, partly because of the cognitive fit of their new product. Linking the concepts of power and organisation culture is another way of explaining what is going on in organisations.

While psychoanalysts describe the formation and maintenance of the basic assumption culture (in contrast to the task culture) as an unconscious process, largely derived from family relationships in childhood, for example Bion (1961), it is also possible that what is going on back-stage in organisations is unconscious. In organisations what is up-front is the transparent demonstration of decision-making and power, but what is back-stage, is the influence and control **underlying or**

underpinning these decisions.

This dual process is most easily shown in organisations in Japan. The process behind the scenes of talking to key people beforehand is well understood. In Japanese organisations, these discussions “around the roots” beforehand mean that when the decision is ultimately made in “public” in the group, there is virtually no disagreement since all the groundwork has been done beforehand. The decision is unanimous, and no one loses face.

In both organisational processes, one up on stage and the other behind the stage, there is a role for culture. The public face is formal and displays things such as position power, and expertise. The less obtrusive aspect of culture however is derived from the general manipulation of symbol, belief, ideology, and language, perhaps even colour. Mangham (1986) considers that organisational processes are like theatre with a performance up front for the audience and another drama for the staff back stage and both have to be understood and managed.

The importance of managing meaning is that the physical aspects of organisations, broadly described, as systems, structures, tools and technology are not neutral. They are connected to customers needs, via efficiency, productivity, innovation, or adaptability and they can be linked to the organisational culture in ways, which protect the interests of some groups, and reduce the challenges of others. The choice of tools and technologies may be rational and or it may be based on the meanings that people ascribe to them and their use. African countries without adequate water supplies have sometimes purchased the most modern computers or telephone systems to demonstrate that they are modern societies.

When it comes to problem solving, Kirton (1976), described in his case studies how people who had failed to solve the problem presented tended to be “adaptors” who had used solutions which did upset organisational norms, subsequently received support and sympathy despite failure. Others however, most probably “innovators” who had succeeded in solving the problem and had challenged the rules or changed the system with unorthodox solutions, received grudging acceptance and often silence. The KAI review/feedback form contains the perception of adaptors and innovators by each other. (Kirton, 1985, 1992). In addition to the personal remarks, contrasting views about the culture are presented. Innovators for example see adaptors as “conforming”, and “wedded to the system”. Adaptors on the other hand see innovators as “threatening the established system and creating dissonance”. The fact that both innovators and adaptors coexist in organisations shows that there may be both integrated views and differentiated views of the organisational culture.

If leadership is all about creating and interpreting the organisational culture as Schein (1985) has urged, then according to the notion of reflexivity (Kelly, 1955) it is also open to the recipients to interpret the organisational culture and extract meaning from it. Hence adaptors, and innovators can be in the same physical space but “construe” technical problems as well the organisational culture differently. In essence, they are operating in different thought worlds. It is for these reasons, that two levels of environment were measured in this research:

- 1) The manager in proximity to the individual subordinate or subject - the so called most significant manager over the last 3-6 months, and

2) The properties of the wider environment, both at a macro level in terms of mission, and communication, goals and support, and at a micro level in terms of job characteristics. The measure covers elements of both the small group dynamics and the dynamics of large groups.

3.9 Summary.

While Bass's work on leadership and that of his associates (for example Yammarino & Bass, 1990, and Avolio, 1994) has generated a stream of further research, their focus has been on clear-cut connections between different styles of leadership and outcomes such as effectiveness, extra effort and job satisfaction. While there might have been an implication that this link was via the organisational culture or climate, no specific intervening variables were mentioned. For others however, the study of leadership has been through the eyes of the leaders and the followers. In this type of approach, the meaning associated with leadership and the styles are of interest, for example, Tierney (1989).

It was Schein (1985) who was most forceful as he approached leadership from an environmental perspective. For him, the role of leadership was to create the culture and imbue it with relevance and meaning in order to align people with the leaders thinking. Monoculture or differentiated culture, it was an artifact that the leader could have a great deal of control over. While Schein implied that this control process was for the benefit of all, others have suggested that there was a time, some ten years ago when leaders were developing new organisational cultures to be seen to be doing the right thing. Their visions, mission statements, and their values of

empowerment and so on were largely about self-promotion or being seen to be doing the “right” thing.

In contrast however, for Bauman, et al, op, cit, in the takeover of Glaxo it was clear that the role of the directors was alignment of all people with the corporate strategy.

Other forms of organisational culture were seen to be promoting a product or service.

In the specific example of wine, culture was linked to its origin of cultivation and the soil (le terroir). With a new brand of perfume, a striving for equal status with others in the market place resulted in the marketing people calling it “an impostor”. The attempts to create or maintain an aura around a product and to defend it against others, matches the concept that leadership is all about the interpretation and management of meaning, both inside and outside the organisation. This is formally recognised in the finances in many organisations by a monetary figure being placed on the value of the brand, and of course preventing others from using it inappropriately.

With employees at work, similar interpretations are made by managers or leaders and transmitted, via the organisational culture. Mundane or purposeless jobs are given a higher purpose, in order to maintain and motivate employees. For others already with interesting work, the organisational culture continues to support that higher order purpose. Organisational culture serves as an umbilical cord between the employee and the organisation. It elaborates or elevates a purpose when there is one. It fills a vacuum and gives purpose when one is absent.

Psychoanalysts imply that organisational culture has a more emotional source. For them, organisational culture is an adult extension of the maternal “holding

environments” so essential for infant development. The notion is that this first relationship with a loving parent sets the pattern, even if it is unconscious, for the expectation of a variety of “holding environments” in adulthood. One of these would be in the organisation. The aspect, which most closely replicates the stability and continuity in the organisation, is the organisation culture. There are however skeptics with this transference process. Adults develop other intimate relationships and develop a degree of psychological independence. Nevertheless, the primacy of the childhood relationship does raise questions as to whether or not there are employee expectations that the organisational culture ought to provide continuity, dependability and support to the employee and some form of identity or self-concept. For some writers, despite the improvements in living standards of employees, parts of this modern Britain were characterised as a psychological dependency culture. Mant (1979). For Miller (1993) it was dependency in and on an organisation, for Thatcher it was dependency on the State (Adonis & Hames, 1994; and Paul, 1994).

Returning to the role of leadership in creating and maintaining the organisational culture, the most recent turning point came with the publicity and the publication of “In Search of Excellence” (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Their prescriptions from America’s best-run companies, led many managers to set off on a crusade to install the appropriate values, beliefs and the practices in their own organisations.

Despite some objections from their staff about the uniqueness in their own organisations this quest continued. Businesses shed people and sold unrelated business and then acquired other core businesses to adhere to the principle of “sticking to their knitting” for example. These and other principles were followed until some of the companies in the original case studies failed and the next book,

"Thriving on Chaos" (Peters, 1989) appeared.

In this second book, the consistency of the first set of principles was turned on its head and the new prescription was that people in organisations had to cope with the turbulence, unpredictability, and the **chaos** of the environment and adapt to it. Many managers were perplexed, and now cynical. Furthermore, when Peters was questioned about the changes, he admitted that some of the original organisations did not continue to learn. The style of his answers however provoked anger amongst some managers. Peters' answers were interpreted as a cavalier or whimsical approach to the research in the organisations he had studied earlier, and to the damage caused; rather than an admission that what he chose to look at was simply his choice and was somewhat arbitrary as far as the world at large was concerned.

The managers were also reminded that the process of establishing the principles, or the guidelines for any organisation was as important as the principles themselves.

Overall, what Peters did do, was first to stimulate managers to take control of their organisations, initially, on the basis of the lessons from *In Search of Excellence*, and then the second time around, with *Thriving on Chaos*, take control of the researchers and any of the prescriptions they made while involved in the manager's organisation. A parallel development was also occurring in HR. The notion of shareholder value or added value was much more important. Employees were being recruited, promoted and trained against specific competences, linked to the purpose of the organisation. (Guest, 1999).

The first general approach to organisational culture, irrespective of the attributes measured or observed, was that top managers could construct a culture and continue

to reinforce and promote it like an advertising campaign so that the whole ethos would be shared by all employees and acted upon with enthusiasm. This was the cultural integration perspective. For Schein (1985), for example, the organisational culture could be taken up and reshaped, molded, and then described like a piece of sculpture. Like a piece of sculpture, the raw material could be described for what it is in terms of its physical properties and in terms of its geometry. It could also be described in terms of its meaning, or intended meaning.

In the integrated approaches to organisational culture, differences such as doubts, or concerns about values, or the different interests of occupational groups were treated as impediments or challenges to be overcome. Like the salesman in training invariably receives training on “**overcoming**” objections, rather than fully recognising them. The end result is still to reach a homogenous and unified culture for a critical mass of employees. (Odiorne, 1981).

Criticisms of the methodology in the integrated view of organisation culture ranged from looking for uniformity and therefore ignoring pockets of resistance or ignorance, marginalising differences, to criticisms about the researchers alignment with the hierarchical structure of the organisation, particularly management, rather than recognising the views of all the stakeholders.

Overall, however, the integration studies have been the most helpful to managers in organisations. Despite not highlighting the interests of other employees, managers have used organisational culture as an attempt to align people and improve productivity, just as they would use tools or technology for improvement. Readers of this chapter, will no doubt be aware of the power of the software, like “Microsoft

Word” to shape the way people write, and work overall.

An alternative approach to organisational culture has been to look for differences. Even if there is a top management culture that is published and shown to the outside world, it is possible for the internal culture or the work group culture to be different. Professionals like accountants, lawyers and doctors and psychologists often have stronger loyalties to their profession. They subscribe to the journal, are members of the Society attend meetings and conferences with similar professionals and have a published code of professional conduct. In some ways they are like modern Freemasons. A lot of the assumptions about work and its place in the organisation do not have to be articulated. They tend to have had similar experiences and share similar values.

One of the hurdles professionals may face on their way into a management role is the subordination of their professional values to those of the organisation. (Blankenship, 1977; Illich, 1977; and Broadbent, Dietrich & Roberts, 1997). In extremis, Van Maanen (1991) found that in the work culture at Disneyland, staff hassled customers they disliked, and ignored their supervisors.

In Europe, there is a bipolar attitude to diversity; it was Hofstede’s sensitivity that led him to explore cultural differences in IBM. European organisations are supposed to value differences while incorporating them in an organisation.

While Schein (1985) had largely defined the mono-culture in terms of meaning and values, and their interpretation, others like Mangham (1986), Mangham & Overington (1987) and Pettigrew (1973, 1977, 1979) studied two parts of organisational culture, one, the part that was “up front” and second, the pieces that were behind the scenes.

As part of this analysis, the role of interest groups and their power and influence was key. This was the notion of cultural “differentiation”. Differentiation required researchers to penetrate the veneer and to look for issues below the surface. For Pettigrew the issues were conscious but not openly articulated; for the psychoanalysts, for example Tavistock staff, the issues were present but unconscious and had to be interpreted. Other writers however pursued this differentiation further. Even with the recognition of differences there was still a view that researchers were still imposing their frameworks and interpretations on the people and the organisation (culture). In Search of Excellence for example was interpreted by many managers as a **prescription** rather than a **process**. The suggestion was that, in the tradition of the anthropologist, the researcher could become a working member of the organisation, and observe and experience what is going on from the inside. For example the psychiatrist Ronald Laing posed as a patient and gained admission to a psychiatric hospital. He stayed and wrote about it. Some of the patient’s behaviours were contrived to match the expectations of the staff, particularly during inspections or visits. (Laing, 1967). However others believe that there is still the expert imposition of models and measures of organisational culture on others. (Illich, 1977, Torstendahl & Burrage, 1990).

A further development is to start from the point that there is no real truth, just perception. The emphasis would be on a stakeholder interpretation and construction of organisational culture. The issue for the researcher would be to be involved without the researcher simply transcribing the views of the various stakeholders.

An extension of the differentiation viewpoint has been called fragmentation. This is where the organisational beliefs and values are separate and not readily available to other participants. They comprise a fragmented set of individual beliefs and perspectives. These are complex and changing. Agreement is thought to be temporary and located around particular issues. It is a set of short-lived affinities.

This distinction around stability and continuity is perhaps one way that the definition of a fragmented organisational culture downshifts to organisational climate. The distinction between culture and climate would be:

1) beliefs and values are the attributes of organisational cultures, while affinities and interests are the attributes of organisational climates.

2) organisational cultures are relatively stable and consistent while organisational climates are transient and issue dependent.

By using definitions like this, it is possible for culture and climate to co-exist. They are increasing degrees of differentiation. At one level there will be a set of values that are widely accepted, believed, and acted upon. At a second level, there will be other values, and practices that are held by interest groups. Some aspects will be visible, some will be hidden, and some will be unconscious. At the third level there will be the attributes of the climate. This third level is made up of sentiments like the shifting sands of a beach or channel.

Whatever the definitions are, organisational cultures and climates are realities in the minds of the organisations members and the customers. An understanding of their organisational culture is a key goal for employees, managers and researchers. If not,

then organisations can become “psychic prisons” as Morgan (1986) implied.

In conclusion, the concept of organisational climate as distinct from culture needs to be re-established, as the literature on culture has tended to push out the concept of climate. For example, the recent handbook of organisation studies by Clegg, Hardy & Nord (1996) does not mention “climate” in the index.

For leaders of organisations however whose primary role is the survival of the organisation (and themselves), recognition of the intergroup rivalries and the bounded interests of functional departments and work groups motivates these leaders to find a process to bond them altogether. Creating and maintaining a set of overarching and relatively enduring values is an attempt to find meanings that everyone recognizes and can identify with. It may also reduce anxiety in leaders and followers as they face the uncertainties of marketplace and technological changes. The need for both a concept of culture and climate is apparent because the strategic process of engaging both the external environment and the internal environment of the organisation can be paradoxical. For some organisations, the external environment ultimately shapes the internal environment whereas for others, the internal environment shapes the external one. With a market-oriented philosophy, overarching values and ideas, such as the preservation of the organisation defined as culture are required while still allowing space for local issues and interests defined as climate to emerge and develop.

For senior managers, the Management Charter Initiative articulates four main tasks:

- 1) Understanding and influencing the external environment
- 2) Setting the strategy and gaining commitment (largely internal but with some external orientation)
- 3) Planning implementation
- 4) Evaluating and improving performance

As Lord Hanson explains. "It is the central tenet of my faith that the shareholder is king. The shareholder is rarely out of my mind and we never forget who they are". Another UK plc, Lex Service incorporates other interest groups. "We believe that our goals are only achievable if we maintain a high level of employment security in a supportive environment. We will exercise responsibility in our dealings with all our stakeholders and in the case of conflict balance the interest of employees and shareholders on an equal basis over time". (Both quotations from Campbell & Goold, 1988, p 114). In contrast, Beer & Eisenstat (1990) as well as Williams, Dobson & Walters (1996) remind us that effective organisation renewal may start at the bottom rather than at the top.

This is the paradox. Culture to hold the intergroup competition and divergent interests together at the highest level for a common purpose and to reduce uncertainty, while simultaneously having a climate that allows for the change, elaboration and development of local interests in line with personal development (Kelly, 1955) and individual and organisation learning (Honey & Mumford, 1986. and Senge, 1990).

Alvesson (1993) has criticized the management approaches to organisation culture. His views are that what is usually described as corporate culture is better referred to as an organisational ideology. The management approaches neglect organic changes initiated by employees. (In Jablin & Putnam, 2001, p311). But for leaders this is exactly what culture is, a political process to integrate potential differences.

CHAPTER IV - INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN FOLLOWERS

Our own life is the instrument with which we experiment with truth. Thich Nhat Hanh

4.1 Problem Solving, Creativity or Confusion?

Prior to his return to Japan, an MBA student in Britain in his article titled 'Nice Theory Shame about the Implementation' wrote about the different priorities or preferences of British and Japanese managers in organisations. He had observed that British managers were more likely to be excited with the development of the idea whereas Japanese managers paid more attention to implementation or conversion of the idea into a commercial product. (Ashridge Review, 1994).

While the process of producing original ideas has been called creativity, probably because of the literary traditions of a written culture in Britain, the commercialisation or the crafting of the product into something practical has been called innovation. (Majaro, 1991). If conceptual distinctions are needed, then both processes need to be understood by managers in modern organisations.

Drucker (2002) labelled people in modern organisations as 'knowledge workers'. However with modern communications, databases, and with information of a kind widely available for example, via the Internet, it is more likely that these people do more than add, shape, blend or manipulate knowledge. In many cases they use their knowledge as a starting point or as a platform to solve problems. Problems like privatising a state industry which had not been done before, for example British Telecom, and British Gas.

In this section, various understandings and definitions of problem solving in terms of innovation and creativity will be explored to see if they add value and understanding to the mainstream of life in modern organisations, that is, to provide help in solving

problems.

The Department of Trade and Industry in Britain (dti) has enlisted the help of many researchers to improve Britain's industrial performance. Glossy booklets under the main heading of Managing in the '90s such as 'Innovation-your move' and 'Managing for Success' have been produced in huge quantities and given to industry. The Department of Trade and Industry has defined innovation as the commercialisation of an idea. (dti;1984). Much of the research they have commissioned has examined the situations, largely the characteristics of the organisations, in their widest terms, which will enable ideas to surface and be actively transformed into commercial products or services. Examples of this kind of research are the work done at, The Institute of Work Psychology at The University of Sheffield; Warwick University; and London Business School.

Amabile (1996) implies that most theorists and researchers adopt a creativity definition focused on the product as novelty that is useful. Amabile points out that there are also definitions of creativity based on the person and on the process but because of difficulties in assessment of people and processes in problem solving, product measures are considerably more straightforward. In this context, a definition of creativity endorsed by like-minded people is proposed. "A product or response is creative to the extent that appropriate observers agree it is creative. Appropriate observers are familiar with the domain in which the product was created or the response articulated." (Amabile, 1996, p33). Thus Creativity is the production of new or novel and useful ideas that can receive the endorsement of others.

With regard to implementation implying acceptance and endorsement in organisations, the literature is full of references about “overcoming” resistance to change. For example, Drucker (1967); Odiorne (1981); and Argyris & Schon (1982). In Britain, some creative plans never saw the light of day. Sir Patrick Sheehy’s report on changes to the Police Force was wholeheartedly rejected, even by senior police officers. The report contained management practices such as goal setting, performance appraisal and promotion by merit rather than seniority that were standard practice in industry. (Sheehy, 1993a, 1993b).

Implicit recognition of unanticipated problems led to the conceptual definition of creativity as “ A product or response will be judged as creative to the extent that (a) it is both novel and appropriate, useful, correct or valuable response to the task at hand, and (b) the task is heuristic rather than algorithmic.” (Amabile ,1996, p35). In a heuristic situation, the path is unclear so the clear path i.e. the algorithm must be developed. Underpinning a definition with the words of appropriate, useful, correct or valuable are so difficult to define in relation to creativity in organisations, that further definitions need to be explored.

Some definitions of innovation are quite close to definitions of creativity in that they focus on the production of ideas rather than the transfer of ideas into a product. For example, the approach by Drucker (1991) is concerned with ‘the purposeful and organised search for changes’. Other definitions are oriented towards implementation but include both idea generation and implementation. For Kanter (1992) innovation is itself an intensely political process. New ideas always cut across the grain of established interests, and thus they always involve a portion of conflict – conflict over alternative uses for resources, conflict between the proponents of

change and the advocates of no change which inevitably advances the interests of one group over another. (p53-54). An initial definition by Amabile (1996) now looks inadequate and unrealistic in light of the comments by Kanter (1992).

According to Mooney (1963), there are four significantly different approaches to creativity; depending on which one the person uses to gain his 'initial hold':

- 1) Creativity as the environment
- 2) Creativity as the product, that is, the output
- 3) Creativity as the process, that is, the shaping and manipulation of activities along the way
- 4) Creativity as the person, that is, their psychology

Item 1) creativity in the environment is usually labeled as culture and climate and perhaps leadership that support the individual in the pursuit of new products and services. Products and services are sometimes labeled as creative in an organisation's marketing literature. There is however, no real need for this, they could simply be called new, or novel or whatever they turn out to be for the user. They might truly be called "creative" when they in turn stimulate the user to change their thinking and behaviours to be creative.

4.2 Creativity as Personal Expression

In the concluding chapter of a book from the Seventh National research Conference on Creativity (Taylor, 1972), Abraham Maslow wrote that despite the sheer quantity of research, 'theory in this realm has not advanced very much' (p287).

Maslow's view was that there was a relationship between his hierarchy of personal needs, and the expression of creative problem solving styles and the problem solver's psychological health.

For Maslow, the issue with problem solving style is not just about products or processes but people and their needs. Is the person expressing creativity someone who is distinctive and whose creativity is an integral part of their personality and lifestyle, or is it another learned, although rather complex, skill?

Cattell saw creativity as an expression of personality, as with all other behaviours! He derived a criterion equation for 'creativity' by using reference samples of creative people. The criterion for 'creativity' was simply the observer's or recipients considered judgment of the attribute in the other person - presumably estimated on actual behaviour rather than on the basis of an implicit assessment of personality traits. In examining the profile of the creative person, as described in the 16PF manual (Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970) it is evident that by far the biggest factor is B (an untimed and approximate measure of intelligence) with an average score of 9. The personality characteristics in comparison with the average person (American) were approximately

- 1) -A (reserved)
- 2) +E assertive
- 3) -F serious
- 4) +H adventurous
- 5) +I sensitive
- 6) +M imaginative
- 7) -N forthright
- 8) +Q1 experimenting
- 9) +Q2 self-sufficient

One needs to remember that these components were originally factors with

invented names. Later on for clarity they were converted into letters as above with approximate descriptions in English.

Maddi expressed a reaction against the situational and somewhat impersonal view in understanding creativity in his chapter titled 'The Strenuousness of the Creative Life'. (Taylor and Getzels, 1975). Although Maddi acknowledges the findings from research on creativity, he wonders whether or not the behaviours described by some authors were remarkable enough to be considered creative. Maddi also recognised personal motivation. One element of this may be an inner drive to be creative so that one must do it in that you have no choice. He recognises that creative ideas are not often met with social support, so the drive to continue must be quite strong. There is also the possibility that people solving problems in creative ways have specific personality problems and are trying to resolve via the creative process. Evidence for this comes from artists and their links with psychopathology. Freud (1910) implied that the creative person might be working out unresolved conflicts. In the old fashioned psychiatric hospitals, it was not uncommon to see patients in large halls painting pictures as a serious form of self-expression and therapy. While Freud with his over-representative sample of patients who were supposed to be high on neuroticism, identified their psychological problems as emanating from unresolved inner conflicts, later writers also looked for links between creativity and personality disorders. Fairburn (1938) and Grotjahn (1957) have suggested that creation is a process whereby ones aggressive and destructive trends are expressed in a socially useful way and the person thereby finds relief.

The theme of psychopathology in creativity continues to this day.

Lowmann (1992) in a text on counselling the creative writes: 'There appears to be some predictability to work issues that arise for those whose business is to generate the new and different, and to shape the society of the future', (p214). He goes on to mention that pathfinders run the risk of having few fans. Babiak (1995) describes a case study of a person he calls an 'industrial psychopath' managing in an organisation undergoing chaotic change. Here instead of being at a disadvantage, one might use manipulative skills to effectively manage the discrepant views of supporters and detractors. He implies that 'industrial psychopaths' do not appear to show anti-social and deviant behaviours, at least in their organisations!

The notion of FIT (Flexible-Innovative-Trainability-Personality) as described by Fletcher and Stead (1997) is a new approach to adaptability in personality which exploits the part of the debate that personality has a part of it's variance not explicable by heredity. Two factors are of interest here, awareness of the situation and one's likely impact, and the behaviour repertoire available for the FIT person to choose from.

4.3 Creativity as a Personal Investment

Adler and Jung with their much wider samples of patients and clients than Freud saw creativity as a positive force with the artist for example expressing his noble ideals via his work of art. The concept of mental energy was central to Freud's dynamic theory of personality. The concept was called cathexis, which is a translation from the original German 'Besetzung' meaning 'investment'.

The notion is that the objects or issues outside the person become representations that are invested with mental energy and thereby have the power to affect behaviours either now or in the future. (Freud, 1910).

The view of these practitioner-writers is that a perception only gains significance when it is charged with energy.

The experiments on restricted stimulation are also worth recalling. The early and today frightening sensory deprivation experiments at Princeton with subjects isolated and deprived of stimulation by immersion in a tank of water are well known. The initial relaxation of the subject was followed by tension, mental imagery, hidden methods of self-stimulation and a need to escape in less than three hours. (Fiske & Maddi, 1961). Similar results were reported by Shurley (1960) and Cambareri (1958). Reports from natural disasters or deprivation in captivity have also described similar and awful experiences. The human need for both physical and intellectual stimulation in adults as well as children is evident.

Theories of motivation like those of Herzberg (1968), that placed great emphasis on interesting and intellectually demanding work have been heavily criticised for their methodology. The approach in the research was to ask people to describe what happened in two scenarios at work:

- 1) When they felt good, and
- 2) When they felt bad

The motivators and the hygiene factors were distilled from the stories by the researcher. It was a natural defence according to the critics for the subjects to blame something or someone else for their “bad” feelings while attributing the good feelings to aspects closer to them.

Despite the criticism, the two-factor theory identified the motivators as being intrinsic to the job.

For example, if the job was interesting, and challenging with an opportunity for people to achieve things and be responsible for them, then people would be attracted to the job and interested in it. External rewards, although operating via complex and individual interpretations, largely reinforced this intrinsic motivation. If the rewards were unfair then they might produce dissatisfaction but this was not the same as motivation. The continuum was from dissatisfaction to absence of dissatisfaction (but still no motivation) and then to motivation. The principle was that in order to be creative, the person had to have a job that was in itself stretching their problem solving skills and requiring them to be creative. They had to engage the problem and work with it.

The research produced specifications of the job characteristics and this in turn led to the whole field of Job Enrichment (Herzberg, 1968; Herzberg, Paul & Robertson, 1971) to Semi-Autonomous Work Groups (Emery & Thorsrud, 1976).

As VOLVO in Sweden in the 70's struggled with quality in their cars, due to lack of worker interest in the over-simplified jobs, the managers decided to build in Kalmar, Sweden a brand new car assembly plant around these new ideas of more demanding and challenging jobs and other related ideas. It was a central belief of the managers at the time (1972) that if they were using people as resources, then they must use the whole person and particularly their knowledge and problem solving skills. If the physical and problem solving skills of the workers were not to be used, then the proposition was to take the person out of the assembly line and automate the operation. This is the situation in most car assembly plants today.

Evans and Bartholome (1986), in their studies of managers described the 'prisoner of success' syndrome. The managers with this syndrome had jobs that satisfied their needs and values so closely, that the work was more stimulating than any other activity outside of work such as the family. In another study of intrinsic enjoyment in work, Csikszentmihalyi (1975, 1996) found that enjoyable work creates absorption. People enter into a state called 'experience flow': they concentrate on the work, forget about personal problems, lose all sense of time and feel competent and in control. For some of the subjects (in this case, surgeons), the experience was addictive and like a narcotic. Joggers experience similar addiction due to physiological changes, so they must run, rain or shine. Research in the psychobiological domain has shown that when a person senses novelty, change or stimulus overload, the neuroendocrine responses increase coping effectiveness, at least in the short term. If the person has control, then the response is not damaging (physiologically?). If however, the person is not in control and feels helpless and distressed then subsequent damage to the cardiovascular system will result. (Frankenhaeuser & Johansson, 1986).

4.4 Creativity and the Problem - A Marriage?

A great deal of research has focused on personality characteristics or traits of the creative person. In the USA, the Office of Strategic Services (1948), as they were involved in the psychometric assessment of officers in World War II, they were able to amass data about the characteristics of those selected and rejected as officer material. Although their initial concern was with highly effective people, they subsequently studied so called creative people such as scientists, writers, mathematicians and artists.

These subjects appeared to be self-confident, flexible, self-accepting, independent in thought and less concerned with social restraints, while having at the same time, an awareness of both the outer and the inner world. (MacKinnon, 1961). In contrast, the less creative people appeared to value virtue, good character, rationality and concern for others. In contrast, Barron (1963) found that highly creative writers had more psychological problems than average but also had more resources for coping with their problems. Positioning creativity as residing in the person and leading to a relationship with the environment via the problem brings to the forefront the persons cognitive and motivational systems.

What is creative is not only the solution of the problem but also the reorganisation of the problem and the situation in line with the persons systems of motivation and cognition. Taylor's (1972) view is that if there are differences between the person and the problem or the environment then these can be resolved either by accommodation to the majority view or by reorganisation of the environment to match the person's inner world. The latter may result in creativity. In their work on cognitive fit, Kirton and McCarthy (1988) have found that a cognitive gap of one standard deviation, on the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Problem Solving Style Indicator, which is about 16 points between people, can create enormous cognitive discomfort. These authors have introduced the notion of coping strategies for those people who are able to adjust to such differences.

From a different direction of research, more oriented to the clinical situation and personal problems, Bijttebier and Vertommen (1997), have studied the properties of the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI), a self-report measure of how people respond to a particular stressor.

They find 3 factors:

- 1) Problem solving strategies
- 2) Seeking social support
- 3) Avoidance.

Factor 1 (problem solving strategies) has items such as:

- Re-arrange things around you
- Brainstorm all possible solutions
- Try different ways to solve the problem.

Kirton's theory is that people have preferences in the ways that they solve problems, and that individuals are normally distributed from adaptors who might be described as conventional problem solvers to innovators who are likely to have unorthodox views as well as being prolific producers of ideas. It would appear that Kirton's innovators already have one of the pre-dispositions to assist them in coping with difficulties in their organisations. Kirton (1976, 1977, 1980, 1985, 1990, 1994a, 1994b).

Taylor (1975) expounds a multi-level view of creativity

- 1) As a reaction to the situation
- 2) As an interaction with the situation
- 3) As a transaction with the situation
- 4) As a transformation of both the person and the situation

Both the quantity and the quality of the 'engagement' increase in the shift from category 1 to category 4.

At this fourth level, the person transforms their experiences into a creative product that ushers in a host of new outcomes. Taylor calls this 'generative'. This fourth approach to problem solving stands in sharp contrast to the first. In the first, the environment and the structure of the problem shape the person's responses while in the fourth, the environment is changed into a different state. It is possible also, that these changes also reflect back in to changes in both the content and the organisation of the person's cognitions.

Kelly's theory of personal constructs (Kelly, 1955) allows people to construe or interpret the problem according to the state of their current cognitive system with the added facility to enable modification of the constructs as a result of engagement with the situation.

Kelly expresses these attributes as three corollaries of:

- 1) construction
- 2) organisation and
- 3) experience.

Learning theorists, for example Kolb (1983, 1985) and Honey & Mumford (1986) have similar theories that also allow for the person to change their approach as a result of experience and learning. There is a four-stage process/style/type model of:

- 1) Planning what to do (Theorist type)
- 2) Doing it (Pragmatist type)
- 3) Absorbing or engaging the associated experiences (Activist type) and then
- 4) Reflecting and then updating the mental model. (Reflector type). This completes the learning cycle.

If people are able to re-construct the situation then it is possible that they may not take the problem as it first appears, but begin the problem solving process at a different stage, for example the discovery phase. It is in these models of learning that the processes problem solving and learning converge. If all the four processes or stages are actively engaged, then the original formulation of the problem is either validated by a confirming experience or negated to be elaborated and changed and made ready for the next trial. The original hypothesis, theory, plan, schema, construct system or cognition has changed.

4.5 Problem Solving and IQ

Getzels & Csikszentmihalyi (1975) raise the question as to why there has been so much emphasis in the research on problem solving compared with problem finding. Their general view is that because of the historical preoccupation with intelligence, and particularly IQ measurement, the topic of creativity as a distinctive process was neglected. Furthermore, it was often assumed that intelligence measured most mental processes and ought to indicate the potential for creative problem solving as well. As early as the 1960's, studies were beginning to indicate that general measures of creativity such as originality were unrelated to intelligence, except in the minds of some of the observers. And yet, even to this day, observers, for example in criterion studies are asked to make judgements of the subjects which were probably made up of both creative style and capacity. (Cattell, Tatsuoka & Eber, 1970; and Saville & Holdsworth, 1993). Confusion about the orthogonal relationship between problem solving style and intelligence/capacity still persists. Repeated research shows that the relationship between problem solving style and numerous measures of intelligence is near enough to zero.

It is therefore possible to be very brainy according to intelligence tests and still solve problems in a traditional manner, which does not achieve the breakthrough or the paradigm shift. (Kirton, 1976; Clapp & De Ciantis, 1989). The view that creativity was also a gift possessed by the few and might be associated with neuroses or psychoses did not help to widen the appeal of creativity as a research concept.

To justify the value of finding problems as well as solving them, Getzels & Csikszentmihalyi (1976) examined both the preparatory sketches and the final work of artists. They found that the overall aesthetic value and originality in artist's subsequent and final drawings were related to their initial problem finding or discovery orientation scores some time earlier. The process of investing time and energy in problem finding paved the way for enhanced creativity in the final artistic product. Creativity thus appears to be the end result of the accumulation of ideas rather than a single spontaneous event.

4.6 Creativity, Innovation and Opposition

History indicates that many creative problem solvers initially experienced institutional or shared opposition. As one sits in the lecture theatre of the Royal Society and gazes at the names engraved in the plaster of the ceiling, the names of many distinguished engineers and scientists are observed.

Brunel is included. History recalls Brunel's difficulties in convincing people that iron ships would float or that iron bridges were feasible.

Others names, not engraved, and later inventors like Brown with the invention of the cathode ray tube in this computer monitor found immediate and direct acceptance, which has continued until today and has only recently found a competitor with liquid crystal displays (LCD's). Those engineers, such as Brunel, who were challenging traditional crafts and well-held beliefs, were in the end able to clearly demonstrate that their ideas worked independently of all personal preferences in problem solving. People in the social sciences such as Freud and researchers in management were less able to do so.

Maddi (1975) writes about creativity as a socio-political threat. The reason for this is that the social systems are being used by the participants to maintain the status quo (Durkheim, 1951; and Merton, 1957) or to shelter the people from the unknown and their anxieties. (Bion, 1961; Menzies, 1970; and Rice, 1969). Idea after idea, and invention after invention has reduced or demolished the power and prestige of the persons and the organisation supporting the old, while enhancing the new. (Mangham, 1986). In 1993, the split of ICI into heavy chemicals and a new company in pharmaceuticals called Zeneca led to the growth of the pharmaceuticals and the decline of the former. The old ICI, that had virtually no debt, at the time of the split, is now with a new Managing Director, and deeply in debt in order to fund some new businesses for the future. (Pettigrew, 1985).

Miller (1993) has also experienced the problems of upsetting the existing social system in organisations where he was improving the task competencies.

In an organisation named as CRG, he was taken by surprise when the programme was stopped despite the successful outcomes. He writes 'we should have foreseen that the client's success would be the undoing of the People Programme.

Its transition from the bottom of the league-table to the top in terms of profit aroused envy in other companies in the group and put them under pressure to improve their performance; and at group headquarters pleasure that this sick patient had recovered radiant health began to be overlain by anxiety about the shift from compliance to assertiveness, which seemed tantamount to insubordination". (Miller, 1993, p253-254).

Miller also asks why there has been so much difficulty in disseminating the work on innovation in organisations. Despite the success stories, for example from a comprehensive review of 600 cases by Case Western Reserve University, and specific cases from organisations, for example, Norsk Hydro (Emery&Thorsrud, 1969), ICI (Herzberg, Paul & Robertson, 1971), Volvo (Gyllenhammar, 1977) and again ICI (Pettigrew, 1985); managers start off on a journey but reach a point in the adoption of new working practices and then appear to become frightened and anxious by what **might** happen. As Miller (1993), p294 continues 'One explanation is that such innovations are almost by definition, a threat to existing power holders in the organisation. So we see self-styled democratic and participative managers seeking to bestow autonomy without surrendering one iota of control.'

But others do not see the ensuing and developing process as so one-sided. Using the psychoanalytic framework again, some writers believe that the newfound task focus with a corresponding reduction of need for the hierarchy also poses a threat.

According to Lawrence (1979), employees who come from a dependency culture, and who move into more autonomous and task-oriented ways of working and relating become anxious about where such interdependence might lead.

They ultimately fear a complete loss of managerial support so they collude with management to stop the developments. Having demonstrated successful outcomes the employees could have argued for continuation of the new work modes, but their dependency needs override their need for autonomy, and they collude with management to stop the work reforms. In some cases, the new methods of work are held in suspension, but in others, they eventually revert to patterns of work that resemble the original shapes, as appeared to happen with Shell, as described in Blackler and Brown's (1980) book, *Whatever Happened to Shell's New Philosophy of Management?*

When the Transformation of ICI under Harvey-Jones was reviewed by Pettigrew (1985), he described how the process of change initially involved low visibility until a critical mass of support had been achieved. Despite the early successes, some senior managers appeared to have wanted **permission** to proceed. There was a view that the internal Organisation Development Consultants should have related to the ICI main board 'not through a set of individual relationships and not by doing good by stealth, but through a set of agreed business-related tasks.' (Pettigrew, 1985, p433).

Socio-political threats to Governments from students created turbulent times around 1968. May 1968 in Paris is not remembered for springtime. Students in France and Germany protested against the policies of Government and Universities.

In Berkeley, conscription and Vietnam were added to the list of issues.

Mankoff & Flacks, (1971) found that activists in the early years, that is the first wave, when compared with their non-activist peers had higher levels of academic achievement, and were brought up in families with lots of discussion and little religious commitment. These early activists were well-adjusted, had higher levels of moral development that were combined with high levels of self-esteem and an internal locus of control with lower levels of dogmatism. In a similar vein, Ellerman (1988) found that activists were in general more radical in their attitudes than their peers and participated in more demonstrations. On the semantic differential, there were significantly more negative descriptions of father than mother from these activists. Sociologists have suggested that youthful rebellion is a transitory phase due to 'generational discontinuity' between parental values and the demands of society. (Parsons, 1951). In line with the results from the semantic differential above, Feur (1969) saw student movements as the by-product of adolescent development with the Oedipal conflict as the causal mechanism. Presumably, this activism would be decreased or be shifted to work organisations with maturity, the resolution of the conflict, and other demands. The work on development over the span of life has broken this pathway into a number of broad but predictable stages, like the seasons, each with a number of crises to be resolved. (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1974; Sheehy, 1976; and Gould, 1972).

4.7 Problem Solving and Learning

Drucker in his latest writings emphasises 'learning to learn'. (Drucker, 1994, 2002).

Senge (1990) writes of the 5th discipline as 'the art and practice of the learning organisation'.

Pedler & Boydell, (1985) together and with others, have written self-help books to improve on-the-job learning. In addition to his work on socio-technical systems, Emery (1969) developed the principle of not over-specifying work so that people had enough room for active adaptation and flexibility. Revans (1971, 1976, 1980, 1982) coined the phrase 'Action Learning'. Like Marshall McLuhan (1997), Revans believed that the world of work offered a rich and textured environment where one could learn almost anything about solving problems ranging from technological facts to the softer issues of dealing with people. Revans describes learning or knowledge as having two main components, one programmed and the other unprogrammed. Programmed is what is public knowledge or in the literature. Unprogrammed is basically that which is not yet known but emerges as a consequence of interaction with the problem. The key to the acquisition of unprogrammed knowledge is to be faced with a new problem and be compelled to ask questions. If heard, and digested, then the answers to these questions offers people an opportunity for cognitive change or as Revans said to "rewrite the graffiti on the cortical slate" and thereby find a new or novel solution to the previous unsolved problem. Paterson (1985).

Revans also believed that his ideas about learning on the job in organisations were so unorthodox (to Business Schools) that he was rarely published in learned academic journals because he was a threat to the traditional approach to management education using lectures and case studies rather than the live work experiences of the students.

After much frustration, he raised enough money and published the lot together as a book. (Revans, 1982).

All of these authors have at the core of their notions of personal learning an interaction with problems and people that requires a degree of stretch. Garratt (1987) in his paperback titled *The Learning Organisation* writes about first and second order change and learning. His views were prompted by observation in organisations and from behavioural therapy where a repertoire of behaviours can be built up from smaller elements. He contrasts this step-by-step and iterative approach with a bold and big leap model of change. First order change is a situation where people restrict their frame of reference, view different problems in much the same way and do what they have done before. Argyris (1993), called this single-loop learning. When a person looks outwards or gets into a helicopter (Hastings, 1986) and hovers above the problem then the problem is set in a wider context. Bandler & Grinder (1981) called this process 're-framing' as part of their theory and technology of Neurolinguistic Programming. This is the starting point for a problem statement. This was called double loop learning by Argyris (1993).

These latter views of problem solving and learning are more than stretching and may lead to a re-conceptualisation of the problem. It is the paradigm or pattern shift. Taylor's view of creativity as accommodation, Taylor, op cit. also contrasts with the views of the Personal Construct Theorists. Construct theory's originator, Kelly was open-minded about the possibilities for change. 'We assume that all of our present interpretations of the universe are subject to revision or replacement.' (Kelly, 1955, p15). Construct theory describes the creative process as a cycle.

The person starts with a construct system, which is loose and permeable and ends for the time being with a system that is validated and then tightened.

A person who has a tight construction system may be productive and have a large output, for example of published research, however, unless they can loosen the connections between the constructs and admit new ones, and realign them in an unusual way is unlikely to produce new ideas. The research output will continue but often to defend the original creative theme. In the journals, some of these people have been referred to as the 'godfathers' of Psychology.

On the other hand, a person who thinks loosely all the time cannot be creative either, since he cannot freeze the constructs to a point where evaluation takes place. In construct theory, sooner or later the constructs have to be held and tested against reality, before consolidation or moving on.

In the clinical situation, thought-disordered schizophrenics have construct systems where the constructs have unusual names and novel associations, which might appear to be creative. The associations however can be displayed as construct structures by cluster analysis and these show that the constructs are spread out rather than tightly grouped. The associations between the constructs however are unstable and shift places from session to session when tested using a repertory grid. (Bannister & Fransella, 1971). The person's speech and actions may also reflect these shifts.

4.8 Movement in Approaches to Solving Problems.

In the arena of personal problem solving, Bandura has focused attention on personal belief, which he called self-efficacy.

The essence of this concept is that as a result of their countless experiences, people develop general expectancies about themselves so that if they have a strong sense of personal efficacy they are likely to believe they can tackle personal problems and not give up easily. (Bandura, 1977).

Churchill implicitly recognised the problem of moving from the old to the new in politics. When Parliament was damaged by bombs in WWII and had to move from the Palace of Westminster to the halls of Church House, Churchill in his opening address said "These instruments which have proved themselves the most flexible instruments for securing ordered and unceasing change and progress which while they throw open the portals of the future, carry also the traditions and glories of the past." (Churchill, 21st November, 1940, Hall of Church House, Westminster, inscription on the wall).

In his approach to problem solving, in an article titled 'Adaptors and Innovators - Why New Initiatives Get Blocked', Kirton (1984) recognised the inherent forces in the organisation as well as the driving forces in the individual. His three components of problem solving (sufficiency of originality, efficiency, and rule conformity) may be interpreted as personality dimensions. The inventory (KAI) derived from Kirton's theoretical approach, correlates with dozens of other personality measures, as reported in the KAI manual (Kirton, 1977). For example, the Intuition and Perceiving scales, both separately and combined on the Myers Briggs Type Indicator correlate with KAI.

The values are Sensing-Intuition at 0.44 with KAI, Judgment-Perception at 0.53 and the combined scale at 0.62. (Carne & Kirton, 1982; Gyskiewicz, 1982). Personality scales on the 16PF also correlate with the KAI (Kirton & DeCiantis, 1986), however, while there is some overlap in the instruments, it is not total. While Kirton was concerned with his inventory from the point of view of reliability, trait psychology is on a surer footing than when Mischel attacked it during the 70's. There is now good research which shows some of the ways people behave are consistent over long periods of time and in diverse situations. There is also evidence that significant parts of the variance in these traits are attributable to inherited differences. (Strelau, Farley & Gale, 1985; Henderson, 1982; Zuckerman, 1991; Eysenck, 1990).

Kirton (1997) has now developed a model for change incorporating his theory and a measure of problem solving style; in which he believes that the three components, originality (SO), efficiency (E), and rule/group conformity (R) are so tightly bonded to each other that they are unlikely to change as a result of interaction with the problem. The elements of the model that are open to change (according to Kirton) will be the other aspects dealing with cognitive resources, such as intelligence, knowledge and experience. These are the elements that are also likely to be affected, mainly narrowed, by the influence of stress. (Mikuler, Paz, and Kedem, 1990a; 1990b). In passing, however, the *Journal of Analytical Psychology* (1996) contains an article dealing with the changes in Jungian analysts and candidates over a period of up to 32 years! The measures were self-assessment plus a Jungian type instrument (Gray-Wheelwright Jungian Type Survey).

The study revealed changes in psychological type over time and changes in the analyst's ratings of themselves as clinically or symbolically orientated analysts. Fewer analysts typed themselves as intuitive thinking than in 1961 and changes in typology occurred more frequently in the younger group than in the older group. The proposition is that their experiences in and out of the therapeutic situation changed their constructs. Presumably since the Kirton Adaption Inventory (KAI) is linked to the Myers Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI), it too would also be able to show comparable changes in preferences over the same period of time. Personal construct therapy with pyromaniacs, obsessionals and the obese, if successful, leads to stable changes in both the content and structure of their construct systems as a consequence of interaction with the therapist and continued engagement with the environment. (Bannister & Fransella, 1971).

Cattell with his criterion measure of creativity (Cattel, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970) had not distinguished between a person's style and their intelligence for creativity as Kirton (1976) has described the relationship as orthogonal. While it is evident that thorough background knowledge of the content of one's endeavours or the tools or methods is needed to find the facts as a base for one's problem solving style, it still does not determine whether the approach will be traditional or unorthodox.

4.9 A Definition

There is a broad definition proposed by Newell and Simon (1972), which is all embracing and still appropriate today. Thinking or problem solving is creative if:

- 1) The product has value either for the thinker or the culture
- 2) The thinking is unconventional

3) It is motivated, persistent, or of great intensity

4) The problem was initially vague and undefined so that part of the task was to formulate the problem itself.

As Spearman (1927) wrote, 'The term creativity means the bringing into existence of that which did not ever exist previously; it signifies much the same as originating, generating, producing, making, and the like' (p1).

The stages or steps in the problem solving process have also been delineated as a number of structural or procedural models. The models typically contain discrete steps or stages from problem definition to problem solution including implementation.

Some authors with such models are: Gordon (1961), Kepner&Tregoe (1965, 1981); Osborn (1963); Parnes (1959, 1961, 1967, 1972); Maier (1970) and Majaro (1991).

A range of models are summarised in Clapp (1991). Basically, they all have a similar structured and sequential approach:

1) Problem Definition

2) Problem-Solution Generation

3) Ideas to Actions

4) Solution-Action Planning

5) Evaluation of the Product and the Process

The implication of a linear and sequential approach is strong. While this might be possible for an individual working alone, once others enter the equation, the interactions potentially increases the range of ideas and introduces group dynamics.

Further these models pay little attention to individual differences within each of the structural phases.

West and Slater (1995) highlight some of the myths in teamwork, in particular the assumptions of natural synergy with groups. Belbin via his approach of 'team roles' has articulated the chemistry of the group reaction by indicating that a balanced team is best. (Belbin, 1981). He also identifies two creative roles, the Plant (new ideas) and the Resource Investigator (ideas from people in the network) but these are not enough to ensure implementation of the ideas. The other roles involve team leadership, filtering the ideas, practicality, and implementation as well as concern for detail and group harmony. Early research with Team Roles with post-experience students in business simulations showed that the syndicates that had all roles present, did better in financial terms than those with a few dominant roles or with others missing. The generation of ideas particularly from an original type of person called an innovator or "plant", or from a networking type called a "resource investigator" was also crucial.

If the creative role was not present, the authors would 'plant' an original idea generating type in the group. (Belbin, Aston, & Mottram, 1976).

Others also distinguish between the front end of the problem solving process, for example idea generation and the later activity of implementation by describing creativity as idea generation (in the head), and innovation for implementation (in the world) for example, Majaro (1991).

Where the two processes are separate in an organisation for example architects and builders, then this distinction might be a useful.

In other cases, when the problem definition and the solution are part of a whole and seamless integration is required then there needs to be no distinction. In essence, the whole process from beginning to end needed to be described as problem solving.

The difference between the stages or phases determines the goal for each part of the problem solving process. The goal in phase 1 is to define the problem; the goal for phase 2 is to generate some possible solutions and so on. It is probable however that in organisational problem solving; De Bono (1967), Gordon (1961), Majaro (1991) and Parnes (1959,1967) with their emphasis on idea generation in the creative process, did recognise the political implications of radical ideas being implemented rather than just talked about. Perhaps their approaches of encouraging people to generate dozens of ideas as possible solutions, might at least allow one or two, the acceptable (conforming?) and practical ideas to be selected and implemented. In a way, they were managing the acceptability and conformity issues encapsulated by Kirton (1976) without actually confronting the opposition head-on.

For Stacey (2000), the problem solving process, particularly when concerned with an organisation's strategy, is construed as a paradox in that structured and emergent approaches may co-exist. In the area of complexity, the process is one of semi-continuous interaction and conversation. The process and the output may appear as "chaotic" to the external observer but the interactions for the people involved actually contain inherent self-organising properties that enable an understanding and a temporary solution to be reached. Several key features of the environment today support this theory. First, the brain has limits to its capacity and is itself changing naturally by biochemical processes. Second, computerised information systems can provide immediate feedback via loops and since there is much more memory in these systems, the system itself has the capability to adapt and reconfigure the problem and implement the ensuing solutions.

In contrast, the human brain may have difficulty in understanding what is happening and adjusting to comparable models. This reduces the competence in understanding and dealing with problems and is likely to end up with emotions such as anxiety and depression, or avoidance.

4.10 The Measurement of Problem Solving Style

Discovered problems are as important as presented problems. Any measure needs to be applicable to each phase or to any of the stages. Hayes (1989) believes that motivation is an important ingredient in creative performance and that measures such as IQ are insufficient to understand creativity. Hocevar and Bachelor (1989) have put creativity tests into nine categories:

- 1) Divergent thinking
- 2) Attitude and interest inventories
- 3) Personality
- 4) Biographical inventories
- 5) Ratings by others
- 6) Ratings of the products
- 7) Career progress
- 8) Self report
- 9) Motivation

The Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT); (Torrance & Reynolds, 1980) and Something About Myself (SAM), (Khatena & Torrance, 1976) developed from Guilford's theories of creativity appear to assess both problem finding and problem solving, however they are mainly concerned with ideas and originality.

Cooper (1991) found that students scoring higher on the TTCT eventually obtained more unusual occupations and followed more creative lifestyles (p.197). The Cattell criterion measure of Creativity is obtained from the 16PF. It has 10 primary factors. By far the biggest component is Factor B for intelligence or abstract thinking. While the primary scales of the 16PF have been both criticised and defended for their reliability coefficients, the major problem is that the algorithm for creativity is a mixture of style and intelligence, two factors that are independent according to Kirton & De Ciantis (1986). Another problem is with factor "B", specifically the low reliability and the poor discrimination at the upper end of the population, for example with graduates and professionals.

Basadur (1991) has developed an inventory with a process orientation. The inventory measures four process styles: generator, conceptualizer, optimizer, and implementer. A person's blend of these preferred styles is his creative problem solving profile (CPSP).

Overall, according to Kabanoff and Rossiter in the International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology 1994 'the Kirton Adaption Innovation Inventory is one of the most promising tests for domain specific creativity (problem solving style).' (p.295). The measure is psychometrically robust and a coherent measure of problem solving style. (Kirton, 1976). The three factors of originality, rule conformity and efficiency are based on a theory of problem solving in organisations. The KAI corresponds to the motivational orientation of problem solving in general and to the generative and socio-political nature of the problem solving processes discussed earlier. It has the advantage that it is applicable and interpretable to each of the phases or stages of the problem solving process.

Basadur (1995), using the CPSP, states 'a conceptualizer probably contributes most in the early or middle stages ...while an implementer is most comfortable in the last phase of problem solving, namely implementation'. (p166-167).

From Kirton's theory and observations however, some problems might need an unorthodox approach to implementation in order to work, while others require respect for the way things have been done in the past and for solutions, which do not "rock the boat". The KAI seems a better instrument for this type of discrimination.

The initial descriptions of the extreme types on the KAI, adaptors and innovators, were in behavioural terms and there was no comparable and comprehensive description for the majority of the population who were average other than they were "in the middle". (Kirton, 1976).

While there has been some debate about the shift in Kirton's stance with the KAI describing behaviour, as in the initial formulation, for example in Kirton, (1976), to the later view as a preference measure; Mudd, (1986) in his extensive review of KAI theory concluded that something had been lost in this latest reformulation.

Clapp & DeCiantis (1989), in research work done with staff in Shell in 1986-87, focused the preference vs. behaviour debate with the KAI measure. First of all, they found a direct correspondence between the individual's scores on the KAI measure and co-workers reports of behaviours at the innovative end of the spectrum. But this was not continued at the adaptive end, instead, at this point, the relationship between the KAI measure and reported behaviour was non-linear. Co-workers reports showed that there was a turning up towards the innovative end of the adaptor's behaviour while the underlying preference (from the KAI) was still adaptive.

Presumably, the Shell culture was powerful enough to move the problem solving behaviour of some of the adaptors (the extremes), so the staff demonstrated innovative behaviour, while their underlying preferences remained unchanged. These findings may suggest that personality traits are underlying preferences that can be modified by the effects of the environment. The change accords with Lewin's field theory (Lewin, 1952) that behaviour is a function of the person and the environment. The findings however might also be interpreted that the more powerful group responsible for the maintenance of the organisation culture simply wanted others to conform. Some research hints at this. Using the concept of 'cognitive fit', Kirton and McCarthy (1985) have shown that innovators (mean +1 sd and above) over time tend to move to organisations that are congruent with their own style and functioning as problem solvers.

The importance of finding and defining the problem as part of the problem solving process has been discussed. While the structural models of problem solving, like the one by Kepner Tregoe (1965, 1981) specifically draws the readers attention to the problem as a deviation, either positive or negative, the model also directs one's attention to potential problems, that is, possible but not yet evident problems. Even within these structural models, the Kirton theory and model offers a way within the stages to highlight the approaches to both problem definition and problem solution. The Innovators (from the Kirton inventory) have a preference to reject or attenuate the given definition of the problem and to redefine or reformulate it. Adaptors on the other hand prefer to take the problem as given. Kirton (1976). In his review, Mudd (1996) attempts to clarify the original position of Kirton and the latest shift in defining the three factors.

In the original definitions according to Mudd, it was the originality factor of the KAI, which produced the substantive restructuring...the scales of Efficiency, and Rule/Group Conformity were the processes that inhibited or facilitated the restructuring process. (Mudd, 1996). The findings of Clapp & DeCiantis (1989) in terms of the J curve relationship (Katz & Kahn, 1978) between KAI scores and reported problem solving behaviours, and the report of Mulligan & Martin (1980) urged Kirton elaborate the three factors. Kirton responded:

1) Originality is preference to produce ideas.' Adaptors produce a sufficiency of original ideas...whereas innovators proliferate ideas...adaptors shun a proliferation.'(Kirton & Pender, 1982, pp 883-884).

2) Rule/Group Conformity 'the readiness of innovators to break cognitive boundaries'. (Kirton, 1987, p290).

3) Efficiency 'is a parallel with Weber's analysis of the aims of bureaucratic structure' (Kirton, 1987, p290).

The elaboration of the O scale in terms of the proliferation of ideas and the construing of the R scale as a readiness to challenge and prefer the unorthodox was a significant change in Kirton's position according to Mudd (1996). Likewise, Mulligan & Martin (1980) were now saying that if a part of the originality scale (SO for sufficiency of originality) is described with the word 'proliferates' then this resembles a capacity or level description rather than one of style. While the style versus level debate in Kirton's approach is not over, the style versus the various measures of intelligence has probably been settled.

If however, one has an excursion into the field of the newer ideas about intelligence, one finds that the definitions go beyond the attributes measured on traditional intelligence tests to other definitions of intelligence such as those by Sternberg, (1995) and to factors such as cognitive resources.

4.11 New Approaches to Problem Solving via Intelligence

Sternberg (1995) has developed a 'triarchic theory of Intelligence' and with others, an investment theory of creativity (Sternberg & Lubart, 1991). Accordingly, three intellectual abilities are particularly important:

- 1) The synthetic ability to see problems in new ways and to escape the bounds of conventional thinking.
- 2) The analytic ability to recognise which ideas are worth investing in.
- 3) The ability to persuade others to use the ideas.

Other factors like knowledge are implied. With knowledge however, some authors point out that too much knowledge may lead to a closed perspective where one is blind to other possibilities. (Frensch & Sternberg, 1989). But, according to Kirton (1997), Sternberg has not understood the orthogonal relationship between one of the aspects of problem solving capacity or resource as represented by ability (IQ) and problem solving style. In his latest book titled Thinking Styles, Sternberg, however comes close to Kirton's view about the importance of problem solving style. In this book, Sternberg's position is that ability is sometimes not appreciated or not developed because conflicting styles of problem solving are mistaken as a sign of lack of talent. (Sternberg, 1997). But intelligence and style are not enough, task induced motivation and interest are also essential according to Amabile (1993).

Amabile's research has implied that people need to enjoy what they do in order to produce creative work. Work on goals however has produced mixed results.

Heider (1958) claimed that goals were normally better explanations of actions because people can adjust or modify the preconditions for action. McLure & Hinton (1997) however have found that when the preconditions or pathways for action are difficult to obtain or control then the availability of those pre-conditions is a better explanation as to whether or not the goal will be achieved. Thirty years of work on goals and the goal setting process shows the power of these parameters to engage people. (Locke & Latham, 1984).

4.12 Interim Summary

In this review, it can be seen that there have been attempts to make innovation, and creativity as distinct processes and to view the creative approach to problem solving as something special.

By choosing research subjects such as artists, student activists, the psychologically disturbed, and even psychopaths; the concept of creativity has been localised in the person. The localisation has often been couched in a negative way, with deviance in the background, sometimes as an outlet for an impulse or drive, sometimes as a threat to the established order, rather than as a necessary adult activity.

The structural models of problem solving like brainstorming, lateral thinking, synectics, Maier's approach (Maier, 1970), the model of Kepner Tregoe (1965, 1981), and comparable computer aided devices have tried to make creative problem solving available for all who read the books and follow the prescriptions. Others like Basadur (1995), and Torrance (Torrance & Reynolds, 1980) have adopted approaches that

are strong on ideas or ideation, but also seem to be reluctant to face the realities of problem solving in organisations.

The reality is that good ideas are not enough in themselves to ensure implementation. Approaches that are reluctant to deal with the socio-political aspects imply a blind spot on the part of the authors or an assumption that intellectual knowledge, or research plus data in itself is sufficient cause for action. The measures derived from this research are interesting in terms of idea generation, however they only show a partial picture of what is likely to happen in problem solving in organisations.

If problem solving is a cognitive process and if the conception and the interpretation of the problem is in the mind and endowed with meaning by the individual, then the process of implementation is not simply an act of reorganising materials in the external world. For Kelly (1963), the first process is construing the problem. By this, Kelly meant, "placing an interpretation.....the person erects a structure, within the framework of which the subject takes shape and assumes meaning. The substance which he construes does not produce the structure; the person does". (p51). So if people construe events, including problems, implementation involves a meeting of minds. In some work on person perception done by Paterson (1975), people participating in group training on interpersonal skills were asked to produce their personal constructs before the training and 3 months later when the training finished. Although participants had been present in the same groups, approximately one third had unchanged construct systems, another third had systems that were more restricted in their vocabulary i.e. fewer words and these were formed into fewer and tighter clusters, while another third had new constructs with new descriptions that were expected from the training, and these construct systems showed new associations.

So if people construe events, including problems, the implementation involves a meeting of minds to explore constructs and their associations, prior to the movement of matter or material in the external world.

Kirton derived the Adaption Innovation theory from case studies and observations in organisations and from the literature. The literature hinted at what to observe and it confirmed that problem solving is more than ideas. It is often about assumptions, or a trait of conformity or even “untested” norms and rules, that are no longer relevant. In other cases it is solving problems within boundaries. The identification of a range of styles from ‘adaptor’ through to the other extreme, ‘innovator’ was a useful step in explaining a range of approaches to problem solving in organisations.

For each end of the continuum, different pre-occupations are likely to evolve in solving what is ostensibly or initially the same problem!

In the problem definition phase, adaptors will prefer to take the problem as defined, with all its implicit assumptions; innovators will not, they prefer a redefinition. In solution generation, adaptors are likely to produce just enough ideas to fix the problem. Innovators on the other hand, prefer to produce more ideas than initially appears necessary, and some of these will do more than fix the problem; they may change it dramatically.

In organisations, adaptors prefer structure and order; innovators do not. In terms of collaboration, the gap between the adaptors and innovators can be so large that they appear to occupy different cognitive worlds. Adaptors see innovators as risky and threatening to the system while Innovators see adaptors as conforming, inflexible and wedded to the system. (Kirton, 1985, 1992; KAI feedback form).

While these perceptions of each other's approach appear mostly negative, in organisational problem solving this may not always be the case. An adaptive approach might be useful when fine-tuning is needed, while an innovative approach is needed for a quantum change. The gap in the perceptions however forecasts likely problems in collaboration between the extreme types of problem solver. With the KAI, however there is no one-way to solve a problem, just preferences.

Finally there is a robust measure, the KAI, coupled to a theory. It is psychometrically sound and although there have been arguments over the factorial structure (three or four), three factors appears to be satisfactory.

The body of research using the KAI is large. But in addition to the components underlying problem solving style, the measure clarifies the role of intelligence, at least that measured by intelligence tests. The relationship is orthogonal. In other words, some very bright people will prefer to solve problems in a traditional way.

Other people with exactly the same IQ will prefer to produce unorthodox solutions. Because of the interest in problem solving in organisations, the KAI has been chosen as the most appropriate measure of problem solving style at this time. Intelligence is assumed to be relatively stable, however as part of the problem solving process, the relationship between the cognitive resource and anxiety needs consideration.

4.13 Individual Differences – Emotion in Leadership Research

Clover's (1990) study of leadership followed the themes of transactional and transformational leadership articulated by Bass (1985, 1990a, 1990b, 1994, 1997), Bass & Avolio (1993a, 1993b, 1994, 1995).

As a reminder, Bass and his colleagues had operationalised the two facets of leadership by various forms of questionnaires and instruments that could be used as self-reports by the leader and “other” reports by the subordinates. After collecting the data via the instruments, Clover interviewed the subordinates. Clover was surprised that the subjects expressed emotional views about their leaders and the leadership processes, despite the possibility of “rejection” from a leader using the facet of Charisma. This expressed emotionality was described by Clover (1990), as a set of “irrational processes” and thereby dismissed from further discussion. In contrast to this dismissal of emotion, the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations has taken a different view. With a history of theory and practice based on early associations with the Freuds (Sigmund and Anna who worked and lived in the area) the Tavistock has continued to be resourced by staff with extensive training and practice in psychoanalysis. Such staff have traditionally used various forms of the psychoanalytic approach to organisations.

These psychoanalytic approaches involve a substantial exploration of the underlying social/emotional issues. Bion (1946,1961) and Fairburn (1952) are often cited. The famous two-week residential Tavistock “Leicester” conference on Authority, Leadership and Organisation has been conducted annually for some 20 plus years. Listed in the aims are intentions to learn about group, organisational and social dynamics; learn about the exercise of authority and power and on an individual basis participants may “use their emotional literacy to inform their actions”. (Tavistock Web site, 2000).

Reviews done of comparable group events by participating consultants have reported that “frustration was considerable”, Trist & Sofer (1959) p43 while Higgin & Bridger (1965), p29 report “that there was some genuine emotional learning as a result of the dramatic explosion in the first few seconds of the Exercise.” The authors continue to talk about the guilt and aggression experienced by the members participating in these conferences. These principles have been applied to working organisations. The research in these organisations (an airline, a geriatric hospital, a Church of England diocese and a prison in Northern Ireland) along with the apparent “failures” has been openly described by Miller (1993). The essence of these failures was that after exploration of the issues in and at work, using a form of the psychoanalytic framework, facilitated by the consultants, a significant number of people in the organisations were unwilling to take the next steps in their personal development. In some cases this development was centered around the recognition of their psychological dependency on others, in other cases it was based on other emotional conflicts from previous relationships being re-visited with similar figures in the current workplace.

4.14 Individual Differences – Anxiety

For other authors and practitioners, the issues that were played out in organisations were concerned with individual anxiety and the role that the organisation played in moderating or containing these anxieties. In the “failures” mentioned by Miller (op cit), the conclusion was that most of the most members of the organisation wished to maintain the psychological defences against these inner emotional forces.

The action research was sometimes stopped partway through. Menzies (1970) implies that the issue is anxiety. For Menzies, organisations are not only producers of goods and services but have structures; procedures and systems that also provide people with some certainty and reassurance that resemble defenses against anxiety. Miller (1993) described a set of interventions in one Psychiatric hospital, where the dominant clinical orientation of psychoanalysts combined with political pressures to produce better health services (NHS and Private) had created the opportunities for the staff to work at a personal level in these care settings. In such settings, Bion's concept of two modes of mental functioning in groups is a natural territory for exploration on an organisational basis. The emotional life of the individuals in the group in a care setting becomes more complicated because the caring is intertwined with the organisational processes. The analyst can now be engaged by the psychological processes such as transference or attention on two levels. One level is the functioning of the patient (plus carer) as individuals and the other is the functioning of the organisation.

In terms of psychological disturbance, Corrigan & Gordon (1995) describe how a wide range of individual and disparate symptoms can be the outcomes of failures in the social environment that requires minds to be used as shields and as weapons. The shields have been called "coping behaviours or strategies". The two major functions of coping are:

- 1) problem management that is largely external to the individual, and
- 2) individual emotion regulation. (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The distinction has also been described as task labour, and emotional labour by Lazarus (1999) and as Rational/Emotive by a whole set of therapists bearing the label of Rational Emotive Therapy (RET).

4.15 Emotion in Organisations

In using a psychoanalytic approach involving both cognition and emotion, there have been implied criticisms that the other researchers have avoided the importance of emotional life in organisations. For Mujinsky (2000) this apparent avoidance started with the popular title of *The Organisation Man* (Whyte, 1956). It was further extended with the classic of Newell & Simon (1972) although along the path there were several books by Argyris (1957,1962,1964) for example on interpersonal skills in organisations. Argyris described the role of feelings and the negative consequences for both the individual and the organisation with their suppression. Argyris also described a failed consultancy assignment in a newspaper organisation with these interpersonal processes involving feelings. He concluded that the newspaper's organisation culture was individualistic, competitive and downright destructive and not yet open to the appropriate display of feelings. (*Behind the front page*, Argyris, 1974).

At the same time there were still attempts by researchers to reify the emotional aspect of organisational life with a cognitively styled concepts.

As Muchinsky wrote, "despite the fact that organisation behaviour has never allowed itself a formal entry into the realm of emotions in the workplace, psychological constructs saturated with emotional overtones have emerged in our research. (Mujinsky, 2000, p802). The most prominent of these emotional disguises has been job satisfaction. From the early descriptions of a hierarchy of needs, requiring satisfaction (Maslow, 1943, 1970) to the method of asking people to think about the good (and bad) times at work and describe them (Herzberg, 1966, 1968) there were

estimated to be at least 3000 articles dealing with the concept of “job satisfaction”. (Locke, 1976).

Modern organisations are a potential breeding ground for emotional behaviour. With authors such as Hamel & Prahalad (1994) writing about global competition and indicating that one of the ways to meet this competition is by employing “stretch” it seems that all types of resources including people are stretched. As a consequence, these authors have also introduced the notion that innovation by stretch in the workplace will produce a “new sense of self”. Hamel says that such an approach to organizational strategy is revolution and because senior management do not have a propensity for change, the people close to the customers and the technology are the ones who should be deeply involved in formulating the organisation’s strategy. Hamel (1996). Hamel’s view is that business has now entered an era of discontinuous change. “We are talking about nothing less than reinvention”. (Reported in Kurtzman, 1996, p1).

Further stretching is advocated by Bennis (1999) in his book titled “Organising genius: The secrets of collaborative collaboration. In this, Bennis describes how “great groups” are the ones that are able to achieve tremendous successes often with very limited resources.

These examples are just a few of the forms of change that are being recommended. Such recommendations are cognitively driven and fail to take account of the development of key human relationships. For other authors, human relationships were thought to take some time, because of the human consequences like the feelings of rejection or betrayal. (Argyle, 1978, 1990; Duck, 1991).

Kanter (1990) advocated that organisations have to think and act globally. This means that organisations have to think about making an impact in as many places as possible, as quickly as possible. While the internet is one of these tools for interconnection, it is the people who have to be “connected” to one another in the organisation and connected to outsiders such as customers and suppliers on a global basis. There is further advice that these employees have to be aware of the cultural differences from country to country.

Indeed, the European community aimed to simplify communication and reduce complexity by nominating four primary languages (French, German, English and Spanish), Hofstede’s work on national cultures, derived from his studies of staff in IBM international, has highlighted other differences. One is the issue of the acceptance of unequal power; another is of being more “masculine”. Hofstede (1984, 1990, 1995). The opportunities for uncertainty and the worry about making social mistakes are enormous in such environments.

There have also been public events of great emotionality about organisations and work. In Britain, for example there used to be a rich Trade Union movement that organised marches against significant industrial events. Such activities were often seen and experienced as irrational, politically motivated and oppositional. The horror of the violence of the 70’s miners strikes (shown on TV) and the later issue with printing and the Wapping fortress for the Times newspaper are illustrations of just how emotional the experience of work was for many people. With many researchers interested in job satisfaction 30 years ago, there was an attempt to move the issues towards the cognitive end of the domain rather than see the concept as complex and having a big component of the pleasure principle.

Instead of recognising visceral processes of judgment, or the liking or disliking of a job and the people involved, there was an implicit assumption that even if the underlying processes were emotional the resultant outcome was a cognitive process called job satisfaction. And while today, the literature has a rich vein of material on work stress and the newspapers are full of courses and other activities to reduce or relieve this work-induced stress, the courses are supposed to help people to manage these feelings and get back to a more rational way of working. Yet the physiological changes with stress are well researched. Early psychology books showed photos of changes in organs as a consequence of aversive stimuli. Milgram's experiments on obedience reported that some subjects were sweating while still carrying out the instructions of the experimenter to administer shocks to another person (an actor feigning shocks) in the so called learning experiment. Milgram (1974).

Muchinsky (2000) has implied that researchers ought to put emotions on the same level as that of cognition. But there are opposing forces. As Munchinsky reports when Time magazine went from year to year awarding people with the title of most impactful being of the year, in the one year it changed and the editors named the computer. The Times selection mirrored events in cognitive psychology. Similarly, Telecom companies have been urging people to stay at their base (in the home or the office) and not commute to meet others face-to-face but use e-mail and other electronic means instead.

As Bruner (1990) says in his latest text "Acts of meaning" it is not that we are today short of information, we are in fact overloaded but it is electronic information that lacks meaning.

CHAPTER V - THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RESEARCH MODEL

5.1) The Major Variables

An initial representation of the relationships between leaders, the organisational culture and leadership, and the individual is expressed in the form of a model. While the actual processes taking place are often complex and difficult to describe, the model is an attempt to be an approximate analogue of behaviours in organisations.

The early writers on Leadership such as Blake & Mouton (1964), Fiedler (1967), and Hersey & Blanchard (1969, 1996) developed models of the leadership process. The models typically showed the relationships between various forms of influence, described as “leadership”, and a process that impacted on others who were usually called subordinates. The connection has usually been shown as a relationship between the individual or the group and the leader. In contrast Schein (1985) has articulated a distinction between leadership and management. For Schein (1985), one of the main roles of the leader is to create the culture of the organisation. In this way, the culture so created, appears as an omnipresent “umbrella” that provides many of the necessary facets that enable people to work together and to survive. The organisation culture may be easily discernable when it is expressed in terms of objectives or a vision of the future whereas in other cases, the culture may comprise values and beliefs that are communicated indirectly by subtle forms of verbal communication, symbols and signs plus reinforcement. The organisation culture can be like a radar beam guiding the path of an aeroplane.

When Lieberman & O'Connor (1972) and the ensuing researchers, examined the relative contributions of the leadership and the environment to organisational life, they used directly observable outputs of such as sales, profitability and stock or share prices. While members of the organisation can control some part of the cost structure that impact the bottom line and therefore profit margins and profitability, share prices appear to be related to many other factors than the management of the organisation. Such studies could be called the psychology of the empty organisation. For Hughes, Price & Marrs (1986) a testable theory requires observable variables or proxy variables to represent the theoretical construct. Another strategy has been to construct one index to represent the output of the organisation in its totality from a combination of the variables. While researchers have been concerned with theoretical issues and specific links between robust variables, the managers and leaders as well as their followers have been busy constructing their own models while thinking and behaving to sustain life in their organisations. In Europe the Maastricht treaty opened borders within Europe to products, services, people, standards and rules from other members. With related changes such as downsizing, managing diversity, re-engineering and reduced levels of trust, there has been a marked increase in complexity and rapidity of change. (Deal & Kennedy, 1998). In the UK, many organisations that were once members of the FTSE have been relegated. The demands on the superstructure and the rest of the organisation have made leadership and management more complex and complicated so that one of the minimum components of the psychological contract may be "to do no harm". The reality is that leaders and managers manage in several directions at different levels almost simultaneously.

If these different initiatives are viewed as vectors of force, then they need to combine to produce energy in the same broad overall direction rather than negate each other. Thus leadership must concern itself with a range of relatively different competencies, operating on different variables, broadly supporting one another to produce an overall impact.

This is referred to as a balanced perspective recognizing complexity by Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge (1997). Indeed it is recognised that organisations are human constructs and are more than money-making machines. The human issues of developing or using new technology, changing cognitive styles, and having a sense of well-being are important organisational issues. The notion is that the variables of anxiety, and depression are end-point variables reflecting internal feelings and may lead to distress without observable behaviours. Similarly, cognitive problem solving style is also a variable of interest in it's own right and with the assistance of other issues such as cognitive capacity, organisational culture and leadership can produce particular types of problem solving behaviour. In these cases intervening variables acting as buffers, catalysts, inhibitors or enhancers are sometimes proposed. Howell, Korfman & Kerr (1986) say a conceptual distinction is needed. Moderators are neutralisers or enhancers; substitutes or supplements while mediator variables are the explanatory intermediate step between the independent variable and the dependent variable or between the predictor and the criterion. In the completely mediated model, all of the influence of the leader for example on the criterion would be completely channeled via the mediator. (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986).

Each model of such authors shows a partial picture of a manager in an organisational environment.

The prototype research model in this research takes a systems view. The model combines prominent facets from several models. One set of leadership behaviours is hypothesised to be directed toward the psychosocial environment (climate and the culture) of the organisation. Another set of behaviours is directed towards the individual.

The individual in an organisation has several key facets described as effect and affect. In modern organisations, the effect is not “working harder” but “working smarter” so a measure of problem solving style or cognitive style is more appropriate. In the case of output measures of affect, the issues of well-being are important. The indicators of job satisfaction, and anxiety and depression are taken as robust estimates of the person’s feelings.

The writers above have also been concerned with individual or group performance. Hersey’s instruments measure what he calls “effectiveness”. This however is not a measure of output in the strictest of terms such as cognitive change or behaviour but an estimate of the match between the behaviour of the leader and the “maturity” or “readiness” of the individual or the group being led. Maturity in turn comprises two facets, the first is concerned with the competency to do the job and the second is concerned with motivation and willingness. Mismatches between the leader’s style and the followers’ readiness are judged to score low on effectiveness according the criteria and the data provided by Hersey and Blanchard (1996) and by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1997). In essence, a mismatch occurs when the leader’s behaviour is out of alignment with the follower’s maturity. As mentioned earlier, in the chapter on leadership, Hersey, et. al. now agrees with some critics that the scale that measures the characteristics of the subordinates in terms of readiness or maturity needs further research.

A different measure of output is indicated in the major study of Bass & Yammarino (1991). In this study, the output was described as “extra effort” or as is commonly called in organisations “going the extra mile”. But as Drucker (1985, 1986, 1991, &1999); Hesselbein & Goldsmith (1997), and Basadur (1995) have said many organisations today are comprised of people who are problem solvers or experts. It is here that the knowledge, intellectual capability and cognitive style come to the fore. The Management Charter Initiative (MCI) in the senior management handbook has a whole competency cluster of “Managing Information”. (MCI, 1997).

The preliminary model for this author’s research has 3 layers. The first is an overarching organisation environment comprising culture and a closer part of the environment called climate. The literature on organisation culture and climate goes around in circles with the historical survey of Denison (1996) indicating how at times culture has been studied as climate and then climate viewed as culture. More recently Payne (1999) has asked the question in chapter titled Climate and Culture: How Close can They Get? As a starting point in the initial model, the two attributes are inseparable.

The second major variables are leadership and management behaviours, and the third are individual variables. Having described the preliminary research model, the hypotheses are formulated. The model and the hypotheses will be tested by quantitative approaches to the subjects and clarified with some additional qualitative material.

5.2) Problem Solving Style

Taylor (1972) proposed four levels of engagement with the problem. At the first level, the person is given the problem and asked to solve it. Sometimes they may be told how to solve it, for example just fix it and do no more than is necessary; sometimes they might be asked to re-examine the situation, for example start with a blank sheet of paper, or change the whole way it is done. As one moves up Taylor's hierarchy, the involvement with the problem increases so that at the fourth level, the problem solving process is two-way. The person has discovered the problem, is determined to solve it and won't let go despite difficulties or opposition. Having found the problem, they also define it in line with their preferences for problem solving and in line with the end requirements. In some cases, things will never be the same again. It might turn out to be a moment in "history" for the organisation. Taylor (1972) called this approach with high mutuality between problem and the person as 'generative'.

The subjects in my research had been in this organisation for less than two years as I had requested. This was in line with McCarthy's research on cognitive fit where people who were cognitively different from the incumbents as measured by KAI, left the organisation after about two years of trying to cope. The subjects were graduates and would have been independent problem solvers at University, however as recent arrivals to the organisation and not yet socialised, they are more than likely to be seen as resources rather than as the people who define problems.

The research model therefore assumes that most of the influence will be from the top to the bottom of the organisational hierarchy.

As Goffman wrote. 'The recruit comes into the establishment with a conception of himself made possible by certain stable social relationships in his home world.

Upon entrance, he is immediately stripped of the support provided by these arrangements. In the accurate language of some of our oldest total institutions, he begins a series of abasement's, degradation's, humiliations and profanation's of self. His self is systematically, if often unintentionally, mortified. He begins some radical shifts in his moral career, a career composed of the progressive changes that occur in the beliefs that he has concerning himself and significant others.' (Goffman, 1968, p24). Although this passage refers to institutions, a commercial organisation may have some of these elements in an attenuated or disguised form.

Nelson, (1987), p 313 has described a four stage model of socialisation from a stress perspective which is couched in the mastery of task, role and interpersonal demands. Problems with mastery may lead to behavioural, psychological, or physiological symptoms of stress and in turn to turnover (i.e. leaving). Arnold (1985) and Wanous (1986) describe the rites of progress of new employees to organisations.

The subordinates problem solving style is therefore likely to be affected by the job and role demands, enclosed within the closest layer in the environment above him, that is, the most significant manager, and by the environment as a whole, in more generalised form, that is the corporate culture. It is thought, that at this stage in their career, the graduates are likely to only have a small impact upwards, despite any wishes they might have to be influential.

5.3) Job Satisfaction and Individual Well-Being

In the earlier chapter on leadership, the addendum of Clover (1990) following his work on leadership using the Bass leadership inventory was described.

Clover followed the instrument driven data collection process with interviews. The interviewees expressed emotional views about their leaders and the leadership processes that Clover described as “irrational processes”. He appeared to put the views aside. In the same chapter, the alternative approaches of the psychoanalysts were described.

The analysts demonstrated a profound recognition of the roles of emotion and were typically represented by the Tavistock Institute.

For Mujinski (2000) there has been an apparent avoidance of the study of emotions in organisations. This apparent avoidance started with the popular title of *The Organisation Man*. (Whyte, 1956). The avoidance was further extended with the classic of Simon & Newell (1972) although along the path there were several books by Argyris (1957, 1962, & 1964) among many others on interpersonal skills in organisations. Here, the emphasis was on feelings and the negative consequences for both the individual and the organisation with their suppression. At the same time, researchers were writing about job satisfaction. Mujinsky described this as reification and wrote, “ Despite the fact that organisational behaviour has never allowed itself a formal entry into the realm of emotions in the workplace, psychological constructs saturated with emotional overtones have emerged in our research. (Mujinsky, 2000, p802). One of the most prominent of these emotional disguises has been the concept of job satisfaction.

Despite the concerns with the concept of job satisfaction, it was decided have this as one of the individual measures. It was believed that was this variable would be much less trait driven and was more likely to be transient and a function of the job (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Davis, 1979; Paul, 1970; and Mumford, 1972) and be a function of the job design capabilities of the immediate layers of environmental influence as per Emery & Trist (1965), Cooper & Payne (1988), and Fletcher & Jones (1992).

Specifically, satisfaction is likely to be influenced primarily by the most significant manager, and secondly the corporate culture. Job satisfaction will depend on the nature of the job, and its goals and overall purpose, with aspects like personal support being important, depending on the cultural balance in the organisation between dependency and autonomy, via the work. As a measure of well-being, abbreviated scales of standard measures of anxiety and depression, already built into the cultural audit were included. (Crown & Crisp, 1979). It was believed, that the aspects, which give some clarity or certainty to the subordinate, would lower feelings of anxiety. These might come from the organisational culture and the most significant manager. The feelings of depression on the other hand are closer to home. The characteristics of the job, and being wanted as a team member are likely to be key issues. The boosters to reduce depression could come from both the organisation climate and the most significant manager.

5.4) Leadership Styles and Organisation Culture.

While many leadership theories have articulated direct connections between leaders and followers, others have proposed a link that impacts employees via the culture.

In some cases there will be a one-to-one correspondence between the leadership styles and the attributes of the culture. In other situations however, it is possible that some form of attenuation in the transmission process will take place so the organisational culture will not correspond exactly with the leaders behaviour. Instead, the culture will be a more abstract and perhaps a more universal synthesis of leadership issues. For some authors, the organisation culture might be described in terms of symbols and metaphors as well as words, for example Morgan (1986) , Hatch (1993) and Mangham (1996). In others, the organisational culture will be a condensation of the manager's meanings.

Whatever the devices, the ultimate aim is the creation and management of meaning in general as well as the valence around significant events for employees. Both the indirect and the direct avenues will be explored in this research. While Schein (1980) has proposed a direct correspondence, the insights of Le Bon (1896), Pfeffer (1981), Erikson (1959), and Bandler & Grinder (1979) imply that there is a link but the consequent attributes of the culture are less specific and more general, often evoking emotions as well as behaviour in the subordinates.

The research here, is concerned mainly with middle managers, although it is believed a few seniors were also included. The perceptions of the organisational culture by the subjects may concur with the general views, however in looking for the link between leadership style and organisational culture, many other leaders who may have influenced the organisation culture/climate were not included in the research.

5.5) Problem Solving Style and Feelings

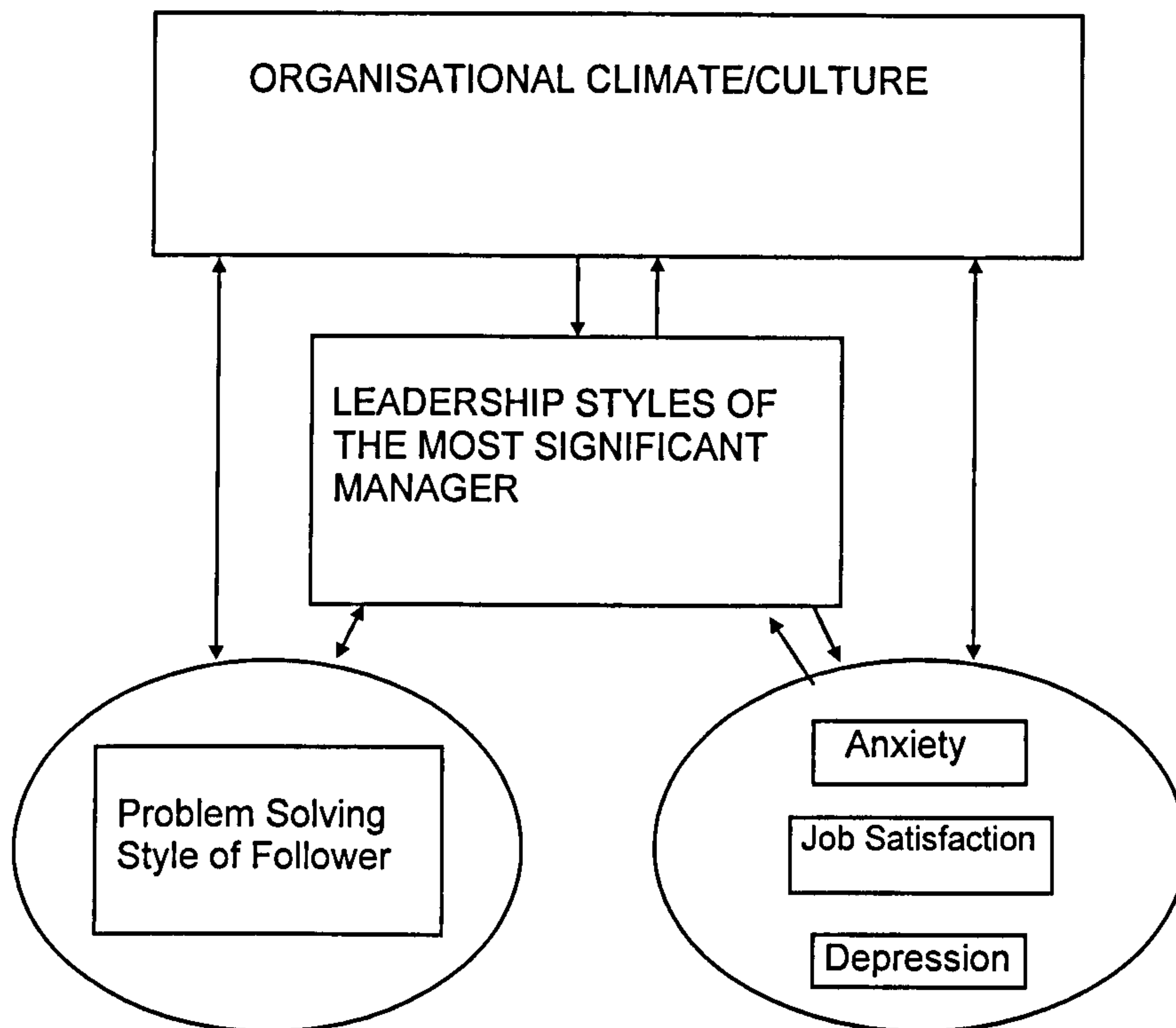
They are drawn as two different domains on the model, to show that they are relatively independent of each other.

5.6) Overall Direction

One single criterion measure, described as Performance Effectiveness was used to examine the behavioural output from the follower's perspective. Overall, the model offers a preliminary map of the fields of interest. When the results are examined, they should clarify the literature. They should also be of practical use to managers and leaders by indicating what and whom they can possibly influence in organisations. The problem solving aspects of this research are concerned with an understanding of the constructs of problem solving style as articulated by the Kirton theory, and not the problem solving behaviour.

Figure 5.1 THE RESEARCH MODEL PROTOTYPE

A MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWERS PROBLEM SOLVING STYLES, THEIR FEELINGS, THE ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE/CULTURE AND THE LEADERSHIP STYLE OF THE MOST SIGNIFICANT MANAGER



CHAPTER VI – DOMAIN INTERACTION AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

6.0 Domain Integration and Interaction

The relative contributions of leadership and the various facets of the economic and psychosocial environment have been an issue for debate and discussion by both researchers and managers. The issue has been polarized between the contributions of leader as “the hero” or the “great man” versus those who are critical about the whole notion of leadership and others who attribute organisational outcomes to parameters in the internal or external environments of the organisation. In an early study, Lieberman & O'Connor (1972) concluded that the leadership was swamped by environmental factors. Indeed, Kerr & Jermier (1978) have argued that there are many variables that neutralise the effects of leadership and that these may make it impossible for leaders to make a difference to the tangible outputs of organisations. They have introduced the idea of substitutes for leadership in task-focused groups to describe characteristics that make leadership unnecessary. In Germany for example, Hofstede (1993) found that professional engineers believed that they were competent enough to manage the tasks and did not need leadership, and in Japan, where the core of the organisation is teamwork, he concluded that “it is even doubtful whether there is such a thing as management in the American sense”, p4.

Ignoring the need for interpersonal synergy and assuming that work is mainly concerned with tasks, Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich (1985) have suggested that leadership research is an attempt to create the illusion that leaders have control over external events while Stacey (1991, 2001) via complexity and chaos theory implies

that the world is too complex and interactive with multiple feedback loops so that it is impossible for anyone to predict and plan for the right outcomes in advance. The implication is that leaders at the top (such as CEO's and presidents) will have little effect on the superior performance of the organisation as measured by tangible parameters because they are ultimately constrained by these complex environmental facets. Despite research that studied the effects of an extensive list of moderators between leadership and individual and organisational outcomes, the effects have found to be modest no matter what the theoretical model for leadership. In fact, deVries, Roe & Tailleau (2002) concluded that there was a general absence of moderating effects and that only 9.3% of the published hypothesised interactions were significant and most were not in the predicted direction. (p122). As a proposal, they have suggested a single and universal factor to encompass all the others. It is called "need for leadership" and they found some evidence of this need for leadership being a moderator, but they concluded that the effects were weak and there is not much evidence that leader-outcome relations are revised by the need for leadership moderator. (p121). In contrast, Villa, Howell, Dorfman and Daniel (2003) have concluded that the search for moderators by ad hoc tests in regression equations greatly underestimates the possibility that moderators may exist. Basically, they recommend that the number of potential moderators to be used in regression should be limited and theory based. The practice of entering every possible combination of the variables into a regression equation is cumbersome, statistically questionable and atheoretical. (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater & James, 2002).

With the “black box” model of the organisation with no intervening variables, just inputs and outputs, Lieberman and O'Connor (1972) researched the relative contributions of internal leadership and external environment to the tangible outputs in 167 large and complex publicly owned US organisations. The environment of the organisation was described in terms of physical and economic variables and the outputs were three measures of financial performance: (1) sales, (2) earnings and (3) profit margins. The researchers view was that instead of the organisations internal structure and milieu being properties of leaders and therefore enhancers of the leadership process, leadership operated within the confines of external restrictions that had the potential to limit their outputs. The restrictions depended upon the industry characteristics. Lieberman & O'Connor's (1972) view was that “the evidence indicates that the influence of single individuals or handfuls of individuals is seldom as decisive as the great-man theory would lead us to believe.” (p117).

The leadership in their research was assumed to be top-down and estimated in terms of the selection process regarding a new president or chairman to the board. To quote the authors further. “It is safe to say that these are the company's top positions and the chief executive officer is either one or the other.” While further on the same page, the authors admit “it was hard to attribute performance exactly to its rightful administration during these changes”. (Lieberman & O'Connor, 1972, p121). Despite these assumptions, the authors concluded that the leadership contributions from CEO's and chairmen in terms of variance were: sales, 6.5%; net income, 7.5%; and profit margin, 14.5%. Later on, the authors mention that organisations may have more than one set of goals and that the leaders responses may vary with each goal so that the problem of understanding what is actually happening becomes more

complex for both the researcher and the leader.

The view that leadership did not make much difference to tangible outcomes was also supported by Salanik & Pfeffer (1977); Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich (1985); Meindl & Ehrlich (1987); and Samuelson, Galbraith & McGuire (1985). Thomas (1988) was surprised by the findings attributing so little to leadership because despite these early results, the popular press continued to write about the significant role of leaders and researchers persisted in seeking some validation for the leader's impact on organisations. (Bennis, 1989; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; and Yukl, 1994). Thomas (1988) reviewed the research on CEO's impact on corporate performance starting with what he described as Lieberman & O'Connor's (1972) "path breaking" study. On the basis of an examination of the sequencing of the order in which the variables were entered in Lieberman & O'Connor's (1972) regression analysis, Weiner (1978) in a comparable study found that leadership accounted for 16.1% of profit variance, 19.0% of sales variance and 8.7% of profit margin variance. However, with further manipulation of the regression analysis using a discounted entry of the variables in the reverse order, the figures for the variances due to leadership went up to 96.1%, 94.8% and 77.5% respectively! In a later study, Weiner & Mahoney (1981) examined the impact of CEO changes in 193 companies over a 19-year period. They then found that leadership explained 43.9% of the profitability variance defined as profit /assets and accounted for 47% of the variance in the share price. The researchers had made assumptions and adjusted the output variables to take account of elapsed time but Thomas (1988) accepted the modifications and concluded that that this later study "provides definite support for the individualist view of leadership". (p388).

Overall, Day & Lord (1988) concluded that when certain methodological concerns are addressed, particularly with the regression analyses, leadership can explain as much as 45% of an organisation's performance. (p 453).

With initial research, summarised above, concentrating on outputs of sales, profits, margins, and share prices, other researchers were more interested in other outcomes such as staff performance, satisfaction, stress, absenteeism and turnover. Yammarino, Danserau & Kennedy (2001), and Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou & Yammarino (2001) remind the researcher that leadership is a multiple level and multi-dimensional phenomenon and that effective leadership in an organisation affects both soft and hard criteria relevant to participation and performance. The leader-follower relationship is one of the most central parts of working life and has been extensively studied by the psychoanalysts. Miller (1993) concluded that managers and leaders who were participating in organisation development projects in a wide range of organisations ended up colluding with each other and stopped the projects because of fears of the ultimate consequences and in recognition of their mutual psychological dependence. Cooper & Payne (1991) implied that the leader-follower relationship could be interpreted as surrogate parent-child relationship in which the child seeks approval, but rarely gets it and in that way; the interpersonal relationship between the leaders and the followers is seen as crucial (Smith & Cooper 1994). This relationship has also been described as a psychological contract between manager and employee. This mutual understanding relates to bilateral commitments, expectations and responsibilities over and above that required by the formal contract. (Herriot, Manning & Kidd, (1997).

A psychological contract makes sense, because it is not possible to lay everything down in writing in an employment contract, because so much of the understanding has to be cultural, unwritten and discussed in line with ongoing changes in the organisation. In organisations such as hospitals and clinics where the clinical interventions are carried out alongside patient uncertainty and emotionality, stress in staff is one sign of organisational performance. Low job satisfaction has been cited as an indirect cause of absenteeism amongst nurses (Gray-Toft & Anderson, 1985). When it comes to more severe forms of stress such as emotional exhaustion and the ultimate negative experience of “burnout” as defined by Maslach & Jackson (1981) and Maslach (1993), Lee & Ashforth (1993) have found that work stressors have been found to be a major cause of burnout.

In burnout there are three factors, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and disconnection from colleagues, clients and patients as people and finally a general feeling of low accomplishment. According to Cordes & Dougherty (1993), emotional exhaustion is the first symptom in the sequence to burnout. In a study examining the hospital culture/climate expressed in terms of the physical, social and psychological environment as measured by the Nursing Stress Scale, (Gray-Toft & Anderson, 1981) it was found that these climate scores correlated negatively with job satisfaction but positively with anxiety and staff turnover.

The multiple roles of leadership have been discussed earlier. The manager is one of the most significant people in the follower’s environment and is likely to be a major part of the consensual organisational value and belief system. As an initiator, constructor, part owner and interpreter of this organisation culture/climate, the manager amends and represents this system to followers while simultaneously trying

to exert direct influence on the cognitions, feelings and behaviours of these followers. For Schein (1985, 1990, 1992, 1997, 1999) the role of leadership in creating and maintaining the culture was definite. For Moran & Wolkwein (1992), individual perceptions and interpretations are transformed by interaction and dialogue into a consensual value and belief system or an organisational climate/culture. Kowzlowski & Doherty (1989) have argued that because the manager is one of the most salient functionaries in the follower's environment, the followers tend to generalise their perceptions from this manager to the wider facets of the organisation such as the culture and the climate. For other researchers, leadership can intervene and have a moderating effect on followers by acting as a buffer to the effects of issues in the organisation climate/culture. So while the organisation culture and climate may lack clarity about tasks and goals and have competing demands that produce stress, these effects can be partially moderated by the leader. (Kirmeyer & Dougherty 1988, Cahoon & Rowney, 1989).

In another study with nurses, environmental stressors in the physical, social and psychological domains were measured as outcomes by the Nursing Stress Scale (Gray-Toft & Anderson, op. cit.) and the leadership facets were measured by a translated version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire form, 5x-rater, by Bass & Avolio (1991). The researchers had translated the MLQ into French by the back-to-back method and considered that it was reasonably robust on the basis of a parallel use of the English version in an earlier study. (Stordeur, Vandenberghe and D'hoore, 1999).

In this latest nursing study, the leadership dimensions now only accounted for 9% of the variance in the outcome measure of emotional exhaustion from the Maslach inventory (Maslach & Jackson, op.cit) and that the organisation climate/culture plus physical features of the organisation accounted for 22% of the outcome variance.

In many of today's organisations, knowledge workers are now an important and growing part of the workforce. (Perlow & Weeks, 2002). In solving problems, part of the work may be traditional and administrative, but much work will consist of the complex analytical and abstract processing of information and ideas where the problem solver is operating at the boundaries of knowledge and creativity. In these dynamic situations, some individuals are pressed not to do more of the same but to accomplish a paradigm shift in their thinking such as with adaptors being continually pressed to think like innovators. For Stacey (1999, 2001) the organisational environment can be partitioned into 5 domains based on two orthogonal variables, (1) level of certainty, and (2) level of agreement. The first domain that is characterised by high certainty and high agreement which permit rational decision making, but as the conflict and the uncertainty increase, the stage is reached where complexity emerges and people tend to act in their own interests to survive in the local context. As the uncertainty increases further and agreement decreases, the fifth domain is reached where there is disintegration, anarchy, or massive avoidance. At the preceding boundary between stability and instability, the follower will be subjected to technical and personal challenges as well as stress. So in terms of problem solving, an individuals' preferred cognitive style (as measured by KAI) may not initially change under the press of other colleagues and/or the organisational culture/climate although the observed behaviours can. (Clapp, 1991).

Ultimately however coping behaviour is exhausted and the person leaves. In other studies, Mikulincer, Kedem & Paz (1990, a & b) have shown that increases in anxiety tend to narrow the individuals use of the cognitive resource. In KAI Theory, (Kirton, 1994) when in a situation of anxiety, the individual's cognitive preference would be largely unchanged but the reduction in cognitive resource would ultimately result in a less "innovative" problem solving process starting from the initial construing of the problem through solution generation and then on to implementation. However, in personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955) and research (Bannister, 1960, Bannister & Fransella, 1971, Fransella, 1981, Fransella & Joyston-Bechtal, 1971) the personal constructs under extreme stress will be reorganised in both content and structure. The possibility that the sub-factors of KAI (Originality, Efficiency and Rule Conformity) will change under pressure is yet to be examined. It is the change or perceived threat of change to the core constructs that generates the anxiety. (Kelly, 1955).

While burnout in human service organisations is a common but severe response to a combination of task stress and interpersonal demands, more extreme stress such as hypertension affects cognitive functioning in terms of attention, learning and memory as well as the executive functions of planning and organisation, perceptual skills and mental flexibility. (Waldstein, 2003).

In contrast to the negative consequences of stress, Bass's (1985) leadership model has two higher-order clusters (plus the laissez-faire style) with the transformational cluster underpinned by a moral imperative so that transformational leadership and its facets are potentially capable of producing positive effects over and above those produced by the second and different higher-order cluster of transactional leadership.

Seltzer, Numerof & Bass (1989) found an inverse relationship between transformational leadership and burnout but a significant positive relationship between burnout and the transactional facet of management-by-exception. Kets de Vries (1999) writes that all leaders are the “containers” of their follower’s emotions in that the leaders presence is reassuring as they create a “holding environment” for their followers. (p1394).

6.1 Leadership vs Management

In line with the activities and processes at the Senior Management level that are described in the Management Charter Initiative, MCI (1995), it is expected that followers would be able to distinguish between a set of styles and processes called leadership and a different set called management. Understanding the external environment, developing a vision and then setting the strategy and gaining commitment are likely to be distinguished from the activities of planning, implementing and monitoring. For Kotter (1990), Leadership is about setting direction, aligning people to a vision of the future and empowering the followers to meet the challenges created by this vision. In contrast, Management is about planning, organizing, staffing and controlling.

H1. From the follower’s reports on their “significant” manager, via the leadership survey, a Leadership style or process and a separate Management style or process will be articulated.

6.2 Problem Solving Style

The context for this hypothesis is the enhanced understanding of the problem-solving domain as articulated by the KAI theory and measured by the associated Inventory. It is now considered after Clapp (1991) that the KAI is largely a style measure of preferences in problem solving rather than behaviours. The KAI also correlates with the MBTI, and the 16PF, so it can be viewed as a bridge between cognition and personality.

The debate concerning personality, and its relationship to behaviour continues as several articles reviewed in the British Journal of Psychology devoted to the issue (Deary & Mathews, 1993) so it is possible that the KAI will also reflect this split.

As part of the Organisation Culture Audit, both the demands of the actual tasks being carried out by these subjects and the nature of their "ideal" tasks were estimated.

The hypotheses related to this would then be:

H 2. The follower's total KAI score (as a preference measure) will be positively related to the "ideal" organisation culture/climate in terms of Work Demands (Ideal).

However, it is possible that the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI) is not wholly a preference measure; there will be a lower correlation with the actual Work Demands.

H 3. The follower's scores from the KAI will correlate positively with Work Demands (Actual), but at a lower level than the correlation with the Work Demands (Ideal).

It was argued that managers and leaders in organisations might perform a role analogous to that of counsellors, but in the realm of problem solving.

If adaption and innovation are viewed as bipolar constructs and representative of personal approaches to problem solving, and are related to the tasks people do, then it would be appropriate for managers to help subordinates to shift their constructs and align them with the nature of the problems to be solved, according to an external perspective. If leadership, as distinct from management, is about values, beliefs and the strategic intent (Hamel, 1996) then it becomes less concerned with tasks and more concerned with direction and the minds of employees.

In this case, there should be a relationship between the leadership style, which gives subordinates “the big picture” and the strategic intent if it is used directly with subordinates. Problem solving style and Leadership. A style that targets the person’s construct system will be related to it. Specifically, a leadership style (visioning, setting direction, aligning followers) will be related to scores on the KAI. If, on the other hand, subordinates seek validation of their constructs (the choice corollary, Kelly, 1963, p103), then they might see or seek a match between their own problem solving style and the style of the boss. Kirton and colleagues wrote about the notion of “cognitive fit”. If there is a large misfit then subordinates eventually leave. It is possible however that before they take this step, subordinates may initiate contact with the type of manager who has a style which is more aligned to their problem solving style.

H 4. Followers described as Adaptors (KAI) are more likely to choose as their most “significant” manager one who has a Management style (planning, organising and staffing) rather than a Leadership style (visioning, setting direction and alignment).

H 5. Followers described as Innovators (KAI) are more likely to choose as their most significant manager, one who has a “visioning” style (Leadership) rather than one who has an organising, staffing and controlling style (Management).

6.3 Leadership and Organisational Culture and Climate.

Although Schein (1985) was insistent that the role of leadership was to create and maintain the culture of the organisation, others have written about leadership and its direct impact on subordinates. Some have extended the influence to many others such as bosses and colleagues who were labeled as followers in specific situations by Hersey & Blanchard (1969). Dunphy & Dick (1987) have found that in organisations with more than 2000 people, subordinates are more affected by their immediate organisational environment.

H 6. The perceived Management style of the significant manager will be positively associated with Teamwork, Work Goals, Work Demands and Work Supports, in the organisation culture/climate.

H 7. The perceived Leadership style of the significant manager will be related positively to Mission in the organisation culture/climate.

6.4 Job Satisfaction.

The literature on job satisfaction and the redesign of jobs has been extensive. Historically, it has primarily been concerned with repetitive jobs rather than problem solving type tasks. The same principles regarding the sources of satisfaction however may still apply. Job satisfaction will be related to having clear goals, with challenging

work that fits into an overall purpose and is performed in a supportive environment.

H 8. The job satisfaction of followers will be positively related to Work Goals, Work Demands, Mission, and Support.

6.5 Individual well-being.

The notion is that work can get you down. Feelings of anxiety will increase with diffused uncertainty rather than specificity and be worse without support.

Feelings of depression will be related to more specific and local issues. A leader who has the human touch and who is personable will be associated with lower feelings of anxiety and depression in subordinates. Depression is likely to increase if the person feels alone.

H 9. Anxiety in followers will be related (negatively) to culture/climate factors of Mission, and Work Support, and negatively to a leadership style with a personal orientation.

H 10. Depression in followers will be related to climate/culture factors of Work Demands (positively) and to Mission (negatively) and Teamwork (negatively), and negatively to a leadership style with a personal orientation.

6.6 Problem Solving Styles and Feelings

H 11. Problem solving style, measured in terms of cognitive style by the KAI will be unrelated to their feelings as measured by Anxiety, and Depression.

6.7 Performance Effectiveness

Years of extensive work by Locke et.al.(1976,1984, and 1986) has shown the vital importance of goals in relation to performance. In this study, the individuals preferred problem solving style (KAI) is also a template for potential performance.

H 12. Performance effectiveness will be positively related to the composite factor of Work Goals from the Cultural Audit and positively related to individual problem solving style (KAI).

Note: Work Goals = SG17 (clearly defined goals) + SG 18 (hard goals).

CHAPTER VII - METHODOLOGY

Attachment is the great fabricator of illusions: reality can be attained only by someone who is detached. Simone Weil

7.1 Issues with Measurement

When Sir Robert Armstrong was giving evidence in the Spy Catcher trial; after a lengthy interrogation, he eventually conceded that he had not told the whole story. He then said that his misdemeanour had been a selective telling of the story, which he described as 'being economical with the truth'.

When it comes to research in organisations some researchers have often avoided a large amount of face-to-face contact with the subjects. Organisational researchers who have adopted quantitative approaches have been criticized for their preoccupations with measurement and numerical data, and for not looking behind the numbers. As Steinbruner wrote 'If quantitative precision is demanded, it is gained, in the current state of things, only by so reducing the scope of what is analysed that most of the important problems remain external to the analysis'. (Steinbruner, 1982, p44). Others have said the same thing from a different tack. Their view is that for the study of organisations to move forward, qualitative research was needed. Researchers had to get under the veneer of the organisation and study the issues in depth.

In some of these cases the researcher would have to become an anthropologist and live within the organisation for several months, in order to discover what was going on and in order to see if there were differences between espoused views and enacted views as forewarned by Argyris & Schon, (1978), for example.

While this stance looks admirable, Kipnis's theory of power in organisations (Kipnis, 1976) has led to propositions that power holders can suffer from cognitive distortions. In particular they can over-emphasize their own influence on organisational outcomes and downplay the value of the team. Looking closer at specifics, Staw, McKechnie & Puffer (1983); and Salancik & Meindl (1984) report findings, which support the Kipnis theory. Kabanoff & Nesbit (1997) in studying the distancing of senior executives in organisations, obtained data via indirect and unobtrusive measures such as corporate statements and annual reports. These authors have indicated how difficult it is to get people to talk about the issues, particularly those involving power. Invariably, this reluctance on the part of managers has led to researchers tackling the easier issues or reverting to deception and manipulation on a fairly massive scale as with Milgram (1974) in the experiments on obedience.

As Hollander & Offerman (1990), wrote, " Despite the relevance of power to organisations in general, and to an understanding of leadership in particular, the study of power and leadership has yet to be well integrated. Assumptions about power often remain unstated and untested. Like love, its importance and existence are acknowledged, but its study is often resisted. And those with the most power, and the most influence in organisations, have typically been most able to shield themselves from study." (Clark & Clark, 1990; p89).

The approach in this research is to use quantitative approaches and follow up with interviews and discussions. The quantitative approach would be used in two ways.

The first approach was to use instruments as intended by the authors, and the second was to analyse the data from the perspective of the subjects and reconfigure the structure of the measures. They are then analysed and re-interpreted in line with any new configuration. In the case of the leadership questionnaires, Bass & Yammarino (1991) using their MLQ found that leaders rating themselves tended to overestimate their scores and that the magnitudes were greater for the least accomplished leaders. In the research presented here, ratings of the leader from the subordinate's perspective were used. In contrast to leadership styles however, ratings of self and others on personality dimensions show a closer correspondence, for example Funder (1980), and Norman (1963). This latter research implies that personality has stability and consistency, while leadership style is learned or shaped by the environment.

Returning to questionnaires. Data reduction techniques will be used to reduce complexity and to extract patterns. Since the interactions between the organisational participants are likely to be ongoing and emergent, the best picture that can be obtained is a potted history of these transactions for incorporation into a general model. Statistics also keep the researcher on the track and reduce the possibilities for self-deception. Statistics also help to ensure that the insights derived from the data are more than a repetition of findings from the literature and are not based on chance occurrences. In addition to the statistical requirements of individual elements of data like correlation coefficients for example, a mass of correlation coefficients themselves are also subject to chance effects as Handyside (1996) reminds researchers.

When it comes to the practical aspect of research, such as recommendations, and particularly comparisons of individuals or organisations, the measures have to be understood in terms of both content and statistical structure in order to comprehend what is happening and to minimise errors. In the clinical arena, Bentall (1993) has argued that despite the consistency of personality traits, he is doubtful as to whether or not the models developed in the personality domain actually help other human beings in trouble. Further, as Martin & Frost (1996) have indicated that if there is no truth, then credibility is the issue. One way of establishing credibility with research in an organisation is by having data that is configured to a degree which renders it comprehensible, and which comprises components, elements or items which appear to be related to each other and form a composite picture.

Statistics can help this process, but as Martin and Frost recommend, developing credible scripts and a dialogue would be a sound extension of any quantitative or qualitative research when it is applied in organisations. The general view is that we live in the real world, with real people and things, and it is not mathematical. (Kouzes, 1993. and Kouzes & Posner 1995).

7.2 Measuring the Immediate Environment - Leadership Survey

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (MLQ) of Bass & Avolio (1995) is a benchmark for the examination and discussion of such leadership instruments. The MLQ contains descriptions of the possible behaviours of managers or leaders. Having examined the items in the instrument, they appear to have face validity. One can also see them demonstrated in practicing managers in a wide range of organisations and situations.

But the face validity is not enough. On examining the descriptive statistics for the scales, one gets an uneasy feeling that something is not quite right. Since the leadership behaviours are learned like competencies, it is possible that the distribution of the scores will be leaning in the espoused direction. For example, research that uses subjects who are members of a military school that aims to train leaders is likely to produce scores for the leadership components that reflect the cultural directions of the training. The other worrying aspect is the findings on “implicit leadership theories” by Rush, Thomas & Lord (1977). In addition to the skewed distributions, there are some other concerns about the MLQ as a measure. The MLQ comes in two versions, a full version called the 5X and a shorter version made up of the same 9 scales but with 45 questions. It is this shorter one that is analyzed here. On the basis of the data published (Bass & Avolio, 1995) it is apparent that the individual items making up the scales are skewed and that this is likely to lead to scales that are also skewed. These in turn might affect the conclusions drawn from subsequent analyses. Each of the items on the MLQ is rated from zero to 4. The description for zero is “not at all”, through “sometimes” for 2 to “frequently, if not always” for 4. On this basis, it could be assumed that the theoretical mean for each item would be 2., but as the table below shows, (table 1), all of the items, on the first five scales of Transformational Leadership, have means which are greater than the theoretical mean and all are negatively skewed. Two other scales, Contingent Rewards, and Management-by-Exception (Active) show a mixed picture. Management-by-Exception (Passive), and Laissez-Faire, also have items where the means are below the theoretical means and positively skewed.

These data ring the alarm bells and prompt further analysis.

Maxwell (1971) has indicated that distributions following the 20/80 rules may be sufficiently robust to permit the assumption of normality. Hayes (1995) on the other hand has a more stringent approach and has argued that with a 5 point scale at least 20% of the items should be in each of the tails, that is 0 and 1; and 3 and 4; otherwise the scale item should be **rejected** from further analysis. To be more precise, Hayes recommends that the sample means should be calculated. The confidence interval for the sample mean at a 99.9 % level would be the most liberal stance for any item or scale. Although correlation coefficients will still be useful with skewed distributions such as those shown here with the MLQ, the shift of the means in the same upwards direction for all of the items on the first 5 MLQ scales raises some questions about the measure. The shift of the means downwards on the last 2 MLQ dimensions is also worrying. Although full data on the MLQ scales was not available, a rule of thumb test was applied to each item in the Bass & Avolio table. For example item 36 on the short form (Expresses his confidence that we will achieve our goals) has a mean of 2.93 and an SD of 1.06, with skewness of minus 0.93 and kurtosis of 0.26. If the sample size is assumed to be 120, then the true mean could be anywhere between 2.65 to 3.21 at the 99 percent level of confidence. While this misses the theoretical mean of 2, the same calculation performed on item 26 (Articulates a compelling vision of the future) ranges from 1.87 to 2.53, and therefore appears to be a normally distributed item. The advantage of computing the confidence interval is that the numbers obtained are not necessarily symmetrical about the theoretical mean and therefore permits some skewness. (Hayes, 1995). The results for all items on the short form of the MLQ are shown in Table 1. Only 4 of

the questionnaire items have means, which at the 99% confidence level are likely to span the theoretical mean of 2.

Table 7.1 Summary Statistics for Distributions of MLQ Items (Short Form)

ITEM NO	MEAN	SD	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	COVERS THEORETICAL MEAN	
IDEALISED INFLUENCE (ATTRIBUTED)						
10	2.47		1.26	-0.59	-0.59	NO
18	2.51		1.16	-0.58	-0.40	NO
21	2.54		1.27	-0.62	-0.66	NO
25	2.43		1.25	-0.52	-0.71	NO
IDEALISED INFLUENCE (BEHAVIOUR)						
6	2.36		1.25	-0.40	-0.87	NO
14	2.63		1.20	-0.71	-0.36	NO
23	2.88		1.20	-0.93	-0.6	NO
34	2.52		1.15	-0.56	-0.43	NO
INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION						
9	2.51		1.23	-0.51	-0.69	NO
36	2.93		1.06	-0.93	0.26	NO
13	2.76		1.14	-0.74	-0.20	NO
26	2.20		1.23	-0.25	-0.84	OK
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION						
2	2.51		1.11	-0.55	-0.38	NO
8	2.57		1.14	-0.62	-0.35	NO
32	2.39		1.16	-0.46	-0.53	NO
30	2.48		1.16	-0.55	-0.49	NO
INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION						
19	3.06		1.20	-1.27	0.65	NO
31	2.48		1.34	-0.02	3.22	NO
15	2.06		1.39	-0.07	-1.26	OK
29	2.87		1.25	-0.98	-0.07	NO
CONTINGENT REWARDS						
16	2.38		1.28	-0.49	-0.80	NO
1	2.30		1.25	-0.38	-0.86	OK
11	2.35		1.28	-0.42	-0.88	OK
35	2.82		1.19	-0.84	-0.19	NO
MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION-ACTIVE						
4	2.20		1.13	-0.11	-0.85	OK
22	1.37		1.19	0.11	-0.54	NO
24	1.58		1.26	0.38	-0.89	NO
27	1.16		1.22	0.28	-0.89	NO
MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION-PASSIVE						
3	1.02		1.16	1.00	0.34	NO
12	0.96		1.16	1.09	0.25	NO
17	1.58		1.22	0.29	-0.84	NO
20	0.87		1.11	1.16	0.43	NO
LAISSEZ-FAIRE						
5	0.90		1.07	1.14	0.68	NO
7	0.94		1.10	1.08	0.37	NO
28	0.84		1.07	1.21	0.65	NO
33	0.93		1.12	1.21	0.81	NO

Notes: 1) According to Hayes (1995), the 99% confidence interval should encompass the theoretical mean for each scale item for normality.

2) From Bass & Avolio (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), 5X-Short. Data from the manual (columns 1 to 5), calculations column 6 (Covers Mean) based on Hayes (1996).

Further, when items are to be added to each other in order to construct a scale, the assumption is that they each approximate a normal distribution. While the calculation of correlation coefficients from such non-normal distributions and scales might give useful trends or directional indicators, the use of measures from skewed scales for individual comparisons is worrying. On skewed scales, many people are simply bunched together.

Nunally (1970) implies that it is possible for the errors in individual items to cancel each other out so that the overall scale is normal. He writes, "The essence of the linear model is that it does not take individual items seriously. It recognises that the individual item has considerable specificity and measurement error. It does not make stringent assumptions about the trace line. The only assumption made is that each item has some form of monotonic trace line, and even that is not a strict assumption, since some of the items could have slightly curvilinear trace lines and a linear relationship of total scores with the attribute would still be obtainable" (p193).

This is apparently what happens with the measure of problem solving style (the KAI). The individual components of SO, E and R are crafted in such a way, that the overall distribution is better than each single distribution and somewhat better than the least normal one.

7.3 This Research

Four sets of measures were used in this research. Two sets were concerned with the organisational environment:

- 1) The Fletcher Culture Audit. (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991)
- 2) This researcher's leadership survey.

The other two sets of measures were concerned with the individual employee (recent graduates in this study) working in these environments.

3) The KAI as a measure of problem solving style.

4) Three indicators of well-being namely, Anxiety, Depression, and Job Satisfaction, all of which are associated with the Culture Audit.

5) An overall criterion measure of Performance Effectiveness

Each of the individual items making up the Leadership survey were checked using Normal P-P plots and Detrended Normal P-P plots as were the finished scales. Bimodal items were removed first). Although many of the items approximated the normal distribution (Maxwell, 1971a, 1971b), the overall scales that resulted from the item analysis using the stricter criteria of Hayes (1995) produced three scales were skewed in the same direction as those of the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995). However, one of the scales Leadership (factor 3-"Visioning") has a normal distribution.

With the Cultural Audit, the published scales were also tested using P-P plots. Some of these are also skewed. A better statistical picture is obtained from the KAI and from this researcher's moderate sample of 92 subjects. Here the KAI mean is 102, sd=16.

The possible means span the theoretical mean of 96 at the 99.9 percent confidence level. The KAI subscales are also approximately normal, but less so. In comparing the distribution of KAI scores with the normal distribution, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test gives a 2-tailed p of 0.90 for this researcher's distribution based on the total KAI score.

The 3 subscales of SO, E and R are not at the same goodness of fit level individually, however the combined data gets closer to the normal distribution rather than further from it. (Table 2.1, Appendix II). The KAI data supports the view of Nunnally (1978) that it is possible for the overall scale to have a better normal distribution than the underlying scales, with a sample size of 92 subjects.

7.4 The Measure of Problem Solving Style-The KAI

The KAI theory implies that people differ in the way that they approach and solve problems and that these differences are demonstrated as preferences that are on a continuum from “adaption” to “innovation”.

Underlying the preferences are three sub-scales:

SO) Originality - which measures the extent to which individuals prefer the production of original ideas (Kirton, 1985).

E) Efficiency - which measures the preference for precision and detail in the problem solving process (Kirton, 1985).

R) Rule Conformity - a measure of the extent to which the individual is methodical, prudent and sensitive to conformity pressures or boundaries.

(Kirton, 1985 and Rickards, 1993a).

The three subscales are added to give the overall measure.

The instruction to respondents on the KAI is different from most self-perception instruments in that it asks “how easy or difficult do you find it to present yourself, consistently over a long period on each of the 33 items. Item 2 for example is “a person who conforms”.

The argument is that this approach links “creative” behaviour with preferences in problem solving behaviour while distinguishing between the two. The instructions also appear to look for persistence rather than temporary or short-term responses.

The adaption-innovation theory also distinguishes between problem solving style and ability and the KAI measures problem solving style and expresses this as a preference. It is worth remembering that the creativity measure of Cattell is a combination of personality and the reasoning scale of factor B. (Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970); while Kirton’s research has shown that the relationship between intelligence as measured by standard intelligence tests and problem-solving style (via KAI) is orthogonal. (Kirton, 1987). A further problem with Cattell’s factor B (reasoning) is that the 16PF is untimed and that the items are relatively easy and do not discriminate at the upper levels of intelligence in the population. The reliability of this scale is low and may be range –restricted. (Saville & Blinkhorn, 1976)

In examining the reliability of the KAI for this research, the literature was relied upon. Although the raw data is available, this researcher did not compute Cronbach’s alpha. Histograms for SO, E, R and total KAI were produced for the respondents in this study and the Kolomogorov-Smirnov goodness of fit test was applied to all three components and the overall score. (Appendix I, Table 1.2). Reliability coefficients are reported in at least a dozen studies and these range from .78 to .88 with KR20 or Cronbach’s alpha. The conclusion from these studies is that the KAI is a dependable and reliable measure of cognitive or problem solving style for this research.

Although the feedback document accompanying the KAI places people on a continuum and then categorises them at the extremes as “adaptors” or “innovators”, both the extreme categories and the continuum were used in this research.

7.5 The Measure of the Organisation Environment

7.5.1 Organisation Climate and Culture

The Cultural Audit (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991) appears in two versions. Version 1 is in the form of a 17-page questionnaire that contains over 70 questions and over 200 response elements while the shorter version 2 has 42 questions. The Audit has been developed over several years to provide a detailed instrument that measures different aspects of various organisational dimensions. It has been widely used in industrial, commercial and other organisations to identify human resource issues of productivity, motivation, absenteeism, job satisfaction, accidents, and organisational commitment. (Fletcher, 1992). This measure of organisational environment is actually called a Cultural Audit by its authors and has been recently renamed as the Work-FIT Profiler. Version 1, with some 200 questions, has reliabilities that range from 0.59 to 0.79. It is interesting to note that the published reliabilities for the series titled Study 2 with the smaller sample from 87 subjects to 160, gives reliability coefficients that are marginally higher than for samples of 300+subjects. (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991). It is possible that the lower reliabilities with the larger sample were obtained because of some postal administration of the questionnaires. The reliabilities are summarised in Table 3.2, Appendix III.

Version 2 of the Audit measures eight organisational dimensions and then classifies the organisation as a type based on the aggregate of the scores on these dimensions.

The environmental dimensions measured are by virtue of the author's interests in stress and well-being labeled as "The causes of the problems" (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991). There are six measures, described as outcomes, again assessed by the respondent.

Table 7.2 The Environmental Dimensions and Outputs of the Fletcher (1991) Cultural Audit – Version 2

CULTURE/CLIMATE	OUTCOME VARIABLES
Work Demands	Job Satisfaction
Work Supports	Client Orientation
Interpersonal Demands	Organisational Commitment
Work Goals	Performance Effectiveness
Team Work	Anxiety
Mission	Depression
Communication	
Physical Environment	

Although the instrument is described as a cultural audit, the scales encompass a wider domain than the definition of culture as shared or more precisely common values or as the collective mental programming of Hofstede (1989) or as an organisation ideology (Harrison, 1972). The practical advantage of the audit is that it measures some aspects of organisation climate as well.

While practicing managers are more likely to be concerned with the directly observable aspects of organisation culture, others have been concerned with aspects or organisations involving low levels of awareness. This is the “implicit culture” of Theodorson & Theodorson (1969); or the “basic assumptions” of Bion (1961), and Miller (1993). For others however, facets such as organisation culture are of marginal importance compared to for example the organisation’s hierarchy and the ways in which work is organised, controlled and carried out. (Czarniawska - Joerges, 1992 in Denison, 1996; and Chandler & Dunphy, 1987).

The Fletcher Audit chosen for this study makes the issues being measured explicit. It covers the range of issues from organisation culture through to climate and role expectations. The measure allows some repeatability, albeit within a prescribed framework. The instrument used in this research is published as an updated and shorter version of the one in the Handbook. (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991).

The reliability was examined before this research study using the results published on Version 1.

Version 2 however contained some new scales derived from version 1 but untested. These were key organisation culture scales of Mission, Teamwork, and Communication.

Reliabilities of all these scales would be checked after data collection from this research and estimated via homogeneity, or internal consistency using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Scales would then be modified by removing items if it was shown that the overall reliability would be increased. (Cronbach, 1951. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The issue of low internal consistency has in the past been a criticism of some personality scales for example, the 16PF. (Levonian, 1961, and Saville, 1993). In reply to such criticisms, Cattell claims that this is a positive advantage where items have been chosen to represent a factor in a short scale. Items having high correlation's with the factor, but low inter-correlation's amongst themselves, will tend to have the highest multiple correlation with the factor, which is important if the scale is to be valid as well as reliable. A scale made up of such items will tend to have low homogeneity. (Cattell, 1974).

In Fletcher's cultural audit, the reliability coefficients of the scales (with multiple items) ranged from 0.59 to 0.79 (Appendix III, Table 3.2). On the basis of a sample of 330 people from Stead (1997), the reliability coefficients ranged form 0.21 to 0.84. The data from Stead however was obtained for a postal administration of the questionnaires. While face-to-face administration can lead subjects to certain responses if there is too much explanation, the prompts can lead the subjects to agree in order to obtain approval as indicated in the studies of the approval motive (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). This shift has also been seen in the research on the extensive questioning to evoke childhood memories.

Postal administration can also be a real problem for subjects. The environment for data collection has to be constructed so that people take the process seriously and can turn away from the panic of immediate work problems and tune in to the context within which the data is being sought. The ethics of the research process and the use of data also need to be discussed. Some subjects wish to use the process to discuss things while others are suspicious that the findings might be used against them. A clear understanding or a "contract" needs to be made with the subjects. Calveley & Wray (2002) have described most of the problems of gaining and maintaining access with subjects in two unrelated organisations they researched and the need for regular negotiations to ensure mutual understanding.

Returning to the issue of reliability, as a tougher benchmark the reliability coefficients for **personality** measures, such as form A of the 16PF range from 0.40 to 0.70 with a comparable population (Saville & Blinkhorn, 1976) and the OPQ from 0.58 for the factor of Forward Planning to 0.88 for the factor of Controlling with a White population (N=2306). With Asians, and Afro-Caribbean's the range is from 0.36 to 0.88; (Saville, 1996).

7.5.2 The Development of the Leadership Survey

Two challenging problems were found with the Bass MLQ. One was the link between the four facets of the transformational scales (i.e. Charisma, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation, and Inspirational Leadership) and the two Contingent Rewards scales on the transactional facets. (Yammarino & Bass, 1990, p161). The other was the skewed distribution of many of the items as well as the scales.

In view of these problems, it was decided to construct a new measure. From observations of managers Kotter (1990) described how leadership could be distinguished from management so I decided to construct a leadership survey. The survey was developed from the repeated observations of managers and leaders in a wide range of situations and organisations. The observations took place with the traditional frameworks of operational leadership, and strategic leadership. Other behaviours that appeared to have been deliberately crafted by the leaders observed were noted as well as for possible incorporation in the survey. The activities and behaviours were then written as short statements and edited and re-edited until they were short but comprehensive with 85 items. The questions were checked for clarity and simplicity with colleagues.

The questionnaire was then applied to a sample of 92 recent graduates in this study, but with a focus on the manager who they might know best of all. The subjects in this research were given time and space and then asked to:

- 1) Think of the most significant person in a leadership or management role relating to you on a regular basis. (In some cases this might be your immediate manager, but it might well be someone else).
- 2) With reference to the named person, picture them in your mind and once this picture is clear, indicate whether or not you agree or disagree with each of the statements provided on the questionnaire. Following completion of the questionnaire, the subjects were asked to make any additional notes they wished on the questionnaire or to complete a narrative of their work relationships. Discussions then took place in small groups.

The leadership survey was the first set of data to be analysed. The analysis examined the distribution for each item. Items with distributions not approaching the Gaussian specification were eliminated from subsequent processing. (Maxwell, 1971a). The remaining items were factor analysed using cut-off points of 0.50.

7.6 The Research Sample

7.6.1 Host Organisations

The host organisations were six geographically separated parts of an international software and computing company. The parts were run as separate entities although they did co-operate with each other in controlled ways. Although the Group had been an independent UK company, it was now owned by a supportive international parent company. The products are computer systems and software, which provide solutions to customer's problems. The clients encompass the public services, councils, government departments and private sector companies.

At the time of this research the company built and sold a wide range of computers, but during the research this part of the business was split off and placed under separate management. Hardware, as the platform for the software, could be provided from any source to suit the customer. The strategic idea was that the remaining organisation would now be concerned with solving problems. In particular, they would offer creative and high added-value software solutions typically using big integrated but distributed systems, to the complex problems of a range of customers.

7.6.2 The Subjects

The target population was 150 subjects who were recent employees and young graduates from six sites in the UK. Participation was voluntary so the sample ended up with approximately 92 useful data sets, of which 85 were complete. The subjects had an average age of 23.8 years and 28% were women. People were sought who had not been in the organisation for more than 2 years so that they would be fresh and alert to the organisational culture and climate, and to minimise the socialisation that takes place when joining an organisation. Research with immigrants for example has shown that the close and continuous contact with another country involves adoption of at least some of the cultural patterns of the host country. With continuous contact an understanding of the norms and values enables people to adapt and display social sensitivity and social behaviours that are more in line with the host culture. (Faelli, R., & Carless, S., 1999).

7.6.3 Study Design

1) Introduction.

In order to understand individual problem solving style and its relationship with the environment, subjects were sought whose main task was to solve problems. The kind of problems range from the design and implementation of computer-based systems for banks, supermarkets, and government organisations. Others are concerned with the associated products and services such as quality and production. Within these, the subjects would be individuals who would have the necessary task competencies to make an immediate contribution.

Although they would work as team members as well as individually, it was expected that the subjects would still be relatively fresh to the organisations culture, and be novices to the shared values and climate so that they could provide a range of fresh perceptions before much filtering could take place. Since the organisations publicity materials for the products and systems highlighted innovation and creativity, it was expected that these properties would be reflected in the sample.

Inventories, scales and measures covering each of the domains would be the primary sources of data, however, to enhance the quality of this process, the researcher would be present to listen to comments and other related issues. Discussions would take place after each session.

All the questionnaires would be administered in two periods, 3 months apart, to the same people. Following completion of the second set, the subjects would receive group feedback on the results so far, and a discussion about their own problem solving style. This would be followed by a question and answer session.

2) Administration

Each meeting was attended in person by the researcher. Before any inventories were administered, the basic purpose of the research was explained together with an assurance of individual confidentiality. Where the subjects sought anonymity, they were able to use pseudonyms instead of their names to identify their documents for personal feedback. Agreement was made to give some feedback in 3 months time. These feedback dates were set at this first meeting. The confidentiality of individual data was confirmed. This first part of the administration usually took from 20-30 minutes. The questionnaires were then administered in the following sequence with pauses between each instrument:

- 1) Problem solving style (KAI)
- 2) The Organisation Culture Audit
- 3) The “significant manager” form and then
- 4) The leadership survey

Questions were answered during the pauses.

At the end of the four phases, there was a debrief plus the opportunity to discuss what was going on in the organisation. The data from these group discussions and interviews is discussed later. A commitment was given to give feedback after analysis of the data and these dates were agreed at the end of this session.

7.7 Issues and Concerns for the Subjects – Confidentiality

Preliminary meetings were held with HR Managers from the host organisation, prior to and during the research. The organisation was supportive of the general direction of the research and specially named it “Growing Effectiveness”. The HR Managers had a view that the leadership survey should refer to the immediate manager, as they would be interested in what followers thought of their immediate managers. This was described as the person formally appointed to look after the subject.

It was evident that for some followers the person who was their most significant manager was not the line manager but someone else (often the project manager).

The leadership survey refers to the subjects “most significant manager/team leader”. Although some people thought the most significant person was a colleague, they were invited to rank the managers around them according to their perceived significance.

Instructions were to choose the most significant one, reflecting on their interactions over the last 6 months.

This whole process was designed to change the direction of the subject's perception from the mindset likely to have operated with the previous questionnaires. While the Fletcher organisation culture/climate measure is generalised to the surrounding atmosphere, the leadership survey is specific in that it is a study of the subject's most significant manager.

These two measures are the subject's perspectives on two layers of the environment. In the case of the Cultural audit, the questions do not refer to a specific individual, for example question D6 states "Many people are forced to COPE WITH CONTINUOUS CHANGES in their job".

The results for each of the six sites were combined (after an ANOVA) to form one sample with 85 complete data banks. The remaining questionnaires were read and used for qualitative analysis and limited statistical processing. The incomplete ones contained various issues. Some questions were not answered, some people gave multiple answers (when not asked to do so) and a few wrote an essay on the questions and the issues but gave no categorical response.

When the subjects discovered in the introduction that they would be assessing their significant managers style and the surrounding climate, they wondered if this data might be used for the next round of redundancies. Some were eager that their managers should be identified so that the manager might receive direct feedback from the researcher while others wanted both themselves and their manager to remain anonymous.

Many subjects used pseudonyms including the names of Einstein, Bill Gates, Andre Agassi, etc. in order to receive their KAI feedback and do the second round of measures, in approximately three months time.

Three months later, the researcher once again on a face-to face basis repeated the same measurement processes. Subjects with pseudonyms were asked to recall these for this second round. After the session they were given feedback on their own problem solving style (KAI) from the previous round and more group discussions followed.

Several sessions at the same locations were used to try and get all the initial members.

For this second session, however some were too busy, some were abroad, some were sick and some were not interested any more. A few who couldn't attend apologised and the questionnaires were handled by mail.

Despite the use of questionnaires, there was recognition of the ethnographic approach. Freud (1933) emphasised the importance of subjective experience and the fundamental postulate of Personal Construct Theory states that the subjective experience of people "channelises" their psychological processes. (Kelly, 1963).

In addition to the practical problem of individual's "significant person" being named and followed up for measurement, there was also some reassurance from the research of Bass & Yammarino (1991) that managers tend to over-estimate their own scores on climate/environment type measures.

7.8 Data Analysis

The data was processed in two stages.

First a listing of the issues from the group discussions and interviews and the essays - the qualitative data and then the second, checks on the measures.

Testing the shape of the item distributions and then improving the reliability assured that the instruments were robust. Scale reliabilities of the two environmental questionnaires (leadership, and organisation culture/climate) were improved by the traditional process of eliminating items that reduced overall reliability.

For the Fletcher Cultural Audit used here, research by Stead (1997) with over 300 managers had indicated reliabilities of 0.30 with the Work Demands scale, and 0.21 with the Interpersonal scale of the Audit. The Work Demands scale was revised to improve reliability while data collected from the Interpersonal scale was ignored because of low reliability.

CHAPTER VIII - AN OVERVIEW FROM INTERVIEWS AND INSTRUMENTS

Computers are useless. They can only give you answers

pablo picasso

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to check the consistency of the samples and ensure that the instruments are working to plan before presenting detailed results and interrelationships between the variables in the research model. It is also an opportunity to step back and look at the overall picture of the research sample and summarises the subject's views from the discussions and interviews at the end of the data collection process.

The relationship between the individual and the environment is a key and continuing interest of both Psychology and Management. The research model previously described in chapter V of this thesis was a prototype that described these relationships. The work described in this research aims to clarify the relationship between the individual and the environment, and highlight the perceived relationships between the immediate environment (represented by the most significant "manager") and the more general surrounding environment (described as organisation culture and climate). This should clarify the literature and enable leaders, managers and followers to have a much better understanding of the psychological parameters that shape and influence people as they go about their work.

8.2 The Six Sites as One Sample

The one-way ANOVA indicates that the six sites used in this research are no different

on the key variables as none of the F values are significant at $p < 0.05$ so the six sites can be treated as one sample.

Table 8.1 Key Variables – ANOVA of the Six Sites

INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES	LEADERSHIP FACTORS	CULTURE/CLIMATE VARIABLES
Problem Solving Style as Total KAI Score Anxiety Depression Job Satisfaction	F1 Organising & Resourcing F2 Communication F3 Visioning F4 People Orientation	Mission Communication Work Demands Work Supports Work Goals Teamwork Interpersonal Demands

8.3 Interview Data.

1) The most significant manager is the one who lets me know what is expected.

The subjects reported that they needed to know the context of their work and what was expected of them. They did not necessarily want all the detail. There was a preference for managers who indicated the outputs or the project milestones and then enabled people the space to follow an agreed path.

As a related issue however, the most pressing need was often the tools to do the job.

Many of the subjects were developing and testing software and hardware. Often they were on the leading edge of technology or conducting mundane and repetitive checks

of completed work. They expressed the need to have the right tools to do these tasks. The subjects debated this issue.

For some people the latest tools and technology appeared to be a status symbol while for others they were an essential piece of equipment to do a good job. The subjects preferred managers who understood what the tools would do and without a lot of justification, hassle and procedure, would hopefully provide them.

2) The most significant manager is the one who is closest to the work I do.

Some subjects had only seen their designated line manager at meetings. Even here, the manager was virtually inaccessible. The subjects were of the view that there were layers of management who seemed to spend their life in meetings. This manager was however usually the person seen individually for some period of time during the more formal aspects of the appraisal process.

3) The project manager tries to understand the way I work best.

Project managers are reported to be the ones who are aware of the technical skills and the talents that the person has. The subjects implied that there was mutual understanding of the ways technical people preferred to work. There seemed to be scope to allow the subject to discuss the underlying processes and to define the approach to the problem for themselves, while still working to the goals, expectations and milestones for the project.

4) The manager is involved in my project(s) and is accessible

Subjects sought to have closeness with other experts on the project, and this included the project manager.

This interpreted as a partnership in problem solving. They wanted to be left alone to do the tasks where they were already competent but if they got stuck, they wanted rapid access to a senior person like the project manager to sort out the problem.

This company has e-mail, but the subjects felt it conveyed formal information from managers and social chat from their colleagues. When stuck on a task, they felt face-to-face discussion was much better. Such discussions were reported to provide a forum for active learning alongside the project tasks.

5) The manager sees when I have done something well and tells me.

Managers who are involved with the project and who spot a job well done and comment on this were mentioned. Some subjects said that there needed to be a balance between positive and negative comments, with preferably positive ones. Others thought that it would be preferable to be noticed for anything rather than ignored altogether.

6) The relationships that are important to me are local.

Working and living locally were important. The teams developed close working relationships with each other. Subjects reported that common project plans and co-location of people on the same project created a local atmosphere. Links with other departments were useful but lacked the intensity and support of the local ones.

7) I am generally satisfied with what I do however there are times when there are company initiatives to do things differently. (Like this research?).

Subjects felt that some initiatives had come from the center. They took up precious project time.

They might be interesting to know about but nothing more. There were views that there were too many different initiatives taking place at the same time. The initiatives were unconnected as far as they could see. Their project managers often attenuated these initiatives by reassuring staff that the set of tasks with the local projects were more important.

8.4 "Significant" Managers and the Organisation Structure

The process of administering the instruments personally, inviting questions and conducting group interviews provided valuable information on the role of organisation structure. In completing the leadership inventory, subjects asked about who should be described. The question was turned around to ask whom; over the last 6 months who has been your most significant manager?

In most cases the significant manager had been the project manager. This was the person who they had daily contact with. This was the person who clarified the goals, gave advice on the task and who was around to answer questions. This was the person who they interacted with as they carried out their daily work. Similarly, this manager had technical knowledge of the project whether it was software, hardware, production or marketing. The significant manager was the person who gave direction and purpose to the subordinates work and was often not seen as a boss but as a partner in problem solving. There was a line manager and in some cases he had not been seen since the last appraisal, and would probably not be seen until the next.

8.5 Summaries of Results from Inventories

8.5.1 Leadership Survey

Four factors were extracted from the leadership survey and rotated using Varimax. Examination of the scree plot reveals that 3 factors might be sufficient however the fourth factor contained some personal characteristics of the leader/manager, and so to help interpretation, this factor was retained.

The 4 factors were labeled as:

- 1) Organising & Resourcing (Factor 1)
- 2) Communicating Vision & Objectives (Factor 2)
- 3) Visioning (Factor 3)
- 4) People Orientation (Factor 4)

These labels were given on the basis of the items and their loadings. Factor 1 is similar to Kotter's (1990) description of Management and Factor 3 is similar to his description of Leadership. In addition, the factor dealing with "communication" emerged as a separate factor and looks like the processes that are common to both management and leadership.

The resulting leadership measure had factor reliabilities from 0.69 to 0.82. Despite a redesign by eliminating many of the original items and retaining those approximating normal distributions, only one of the four resultant leadership factors was approximately normal using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit test. Skewed distributions appear to be the outcome of situations where the behaviours can be learned.

This picture of the immediate environment, emanating directly from the significant managers is taken from the subordinate's perspective. The style, which accounted for the biggest slice of the variance (23%) was factor 1 - Organising and Resourcing. The mean score was a standard deviation above the theoretical mean. This leadership style is the traditional and robust cycle of performance management, within the usual business framework. At one period in the development of management terminology, the style was called operational management. The second style (factor 2), Communicating (11%) also had an average of approximately a standard deviation above the theoretical mean. The third leadership style, Visioning (10%), had an average score on the theoretical mean. The fourth style, a People Orientation, was extracted from the analysis with some craftwork. The mean for this factor's distribution was more than one standard deviation above the theoretical mean.

Reliabilities are as follows:

Table 8.2 Leadership Factors and Reliabilities. (N = 92).

Leadership/ Management Factor	Brief Description	Reliability Cronbach Alpha
I	Organising & Resourcing	0.82
II	Communicating	0.74
III	Visioning	0.84
IV	People Orientation	0.69

8.5.2) Problem Solving Style - The KAI

In terms of problem solving styles, the mean of 102 (sd=16) obtained in this research is close to the managerial norm on the KAI feedback sheet. (Kirton, 1985, 1992). There were no sex differences on problem solving style and the overall distribution was normal when tested with a goodness of fit test.

The Kolomogorov-Smirnov for KAI has $p = 0.900$. implying that the distribution approximates a normal one. Cronbach Alpha was 0.80 for this sample (N = 92).

Marketing and Sales brochures collected from the reception areas while visiting the six sites, emphasized creativity and innovation. A few of these implied paradigm shifts rather than gradual evolution. The data from this research however seems to indicate that the problem solving preferences of these people as a group are not significantly different from those in other typical professional organisations. (R & D Managers and professionals, Kirton, 1985, 1992).

The feedback sessions to the participants were conducted on site. Some people were happy with their results, particularly if they felt it was the best style for their current job. One or two expressed frustration because their high scores confirmed their own views of being caged or restricted in what they might do. But overall, there was the impression that the work they were doing enabled them to have or make a tolerable cognitive fit.

Three months later at the second measurement sessions, albeit with fewer people (N=68), the overall KAI showed no significant change however rule/group conformity (using paired comparisons) had increased slightly but significantly. Perhaps a larger proportion of conformists returned for the second time.

8.5.3) Anxiety, Depression, and Job Satisfaction Scales

The rest of the picture from the individual data shows shifts from the theoretical means. In terms of job satisfaction, people appeared more satisfied. In terms of well being, the trend was towards lower indicators of anxiety, and depression, when compared with the theoretical mean.

Table 8.3 Results for Feelings and Job Satisfaction (N = 92)

Variable	Theoretical Mean	Measured Mean	Reliability Cronbach Alpha
Anxiety	10	8.55	0.70
Depression	10	6.85	0.58
Job Satisfaction	9	10.02	0.56

8.5.4) Organisation Culture Audit

Fletcher, Jones & Turner (1991) show reliabilities for the Cultural Audit as in the attached table. The measure used for this research was a condensed one of the data reported. The results from the version modified as part of this research are as follows.

Table 8.4 Reliabilities of Organisation Culture Audit Modified Scales. This Research. (Cronbach Alpha, N = 92).

SCALE	ACTUAL	IDEAL
Communication	0.65	0.79
Mission	0.78	0.82
Work Supports	0.52	0.48
Teamwork	0.68	0.63
Work Demands	0.55	0.51
Work Goals	0.26	0.29
Interpersonal Demands	0.45	0.01

Note: The Cultural Audit looks at 2 scenarios on each item, Actual or as it is now, and Ideal

The measure of Interpersonal Demands of the culture when re-examined in this research had a reliability of 0.45. On an extended version it reaches 0.56 (Fletcher, Jones and Turner, 1991). From the data provided by Stead (in press), from 330 hotel managers, the reliability is 0.21.

As a benchmark for reliabilities but for measures of preferences and personality, the values for form A of the 16PF range from 0.40 to 0.70 with a comparable population (Saville & Blinkhorn, 1976) and the OPQ from 0.58 for Forward Planning to 0.88 for Controlling with a white population (N = 2306). With Asians, and Afro-Caribbean's the range is from 0.36 to 0.88. (Saville, 1996). The KAI (above) for this sample obtained 0.80.

8.6 The Organisation Culture - Overall Picture

The Cultural Audit, measures micro-culture in terms of job characteristics and macro-culture in terms of Mission, and Communication. Although this might appear to be an appropriate classification, a second order factor analysis puts the five factors of Work Support, Work Goals, Communication, Teamwork and Mission all in the one factor, and Work Demands standing alone in the second.

In studying the overall picture in describing the culture, by examining mean scores for the actual work, and for the "ideal" work, it was the Work Demands where people had an ideal, slightly less than the actual. In reality, considering measurement error, these actual work demands, are the same as their ideal level. The message seems to be that people can manage with the current levels, but no more challenging, changing or demanding work is needed. All the other organisational culture variables have means for ideals greater than actuals. A statistical problem for the ideal scales however, is as one might expect, the responses are skewed towards one end of the scales.

Having strengthened the cultural audit, one of the interesting outcomes is the subordinate's perspective. A factor analysis of the raw data from the subordinate's perspective shows that the problem solving was not the first factor and therefore unlikely to be the issue uppermost in their minds. Problem solving is in second place compared with support from the boss, encouragement for completed work, and happiness and satisfaction with the job and management.

The Cultural audit has two descriptors for each item and therefore for each scale. The first scenario is “as it is now” (m) and the second scenario is “ideal”

(i). Having studied the distributions of each item and the constructed scales, the “actuals” approximate a normal distribution in some cases while the “ideals” are usually at the highest point and do not.

CHAPTER IX - HYPOTHESES AND RESULTS

9.1 Leadership vs Management

H1. From the follower's reports on their "significant" manager, via the leadership survey, a Leadership style or process and a separate Management style or process will be articulated.

Result. When followers are asked to visualise a significant manager at work and reflect on this experience, these followers clearly distinguish between Leadership, and Management. In fact their categorizations of the leadership styles and processes of their significant managers can be split into 4 factors. The one most resembling Leadership is hereafter called Visioning, and the one closest to Management is named Organising & Resourcing. The items and the structure are shown here.

Table 9.1 Leadership Survey. Follower Perspective of Significant Manager. Factor Analysis (N = 85).

LEADERSHIP FACTOR I - ORGANISING & RESOURCING	Factor Loading (Rotated Matrix)
Takes charge when needed	0.729
Delegates authority without fear	0.657
Allocates time and energy to develop people on the job	0.646
Uses the skills potentially available in others	0.644
Communicates decisions with authority	0.626
Explains what outputs are in terms of results	0.620
Assists in resourcing allocated tasks	0.618

Sits with subordinates and looks at results	0.600
Discusses results and explores successes and failures	0.598
Uses successes and failures for setting new objectives	0.593
Uses successes and failures for development of the person	0.570
Handles difficulties or problems with poise and grace	0.569
LEADERSHIP FACTOR II - COMMUNICATING VISION & OBJECTIVES	
Communicates the vision simply, clearly and concisely	0.870
Communicates the vision and listens to comments and notes them	0.813
Translates the vision into objectives	0.787
Communicates the objectives that are clear, concise and easy to remember	0.658
Checks to see that objectives are meaningful to the individual	0.638
Checks that objectives are meaningful to group	0.582
LEADERSHIP FACTOR III-VISIONING	
Is regularly seeking information (contacts/articles) to help describe and define the vision	0.703
Has long periods of thought thinking about the business	0.639
Asks colleagues and subordinates where they think the business should be going	0.638
Sets an example of personal performance that encourages high performance in others	0.607
Understands the wider issues in the company/organization	0.563
Reads and understands the financial information related to our company	0.562

LEADERSHIP FACTOR IV - PERSONAL ORIENTATION	
Accepts responsibility for own mistakes	0.767
Is positive about people even when business is tough or difficult	0.692
Gets people involved and committed to working as a team	0.680
Spends too much time and energy on politics (reversed)	0.631

9.2 Problem Solving Style

The individual's problem solving style (scores from the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory) will be related to the "ideal" work culture/climate in terms of the ideal Work Demands.

(However, it is possible that the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI) is not wholly a preference measure; there will be a correlation with actual Work Demands.

H 2. The follower's total KAI score (as a preference measure) will be positively related to the "ideal" organisation culture/climate in terms of Work Demands (Ideal).

Result - correlation between KAI and Work Demands (Ideal). is 0.38, $p = 0.000$ (***)

However, it is possible that the KAI is not wholly a preference measure, then there will be a lower correlation with Actual Work Demands.

H 3. The follower's scores from the KAI will correlate positively with Work Demands (Actual), but at a lower level than the correlation with Work Demands (Ideal).

Result - correlation between KAI and Work Demands (Actual) is 0.27, $p = 0.012$ (*)

In terms of choice of the choice of significant manager, two hypotheses were proposed in section 6.2, Chapter VI.

H 4. Followers described as Adaptors (KAI) likely to choose as their most significant manager one who has a Management style (planning, organising, and staffing) rather than a Leadership style (visioning, setting direction, and alignment).

Result - no significant difference in choice of manager on basis of KAI

H 5. Followers described as Innovators (KAI) are more likely to choose as their most significant manager, one who has a "visioning" style (Leadership) rather than one who has an organising, staffing and controlling style (Management).

Result - no significant difference in choice on the basis of KAI

9.3 Leadership and Organisation Culture and Climate

H 6. The perceived Management style of the significant manager will be positively associated with Teamwork, Work Goals, Work Demands, and Work Supports in the organisation climate

Result - Management is related to:

Teamwork $r = 0.37$, $p = 0.00$ (***)

Work Goals $r = 0.18$, $p = 0.092$ (NS)

Work Demands $r = 0.20$, $p = 0.068$ (NS)

Work Supports $r = 0.16$, $p = 0.139$ (NS)

H 7. The perceived Leadership style of the significant manager will be positively related to Mission in the organisation culture

Result - Leadership is related to:

Mission $r = 0.26$, $p = 0.017$ (*)

9.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction will be related to having clear goals, with challenging work that fits into the overall purpose or mission and is performed in a supportive environment.

H 8. The job satisfaction of followers will be positively related to Work Goals, Work Demands, Mission, and Work Supports.

Result - Job Satisfaction is related to:

Work Goals $r = 0.44$, $p = 0.000$, (***)

Work Demands $r = 0.06$, $p = 0.58$, (NS)

Mission $r = 0.29$, $p = 0.005$, (**)

Work Supports $r = 0.45$, $p = 0.000$, (***)

9.5 Individual Well-Being

The notion is that work can get you down. Anxiety will increase with diffused uncertainty rather than uncertainty about specific issues and be worse without support. Depression will be related to more specific and local issues.

H 9. Anxiety in followers will be related (negatively) to Mission, and Work Support, and negatively related to a leadership style with a personal orientation.

Result - Anxiety is related to:

Mission $r = -0.27$, $p = 0.009$, (**)

Work Supports $r = -0.24$, $p = 0.019$, (*)

People Orientation $r = -0.28$, $p = 0.009$ (**)

H 10. Depression in followers will be related to Work Demands (positively), and to Mission (negatively) and Teamwork (negatively), and negatively to a leadership style with a personal orientation.

Result - Depression is related to:

Work Demands $r = +0.19$, $p = 0.077$ (NS)

Mission $r = -0.21$, $p = 0.045$, (*)

Teamwork $r = -0.29$, $p = 0.006$, (**)

People Orientation $r = -0.37$, $p = 0.000$ (***)

9.6 Problem Solving Styles and Feelings of Anxiety, and Depression

H 11. A person's problem solving preference (as measured by the KAI) will be unrelated to their feelings of anxiety and depression.

Result - KAI relates to:

Anxiety $r = 0.10$, $p = 0.365$ (NS)

Depression $r = 0.01$, $p = 0.966$ (NS)

Job Satisfaction $r = -0.05$, $p = 0.637$ (NS)

9.7 Performance Effectiveness

H 12. Performance effectiveness will be positively related to the composite factor of Work Goals from the Cultural Audit and positively related to individual problem solving style (KAI).

Result – Performance relates to:

Work Goals $r = 0.320$, $p = 0.002$ (**)

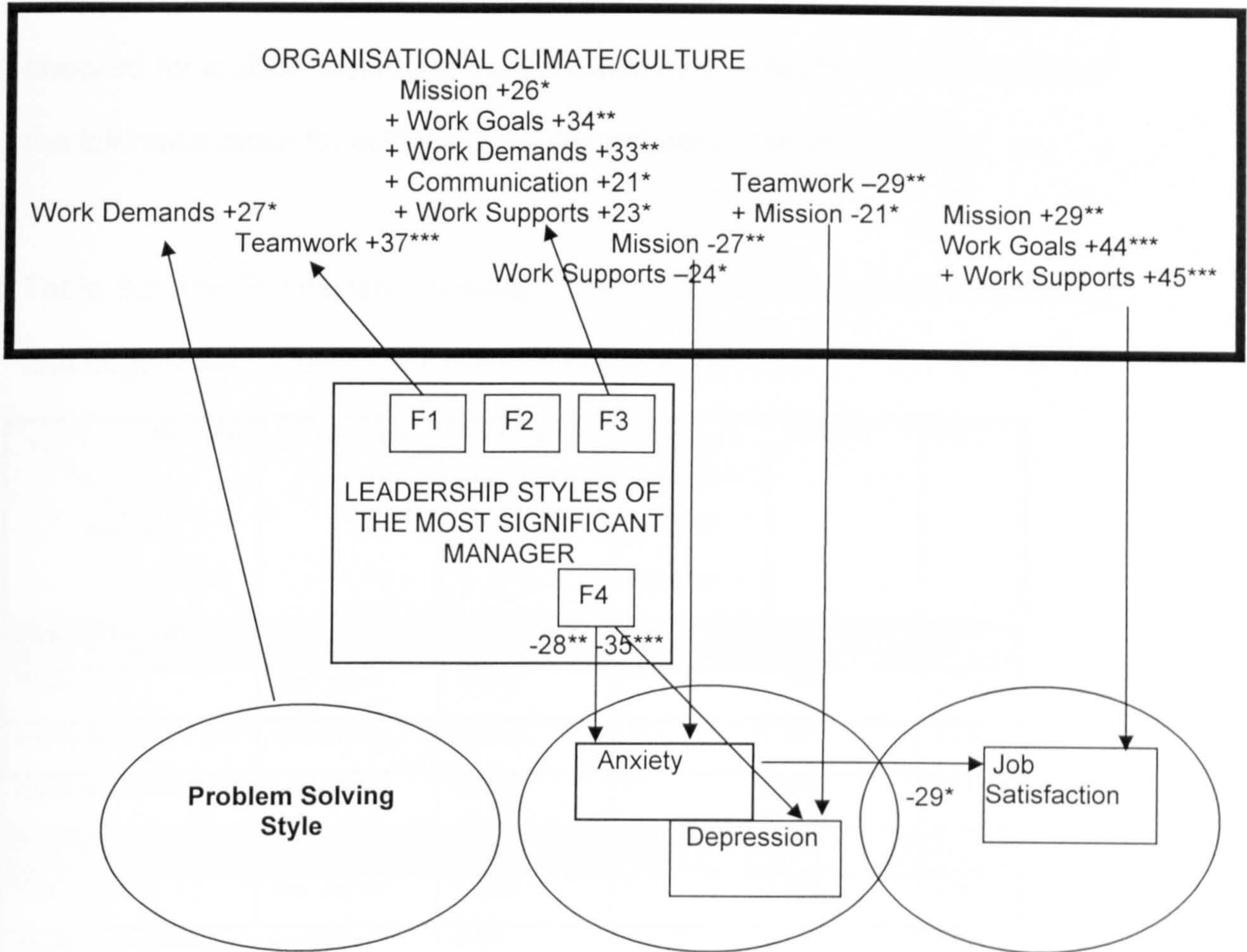
KAI $r = 0.253$, $p = 0.019$ (*)

Table 9.2 The Relationships between the Leadership Factors and the Variables

	Leadership Factor 1 Organising & Resourcing	Leadership Factor 2 Communication	Leadership Factor 3 Visioning	Leadership Factor 4 People Orientation
CULTURE/ CLIMATE				
Mission	-0.13 (NS)	0.07 (NS)	0.26 (*)	-0.09 (NS)
Teamwork	0.37 (***)	0.09 (NS)	-0.06 (NS)	0.17 (NS)
Communication	0.09 (NS)	0.01 (NS)	0.22 (*)	-0.09 (NS)
Work Goals	0.18 (NS)	0.03 (NS)	0.34 (***)	0.00 (NS)
Work Demands	0.12 (NS)	0.06 (NS)	0.33 (**)	-0.12 (NS)
Work Supports	0.16 (NS)	0.06 (NS)	0.23 (*)	0.18 (NS)
OUTPUTS				
Cognitive Style	0.02 (NS)	0.15 (NS)	0.19 (NS)	-0.20 (NS)
SO	0.05 (NS)	0.19 (NS)	0.19 (NS)	-0.18 (NS)
E	-0.03 (NS)	0.00 (NS)	0.00 (NS)	-0.26 (*)
R	0.03 (NS)	0.00 (NS)	0.23 (*)	-0.12 (NS)
Anxiety	0.13 (NS)	-0.09 (NS)	-0.09 (NS)	-0.28 (**)
Depression	0.00 (NS)	-0.02 (NS)	-0.05 (NS)	-0.37 (***)
Job Satisfaction	0.00 (NS)	-0.07 (NS)	0.17 (NS)	-0.04 (NS)

Correlation coefficients, N = 85; p < 0.001 is ***, p < 0.01 is **, p < 0.05 is *

Figure 10.1 Correlations between followers problem Solving Styles. their Anxiety, Depression and Job Satisfaction and their perceptions of the organizational culture/climate and the Leadership Style of their significant manager.



F1 is Leadership Factor 1 is Organising & Resourcing. This has a positive association with Teamwork (+37**) in the Organisation Culture/Climate.

F2 is Leadership Factor 2 is Communication and is not related to the Organisation Culture.

F3 is Leadership Factor 3 is Visioning. This is associated with Communication (+21*), Mission (+26*), Work Supports (+23*), Work Goals (+34***), and Work Demands (+33**) in the Organisation Culture/Climate.

F4 is Leadership Factor 4 is People Orientation. It is not related to the Organisation Culture/Climate although it is related directly to subordinate feelings of anxiety (-28**), and depression (-35***). Job Satisfaction is positively associated with Work Goals (+44***), and Work Supports (+45***), and negatively with Anxiety (-29**).

Note: Decimal points removed from the correlation coefficients.
 N=85, p < 0.001. ***; p < 0.01 **; p < 0.05 *

The model in Figure 10.1 is elaborated by examining the regression equations with moderators as described by Podsakof, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Mommer, (1995). The models were then constructed using the stepwise method and checked for multicollinearity of the encompassed variables by examination of the tolerance factor for collinearity or the reciprocal, the VIF.

Table 9.3 The Relationship between Criteria and the Individual, Leadership, and Organisation Culture/Climate with moderators.

Measures	Predictor Type	Standardised Beta	Sig. P<0.001=*** P<0.01=** P<0.05=*	Variance	VIF
Predictors					
PERFORMANCE				23%	
Work Goals	Org.Culture	+0.360	***	13%	1.052
KAI by Teamwork	Moderator	+0.329	**	5%	1.139
Organising&Resourcing	Leadership	-0.259	*	5%	1.141
JOB SATISFACTION				32%	
Work Supports	Org. Culture	+0.288	**	18%	1.301
Anxiety by Teamwork	Moderator	-0.285	**	8%	1.003
Work Goals	Org. Culture	+0.288	**	6%	1.301
ANXIETY				18%	
People Orientation	Leadership	-0.269	**	7%	1.051
Mission	Org. Culture	-0.329	**	8%	1.031
KAI by Work Demands	Moderator	+0.205	**	3%	1.071
DEPRESSION				23%	
People Orientation	Leadership	-0.354	***	13%	1.046
Teamwork	Org. Culture	-0.232	*	6%	1.065
Mission	Org. Culture	-0.214	*	4%	1.042

CHAPTER X – DISCUSSION

10.1 Leadership vs Management

Four factors were obtained. The two already mentioned confirm the distinction between Leadership and Management. The management factor is Organising & Resourcing.

Factor 1-Organising and Resourcing

This approach describes someone who knows what has to be done in the organisation and reminds people of this and helps them to resource the tasks. There is no implication that the goals form part of a grand strategy or a big picture of what things might look like in the future. There is no indication from this factor that the manager has a vision or a strategic intent as articulated by Prahalad & Hamel, (1989, 1990).

This approach to leadership is pragmatic in that it recognises that there are customers who need supplying, tasks that need to be done and an organisation to facilitate these things. The manager/leader explains what has to be accomplished (in terms of results), helps people with resourcing, looks at the results, discusses the results and looks at ways of improving next time. He/she also allocates time and energy to develop people. This is the traditional and robust cycle of objective setting, measurement, appraisal, and corrective action followed by performance improvement. The emphasis is on an integrated approach where the manager/leader not only clarifies what has to be done but also actually helps people to resource the tasks.

Coupled with this task orientation, this manager is likely to be clear about what has to be done and is likely to approach people with firmness and fairness. They are however not necessarily harsh and might even handle problems with poise and grace.

Factor 2 - Communicating Vision and/or Objectives

This factor is a process, not a style. This is communication. This is telling, listening and responding. It is sometimes one-way, sometimes two-way. It is not always with words. Pictures and gestures might be used as well. At one level of content, it is communication about the “big picture”-what shape the organisation might take in the future. It has been expressed by De Wit & Meyer (2000) as an attempt to bring the future into the present and to get subordinates to think about this. At the next level, the communication is about translating the big-picture into objectives and tasks.

If this vision is communicated, it might be checked for understanding and agreement. Time and space might even be allowed for it to be discussed further, and then challenged and reshaped in the interests of a mutual understanding. For Stacey (2000), a large part of strategic thinking is “emergent” and is not pre-cast but developed from and by dialogue. It could be assumed that a similar conversational process is needed for dissemination to followers.

Factor 3-The “Big Picture”-Visioning (The Leadership Factor)

This factor describes activities that are concerned with the future for the organisation.

The future orientation may have been formed by thinking through the issues without directly involving others and/or it may have been formed by asking colleagues and subordinates about their views for the future. The future formulation takes place in a context. The person reads information about the organisation or business and understands the wider issues in the organisation.

They have looked outside of the boundaries of the organisation and tried to make sense of what is happening and then re-interpreted this in terms of what already exists in the organisation and what might have to be created. In presenting this vision of the future now, they might also act in such a way that they inspire and encourage high performance in others around them.

Factor 4-People Orientation

These leaders/managers are seen to encourage people to be involved with other people and helping them to work as a team.

Such people tend to accept responsibility for their own mistakes and are positive about other people even when times are tough and the organisation is facing difficulties or challenges. They are also viewed as people who do not spend too much time on organisational "politics" but who do sufficient to stay alive.

10.2 Problem Solving Styles.

1) Problem Solving Styles and the Nature of the Task

While organisations are usually interested in behavioural outputs, the underlying or mediating processes which are associated with or shape the outputs and the meaning of these in an organisational context are of interest to this researcher.

In searching for a measure or tool to understand the problem solving process from an individual's perspective, it was difficult to decide whether or not the Kirton Adaption Inventory was a cognitive measure. "Cogitare" is the Latin word for thinking, so clearly cognition refers to some mental activity called thinking. Spearman's views were that cognition involved an apprehension of the situation, decoding it, and drawing relations between the phenomena apprehended, and then applying these relationships to other situations or issues. (Spearman, 1927).

The KAI however is uncorrelated with measures of intelligence, according to the KAI manual (Kirton, 1987) so it could be called a thinking style, which is something of a contradiction, since the word "style" usually refers to a learned behaviour or a competency, such as leadership, for example. In figuring out the relationship between the individual and the problem via the problem solving process in the organisation, this research found that the total score on the Kirton Adaption Inventory correlates with the perceived actual Work Demands in the organisation at $r = 0.27$ (**) and with the ideal Work Demands at $r = 0.38$ (***)).

The implication of the findings in this study is that people see opportunities within the current tasks presented for solving the problems in ways that are congruent with their cognitive preferences. The following table highlights this relationship.

Table 10.1 Relationships Between Problem Solving Style (KAI) and the Organisation Culture/Climate as Perceived by the Problem Solvers.

Organisation Culture Variables	KAI	Significance Level
Communication (Actual)	00	
Mission (Actual)	21	
Work Supports (Actual)	01	
Teamwork (Actual)	-05	
Work Demands (Actual)	27	P=0.012 (*)
Work Goals (Actual)	09	
Communication (Ideal)	-03	
Mission (Ideal)	21	
Work Supports (Ideal)	01	
Teamwork (Ideal)	-05	
Work Demands (Ideal)	38	P=0.000 (***)
Work Goals (Ideal)	-09	

The actual work demands factor, extracted from the organisation culture audit (Fletcher) is made up of task elements.

At the high end of the scale, the task would be characterised by:

- 1) a fast pace
- 2) it always changes
- 3) it has very clear boundaries
- 4) it has lots of variety
- 5) it is difficult to maintain the standards expected by the boss
- 6) and it has instructions, which are not conflicting

This in turn when analysed divides into two factors, the first sub-factor is made up of the first four items above, describing tasks with lots of change and variety with a fast pace. The second sub-factor has the two items describing the difficulty in maintaining the high standards expected by the immediate manager and the hard goals set by the organisation. Although the reliability of the first component is 0.56, the latter is at 0.10. Change is clearly associated with the KAI.

While Kirton and McCarthy (1988) described the notion of cognitive fit as the match between the demands of the problem-solving task and the problem solving style of the person, they inferred this gap not from the task itself but from the associates KAI scores. A gap of 5 points was significant, 10 points was noticeable and reliable, and 20 points leads to communication difficulties (Kirton, 1985, 1992).

In this research however, the measures have been able to separate the cognitive interpretation of the attributes of the task by the follower from the demands of the boss. The differences in KAI scores between manager and subordinate might be an issue concerned with task definition, but it is likely to be much more complex. It is more likely to be an issue as a consequence of a gap between the subordinate's definition of the problem represented by the style preference (KAI score) and the manager's style in managing the subordinate's solution of the problem which may be described as a problem management issue. In this host organisation, managers and subordinates rarely work alongside each other's as partners in problem solving. The managers would help to define the problem, delegate it to the follower and review the progress. It is likely that there might be two initial cognitive gaps, one from the boss, and the other from the task requirements as seen from the attributes of the problem solver. After this starting point, however, the manager's psychological involvement with the problem solving process would be distant. While the follower cycles through the problem solving stages from theorising to behaviour to experience to reflection and back to theory again, he is problem solving and learning. His internal states are changing. The manager may observe the external and visible parts of this process but not the internal cognitions and feelings. (The manager's behaviour and the followers expectations will be discussed later).

2) Problem Solving Styles - Preference or Behaviour?

One of the issues around the KAI was the question as to whether or not it is a measure of preference or behaviour.

On the basis of research in the Shell organisation, (Clapp, 1989) concluded that it was a measure of preference in problem solving style and that “press” from others or the culture/climate can shift observed problem solving behaviour. Another possible interpretation is that the KAI is measuring problem solving style as a preference with a smaller component of behaviour. In looking at the actual work situation in my research, the problem solver’s attitude is probably one of making the best of the situation when the tasks are prescribed. This is described as coping behaviour.

The argument over Innovation-Adaption (KAI) being preference or behaviour is analogous to the early arguments in physics as to whether light was made up of particles or waves. In reality it was both and quantum theory incorporated both facets. The change in Kirton’s early stance with Innovation-Adaption being a behavioural indicator (Kirton, 1976) to the later proposition as a preferred way of solving problems parallels the mainstream arguments in personality theory and practice. (Deary & Mathews, 1993; Costa & McCrae, 1993; Kline, 1993; and Bentall, 1993).

3) Problem Solving Style and Alignment with Manager

Returning to the issue of problem solving style and “fit” with the manager. The issue from the subordinates perspective concerns more than cognitive fit, it is concerned with a number of issues in the relationship with the organisation. One of these issues is the choice of the next layer of the environment above the task, that is, the leadership style of the manager. Having been asked by the researcher to select the most significant manager over the last six months as a topic for study, the question was whether or not subjects with different problem solving preferences (i.e. adaptors or innovators) would choose managers with different leadership styles as their most significant manager. If problem solving was paramount in their lives, subjects with a preference for innovation might be expected to nominate people who were more visionary since such managers are more likely to define the problem as they might do and offer intellectual support for the consequent solutions. (i.e. provide a better fit). In contrast, followers who were “adaptors” might be expected to name those “significant” managers who were more “organising & resourcing”.

Using the criteria of the KAI gap from the feedback form and from Kirton & McCarthy (1988), the tails of the distribution produced 27 innovators and 30 adaptors, with a gap between the closest of each category of 15 points. Because some of the higher adaptors were close to the KAI theoretical mean, a more stringent selection produced 17 adaptors. The minimum difference is now 22 points.

No significant differences in preferences for one leadership style over another were found in choosing the most significant leader over the last six months. This is shown in the following table.

	Factor 1- Organising & Resourcing	Factor 2- Teamwork	Factor 3- Visioning	Factor 4- Empowering
	Number above Average for Total Sample	Number below Average for Total Sample	Number above Average	Number below Average
ADAPTORS (Mean=85.4, sd=9.3) N=30				
Observed Number	16	14	12	18
Expected Number	15	15	15	15
RESULT-NS				
INNOVATORS (Mean=120.6, sd=7.7) N=27				
Observed Number	17	10	15	12
Expected Number	13.5	13.5	13.5	13.5
RESULT-NS				
Note: Corrections not applied				

Table 10.2 Relationships Between Adaptors, and Innovators and their Perceptions of the Managers Leadership Style

Despite the absence of a significant link here, the relationship with the “significant” manager has other important attributes. When the raw data from

the organisation culture audit was analysed from the subject's perspective, the sequence of the factors emerging is different from the ones given in the manual and this implies that problem solving was not uppermost in the followers mind when naming the most significant leader. The re-factored Cultural Audit gives a first factor (18% of the variance), which is all about:

- 1) role clarity
- 2) help and support from the boss
- 3) being satisfied with management
- 4) happy with the job as a whole
- 5) feedback from the work as encouragement

This implies a satisfaction-dissatisfaction dimension in the preference for the actual kind organisational culture/climate, which might be translated into a satisfaction dimension, and a support dimension or liking when selecting the most significant leader.

The next factor that emerges from the re-factoring of the Cultural Audit is all about the task (the pace, the variety, and so on) and the work goals. This accounts for 12% of the variance.

The overall pattern viewed from the subject's perspective, although still within the confines of the questions posed in the Cultural Audit, shows that the issues concerned with problem solving appear after general estimates of satisfaction with the relationship with the significant manager. (Table 10.3).

Table 10.3 Factor Analysis of the Cultural Audit

FACTORS	VARIANCE
FACTOR I (Support & Encouragement) RELATIONSHIPS DOMAIN	18%
Help and support from boss	
People clear about role	
People very satisfied with management	
People extremely happy with job as whole	
Feedback about completed work can encourage	
FACTOR II (Work: Pace, Changes, Variety, Challenge & Clarity) TASK DOMAIN	12%
People required to work at a certain pace	
Some organisations set hard goals for employees	
Jobs can have clearly defined boundaries	
Difficult to maintain standards expected by boss	
People forced to cope with continuous changes in job	
Jobs may be full of variety (ie d2m reversed)	
People find it very difficult to delegate tasks to others	
FACTOR III (Communication) STRUCTURAL DOMAIN	9%
Some organisations have good internal communications	
In some cases people receive conflicting instructions (ie d3m reversed)	

In some organisations the management communicates well with staff	
FACTOR IV (Mission & Goals) DIRECTION DOMAIN	9%
Some people are clear about what the organisations mission is	
Some people know their contribution to mission and goals	
FACTOR V (Teamwork) TEAMWORK VS INDIVIDUALISM DOMAIN	7%
Some people work as part of a team that really gels together	
Our abilities and skills complement each other	

Notes:

These factors are new ones obtained from the perspective of the subjects.

Factor I is concerned with Relationships (mainly with managers)

Factor II is concerned with Tasks

Factor III is concerned with Structure

Factor IV is concerned with Direction

Factor V is concerned with the issue of Teamwork (mainly with colleagues) vs Individualism

The prominence of help and support plus encouragement in the factors generated implies that these subjects also want the organisational culture to be a form of 'holding environment' as a form of the adult version of infant attachment as articulated by Winnicot (1960) and Stapley (1996). But the longer-term concern from a developmental perspective is psychological dependency where the relationship between the follower and the organisation becomes a dependent one. The consequence is that if the problem-solving task is subordinated to a dependency relationship, then there is an imperative by the follower to maintain the dependency structure over effective task

performance. (Miller, 1993). If the majority of followers and their managers end up colluding (consciously or unconsciously) in a dependency relationship, then an unorthodox approach to problem solving by a subordinate is likely to be perceived as a threat by the manager who in turn would indicate by various means that the supportive relationship may deteriorate. A similar problem could occur with adaptors.

The second conclusion from this part of the study is that in the six organisations studied, the managers were not having any significant direct impact on their followers problem solving preferences so at this point in time, it appears that it is the followers who have the dependency dilemma.

Overall, the organisation culture audit (re-factored) provides a snapshot of the issues that engage the followers' minds in totality as they work. It appears that they are engaged in all the activities and concerns of a micro-society where decisions are made consciously and unconsciously on the basis of a number of key parameters. In this life situation, compromises and trade-offs are made as a result of internal and external negotiations. At this point in time, the followers' non-task relationships with their significant managers are at the forefront.

This author began this research by considering that problem-solving styles as defined by KAI theory might be interpreted as constructs and therefore amenable to modification as in Personal Construct Theories.

When however, the KAI is split into its 3 components SO, E, and R, two correlations with leadership are significant at $p < 0.05$. One implies that the visioning style of manager might be associated with subordinates who are less rule conforming. The other implies that managers with a personal orientation (Factor 4) might be associated with subordinates who are less detail conscious. (Overall, in a table of 16 correlation coefficients, it is to be expected that one correlation is likely to be significant by chance). The conclusion would be that managers were not having much direct impact on the subordinate's problem solving constructs. This might be because the managers were unaware of the problem solving components (SO, E & R) and were not addressing them, and, or because the components are impervious to change by direct intervention anyway, or because the mutual dependency relationship is more important.

In contrast, in the counselling of individuals using Personal Construct Psychology, diagnosis includes the articulation of the constructs. These can then be used as a framework for the counsellor and the client move to both the content and the structure of the constructs as well as their associations with events as representations of the presenting problem.

A presentation of the research findings from this study to a dozen managers in the host organisation revealed that they defined "creativity" in terms of new and novel idea generation.

The manager's definitions were closer to that of Sternberg & Lubart (1996) where they defined creativity as "the ability to produce work that is both novel (i.e., original or unexpected) and appropriate (i.e., useful or meets task constraints)". (p677). When the additional two components of the Kirton theory (rule conformity, and efficiency) were discussed, some managers were surprised and expressed caution. They were less sure about "rule breaking" and unorthodox solutions to problems. Others however produced examples of businesses (but not their own) that had kept the same idea but changed the paradigm, for example Direct Line Insurance. Most of the subjects also had limited awareness of their own problem solving preferences prior to this research. Although they had joined this organisation after an assessment centre process containing personality tests, attainment tests and simulations, feedback to the subjects had been short and there was no evidence that the subjects could recall any specifics. Most had not had detailed feedback on their approach to solving problems although one of the personality measures contained scales measuring traditional, and innovative thinking styles. (The Occupational Personality Questionnaire). Furthermore, while these subjects might have some choice on **how** they do their work, they are relatively new so that their managers probably see them as resources to solve pre-defined problems rather than as people who can challenge definitions and redefine situations as they solve problems.

In classifying their most significant manager's style, the subjects articulated four factors. Factor 1 (Organising & Resourcing) resembled the traditional and robust objective setting and review approach accounted for most of the variance (23%).

There was also another small but significant trend.

Two sets of data, three months apart were collected. In the second set, the overall KAI score had not changed but the element of rule/group conformity had. It had moved in the direction of more conformity.

It is fair to say however that not all of the subjects had returned for the second session, 47 had not. In contrast to these relatively new employees, problem solving might be more central to the needs of senior employees as they become more emotionally secure in the organisation and then seek to meet their needs for self-actualisation (Maslow, 1987) or achievement (McClelland, et al 1976). Such staff might get closer to the "generative" level of involvement and influence in the organisation when solving problems. (Taylor, 1972).

Initially, it was anticipated that the research would identify some changes in KAI in line with the strongly espoused direction in the publicity material of having innovative people producing new, novel, innovating and path breaking solutions to clients and customers problems. With young people (23.8 years) with short service in the organisation (2 years) it was anticipated that the managers and the organisation culture/climate would target people and shape their construct systems as represented by KAI. In fact, it appears that the normal process of socialisation has occurred with a slight increase in rule conformity over the 3 months between the first and second samples. Further, the presentation to some of the actual leaders and managers revealed the differences in their own concepts of innovation.

In retrospect, unless there is some agreement between managers about the concept of having innovative people then it is unlikely that there will be any consistent shaping of individuals by managers or pressure from the culture/climate. The second set of data was excluded from this study.

(4) Problem Solving Styles and Feelings

While the literature review on creativity had explored the notion of a relationship between creativity and psychological problems, the data from this research shows that the problem solving preferences are unrelated to feelings of anxiety and depression. Fletcher's measures of anxiety and depression are robust since they were tested against the Crown-Crisp (1979) measures. (Fletcher, Jones & Turner, 1991).

They were also found to be consistent in this research. (Alphas were: Anxiety, 0.72; Depression, 0.69; and with a combined scale, 0.80). In this young sample of recent arrivals to the organisation, their anxiety and depression scores were average so the notions that innovative (or adaptive) problem solving might be a way out of a person's psychological problems would have to be dismissed. The KAI is part of a cognitive domain or spectrum while anxiety and depression are part of the emotional domain. The personal coping behaviour inventory (Amirkhan, 1990, 1994) has three factors, one of which on cursory inspection is similar to idea generation (SO) on the KAI. The implication is that in attempting to cope with a range of situations in life, having the propensity to generate new ideas will help.

But anxiety and depression do play a role in the problem solving process.

Style or preference in problem solving is only part of the total process.

While intelligence (via IQ measures) has been found to be generally unrelated to cognitive style (using the KAI), Kirton (1987), the individual's cognitive resources are also part of the problem solving process.

Sternberg's work has described the capacity or ability (not style) to solve problems in various guises as street smarts (Wagner & Sternberg, 1990) and as components in his theory of Triarchic Intelligence. (Sternberg, 1985). But in 1995, Sternberg & Lubart (1995) also recognised the problems of being creative when working in a culture of conformity.

Then in 1997, the notion of cognitive style as a bridge between cognition and personality became clearer. After discounting the measures of "Reflection-impulsivity", and Field dependence-independence, Sternberg proposed "an approach to styles that we believe has some merit as an alternative called the mental self-government approach to the traditional approaches". In this approach, they are now distinguishing between, "levels", "scope" and "leanings". (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997, p705). This is the distinction that was made by Kirton (1976). Sternberg's latest approach has developed more towards style rather than ability, level or capacity with Thinking Styles (Sternberg, 1997).

There has however been a significant body of research on the cognitive resource and stress. With increasing stress, a reduction in the cognitive resource has been found. (Mikulincer, et al, 1990). Events or data, which might be included when unstressed, are excluded or attenuated when the person is stressed.

It simply means that stressed people focus on what they see as urgent, immediate and important rather than the total picture. It is this tangential aspect of information that might lead to a paradigm shift in problem solving. Fiedler, (1995) in applying his leadership model has also found that certain types of leaders function best when they are unstressed.

Overall, the conclusion is that the problem-solving model for organisations incorporating the Kirton Adaption-Innovation theory of cognitive style would need to be elaborated to include other components such as cognitive resources. The Kirton Adaption-Innovation theory's other strength is that it recognises and elaborates the realities of problem solving in organisations where there are different interest groups and individual differences in preferences which may in fact be associated with deeply held values about innovation and change. (Erez, 1992). It also defines both small changes within the system, and paradigm shifts as "creative".

The power of local forces in an organisation is supported by a recollection of Alf Chandler's descriptions of early American organisations, which proudly shows how the hierarchy adapted from the Military, and from the class basis of society were directly transferred to organisations. The resulting hierarchical structures would channel problem solving in the direction of that which was "appropriate". (Merton, 1957, Chandler & Daems, 1980). Even though the hierarchy of modern organisations has been reduced in terms of organisational structures, complex organisations are invariably comprised of sub-groups.

The work of Sherif, et al (1961) described the changes in perception and behaviour as a result of working in small and sometimes competing groups. While Schein (1980) suggests that discussion between competing groups and the articulation of an overall objective or "Mission" will help collaboration, Dunphy & Dick (1987) disagree. They report that in organisations of more than 2000 people the members are more influenced by their local role definition processes.

In 1998, the Chief Executive of the host organisation for this research wrote in the house journal that the organisation had become too decentralised, with too many decisions taken down the line so that the customer often had to deal with several parts of the company, who appeared to compete with each other. He proposed a single contact point for the customer.

10.3 Leadership and Organisation Culture and Climate

As far as managers and leaders are concerned, followers clearly distinguish two classes of leadership behaviour that are styles, another one that is a process of communication and a third leadership style concerned with a personal orientation to followers. One of these factors represents the traditional management behaviour called operational management. Another factor called Visioning is clearly distinguished by followers and is concerned with bringing the future into the present.

Both sets of these leadership styles are seen to be linked to organisation culture/climate, but when the contents of factor 3 (Visioning) are compared

with the contents of the items in the organisational culture, the items are not reproduced identically.

This is partly because issues concerned with visionary leadership are not replicated in the cultural audit and possibly because the transmission of culture from the leader to the organisational environment is difficult and diffused and thus appears in an attenuated form when interpreted by the followers. Further, the significant managers chosen in this study were just a modest sample of those who might have influenced the culture of the organisation in this study.

10.4 Leadership and Individual Well-Being

People Orientation is directly linked to the reduction of follower's feelings of anxiety and depression and accounts for 7% and 13% of the respective variances. With anxiety, People Orientation is supported by the presence of a mission ethos in the organisation culture which accounts for 8% of the variance while KAI by Work Demands accounts for 3% and actually increases Anxiety. An anxious state will be reduced by having a supportive boss while working in an organisation that is imbued with a sense of purpose. The state of depression will be reduced by a supportive boss and by an organisation with a mission that encourages people to work with each other in teams. Job satisfaction is positively related to Work Goals, and the Work Supports but negated by the combination of Anxiety & Teamwork. (Table 9.3, p252). Total variances of the 4 models are Job Satisfaction, 32%; Anxiety, 18%; Depression, 23%; and Performance, 23%.

The job description and specification for a leader, based on a follower perspective as a “customer” of the leader, is complex, as is confirmed by this study and the list of MCI competencies.

Although this study has taken a snapshot of leaders and followers in organisations over 3 months, there would be many real-time interactions between the participants at work. Fortunately, leadership can to some extent be learned since the distributions of all leadership factors except Visioning were skewed. This is characteristic of learned behaviours and was also seen to be a characteristic of the Bass measure, the MLQ.

The item descriptions plus their patterns provide a minimum template for managers and leaders to continue learning. The directionality, “upwards” to the culture/climate and “downwards” to the followers indicates the appropriate places or variables to be developed via these leadership behaviours.

10.5. Implications for Organisations

The integrated model provides an overall picture of the relationships between leadership, management, and organisation culture and climate and the individual problem solving styles and well-being of followers. The key features are:

1) Organisations have multiple domains.

Organisations have multiple domains with corresponding outputs and no single variable can capture the essence of their real functions. They not only shape performance and effectiveness but influence cognitive and emotional

variables which are natural outputs of a human system. The models developed here show that individual performance is affected by leadership but it is more a function of the clarity and challenge posed by the work goals. These goals may be supported by managers, but they have a life of their own and become an emergent property of the organisation as far as performance is concerned. The moderator of problem solving style combined with teamwork provides clarification of these goals and has a more positive impact than direct task intervention by the manager. In teamwork, people can explore multiple and innovative ways of tackling the problem although it can also be a place to share anxiety. The style of Personal Orientation can reduce anxiety and depression with support from the organisational culture however this is negated by the combined effects of KAI & Work Demands. Similarly, job satisfaction is strengthened by Work Goals and Work Supports but is negated by the combined effects of Anxiety and Teamwork.

2) Leadership differs from management.

Significant managers exhibited four distinct sets of behaviours which are separate factors with differing directionality in terms of their impact. Two factors affect organisation culture/climate, the third has a direct impact on the followers and the fourth is concerned with process instead of style. A minimum template for each of these behaviours is presented in Table 9.1, where Leadership (Visioning) is described as an active intellectual process of building an strategic bridge between the external environment based on data from people and places, and the internal capabilities of the organisation.

Hard work, rather than charisma is the essence of this process. Management on the other hand, represented by Organising & Resourcing is concerned with the performance management cycle within the current organisational paradigm.

3) Managers do not appear to affect the cognitive styles of followers.

No matter what their leadership styles are, managers probably don't have much direct impact the construction systems or cognitions of their followers in terms of the ways followers prefer to seek and define problems.

Nor are these managers even though deemed as "significant", likely to have much effect on followers preferred choice of solutions for example working within the system, or alternatively changing the paradigm.

Followers in this research in the six sites do however see opportunities for a type of problem solving in their work, in terms of challenge and variety, which is partly aligned to their cognitive preferences. Followers can also perform and be effective because of their problem solving styles and because of the presence of work goals in the organisational culture. This accords with Locke & Latham (1984) and Locke, Motowildo, & Bobco (1986).

Having found that the relationship with the significant manager in terms of support and encouragement is more important than problem solving in the construct systems of these followers, the significant managers might have a direct impact on the subordinate's problem solving behaviours with unchanged constructs.

In essence, the subordinates comprehend what is required in terms of problem solving from the manager and the organisation culture and are willing to change their approach to problem solving in order to receive the desired support and encouragement from this relationship.

Behaviour can change as Kelly (1955, 1958, 1963) has suggested if a higher order construct is threatened. Kelly defines threat as “the characteristic of a constructs relation to the subordinate constructs in a system... constructs upon which the person is dependent for his living”. (p166).

At this stage of the follower’s career, it appears that the problem solving constructs are not seen as the first priority in their survival in the organisation.

The follower’s dilemma as they continue to grow and develop, and as they develop mastery in the tasks, is how they handle the choices between following a preferred way of problem solving, in line with their representational systems (KAI) with all the internal anchoring plus the external dynamics implied and their need for support from the manager and the organisation.

For Elizur & Sagre (1999) the issues being traversed in the organisation are similar to the issues being faced outside. These authors investigated the integration of life and work values. They were interested in the extent to which work values and non-work values spilled over into each other’s domain. They asked the question as to whether or not a person who seeks security at work will also seek security from life. On the basis of their data, they concluded that their findings “tend to support the spill-over hypothesis”. (p85).

4) Followers perceive a link between their manager's behaviours and the organisation culture/climate.

There is a perceived relationship between management style of the managers and the organisational culture. Although the correlation is significant, it is not a direct one-to-one correspondence. Leadership items are not copied exactly onto the culture, or vice versa. They are different in content. This is largely due to the different items in the organisation culture audit, and the separate leadership survey. This might also be because this research has only studied middle managers, whose priority, on the basis of their biggest leadership style, viz: Organising and Resourcing is more concerned with local issues rather than organisation culture.

Such local leadership behaviour aims to create the environment to enable others to get work done. The differences between the attributes of leadership, and the attributes of the culture may also be due to an intervening process of re-interpretation.

For higher-level managers, with people reporting to them who manage or lead the operations, their concerns are with the organisational culture. For these managers, the challenges are concerned with the meaning and the interpretation of significant internal and external events for organisational elaboration. This of type leadership is primarily concerned with the process of engaging the minds of the stakeholders. For some stakeholders, there may be an issue of prioritisation.

Some staff for example want a supportive environment as their first priority, to provide an umbrella under which they can solve problems. The organisation on the other hand probably requires people who can solve the problems of customers as a first requirement. Managers will then provide support as an adjunct.

On the other hand, there may be some organisations, which are more concerned with the alignment of mutual expectations of stakeholders, particularly the employees. Where markets are in decline, or the customers are demanding or threatening, the organization becomes a “holding environment” and the need to “stick together” may be the subordinate’s preference.

5) Managers have a direct influence on emotional well-being of followers via leadership style 4.

Direct links as reductions in state anxiety and depression of the followers appear to be associated with a leadership style with a personal orientation. The features of this style are accepting responsibility for one’s own mistakes, being positive about people even when business is tough, getting people involved, and investing enough time and energy in organisational politics in order to survive.

The link to anxiety and depression of followers is also via the organisation culture. Mission in the culture appears to reduce feelings of anxiety, and Mission plus Teamwork in the culture appears to reduce feelings of depression.

Likewise, job satisfaction is a function of knowing what the work goals are and having support. These variables in the culture are of course selectively associated with Visioning (Factor III), and Organising & Resourcing (Factor I). Overall, the research model, confirms part of the Jacobs & Jaques (1987) view that an organisation's internal environment is comprised of layers and that the top layers have activities, which are different and possibly conceptually more complex than the layers below. The upper level activities do not replace the lower level ones but are super-imposed on them. Immediately above the followers (or technical problem solvers) in this case, are the managers who have some direct face-to-face contact with them.

In this study, the managers were predominantly described as Organising and Resourcing types. Above them is a layer of managers who supervise the managers in the front line but who are not close to the work tasks. Instead, their role is one of co-ordination between teams and functions. They are required to find ways of influencing by facilitation. At the top layer, the managers have more complex activities. They provide a sense of purpose and understanding for all stakeholders, by mapping the relationships between the organisation and the external environment. By uncertainty reduction they enable some unity of organisation effort to emerge. (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990; and Stacey, 1996).

Despite this complexity of the tasks in the upper echelons of the organisation, people at all levels are potentially capable of additional feelings of anxiety, and depression. The more senior people might be more emotionally resilient

(as early trait studies have found) and therefore need less personal attention.

More recent research shows that FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relationships Orientation for Behaviour) scores of US managers are higher for wanted affection (5) than expressed affection. (3). Similar results of wanting more affection than expressing it are obtained for a sample of 22 US Army Brigadier Generals. (CCL Data Manual, 1990).

Leaders or managers, no matter what level would need to have a component of personal consideration (factor 4 leadership) to assist in maintaining the well-being of their subordinates. In emphasising the increasing complexity and uncertainty with senior jobs, Jacobs & Jaques (1990) may be downplaying the human nature of the face-to-face relationship with the immediate subordinates.

In essence, the four-factor leadership model would apply to all levels. There would be a people orientation factor at all levels, and a balance that shifts from organising and resourcing at the lowest level of management to a blend at the middle management with a visionary emphasis at the top.

In addition to the level multi-layer or levels of this model, there seems to be an explicit and implicit depth dimension. The re-factoring of the organisation culture audit from the subjects perspective, and the highlighting of the need for support and encouragement highlight this implicit dimension. The people involved might understand this mutual dependency relationship, but it is unlikely to be explicit.

In practical terms, the findings are important. The findings imply that followers make psychological choices of whom they take their cues from despite formal allocations. They also make choices in what they see and expect of these leaders. They identify at least four different roles for these leaders and confirm the qualitative differences between the roles.

The visionary or strategic leadership is seen as a set of complex and uncertain activities because the future is inherently unpredictable and cognitive engagement with the issues and the stakeholders is likely to be time consuming although interesting and challenging and yet produce few demonstrable results in terms of future scenarios or plans. Incidentally, charisma was not a word used by the followers to describe their significant managers. Instead, there seemed to be an implicit recognition that the activities involved in dealing with the future were intellectually challenging as the leaders actively engaged both the internal and external organisational environments. Strategic planning techniques such as scenario groups or search conferences have such a large component of social interaction that it may be hard to disentangle the cognitive enhancements of the future from the current social support and relationships developed in the process. In addition to forecasting the future of an organisation, there is a requirement to manage the present. This is the manager's role of organising and resourcing where interactions are on a real-time basis, juggling many activities at once and sorting out the priorities. The other factor is associated with people management, particularly their psychological and emotional well-being.

While the organisation culture can support people management, deficiencies in Mission and Teamwork in the organisation culture are likely to increase the demand on the manager to compensate for them.

The other leadership factor identified as Communication is a process and applies to both Visionary leadership and to Organising and Resourcing.

If all the roles are to be performed by one person, then the job specification for the significant manager is complex and diverse. The fortunate aspect is that most of the activities involved in the roles can be learned to some extent.

Stress reduction has become a big business for consultants and gyms, as well as pubs and wine bars. This research has shown that organisations and managers can remove some of the causes of stress at their source as well as promoting a meaningful and satisfying work place by managing the variables in the complex model(s) presented here.

CHAPTER XI - FURTHER RESEARCH

11.1 Leadership and Context.

The operational weaknesses of Transformational and Transactional leadership have been explored. While Kotter has more accurately described the distinction between Leadership, and Management, this distinction has not been incorporated into the facets of Transformational and Transactional Leadership. If Transformational Leadership is operationalised primarily as motivation or turbo-charging as appears to be the case with the MLQ, then this limits the range of output variables that are likely to be conceived and measured in the ensuing research. Outcomes like extra effort and potential for promotion might reflect past military life but many organisations try to solve problems by other processes. Without a substantial visionary component in the conception and operationalisation of leadership, outcome measures from the creative and generative spectrum are likely to be excluded from both the analysis and the objectives of leadership. In an organisation, the absence of this vision also inhibits collective thinking about the future and inhibits the planning for the resources such as the technologies and people that need to be in place beforehand to cope with the best and worst case scenarios for the future. This aspect of vision has been called strategic intent. (Hamel & Prahalad, 1984).

This study in my research shown and operationalised the distinction between Leadership and Management and used measures of Cognitive Style and Anxiety, and Depression as well as a combined cognitive-emotional measure of Job satisfaction.

Even so, the four-factor model developed here needs strengthening by further research in different types of organisations and at different hierarchical levels ranging from team leader to director or president.

In addition to confirming the prime factors of leadership and management, this research found two further factors, one presented as a style (People Orientation) and the other as a process (Communication). The issue of leadership as process and leadership as style is also an interesting point, as it is for problem solving. Many Leadership models mix process and style within the one model e.g. Hersey & Blanchard while in problem solving there are process vs style issues in Kolb vs Honey & Mumford and Basadur vs Kirton, (and Sternberg). While the followers might be unconcerned with the conceptual distinction between style and process, attempts to map a particular style to a particular process can cause confusion when learning and transferring a tool or a technique to each of the performance stages in an organisation.

Where leadership has been conceived of as personality-based and measured with a suite of psychological tests, the statistical distributions usually approach normality. Where leadership is a competency or behaviour then the distributions are often skewed in the espoused direction.

The views based on personality or style, invariably lead to observed behaviour being in line with press or the culture of the organisation because people use their other resources such as knowledge and skill as well as their relationships with people to direct their actual behaviour.

In organisations, leadership and problem solving need to be conceived and investigated as processes where style, culture and emotionality are examined as separate domains each accounting some of the stage performance variance.

11.2 Problem Solving

This research in this study was conducted at the middle and lower levels in the organisations. Anecdotal evidence of problem solving at higher levels reveals people who appeared to be more challenging, less dependent and possibly more difficult to manage. The biography of Sir James Black (1988) reveals a strong drive to find the answer to a research question in the literature concerning angina, supported by selected colleagues, despite opposition and competing demands for resources from others.

For this author, the fundamental question of the nature of problem solving still needs to be explored. What are the dynamics that enable people to go beyond the information given (Bruner, 1974) and to compress human intelligence and the expertise of large numbers of specialists or experts into a small pill (with an integral programmed delivery system), a silicon chip or a software program?

The question is also relevant for Directors and senior managers as they engage the environment, interpret external events over the horizon and bring them to the present via 5, 10 or 15-year plans.

While the Senior Management competencies of the MCI specify behaviours for engaging the external environment, the role of problem solving styles in the process needs to be examined.

While Stacey (1999, 2001) and De Wit & Meyer (1999) talk about the content and processes of strategy combining both rational and generative thinking, leaders have to go beyond these emergent properties and dialogues to produce a map or plan for their followers. The concept of strategy as a paradox where two apparent opposites co-exist in dynamic tension if presented as such in public, is likely to have serious implications for the credibility of most leaders.

A further research issue is the role of the development or the channeling of expertise into a product or service. Except for Sternberg's (1993) theory of Triarchic Intelligence, there has not been enough exploration of the transfer of expertise in conjunction with the various cognitive or thinking styles. As Rickards (1993) wrote, "an important belief within the creative problem solving paradigm is that human information processing can produce an emergent product, something that did not exist at the outset of the process. Furthermore, that the production is partially controllable." (p183). The question is how this knowledge and expertise is transferred from one person to another.

The Adaption-Innovation model recognises the orthogonal role of intelligence, so capacity and the contributions of the cognitive resource needs recognition when studying cognitive styles in organisations. Experts in organisations are unlikely to have fruitful discussions with non-experts, no matter how interesting their cognitive styles appear.

11.3 Distributions

Problems were evident with the distributions of scales and individual items in the leadership items and factors during the literature review phase of this research. Although the frequency distributions for the data and the instruments selected and rejected in this research have been thoroughly examined, many of the items, scales, facets or factors still show moderate asymmetry and were usually skewed in the espoused direction, i.e. the direction aligned to the organisations aims. In organisations that train leaders, where people are expected to lead, and where leaders receive the views of others from followers, bosses etc. by such processes as 360 degree feedback then the behaviours are likely to have a learned component and show distributions that are skewed towards the espoused and reinforced directions. In a study by Micceri (1989) of 440 large-scale achievement and psychometric studies, about 25% of the researchers were unable to produce simple frequency distributions for their data. Further over 80% of the psychometric measures obtained exhibited at least moderate asymmetry.

In general, there has been a domination of normal-based linear models over the last 10 years and these models might over estimate the quality of data while rejecting the opportunity to examine in other ways some of the data that is clearly non-Gaussian. Researchers ought to check the distributions for their measures and indicate the impact of asymmetric distributions on their results and the derived models.

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