

**Leadership and Management
Theories Revisited**

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The DDL project

The Danish Management Barometer (in Danish: Det Danske Ledelsesbarometer or the DDL project) is a research project carried out in cooperation between researchers at the Aarhus School of Business and the Danish Association of Managers and Executives. The purpose is through a regular survey procedure to monitor the development within the managerial function and the way it is practised in Danish companies and organizations. Further information can be found on:

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Abstract

The goal of this paper is to revisit and analyze key contributions to the understanding of leadership and to discuss the relevance of maintaining a distinct line of demarcation between leadership and management. As a part of the discussion a role perspective that allows for additional and/or integrated leader dimensions, including a change-centered, will be outlined. Seemingly, a major challenge on the substantive level is the integration of soft and hard managerial functions, while the concepts used in presenting these should at least in transition be able to contain a distinction between hard, soft, and general practices. Hence a suggestion is made in the end that leadership as a broad concept should be investigated in the future, and various sub-types of leadership reflected by different roles should be used to clarify and concretize managerial functions in general. It is believed that such a convergence will be fruitful and constructive for a continuous development and practice of management at large.

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1. Introduction

Management is an ambiguous phenomenon. A great deal of literature on traditional management deals with the planning, organization, administration, monitoring, control, and short-term horizon of organizations (Mintzberg 1973; Morgan 1986; Taylor 1911). Other literature is concerned with the soft elements that relate to motivation, inspiration, participation, vision and value-creation in a long-term horizon. The latter, reflected by different underlying definitions, is often referred to as leadership (Bass 1994; Conger 2000; Kotter 1999; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989).

In pace with an increasing globalization and technological development, a need for softer managerial elements can be expected to increase in importance (Kotter 1999). As it is almost impossible for management to fully monitor and control specific and knowledge-intensive processes in any detail, the importance of leadership as a motivating factor has gained increasing momentum (Bass 1994; Conger 2000; Kotter 1999; Rost 1991). In continuation of this there is a tendency to use the term leadership about almost all kinds of managerial functions. Thus, as much of earlier research has demonstrated, the discussion of leadership as opposed to management has been partly substituted by a focus towards different kinds of leadership (Bass 1994; Egri 2000; Ekvall 1994; Gabris 1998). However, the specific tasks that were once covered by the term "management" have not disappeared. In addition, some of the functions referred to in the literature as different types of leadership may be characterized more adequately as traditional management practices.

This paper is based on the belief that it is necessary to dig deeper into the substantive content of the performance of

general managerial functions to resolve existing misleading confusions. On the conceptual level this invites for an investigation of leadership as a conception, e.g. it should be considered whether the tasks earlier addressed as management functions can be properly described and explained by one or more specific kinds of leadership or whether the term “leadership” is inevitably associated with a softer form of managing.

Regardless of any implicit rhetoric, a theme of roles has emerged on the substantive level at different times, and may be expected to be even more dominant in the future. Across management and leadership research the importance of different roles in distinct situations is being discussed (Denison 1995; Hooijberg 1996; Mintzberg 1973; Quinn 1988). Put differently, the conceptual debate of leadership as opposed to management is in some areas replaced by a substantive discussion of roles in management in general (Bass 1994; Ekvall 1991).

Looking back in time, the term leadership has been used for more than a century in an organizational context. It comes from Latin and means “to lead”, “to guide” or “to pull” (Rost 1991). Psychologists (Bass 1994; Fiedler 1972) and business scholars (Kotter 1999), among others, have done research on leadership. Joseph C. Rost points to the fact that research is most often bounded within a specific academic discipline, which almost implicitly widens the gap between different views. He mentions that the recognition of different scholars is easy, since an adjective is often put in front of the word leadership, e.g. business leadership, educational leadership or political leadership (Rost, 1991 p.1). It can be argued, however, that this may not be a major issue as long as adjectives are put in front.

On the other hand, it may cause problems if the different contexts and related assumptions are not addressed explicitly.

In addition to distinct academic disciplines, various starting points have changed the definitions of leadership over time; starting with the personality and behavior of the individual leader, moving towards a focus on the power/influence relation between leader and follower and later on to the exchange process among organization members in general. Since the 1980s, leadership has often been perceived as, among other things, closely related to situations in which transformations or changes are in focus (Bass 1994; Conger 2000; Kotter 1999).

The paper sets off by discussing different theoretical approaches to the phenomenon of leadership. This serves to illustrate the developing research path throughout the 20th century. In continuation of this, the relation between leadership and management will be addressed throughout the remaining part of the paper. In section 3 different contributions to managerial roles are introduced in a model that allows for considering three broader dimensions termed production, employee-, and change-centered. Moreover, the potential for even more dimensions will be briefly touched. In the remaining part of the paper the propositions will be discussed, followed by an address of the main implications for future research and managers.

2. Theoretical Approaches to Research on Leadership

While displaced in time, a categorization in different time periods is commonly acknowledged as a way of dividing an overwhelming amount of leadership research into sub-categories (Bass 1990; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989). Based on an extensive

review it is argued that the specific content of time periods varies. Similarly, examples of overlapping and repeating themes can be seen across periods. As an example, the demarcation between the end of the trait approach period (see section 2.1) and the start of the behavior approach period (see section 2.2) seems to be quite fluid.

As illustrated in figure 1, the research of the early 20th century tends to focus on specific individual traits, which a leader was expected to exert. In the 1940s this approach was found to be increasingly insufficient, and focus shifted towards the leader-behavior approach. Later on this one-dimensional focus was also found inadequate, and influence-power relations were introduced as a new approach. Since the 1960s, contingency factors have been perceived as higher-order factors, which should be viewed as the most important aspects in the study of leadership. The essential assumption in the contingency approach is that the performance of leadership differs from one situation to another (Bass 1990; Pierce 1995; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989).

Different time periods are reflected by various definitions. Thus, it seems that more and more information is included in the definitions as new factors are recognized as being important. In 1991 Joseph C. Rost proposed some broad definitions built on earlier research into leadership and management:

"Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes."(Rost, 1991 p.102)

"Management is an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who

coordinate their activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services” (Rost, 1991 p.145).

These definitions are chosen, among other things, due to their wide application in a great deal of the earlier research, and their ability to illustrate some key differences between leadership and management. As reflected by the definition above, a management relation has its focus on getting the job done through the use of authority. In contrast, a leadership relation implies common goals and relations built on influence between leader and follower. It should be noted, however, that the persons led, most often termed “followers”, are not explicitly treated in the early approach to leadership, since this is focused on the leader as an individual. Following this distinction between leadership and management is relevant only when introducing different leader-behaviors. As hopefully reflected throughout this paper, the division of managerial functions into leadership and management may not be the only or most adequate solution. Thus, the definitions are introduced here as a reference for presenting the development of leadership and will to some extent be rejected later.

As can be seen from figure 1, the early approaches are included to a higher or less extent in the contingency approach. Hence much research may still be found in a contingency approach, which concentrates specifically on person, process and/or power. The different approaches can be viewed as phases in a developing research path in which the research questions are extended over time. Whereas the earlier approaches included starting points which today appear quite simple and rigid, the leadership theory over time has developed into a more balanced and multi-factor perspective (Bass 1990).

Figure 1: *Leadership Approaches in Research throughout the 20th Century*

Leadership approach and key points	Famous theories and empiricism	Research questions in focus	Central time
Trait approach: <i>Physical aspects</i> <i>Personality abilities</i> <i>Observed behavior</i>	Choice of associates (Patridge, 1934) nomination by qualified observers (Bellingrath, 1930)	Which traits/ characteristics distinguish a leader from a non-leader? What is the extent of differences between leaders and other people?	1900-
Behavior Approach <i>Consideration /initiating structure</i> <i>Delegative/participative</i> <i>Production/employee</i> <i>Task/relation</i> <i>Manage/lead</i>	Ohio-studies: consideration /initiating structure. (Stogdill et al., 1948) Michigan studies: Production/employee-centered Leaders. (Likert et al. 1951)	Which behavior does the leader display? Is leader behavior hard or soft? Is leader behavior task or relation-oriented? Which behavior is the most effective?	1940-
Power approach <i>Referent</i> <i>Legitimate</i> <i>Reward</i> <i>Coercive</i> <i>Expert</i>	French & Raven (1959)	What is the importance of power in leader behavior? What sources of power/influence are relevant? How do followers respond to leader behavior?	1950-

Contingency/ situational approach			1960 -
<i>Favorableness</i>	Least preferred co-worker (LPC-Scale) (Fiedler et al., 1967)	Which traits, which skills and which behavioral processes are displayed in specific situations?	
<i>Maturity of followers</i>	Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969)		To what extent will a specific situation affect the behavior of the leader?
<i>Motivation</i>	Path-Goal theory (House, 1971)	What is the most efficient leader behavior in a specific situation?	
<i>Roles</i>	Managerial roles (Mintzberg, 1973)		What is the optimal combination of different leadership styles?
<i>Practices</i>	Managerial practices survey (MPS) (Yukl, 1990)		
<i>Transformational leadership</i>	Full Range Model (Bass et. al., 1994)		
<i>Transactional leadership</i>			
<i>Non-leadership</i>	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985)		

While being a useful tool for an initial overview, it is important to be cautious and not undertake a simplistic division of a theme into different time periods and approaches. The difficulties related to splitting up research into traits, behavior, and situational variables become clearer, when it is realized that all the subjects seem to be interdependent and connected to some extent. Regardless of the approach, it is primarily about human nature and actions, which makes it highly questionable to separate the personality from the social process. Furthermore,

the social process is highly dependent on the specific context in which it is performed and subsequently perceived by the individuals concerned.

When used carefully, however, the various approaches may be a way of dividing a broad subject into specific topics for further investigation. While some of the earlier approaches may be less visible today, they are all important building blocks to the plateau upon which the dominating contingency approach of today is resting. Thus, contemporary research does not totally reject earlier research but most often requires that additional elements are included. In the following section, a short overview of approaches that have been commonly and broadly accepted throughout time will be presented.

2.1. The Trait Approach

The trait approach period from the beginning of the 20th century *concentrated on important individual traits that differentiated leaders from non-leaders* (Bass 1990; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989)¹. Important traits related to leadership are, among others, intelligence, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, high self-confidence, energy, initiative, emotional maturity, stress tolerance, belief in internal locus of control, pragmatism, result orientation, knowledge, and fluency of speech. But even

¹ Some authors distinguish between two phases in the trait approach: the first phase is concentrated on personality traits and the second on individual leader behavior traits. The changing approach is based on the recognition that in isolation inborn personal traits can be too one-sided to explain the differences between leaders and non-leaders. In addition, the development can be determined as a natural result of more sophisticated methods, e.g. factor analysis, which made it possible to analyze the effects of various contributions of treatment in the same experiment (Bass, 1990).

physical characteristics as height and weight have been investigated as factors that might vary from leaders to non-leaders (Bass 1990; Bryman 1996; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989). Yukl has later described the research development in the trait approach:

"The focus of much of the recent trait research has been on managerial motivation and specific skills, whereas earlier research focused more on personality traits and general intelligence. Some researchers now attempt to relate traits to specific role requirements for different types of managerial positions" (Yukl 1989 p.260).

Thus, it is important to recognize that today's trait approach is not narrowly concentrated on inborn or innate characteristics. Nevertheless, what separates the trait approach from other approaches is the focus on the leader as an individual person with unique personal characteristics. That may include inherent characteristics, observed leader behavior or even situation- and culture-determined aspects as points of convergence.

2.2. The Behavior Approach

The difference between the end of the trait period and the beginning of the behavior approach is quite fluid. In the latter, leadership is approached as a style. Instead of focusing on the individual traits the leader must enhance, the research questions are here directed towards the nature of managerial work and a classification of the different functions, practices and roles (see figure 1). In contrast to personality, behavior can be learned and changed through practice, which at the time of the behavior approach resulted in an interest in training leaders, and in some parts of the research in an investigation as to whether one kind

of behavior was more efficient than the other (Bass 1990; Bryman 1996; Mintzberg 1973; Rost 1991).

In the crossing between the trait and the behavior approaches an important contribution was made by Stogdill et al. (1948), often referred to as “*the Ohio studies*”(see figure 1). Employees were asked to evaluate a battery of items about the behavior of their leader and indicate to which degree a specific statement reflected the behavior of their leader. Afterwards, the different kinds of leader behaviors could be separated into two higher-order factors termed “*initiating structure*” and “*consideration*”. While the first style is mainly task-oriented, the latter is relation-oriented (Bryman 1996; Pierce 1995; Rost 1991). Early findings indicated that consideration was related to employee job satisfaction while initiating structure was connected to group performance (Bryman 1996).²

In much of the following research, leader-behavior issues remained divided and can be recognized with many notions, as illustrated in figure 1, e.g. *task- and relationship-oriented, production- or employee-centered, and directive or participative leadership* (Bryman 1996; Pierce 1995; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989); all of which can be enrolled into the broad categories of leader style referred to as management and leadership. To a large extent, the debate of leadership as opposed to management may be said to stem from this point in research, which is also one of

² A point of later critique was that informal leadership was rarely investigated, as only formal positions were used as starting points (Bryman,1996).

the reasons why it is very difficult to describe the following approaches without mixing leadership and management.

2.3. The Power-influence Approach

Related to leader behavior, task- or relationship-oriented, is the importance of the treatment and response of the followers. The development is reflected in the power-influence approach that followed in the 1950s. In a power-influence approach, the relationship between leader and follower, including explicit treatment of the follower's response, is a central point (Pierce 1995). Among different contributions to research on power, the following choose to define power as the ability to exercise influence and thereby as the opportunity to bring about change (French 1995). *A division of power is made into reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.* Power by reward is used to motivate other people to perform a specific task in order to be rewarded. In contrast, coercive power is used as a threat. The receivers, because of e.g. formal position, accept legitimate power, while referent power is about the receiver's identification with the power exerciser. Expert power can be attained through knowledge, e.g. technical expertise that others need in order to complete a task.

By first impression management can be seen as building on reward, coercive, and legitimate power, while the complete performance of leadership should be based mainly on referent and expert power. However, by closer investigation it becomes clear that power must be considered a very sensitive subject. It can be argued that coercive power to some extent will always be present in a relationship, even though it might "only" be reflected by a threat of losing personal goodwill or acceptance. In this paper, the statement is limited to the observation that in general power is acknowledged as having an impact on the

success of managers and thereby on the success and effectiveness of a group or an organization.

2.4. The Contingency Approach

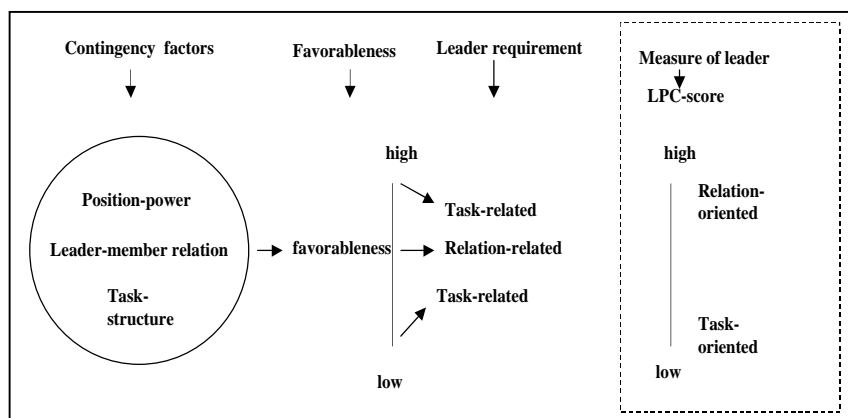
The contingency approach, sometimes referred to as the situational approach, arose in the beginning of the 1960s as a consequence of the lacking ability of earlier approaches to explain the many different aspects of leader behavior. A lot of investigators found that a specific context or situation had had an important impact on the leader behavior chosen, or, as stated by Pierce et al., "*since different leader behaviors e.g. initiating structure and consideration do not always produce significant and positive effects it may be suggested that something else is transpiring*" (Pierce 1995 p.134). Smirich and Morgan (1982) have defined leadership as a product of interaction between the situation, the leader, and the followers. During the evolution, the distinction between leadership and management becomes quite implicit and blurred.

In 1989 Yukl revealed that research on situational leadership could be broadly assigned to two different categories. Either the focus is on situational factors and the way they influence the behavior of the leader, or the point of convergence is specific leader behaviors and the efficiency of these behaviors in different situations. The question is whether the behavior or the situation is determined as the dependent variable (Yukl 1989) or, in other words, whether a descriptive or a prescriptive approach is chosen. Among the many contingency theories on leadership, a few are referred to quite often and will be briefly outlined in the following pages.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler's contingency theory was first introduced in 1967. According to Fiedler (1972), some situations are just more attractive to leaders than others. In his theory *three elements are important for what he calls situational favorableness: the leader-member relations, the position-power and the task structure*. Mixtures of the three are followed by different degrees of favorableness and create a need for diverse types of leaders. By ordering the leaders according to whether they possess a high or low degree of the three elements, Fiedler came to the conclusion that task-oriented leaders should be placed in situations of high or low favorableness, whereas relation-oriented leaders were more likely to be successful under conditions where favorableness is intermediate (Fiedler 1972). The relation between contingency factors, favorableness, and leader requirement is fleshed out in figure 2.

Figure 2: *Fiedler's Contingency Theory*



Based on (Fiedler 1972).

Fiedler's empirical studies have suggested that a way of capturing the motivational orientation of leaders is to measure the attitudes they express about their *least preferred co-worker (LPC)*. Leaders with a high LPC score tend to evaluate their least preferred co-worker fairly positively, whereas leaders with a low LPC score choose quite negative terms to describe their least preferred co-worker. Thus as shown in figure 2, Fiedler argues that *leaders with high LPC-scores are most often relationship-oriented whereas leaders with lower LPC-scores are expected to be task-oriented* (Fiedler 1972).

A later review of LPC-score research showed that data supported this value-attitude towards task or interpersonal success (Yukl 1989). However, the theory has received much criticism (Yukl 1989). The non-explicit rationale for the choice of aspects included in the model, and the ambiguous content of these have caused skepticism (Yukl 1989). In relation to the broad prioritization, the efficiency of management and leadership in different situations can be viewed as an element in Fiedler's theory. His implicit point is that managers should be placed in other situations than leaders, which can be justified to some extent, while at the same time it seems to be a simplification.

Hersey and Blanchard's Theory on Situational Leadership

In 1969, Hersey and Blanchard introduced a theory on situational leadership. Again leadership style is seen as reflecting situational demands for task- or relationship-behavior, but here *the motivation and degree of maturity of the followers are highlighted*. Four stages of maturity are outlined and related to the demand for telling, selling, participating and delegating respectively. According to this theory, leadership is developed over time from a directive to a participating function ending

with a total delegation of responsibility (Bass 1990; Hersey 1982; Yukl 1989). It can be argued that management is substituted by leadership as a function of the degree of maturity of the followers.

House’s Path Goal Theory of Leadership

Another contribution to the contingency approach given by House et al. (1974) is called *the path-goal theory*. Here the *central issue is motivation*. The theory addresses the unique need of leaders to perform different leader styles in order to provide for general follower satisfaction, motivation and performance or as stated by the authors:

“The motivational functions of the leader consist of increasing the number and kinds of personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making paths to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying the paths, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (House 1974 p. 141).

According to House et al. four different leadership styles will lead to motivation and job satisfaction in four different task situations:

Figure 3: *House’s Path-Goal Theory - the Path from Task to Leader Style*

<i>ambiguous tasks</i>	←	Leader directiveness
<i>ambiguous non-repetitive tasks</i>	←	Achievement-oriented
<i>ambiguous ego-involving tasks</i>	←	Participative
<i>dissatisfying and stressful tasks</i>	←	Supportive

Based on (House 1974)

Thus, the degree of correlation between relation-oriented behavior and job satisfaction and productivity is expected to be higher in structured situations than in unstructured situations, whereas the opposite is true of initiating structure (Bass 1990; House 1974). The content of the model is very complex and hence very difficult to test, which also caused highly differing empirical results. Altogether the model has been acknowledged to some extent, but is also viewed as having limitations (Bass 1990; Yukl 1989).

The Concept of Transactional and Transformational Leadership
In 1978 James McGregor Burns introduced a concept of transformational and transactional leaders. He argued that all political leaders could be classified as either one or the other. Transactional leadership was viewed as an exchange of rewards for compliance and as a style in which followers are motivated by appealing to their self-interest. In addition, Burns related transactional leadership to bureaucratic authority, which emphasizes legitimate power and respect for rules and tradition (Yukl 1981). Some researchers have connected transactional leadership with management (Jones 2000; Quinn 1988; Rost 1991; Yukl 1989).

According to Burns, transformational leaders, in contrast, motivate the followers by inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization. Thus, transformational leadership refers to a process of empowering employees to participate in the process of transforming the organization and thereby initiating major changes (Bass 1994; Yukl 1989).

Bass' Full Range Model of Leadership

The work of Burns inspired Bernard M. Bass to propose a *theory of transformational leadership*. In his words transformational leaders motivate people to do more than they originally intended, often even more than they thought possible (Bass 1994). According to Bass, transactional and transformational leadership styles are reflected by distinct although not mutually exclusive processes, which means that the same leader may use both types of processes at different times in distinct situations.³ Moreover, Bass found that seven dimensions were needed in order to describe existent leadership styles. Later he proposed *the Full Range Model of Leadership* (Bass 1994). Measured by subordinates' ratings, individual leaders' combination of different leadership styles was identified. Founded on the seven dimensions in the Full Range Model, a broad division of leadership into three main styles termed transactional, transformational, and non-leadership was outlined (Bass 1985; Bass 1994; Bass 1999) and is illustrated in figure 4.

³ Whereas Fiedler, Hersey & Blanchard, and House have a more statical focus on identification of the most efficient leader behavior in certain situations, Bass argues that three leader styles are used in combination.

Figure 4: The Full Range Model of Leadership

<p><i>Transformational leadership</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Inspirational motivation (creating vision and objectives and being committed to them)• Intellectual stimulation (facilitating innovation and creativity)• Idealized influence (role modeling)• Individual consideration (coaching, individual support, acceptance of individual differences) <p><i>Transactional leadership</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Contingent reward (specifying conditions and rewards)• Management-by-exception-<ul style="list-style-type: none">• active (monitoring and correcting deviancies from standards)• passive (problem-solving correcting errors) <p><i>Non-leadership</i> (absence or avoidance of leadership)</p>
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Based on (Bass 1994)

According to Bass, a leader will exhibit each of the three main styles in combination. Built on an empirical examination of effective leaders, however, he has proposed an optimal mix, which he argues should be preferred in order to perform active and effective leadership (Bass 1994).

A related issue in transformational leadership is the importance of charisma.⁴ *According to Bass, transformational leadership is an extended version of charismatic leadership.* Thus, charisma is about the leader as an individual. The charismatic leader is an idol, a hero, or even a spiritual figure. While this can also be true of the transformational leader, it is not enough. To be

⁴ Originally Bass included a factor called "charisma" in the model but later excluded it, because it could not be properly distinguished from inspirational leadership (Bass 1999).

transformational, trust, respect, and empowerment must also be a part of the art. In the latter, focus is on leadership as a process, which may very well be shared between the leader and the followers (Bass 1994; Yukl 1989). This point is congruent with the original message from Burns that leadership may be exhibited by anyone in the organization in any type of position (Yukl 1989).

Ever since its introduction, various attempts have been made to criticize, test, and/or develop the content of the Full Range Model as well as the Multi Factor Questionnaire (MLQ) on which it is based (Rost 1991; Tracey 1998). Some opponents conceive it as an important weakness that more factors measuring transformational leadership seem to be correlated, while others highlight the fact that factors measuring transactional leadership are missing in the MLQ questionnaire (Yukl 1989). More broadly it has been discussed whether transformational leadership can, as revealed by Bass, be displayed at all levels in an organization or if it is only executives who display transformational leadership (Yukl 1989).

So far, however, the Full Range Model seems to be one of the most complete and well-tested contributions to the understanding of leadership. Additionally, and in line with the goal of this paper, the model is recognized as a relevant demarcation line between the contingency approach to leadership and the focus on managerial roles, which will be introduced in section 3. Although Bass uses the term “leadership” to cover three different leader styles, it must be recognized that the Full Range Model implicitly includes functions and practices that can be described as traditional management as well. Furthermore Bass argues that these different leadership styles are used interchangeably and in

combination (Bass 1994) thereby giving support to the convergence of functions in leadership and management.

In parallel with this, the discussion of the difference between and division of leadership and management is continuing. In the following section different theories on roles in management will be presented, and the relevance of roles as an integrating factor in the leadership-management debate will be further highlighted.

3. The Meaning of Roles in Management and Leadership Theory

While it can be regarded as a natural result of a long path of research, different approaches can sometimes lead to confusion in the debate and may have theoretical, empirical, and practical implications. As noted by *Quinn*: “we want an emphasis on the value of human resources but we also want an emphasis on planning and goal setting” (Quinn 1988, p.49). Thus, it is not the central issue of this paper to find one right way of managing, but to take a holistic view on managing as a phenomenon.

A promising alternative to a distinct view of management and leadership is the role perspective, which may in some sense be a more constructive approach in investigating functions across opposing areas. Several roles have been suggested over the years, which to a varying degree include a mixture of leadership and management practices. *One definition of a role is that it is an organized set of behavior belonging to an identifiable office or position* (Sarbin and Allen in Mintzberg 1973). Roles can be associated with style, but as an extension of a style, a role is often unconsciously chosen and not outlined explicitly in the

organization. It appears and changes rather as a result of gaps that need to be filled in the managerial jobs.

In his seminal contribution Mintzberg distinguished between 10 different managerial roles (Mintzberg 1973). Several years later Quinn presented eight roles, which he explicitly argued would contribute to the convergence of left- and right-brain thinking in general management (Quinn 1988). Thus, a common element in the work of Mintzberg and Quinn is the presentation of functions and roles without explicit treatment of the categorization of these roles into management and leadership.

It can be argued that Bass' Full Range Model represents a move towards a broader role perspective, although this is not explicitly stated. As mentioned by Bass, it is not a question of either transactional, transformational or non-leadership, but a mixture of styles that are used in combination (Bass 1994). Thus, at first sight his focal point in the model seems to be the general functions and behaviors rather than the categorization of these into management and leadership. Nevertheless, by closer investigation an associated distinction is reflected in transactional and transformational leadership.

On the conceptual level, Bass has chosen to use leadership as a broad term covering every managerial function, even though the model is presented as illustrating a mixture of functions across different dimensions. Among later role-contributions inspired by Bass and others this interesting - though in some sense problematic - progression still seems to be present (Egri 2000; Grendstad 1999; Skogstad 1999). While at the same time reflecting a recognition of the importance of general roles as a way of opening and varying the debate, there seems to be a common preference for including the buzzword of leadership as

the overall phenomenon. This further raises the need for a broad perspective, including awareness of the changed meaning of the word.

In the following, examples of managerial roles or styles across leadership and management will be given. It is important to notice that the starting point has been contributions that do not explicitly imply a distinction by use of the fragment of leadership and management. However, role contributions can be found here, in which management or leadership has been used as a broad notion describing managerial functions in general. In that relation both terms are here evaluated as relatively neutral.

The Change-Production-Employee (CPE) Model of Leadership

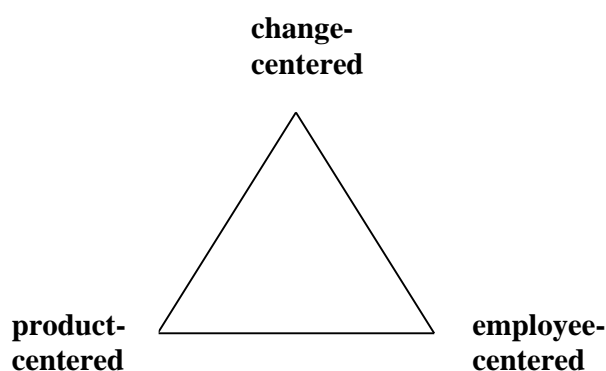
In a study of a Swedish company and in a following survey, a new dimension of leader behavior was introduced (Ekvall 1991, 1994). Inspired by empirical results and in line with earlier research it was concluded that in addition to the existing acknowledged dimensions of “initiating structure” and “consideration”, here termed production- or employee-centered leadership, a third additional role termed “change-centered leadership” seemed to have arisen in the 1980s. An important argument was that the change-centered factor was missing in the above-mentioned famous Ohio studies made by Stogdill et al.:

“Technically speaking there is no reason why this change orientation should not have been revealed in the Ohio research. The behavior-descriptive questionnaire used by the Ohio group included seven questions about the manager’s behavior in relation to change. But the questions did not generate a separate factor of their own; instead they

were divided (with high loadings) between the other two.” (Ekvall 1991, p.22)

Thus it is argued that the change dimension must be of a more recent date and should be explained by the increasing focus of society on change at the expense of simple production.⁵ The conclusions led Ekvall & Arvonen to the introduction of a *Change-Production-Employee Model (CPE model)* in which the three dimensions are viewed as complementary in their existence (see figure 5).

Figure 5: *The CPE Model of Leadership*



Based on (Ekvall 1991).

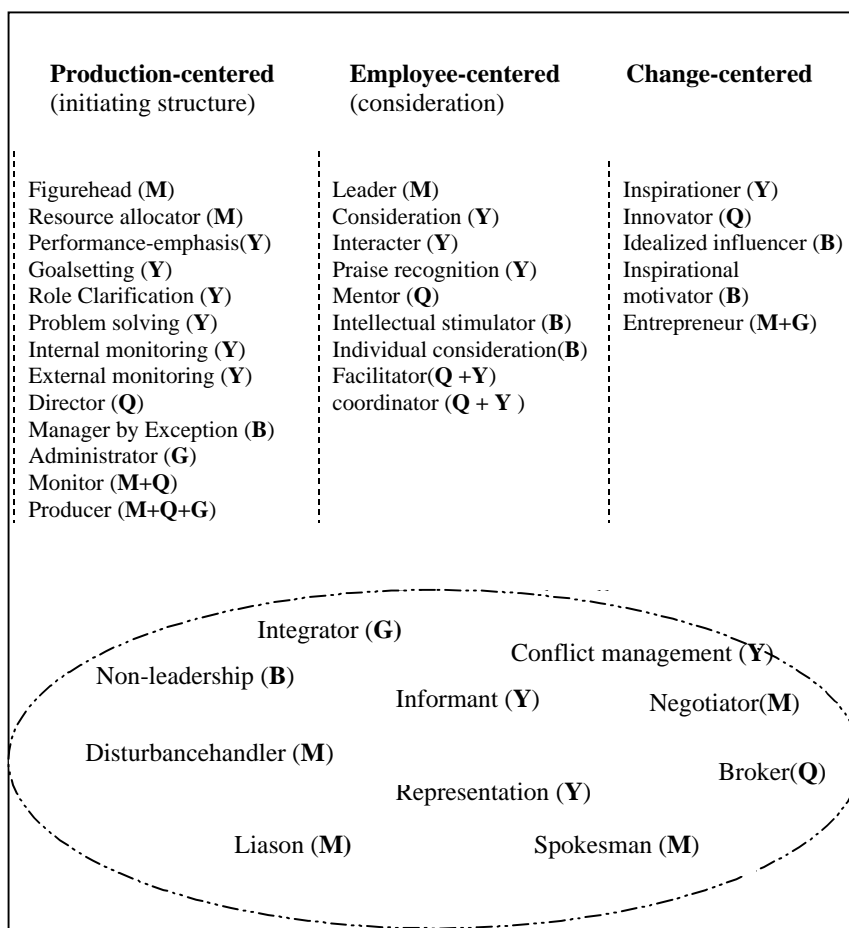
The presence of the change-centered leadership dimension has recently been tested in Norway (Skogstad 1999). Inspired by an

⁵ Though, it is pointed out that at least in Scandinavian culture it is not enough for leaders to be strongly change-oriented and weak on the other factors (Ekvall 1991).

existing distinction of organization theory in four different models (Quinn 1988; Quinn 1983), four cultures named group, developmental, hierarchical, and rational were identified, and it was tested whether a change-centered leadership style differing from relation and task-related styles could be confirmed. In line with expectations, developmental leadership was found to be the most noticeable factor in the developmental culture, in which focus is on external adaptation and flexibility, compared to e.g. the hierarchical culture, in which internal control and stability are emphasized (Skogstad 1999).

Using the model of Ekvall and Arvonen as a skeleton, a number of influential contributions to managerial roles and styles can be organized in figure 6. The broad distinctions between two leadership disciplines and one management discipline are implicitly reflected. It may seem critical to outline a new fragment giving other, broader notions to managerial functions and to pretend that the problem of divided research areas and inconsequent use of managerial terms has been resolved. However, this is not the main purpose. The reason for doing so is to start from scratch and try out to which extents the CPE model can contain roles from earlier acknowledged research and thereby support a deeper understanding of these functions. Seemingly, some of the roles do intuitively belong to one - and only one - of the three dimensions, others seem to be more integrated and could thus belong to more than one. Finally, others are in some sense 'leftovers', or at least difficult to place, indicating that a fourth or more dimensions is needed.

Figure 6: *Different Role Contributions Incorporated in the CPE Model*



M= Mintzberg (1973) Y= Yukl (1981) Q= Quinn (1988)
 B= Bass (1994) G= Grendstad (1999)
 Based on (Bass 1994; Grendstad 1999; Mintzberg 1973; Quinn 1988; Yukl 1981).

The content of this outline is definitely reflected by the fact that Mintzberg and Yukl have made their contributions earlier than the assumed emergence of a change-centered dimension. In general, Mintzberg (1973) has to some extent underestimated the value of soft functions⁶ whereas it can be argued that some of the newer contributions have given a relatively high priority to the softer managerial practices. Within the framework of the CPE model, the roles in the lower circle in figure 6 are in some way remaining but seem to reflect a certain practice of informing, integration, and networking. Moreover, the potential existence of four managerial dimensions has also been revealed.

The Competing Values Model and the Concept of Behavioral Complexity

On the basis of his eight managerial roles and the related model called the *Competing Values Model* (Quinn, 1988; 1983), Quinn and others (Denison 1995) presented a concept of behavioral complexity. They defined behavioral complexity as “*the ability to exhibit contrary or opposing behaviors while still retaining some measure integrity, credibility and direction*”(Denison 1995, p.526). More specifically, they described the content of the Competing Values Model in this way:

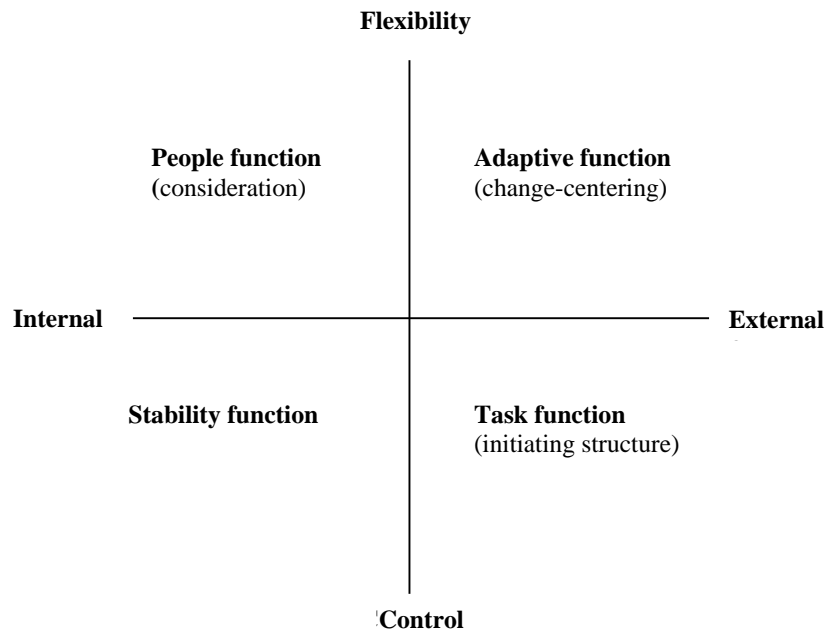
“The logic of this model of leadership is to define a set of roles comprising the leadership task in a way that captures some of the inherent conflicts and contradictions of the simultaneous needs for both internal integration and external adaptation

⁶ This is only true of the early Mintzberg before his seminal PhD in 1976. Later he was critical of his earlier work.

combined with the need for both stability and flexibility” (Denison 1995, p.526).

Using a multidimensional scaling (MDS), a survey was conducted in the attempt to test the structure in the Competing Values Model. Based on the two underlying dimensions of stability versus change and internal versus external focus, it was found that the existence of four quadrants could be confirmed, each reflecting a specific dimension of leader behavior. Furthermore, it was revealed that adjacent roles should presumably be more similar than opposite ones. It was recognized that it was not possible to confirm the relation between the eight roles assumed to belong to the four quadrants (Denison 1995). Later, one of the researchers aggregated the original two roles in each quadrant into one, thereby introducing a model of four roles (Hooijberg 1996) which may be related to the CPE model:

Figure 7: *The CPE Model Adopted in the Competing Values Model*



Based on (Denison 1995; Ekvall 1991; Hooijberg 1996; Quinn 1988).

In conjunction with the CPE model of Ekvall and Arvonen three of the functions can be associated with each other, whereas the bottom left-quadrant role seems to be missing in the CPE model. In a later study inspired by the four-quadrant structure of Quinn, four roles termed integrator, entrepreneur, administrator, and producer are related to different organization types (Grendstad 1999). Although this could not be fully confirmed in that study,

the concept of roles seems promising and deserves more attention.

Right now the exact placement of different roles is not the most important issue. The idea of this section was rather to present the role perspective as a broad alternative to the “manage/lead” contributions. It seems that the role perspective opens the way for additional functions, and some of them can be dynamically transferred between leadership and management as well. Some of the remaining roles in figure 6 are related to both management and leadership, some are integrations while others call for other dimensions such as for example a networking and/or communication dimension. This does not imply that the functions of either management or leadership are totally rejected, it should rather be viewed as an extension and a convergence of these. The role contribution can be perceived as having the potential for a deeper explanation of practices and thereby a further qualified operationalization of theory.

4. Discussion and Implications

The theoretical discussion of leadership and management can be categorized into two parts. Firstly, there is the substantive debate concerning the existence and/or dominance of different kinds of managerial behaviors in different situations and/or circumstances. Secondly, the concepts used for describing and analyzing leadership and management can be questioned. Especially when the language is English/U.S., it is a problem that both concepts are at the same time used as descriptions of managerial practices in general and as a skeleton for distinguishing different kinds of managerial functions.

This paper has demonstrated that the dominance of one or the other approach has changed over time. About a century ago, focus was on authority relations and getting the job done, as shown in the definition of management. Later, a need for leadership, including influence relations and common goals, was recognized as a supplement to management. A long period followed in which the main question was the justification of management processes as opposed to those of leadership. It was continuously discussed and empirically tested in which situations one or the other could or should be emphasized. In the 1980s, leadership was viewed as an excellent version of managing; it was especially related to conditions of change. A dominant approach in the 1990s acknowledged the need for both leadership and management as complementary elements. *Today, although most attention is still given to leadership, there is an interest in defining new and sometimes integrated roles across leadership and management.*

By using a role perspective, the potential for a more objective specification of broader and more dynamic job functions emerges, or, in other words, a role approach can be a way of diminishing the sometimes negative effects derived by the hidden dichotomy in a leadership/management approach. In addition, it allows for introducing new roles and roles that are mixtures of leadership and management, which may more precisely reflect real-life events. Another effect derived by viewing managerial practices in the light of role theory is the opportunity for a deeper and more dynamic understanding of these integrated underlying processes. Though it is a complex task, there seems to be a need for this holistic focus, or, as noted by Ekvall and Arvonen, “leadership style is not a mathematical summation but rather a chemical compound of different behavior” (Ekvall, 1994, p.149).

Hence, a suggestion so far is that the traditional management and leadership dimensions need to be supplemented by at least a third change-centered dimension, as introduced by Ekvall and Arvonen (Ekvall 1991). Thus, it can be argued that leadership can implicitly be divided into two parts, where one part is reflecting consideration or employee relations and the other is representing creativity, visions, and entrepreneurship. This is also very relevant for the discussion of charismatic and transformational leadership, since it has been revealed that although the former seems to be included in the latter, something more is needed to experience transformational leadership throughout the organization (Bass 1994). While the practice of initiating structure can be viewed as building on Tayloristic thinking including planning and control (Taylor 1911), and consideration can be related to the Mary Follett school of thought, which has human behavior and motivation as its focus (Follett 1918), the research tradition of entrepreneurship introduced by e.g. Schumpeter (Schumpeter 1934) might be reflecting the change-centered discipline.

Approaching the above-mentioned conceptual part of the discussion, an interesting development is reflected in literature. Compared to one another, the development within the two levels seems to be approximately as illustrated in figure 8:

Figure 8: Domination of Management and Leadership on the Substantive and Conceptual Levels

Level	1900-1930	1930-1940	1940-1980	1980-1990	1990-2001
Substantive	M	M +L	M+L	L	M+L
Conceptual	M	M	M+L	L	L

L= Leadership as a dominant factor
M= Management as a dominant factor

As indicated in figure 8, on the conceptual level, leadership seemingly continues to dominate research in the 1990s and until today. On the substantive level, management and leadership need to be considered as complements, and some researchers further view them as equal complements. The tendency now seems to be that on the conceptual level leadership is used as a broad term that describes both leadership and management functions. Nevertheless, in this transitional period leadership is often at the same time associated with the art of making people change or with leaders being something very special, which may not always be true for the related substantial level. Thus, the risk of overestimating the importance of soft elements lurks and may to some extent already be present. As noted by Yukl:

“There is a mystical, romantic quality associated with leadership, similar to that for other stereotyped heroes in our culture, such as the lone cowboy who single-handedly vanquishes the bad guys, and the secret agent who acts alone to save the world from nuclear destruction”(Yukl, 1989, p.276).

Hence, when studying value-based and neutral use of the term “leadership” in combination, confusion will often arise since leadership is often considered a well-known concept and therefore definitions are often missing in different studies. To sum up, theoretical and practical implications will be outlined in the following.

Theoretical Implications

The discussion calls for a reconsideration of existing theories. *Hence, a major challenge for research is to find a managerial approach which on the substantive level is able to maintain different roles across leadership and management, and on the conceptual level has the possibility to differentiate between soft, hard, and general managerial practices when needed.* A problem seems to be that no term exists that can be used for an objective presentation of general managerial functions without giving associations of one best way. As a consequence, the terms “leadership” and “management” are often used for that purpose without recognizing the fact that for a lot of researchers as well as students these terms have specific meanings which are not at all the same. Seemingly, in an international context it will not be possible to totally reject the concept of leadership as an overall notion, although the term “management” is still frequently used for the same purpose.

A suggestion for further investigation and discussion is the use of leadership as the general concept and the use of roles as a complementary element used for clarification and for later concretization on the substantive level as well. As a part of that, there seems to be a need for further knowledge about what is actually going on in organizations under different circumstances in relation to the substantive level or, more specifically, to what extent different kinds of managerial roles are intertwined and/or

integrated, how this is practiced and which challenges and possibilities it offers. This includes case studies that can provide in-depth knowledge about actual processes in a real-life context.

Inspired by the study and with the use of the Competing Values Model (figure 7) as a reference, a few initial propositions about managerial roles will be outlined in the following:

P.1

A specific organization and the related contingency factors are reflected by certain sets of values followed by a set of managerial roles

With the Competing Values Model as a starting point, at least four broad sets of values are expected to exist in almost any organization (Quinn 1988). Dependent on e.g. sector, organization type, industry, size, organizational climate (Burton 1998), and rationality, the dominance and integration of these competing sets of values are expected to vary

P.2

Common dimensions between values will naturally lead to integration of managerial roles

Some values share dimensions in the Competing Values Model and as a result, some roles are naturally intertwined or integrated (Hooijberg 1996). E.g. a task and a stability function will have the control dimension as a common value, and the people function will have a preference for flexibility in common with the developmental function as well. The same arguments apply to the dimensions of internal and external focus but with other values.

P.3

Distinct value dimensions do not naturally lead to a combination of managerial roles

It is expected to find roles that are combinations of people functions and task functions. The same is true for combinations of adaptive and stability functions. These intertwined roles have no common value dimensions in the model, which indicates that something else must be transpiring. For the same reason it is considered interesting to further investigate these cases, since this could be one of the central keys to a convergence of theories.

P.4

The individual's ability to integrate different values combined with the degree of cooperation and dialog in an organization is critical in relation to intertwining roles.

On the basis of at least four sets of values (in figure 7), an unknown number of managerial roles will arise. Some of these will seem to stem from one specific set of values and will be quite pure in their form, while others will be resting on a combination of different sets of values. The level of individual maturity and the ability to consider things from more than one angle combined with the degree of cooperation reflected by representation of different values are expected to be important for the integration of roles. Investigation of e.g. the degree of managerial teamwork is therefore evaluated as an important factor.

P.5

Values and managerial role sets are related to organizational levels and depend partly on time horizon.

The actual time horizon and the organizational level are expected to influence the dominance of different roles. E.g. a

focus on operating day-to-day can create a role that includes production and stability functions, whereas a people and adaptive function will probably join a focus on strategic long-term decisions.

P.6

Networking and communications roles are managerial roles that are important in relation to the integration of internal and external focus in an organization.

As well as it was concluded in the CPE model that a change-centered role has arisen in the 1980s (Ekvall 1991), the same would probably be found to apply to new and other roles in the 1990s. Changed values in the society and new ways of organizing have to some extent led to new managerial functions. As indicated in section 3, some of the remaining roles in figure 6 reflect a dimension of networking and/or communication.

P.7

Theory development and empirical studies resting on a role approach are easier operationalized when not maintaining the traditional distinction between leadership and management.

Empirical studies including selection of data and the later use of these for theory development call for a role approach, since it is expected to be better at capturing special cases in real life. Members of an organization are expected to be more familiar with different roles than they would be with distinct management and leadership functions, since it is expected that a mixture of many functions be practiced.

Practical Implications

For practitioners the risk of overestimating hard or soft dimensions is always present. Resting on human values and/or habits, it is tempting to do more of the same if this is reflected

by earlier success. At the same time the need for integration and/or intertwinement of different roles is growing as a consequence of increasing requirements for combination and integration of managerial job functions, including new ways of working together within and between organizations. Thus, as indicated above, it seems less promising to separate research on diverse managerial concepts, since development of theory as distinct areas may quite easily affect the performance of related abilities. In other words, the theoretical complexity can modify the practical focus thereby impeding an intertwinement of functions.

It is necessary to investigate the use of managerial roles across leadership and management, as experienced by the managers themselves. Thus examples of relevant questions might be:

- *Which job elements are parts of managers' days in a real-life context?*
- *How and where in the organization are managerial decisions made?*
- *How are decisions communicated in the organization?*
- *To what extent is managerial teamwork used?*
- *To what extent is the company culture related to managerial roles?*
- *To what extent is the organizational level related to managerial roles?*
- *How are role conflicts between managerial roles solved?*
- *Are answers to these questions fundamentally consistent across different kinds of organizations?*

It is expected that on the practical level managers do feel an increasing need for undertaking a more holistic focus on managerial functions, e.g. a prioritization of internal as well as external conditions and a need for stability as well as flexibility.

As a consequence, e.g. in continuation of change projects reflected by creativity and big visions, it might be considered whether stability and training projects focusing on development of skills and routines should be emphasized as a balancing factor. In the same way a focus on soft elements like job satisfaction and the use of emotional intelligence may very well invite for a following focus on efficiency and the use of authority.

Concerning the conceptual level, it can be argued that in a pragmatic discussion the concept related to functions is not a crucial point; however, it is of importance what is done and how it works in different situations, reflected by certain goals. However, whether leadership or management is chosen as a broad concept for managerial functions, it rises certain theoretical implications, as discussed in section 4, which will also be reflected in a practical context.

5. Conclusion

In this paper the development of research on leadership was investigated on the substantive as well as the conceptual level. At the same time, a role perspective has been introduced which to a large extent seems to capture the limitations, e.g. the hidden dichotomy, in splitting up research into leadership and management. Hence, in this paper it was suggested that roles should be further investigated in different kinds of organizations with the purpose of identifying roles, especially those that are mixtures between leadership and management functions. As a part of that, case studies that can gather in-depth knowledge about actual processes in a real-life context are needed.

On the conceptual level, a further discussion of leadership as the general concept was suggested. It is argued that leadership, as a broad concept, should be supplemented by the use of different leadership roles as an element of clarification and later concretization on the substantive level as well. Naturally, neither the conceptual nor the substantive problem can be solved overnight, but awareness is important.

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