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A COMPARISON OF THE CURRENT AND DESIRED MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP
STYLES IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF THE CURRENT AND DESIRED MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP
STYLES IN TURKEY

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Since the early philosophers, leadership has been accepted as one of the most important factor contributing the success and failure of an organization, if not the single most effective one. . Thus, understanding the managerial leadership styles has the potential to provide practical guidelines for use within business at large as well as render new insights to the researchers across the continuum of management science.

The objective of this study is to investigate basic leadership styles within the light of academic literature and compare the ideal and current styles of Turkish managers against the background demographic variables such as gender, age, education, experience, position and organizational variables such as public and private sector dichotomy and services and manufacturing sectors. The basic leadership styles are delined using Ackoff's (1974) classification as interactive, proactive, reactive and inactive.

Findings of the research conducted in İzmir / Turkey, revealed managers' ranking of ideal and current leadership styles at an intra-group and inter-group levels. The moderating effects and the influences of group dynamics are observed and analyzed. Also, these findings indicated significant differences between ideal and current perceived current leadership styles providing useful insights about the leadership styles predominantly employed within the Turkish organizational context.

Keywords : Leadership, Management, Styles

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ YÖNETİCİLER ARASINDA BEKLENEN VE ALGILANAN YÖNETİCİ
LİDERLİK TARZLARININ KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

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Antik çağ felsefecilerinden beri 'liderlik' bir örgütün başarısını veyahut başarısızlığını etkileyen en önemli faktörlerden biri, hatta belki de en önemlisi, olarak kabul edilmiştir. Bu nedenle yönetici liderlik tarzlarını kavramak genel olarak iş hayatına pratik yönlendirici katkıları olma potansiyeli yanında yönetim bilimi ile ilgilenen araştırmacılara da yeni sezgiler sunma imkânı verebilecektir.

Bu araştırmanın amacı akademik yazın ışığında temel liderlik tarzlarını araştırmak, ve Türkiye'deki yönetici profilinin teoride doğru bulduğu (ideal) ve pratikte algıladığı (mevcut durum) liderlik tarzları arasındaki farkları, cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim durumu, iş tecrübesi ve yetki zincirindeki konumu gibi demografik değişkenlere ve özel sektör devlet sektörü ikilemi ile hizmet sektörü imalat sektörü ikilemi gibi örgütsel değişkenlere göre incelemektir. Temel liderlik tarzları Ackof (1974) tarafından geliştirilmiş enteraktif, proaktif, reaktif ve inaktif ismi ile ayrılan dört tarzda sınıflanmıştır.

Türkiye/İzmir'de tamamlanan bu araştırmanın bulguları hem idealde hem de gerçekte algılanan şekli ile ve hem gurup içi hem de guruplar arası seviyede tercih edilen liderlik tarzlarının bir sıralamasını açığa çıkarmıştır. Gurup dinamiklerinin düzenleyici etkileri gözlenmiş ve analiz edilmiştir. Bu bulgular Türkiye'deki örgütler çerçevesinde, ideal de olması gerektiği düşünülen liderlik tarzları ile gerçek durumdaki liderlik tarzları arasında önemli farklılıkları işaret etmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik, Yönetici, Tarzlar

To

Prof. Dr. Alev Katrinli

for making this miracle happen

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INTRODUCTION

Structure of the Study

Chapter One presents a brief survey of the historical evaluation of leadership theory. By tracing the development of different approaches to leadership, the logic of the utilization interactive – proactive – reactive – inactive classification is explained. References to resource dependence, exchange and conflict management theories and the perspective of dialectical coexistence further made to justify the use of four-way classification. This chapter ends with an overview of leadership research on Turkish Managers.

Chapter Two comprises the statement, discussion and analysis of the hypothesis of the research.

In the Third Chapter, research instrument explained and overall characteristics of the collected data are presented. Then statistical tests for each of the hypotheses are conducted and analysis and results presented and explained.

Finally, in the Conclusion Section findings are discussed, limitations and comments for potential future research are explained.

After that, steps remaining to complete the dissertation such as tables, reference list, forms, and appendices are presented.

Significance of the Study

The study is conducted using a questionnaire which aims to measure the basic leadership styles of the participants both on ideal and current dimensions as well as at the individual level and inter group level.

The gap between ideal and current leadership styles is mentioned and analyzed by only a few researchers who conducted qualitative research in an exploratory manner and failed to present any quantitative results.

Also the effect of 'being in a group' to the perceptions of the managers and the differences between individual perceptions represents a weighty perspective which might shed deep insights concerning management styles.

Assumptions on the Definitions of Some Terms in Use

Although many theoreticians, academicians and researchers, including the writer of this research, differentiate the concepts of management and leadership, within the conceptualization of this study, they are assumed to carry the same meaning and used interchangeably. Also, the terms strategy and style attributed to the leaders and managers are used interchangeably.

Short coding of the variables employed for SPSS which are being used in some of the tables are as follows:

IDINTINT	Ideal , interactive , intra-group leadership style
IDPROINT	Ideal , proactive , intra-group leadership style
IDREAINT	Ideal , reactive , intra-group leadership style
IDIKFINT	Ideal , inactive , intra-group leadership style
CUINTINT	Current , interactive , intra-group leadership style
CUPROINT	Current , proactive , intra-group leadership style
CUREAINT	Current , reactive , intra-group leadership style
CUIKFINT	Current , inactive , intra-group leadership style
IDINTEXT	Ideal , interactive , inter-group leadership style
IDPROEXT	Ideal , proactive , inter-group leadership style
IDREAEXT	Ideal , reactive , inter-group leadership style
IDIKFEXT	Ideal , inactive , inter-group leadership style
CUINTEXT	Current , interactive , inter-group leadership style
CUPROEXT	Current , proactive , inter-group leadership style
CUREAEXT	Current , reactive , inter-group leadership style
CUIKFEXT	Current , inactive , inter-group leadership style

Chapter I

**THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP AND THE THEORETICAL
CONSTRUCT OF THE STUDY**

**1.1 The Evolution and the Scope of the Basic Leadership
Theories**

Leadership is one of the most complex and multifaceted
phenomena on which a considerable volume of organizational and
psychological research has been conducted (Sadler, 1998). With
over 2,000 books and 1,000 articles written per year on the topic,
each with a different perspective, one can easily claim that
Leadership is a thoroughly understood and analyzed subject.
However, in fact, it still remains a highly ambiguous and elusive
subject. Moreover, a conceptual basis for the professional language
and terminology is missing. Stogdill (1974) states that there are
almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are

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persons who have attempted to define the concept. A modest search on the internet revealed more than 250 different models for leadership. Rost (1991), after thorough research, stated that more than 60% of the works that referred to leadership specified no definition of any kind. Likewise, Hunt (1999) noted the criticisms which included the belief that the number of un-integrated leadership models, prescriptions, and the like are baffling; much of the research is fragmentary, unrealistic, trivial, or dull; and the results are characterized by contradictions (Marion & Uhl-Bien 2001).

Leadership theories vary even on the basic understanding of the concept. Some understand it as economic success, others power, others manipulating people and yet others search for a super-human equipped with the secrets of Zen or other Himalayan teachings. Focus has been made on traits, behaviors, roles, characters, styles, knowledge, charisma, environment, situation and followers. Despite the valuable contributions of all these theories to the understanding of the subject, they failed to integrate the concept into a common perspective.

An evolutionary developmental perspective can create an evolutionary tree of leadership theory and reveal the path along which it has evolved (Van Seters & Field 1990).

The first phase can be described as the "personality era" (Sadler, 1998), dated, in terms of serious scientific work, conducted at 1920s and 1930s. This era has been subdivided into two periods by Van Seters & Field (1990): the 'Great Man Period' and 'Trait Period'. Great man approach focuses on successful leaders in history and on their personalities, studying their lives and

patterns of conduct and thus emulate them. On the other hand, traits approach focuses on leader traits – characteristics that might be used to differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The intent was to isolate traits that leaders possessed and non-leaders did not. Some of the traits studied included physical stature, appearance, social class, emotional stability, fluency of speech, and sociability. Researchers who seek to formulate the great man approach suffered for not being able to formulate a standard leader type. World's most effective leaders displayed widely different personal qualities. Moreover, studying such a person is one thing, being able to copy one of these would be another altogether. On the other hand, despite the best efforts of researchers who seek to formulate common traits of leaders, it proved impossible to identify one set of traits that would always differentiate leaders from non-leaders. However, later attempts to identify traits which might consistently relate to leadership effectiveness, managed to locate seven traits which are; drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, job-relevant knowledge and extraversion (Kirkpatrick & Locke 1991). Still, researchers agree that traits alone are not sufficient for identifying effective leaders since explanations based solely on traits ignored the interactions of leaders and their group members as well as situational factors. Possessing the appropriate traits only made it more likely that an individual would be an effective leader (Robbins & Coulter 2007). Furthermore, there is no widespread agreement on exact definition of these traits, or the degree of their presence.

The second phase of the evolution of the leadership theories is characterized as the 'Influence Era'. This approach takes the understanding of leadership as a process involving relationships basically between leader and follower. In fact, the only common factor between leaders and followers seem to be the "dyadic supervisor/subordinate relationship (Yammarino, 1995)" or as Barker puts it; "man at the top" and "how this dyadic form is manifested". Barker (2001) believes that the origin of this belief may be originated from "feudal leader-follower" paradigm (Barker 2001). Generally, perspectives have primarily focused on leadership as 'manager – subordinate' exchanges under the conditions which are already "being organized" (Hosking & Morley 1988, Uhl-Bien 2006). Later this influencing approach shifted to persuasion relationships instead of power relationships.

The third phase emerged as a new approach by focusing on what leaders actually do – looking at typical leader behavior patterns and differences in behavior between effective and ineffective leaders. The most well-known researches on behavior theories are conducted by Iowa, Ohio State and Michigan Universities, conducted from late 1940s to the mid-1960s. The University of Iowa located three leadership styles (Lippitt, 1940) namely; autocratic style, democratic style and laissez-faire style. First style describes centralized authority, unilateral decision making and limited employee participation. Second style describes employee involvement in decision making, delegating authority and encouraging participation. And third style gave the group members complete freedom to make decisions and complete the work in whatever way they saw fit. Although in general, democratic style seemed to

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contribute to both quality and quantity of work, there was a good deal of contradictory results which necessitated different approaches and perspectives. The Ohio State University studies identified two important dimensions of leader behavior (Stogdill & Coons, 1951). Initiating structure involves organizing work, work relationships, and defining roles of group members for goal attainment. Consideration structure is characterized by mutual trust and respect for group members' ideas and feelings. Similarly University of Michigan studies came up with two dimensions which they labeled employee oriented and production oriented (Kahn & Katz, 1960). Employee oriented leaders are described as emphasizing interpersonal relationships; they took a personal interest in the needs of their followers and accepted individual differences among group members. Production oriented leaders, in contrast, focuses to the technical aspects of the job and is concerned mainly with accomplishing their group's task. The difference between Ohio State and Michigan studies is that the former regards the two dimensions of leadership as independent while the latter treats them as dependent. These findings, later, were adapted and applied in industry, most notably by Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1984) as a tool in leadership development. Research confirmed that, in accordance with Ohio State findings, a leader who was high in both dimensions produced more effective results. However enough exceptions were found to indicate that perhaps situational factors needed to be integrated into leadership theory.

Thus, phase four has been labeled as the 'Situation Era', in which researchers focused on the context in which leadership is being exercised (Sadler, 1998). There are three subdivisions of

this era: the 'Environmental Period' focuses on how leaders emerge in the right place at the right time to meet the needs of the hour: the 'Social Status Period' looked at the leaders' and Subordinates' mutual expectations of their behavior: and the 'Socio-Technical Period' brought the environmental and social influences together (Krohs 2008).

The fifth phase; 'Contingency Era' has been considered as a major advance in the evolution of leadership theory. For the first time it was recognized that leadership was not found in any of pure, one-dimensional forms discussed previously, but rather contained elements of them all. In essence, effective leadership was contingent or dependent on one or more of the factors of behavior, personality, influence and situation. Among the most important contributors to this advance were Fiedler, Hersey-Blanchard, Vroom-Yetton, and House. The Fiedler Contingency Model proposed that effective group performance depended upon proper match between leader's style (either task oriented or relationship oriented) and the situational factors measured along the dimensions such as leader-member relations, task structure and position power (Fiedler, 1967). Because Fiedler (1967) treated an individual's leadership style as fixed, there were only two ways to improve leader effectiveness: first, to bring a new leader whose style better fit the situation, and second, change the situation to fit the leader, like; restructuring tasks and/or increasing or decreasing the positional power of the leader. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory is a contingency theory which argues that successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style (telling, selling, participating,

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delegating) which is contingent on the level of the follower's readiness (Hersey & Blanchard, 2001). Vroom & Yetton's Leader Participating Model (1973), argued that leader behavior must adjust to reflect the task structure – whether it was routine, non-routine, or in between. It also expands upon the decision making contingencies like decision significance, importance of commitment, leader expertise, likelihood of commitment, group support, group expertise and team competence. After assessing all these contingencies the most effective leadership style (decide, consult individually, consult group, facilitate, delegate) is identified. Finally path-Goal Theory, developed by Robert House (1996), takes key elements from the expectancy theory of motivation and states that it is the leader's job to assist his or her followers in attaining their goals and to provide the direction or support needed to ensure that their goals are compatible with the overall objectives of the organization.

The sixth phase is called 'Transactional – Transformational Leadership' which introduced the idea that leadership resides not only in the person or the situation but also in the role differentiation and social interaction. Within this context, the importance of transactions between leaders and subordinates and the leader's role in initiating and sustaining interaction (Bass 1990) together with the attention directed to the concerns and developmental needs of individual followers accepted as the determining factor. Thus Transactional Leaders change followers' awareness of issues by helping those followers look at old problems in new ways; and they are able to excite, arouse, and inspire

followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals (Bass & Riggio 2006).

The seventh phase grouped four periods. First is the 'Role Development Period' which refers specifically to the relative roles of leader and subordinate and suggests that leadership can sometimes reside in the subordinate rather than the leader (Kellerman 2007). Fletcher (2004), in an extensive study, resumes a commonly called "post-heroic" stance and views Leadership in a different way from Management's top-down mechanistic thinking. Although Fletcher still accepts the leader as the person at the top, this position is sustained by larger forces, and numerous acts of enabling and facilitating that make up the collaborative subtext of what is often mistakenly labeled "individual" achievement (Fletcher 2004). This approach also been emphasized by McIntosh (1989), who calls the leaders "merely tips of icebergs", and Drath (2001), who described them as whitecaps in the deep blue sea. Second period is the 'Anti Leadership Era' which claim that there is possibly no valid concept called leadership (Washbush 2005). This era fell into the 'Ambiguity Period' which argued that leadership existed only as a perception in the mind of the observer (Phillips & Lord 1981). And finally 'substitute Period' which focused on ways in which characteristics of the task and of the organization could act as substitutes for leadership in affecting performance (Howell et. al. 1986).

The eighth phase is called "Culture Era", which speculates that leadership is not perhaps a phenomenon of the individual, the dyad, or even the small group, but rather is omnipotent in the

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culture of the entire organization (Van Seters & Field 1990). If a leader can create a strong culture in an organization, employees will lead themselves (Manz & Sims 1987). After all, when values are clear and widely accepted, employees know what they're supposed to do and what is expected of them so they can act quickly to take care of problems, thus preventing any potential performance decline (Robbins & Coulter 2007). An increasing body of evidence suggests that strong cultures are associated with high organizational performance (Sorensen 2002). However the drawback is that the same strong culture also might prevent from trying new approaches, especially during periods of rapid change. That is where formal leadership is needed to change the existing culture and create a new culture (Schein 1985).

The ninth phase is the 'Organizational Change Era' which is the latest and most promising one in the evolutionary development of leadership theory. Here the focus is on leader behavior during periods of organizational transition and on processes such as creating visions of a desired future state and obtaining employee commitment to change especially during the conditions containing high degrees of uncertainty and stress. This phase contains 'Charismatic Leadership', 'Visionary Leadership', and 'Team Leadership'. A charismatic leader is been described as an enthusiastic, self-confident leader whose personality and actions influence people to behave in certain ways (Crant & Bateman 2000). Indeed, there is an increasing body of evidence that shows impressive correlations between charismatic leadership and high performance and satisfaction among followers (Conger & Kanungo 1998). Charismatic Leadership may be most appropriate when the

followers' task has an ideological purpose or when the environment involves high degree of stress and uncertainty (House and Aditya 1997). Visionary Leadership, on the other hand, goes beyond charisma since it's the ability to create and articulate a realistic, credible, and attractive vision of the future that improves upon the present situation. This vision, if properly selected and implemented, is so energizing that it "in effect jump-starts the future by calling forth the skills, talents, and resources to make it happen" (Nanus 1992). Finally, team leadership constitutes skills such as having the patience to share information (Stekler & Fondas 1995), being able to trust others and to give up authority, and understanding when to intervene (Robbins & Coulter 2007).

1.2 The Theoretical Construct of the Basic Leadership Styles

In management literature ideas on leadership vary greatly among the spectrum where on one side the omnipotent views prevail and on other side the symbolic views are accepted. While it has been generally accepted that leadership is among the most important factors that determine the success of an organization, a leader's ability to affect outcomes is also influenced and constrained by internal and external factors. It should be noted, however, that these environmental constraints are not rigid and permanent structures which cannot be changed; leaders can and do influence their environment. Emery and Trist (1965) stated that "the environmental contexts in which organizations exist are themselves

changing". Leaders, in relation with the environment, assume different styles. These styles are largely determined on the basis of exchange relationships. Exchange relationships, in turn, are embedded in the wider context of social structures, and shaped by resource availability and necessity. Thus, the power of micro-units within exchange networks to access these resources is to some degree the function of macro-social structures (Zafirovski 2005). Social structure, nevertheless, should not be viewed as a fixed set of rules. Rather it is a dynamic process in which stable and predictable patterns are continually redefined and altered to fit the changing conditions of each situation (Perry & Perry 2006).

Figure 1: THEORETICAL BASES OF THE RESEARCH
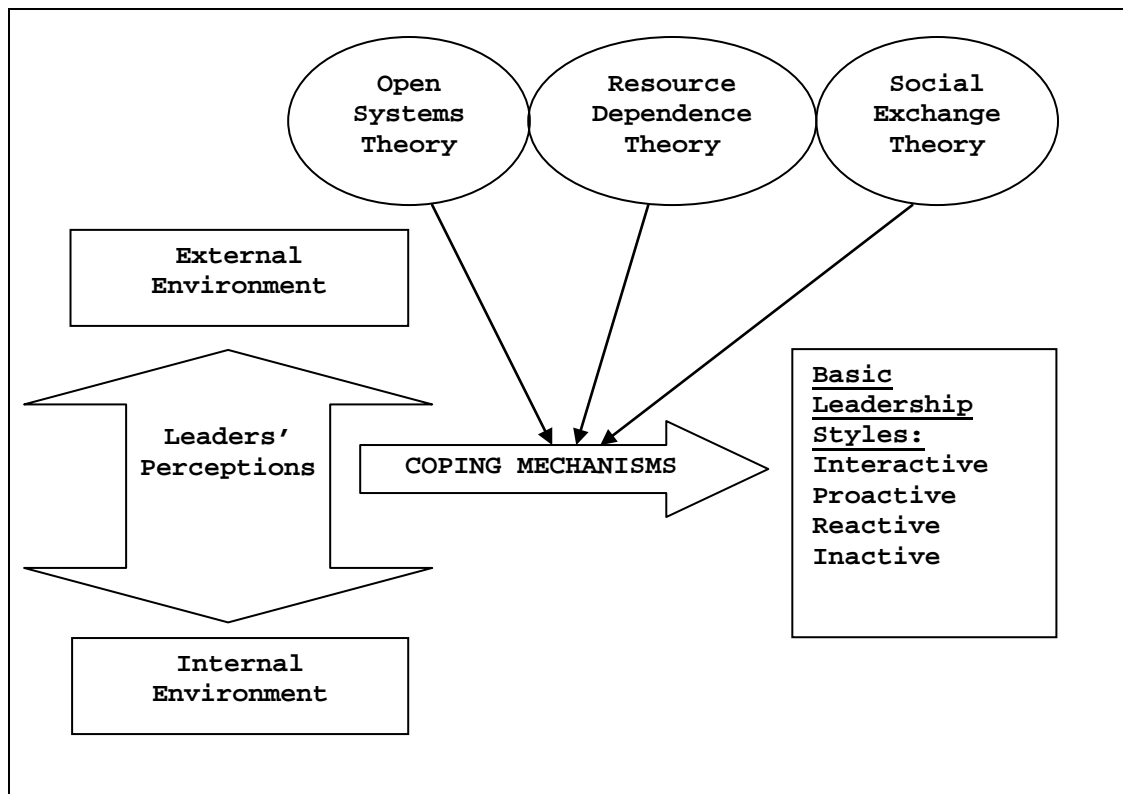
Assuming leaders as "actors" whether acting for themselves and/or on behalf of an organization, their relationships with the environment which is embedded in the social structures can be analyzed in greater detail by referring to open systems theory, resource dependence perspective, exchange theory perspective, and, last but not least, resource utilization perspective.

1.3 Understanding Contiguity of the Environment and the Leader: Open Systems Thinking

Designers of mechanisms tended to get their conception of the whole by assembling analyses of parts. Since then designers increasingly tend to develop their conception of the parts by decomposing their conception of the whole. This orientation has come to be known as the systems point of view (Churchman 1968). The first steps in systems theory were taken in connection with the analysis of internal processes in organisms, or organizations, which involved relating parts to the whole. Most of these problems could be dealt with through closed-system models. The next steps were taken when wholes had to be related to their environments. This led to open-system models, such as that introduced by Bertalanffy (1950), involving a general transport equation (Emery and Trist 1965).

Emery and Trist (1965) claim that, in a general way, to think in terms of systems seems the most appropriate conceptual response so far available when the phenomena under study—at any level and in

any domain—display the character of being organized, and when understanding the nature of the interdependencies and resulting relationships constitutes the research task. In contradiction to physical objects, an organization, or an "actor" survives by importing into itself certain types of material from its environment, transforming these in accordance with its own system characteristics, and exporting other types back into the environment. By this process the organism obtains the additional energy that renders it ''negentropic'' (Emery and Trist 1965).

The "negative entropy", or acquired energy from the environment, is determined and regulated not only by the availability of the resources at the environment but also the attitudes of the "actor" too. Ackoff (1971) describes an open system as one that has an environment, and further classifies open systems in accordance with their relationships with their environment. "State maintaining" systems basically "react" to changes. Although they react differently to different external or internal events, reaction is in only one way, and the purpose is to produce the same state (outcome). A state-maintaining system must be able to discriminate between different internal or external states to changes in which it reacts. Such systems are necessarily adaptive, but they are not capable of learning because they cannot choose their behavior. They cannot improve with experience. On the other hand, a "goal-seeking" system is one that can respond differently to one or more different external or internal events in one or more different external or internal states and that can respond differently to a particular event in an unchanging environment until it produces a particular state (outcome).

Production of this state is its goal. Thus such a system has a choice of behavior. A state which is sufficient and thus deterministically causes a reaction cannot cause different reactions in the same environment. Under constant conditions a goal-seeking system may be able to accomplish the same thing in different ways and it may be able to do so under different conditions. If it has memory, it can increase its efficiency over time in producing the outcome that is its goal. The metabolic process in living things is a similar type of sequence the goal of which is acquisition of energy or, more generally, survival. Production processes are a similar type of sequence whose goal is a particular type of product. Process behavior displayed by a system may be either reactive, or responsive, or active.

These "process behaviors" constitute the subject of this research.

1.4 Leaders and Their Relationships with the Environment: Resource Dependence Perspective

The concept of the "resource dependence perspective" gained public awareness through the book by Jeffrey Pfeffer and Gerald Salancik (1978)"*The External Control of Organizations. A Resource Dependence Perspective*" and became widely accepted. As Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) state, "to understand the behavior of an organization you must understand the context of that behavior—that is, the ecology of the organization." Pfeffer (1982) explains the basis of the resource dependence perspective and exchange relations stating that to understand inter-organizational exchange relations

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one should look at the organizations. These organizations are not isolated islands, but function in a complex web constituted by other organizations. Thus exchange relations occur everywhere at every level. Actors and organizations take actions to manage exchange relations and resulting interdependencies. These actions are largely moderated by reciprocal power differentials of the actors and inevitably affect the behaviors of those actors and organizations. This perspective, as well as its proposition that organizations must respond to the external environment, has reached near-axiom-like status in organizational theory and strategic management (Hillman et al 2009).

Pfeffer & Salancik (2003) criticize the point that the importance of the environment was always emphasized but most theories concentrated on internal processes of resource use instead of considering processes about gaining resources (Pfeffer & Salancik 2003). Resource dependence theory postulates that the environment provides "critical" resources needed by the organization. However, resource dependence theory does not argue that the environment and dependency on critical resources directly influence organizational behavior behind the backs of actors involved. Rather, it makes assumptions about actors and their relation to the environment: the theory assumes bounded rationality which takes into account "the limits in formulating and solving complex problems and in processing (receiving, storing, retrieving, transmitting) information" (Simon 1957). At the same time, one can assume that organizations strive to reduce or avoid uncertainty. The environment is the central source of uncertainty. The extent of uncertainty varies depending on the distribution of critical

resources in the environment. Pfeffer & Salancik (2003) interpret uncertainty and those environmental dimensions causing it in terms of resource scarcity and their low concentration as well as complexity in an action theory way: it is always about actors who control resources and about other actors who need these resources which result in varying relationships of dependency. If one organization exists with a vast reserve of resources, this reduces the dependency on and conflicts with other actors. Concentration of resources means above all concentration of power. The fewer the number of resources, the higher the concentration of power in the environment, and the more numerous the connections between actors (i.e. complexity), the sooner conflicts and interdependencies arise and the higher the amount of uncertainty that needs to be reduced. Uncertainty on its own is not a problem. Only when there is uncertainty and dependence on critical resources, the organization is forced to take measures to reduce uncertainty. On the one hand, the environment constrains actions in an objective way by the amount of available resources. On the other hand, the distribution of resources in the environments has to be subjectively perceived and interpreted by managers. Thus the composition of boards reflects the composition of critical resources needed for the organization's survival (Clegg et al., 1998, Nienhuser 2008).

According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) the elemental structural characteristics of environments are concentration, the extent to which power and authority in the environment are widely dispersed; munificence, or the availability or scarcity of critical resources; and interconnectedness, the number and pattern of linkages, or connections, among organizations. These structural

characteristics, in turn, determine the relationships among social actors – specifically, the degree of conflict and interdependence present in the social system. Conflict and interdependence, in turn, determine the uncertainty the organization confronts (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978).

Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) determined three factors that influenced the level of dependence organizations had on particular resources. First, the overall importance of the resource to the firm was critical in determining the resource dependence of the firm. Second, the scarcity of the resource was also a factor. The scarcer a resource was the more dependent the firm became. Finally, another factor influencing resource dependence was the competition between organizations for control of that resource. Together, all three factors acted to influence the level of dependence that an organization had for a particular resource.

The External Control of Organizations covered a lot of territory, from the internal power struggles among individuals and departments … to industry-level dynamics. But the most widely-used aspects of the theory outlined in *External Control* analyze the sources and consequences of power in inter-organizational relations: where power and dependence come from, and how those that run organizations use their power and manage their dependence. There are three core ideas of the theory: (1) social context matters; (2) organizations have strategies to enhance their autonomy and pursue interests; and (3) power (not just rationality or efficiency) is important for understanding internal and external actions of organizations. The emphasis on power, and a careful

articulation of the explicit repertoires of tactics available to organizations, is a hallmark of resource dependence theory that distinguishes it from other approaches, such as transaction cost economics.

1.5 Conceptualization of Power in Terms of Resources and Their Exchange: Exchange Theory Perspective

Exchange theory is based on the assumption that social interaction is an exchange of activity, tangible and intangible, particularly of rewards and costs (Homans 1961, Zafirovski 2005). This exchange of benefits has been accepted as the underlying basis of human behavior. And these behaviors permeate all social life (Coleman, 1990, Zafirowski 2005). Social exchange is composed of actions of purposive actors that actively seek their interests and resources that are vital for their existence. Thus social exchange theory typically conceptualizes power in terms of resources and their exchanges. Specifically, they treat power as a derivative of unreciprocated exchange transactions in respect of 'resources'. While assuming that social bonds result from reciprocated benefactions, they see unilateral services are the ultimate source of differentiation in power (and status) (Zafirowski 2005). Therefore exchange theory's key insight is the association between power and dependence. Judging from the frequent occurrence of such words as power, influence, dominance and submission, status and authority, the importance of power is widely recognized, yet considerable confusion exists concerning these concepts. While establishing the meaning of these concepts it seems plausible that

the most important point to consider is the relational base. Emerson (1962) directly refers to this point and explains that to say that an actor "has power" is vacant, unless one specifics "over whom." In making these necessary qualifications it is necessary to face up to the obvious: power is a property of the social relation; it is not an attribute of the actor. The basic assumption of exchange theory states that individuals establish and continue social relations on the basis of their expectations that such relations are necessary to reach the expected benefits. The initial incentive for social interaction assumed to be provided by the exchange of benefits, intrinsic and extrinsic, independently of normative obligations (Blau, 1994). This simultaneous generation of social bonds and power differentiation is called the paradox of social exchange and this process of power differentiation has social structural effects like asymmetries in relations between members of different groups, as superiority in group resources is transmitted into the superior prestige of individuals accruing to them by membership independently of personal factors (Blau, 1994). This way, by generating such payoffs, exchange transactions institutionalize or pattern social interaction (Cook et al., 1990). In an extension of this model, exchange networks meet individual needs and cause or constrain the emergence of social structures--rather than vice versa--by producing differentiation among individuals and groups on the basis of asymmetrical access to valuable resources like wealth, power, prestige, or privilege (Cook, 1990). Arguably, the nature of network connections--positive, negative and mixed--and resource scarcity by virtue of being factors altering dependency relations determine the locus of power in exchange networks. This perspective has become known as

the "power-dependence theory of Emerson" (Molm and Peterson, 1999). Emerson (1969), by analyzing in detail the "reciprocal power dependence relations" focused upon properties of balance and "balancing operations" in such relations and the concept of exchange ratio or balance-imbalance, leading to the concepts of power, dependence, and cohesion, which is implied in the attribute of reciprocal reinforcements. Emerson (1969) states that;

> "*The inverse association between power and dependence characterizes their relations, so (non)reciprocity in the latter generates the problem of (in) equality or (a)symmetry in power*" *(Emerson, 1962)*.

By virtue of mutual dependency, it is more or less imperative that each party must be able to control or influence the other's conduct. At the same time, these ties of mutual dependence imply that each party is in a position, to some degree, to grant or deny, facilitate or hinder the other's gratification. Thus, it would appear that the power to control or influence the other resides in control over the things he values, which may range all the way from oil resources to ego-support, depending upon the relation in question. In short, power resides implicitly in the other's dependency. When this is recognized, the analysis will, of necessity, revolve largely around the concept of dependence (Emerson 1962). The dependence of an actor upon another actor is directly proportional to the first actor's motivational investment in goals mediated by the other, and inversely proportional to the availability of those goals to the first actor outside of the relation. In this proposition, "goal" is used in the broadest possible sense to refer to gratifications consciously sought as well as rewards unconsciously obtained through the relationship.

The "availability" of such goals outside of the relation refers to alternative avenues of goal-achievement, most notably other social relations. The costs associated with such alternatives must be included in any assessment of dependency. If the dependence of one party provides the basis for the power of the other, that power must be defined as a potential influence. The power of an actor over another actor is the amount of resistance on the part of second actor which can be potentially overcome by first actor. The notion of reciprocity in power-dependency relations raises the question of equality or inequality of power in the relation. If the power of an actor over another actor is confronted by equal opposing power of the second actor over the first, is power then neutralized or cancelled out? We suggest that in such a balanced condition, power is in no way removed from the relationship. A pattern of "dominance" might not emerge in the interaction among these actors, but that does not imply that power is inoperative in either or both directions. Balance does not neutralize power, for each party may continue to exert profound control over the other. It might even be meaningful to talk about the parties being controlled by the relation itself.

Power imbalance is defined by Casciaro and Piskorski (2005) as "the power differential between two organizations" and mutual dependence to capture the "sum of their dependencies" suggesting that these different dimensions of interdependence affect relationships through unique mechanisms allowing examination of the reciprocal nature of dependency (Hillman et al. 2009). Hillman et al. cites empirical findings of various researchers (Elg, 2000; Goes & Park, 1997; Stearns, Hoffman, & Heide, 1987) which confirm

the use of exchange relationships to reduce domestic and international environmental complexity and gain resources. Interdependence on exchange relationships has been studied by Ozcan and Eisenhardt (2009) and a multilateral and socially constructed perspective has been presented. They provide evidence that "executives can proactively create a vision of interdependence (i.e., industry architecture) that is unique and advantageous to multiple types of firms" (Ozcan & Eisenhardt, 2009, Hillman et al. 2009). Further extension of interdependencies across multiple networks has been suggested by Lomi and Pattison (2006)and, Bae and Gargiulo (2004). They find that organizations may use a network of inter-organizational relationships to gain power and access resources. As mentioned above Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) also stated that "*the organization, through political mechanisms, attempts to create for itself an environment that is better for its interest*" and that "*organizations may use political means to alter the condition of the external economic environment.*" They find that when managers perceive one environmental dependency as difficult, they purposefully seek those directors who have the best ability to manage this interdependence. Thus we can conclude that whether we call it environmental dependence theory, or resource dependence theory or resource based view of the firm, focus is on resources and how organizations obtain competitive advantage by obtaining those valuable and rare resources from the external environment. Also from these theories, we gain insights on how organizations specify resource needs from an internally focused perspective and how organizations obtain these resources from an externally focused perspective (Hillman et al 2009). A synthesized approach may offer

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insight into the basic strategies of leaders in reference to these perspectives.

1.6 Classification of Leadership Styles by Extreme Polarization of Behaviors

The importance of enhancing the skill for managing and containing social relationships and conflict has been emphasized by various scholars (Vickers 1968). A study sponsored by AMA (American Management Association), found that chief executive officers, vice-presidents, and middle managers spend about %18, %21, and %26 of their time, respectively, in dealing with conflict (Thomas and Schmidt 1976). They rated relationship and conflict management as equal to or slightly higher in importance than the topics taught in AMA programs which include planning, communication, motivation and decision making (Rahim 1992). Managing relationships may be handled with various styles of behavior. Mary P. Follet (1940), one of the most early and prominent writers about management, found three basic ways of managing relationships: domination, compromise, and integration. She also mentioned other ways of managing relationships and conflict in organizations, such as avoidance and suppression. Blake and Mouton (1964) first presented a conceptual scheme for classifying the modes or strategies for handling relationships into five styles: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. These styles are based on the attitudes of the manager; concern for production and concern for people. This conceptualization has been reinterpreted by Thomas (1976) by

considering the intentions of a party (cooperativeness – assertiveness) in classifying the styles of handling relationships. Using a conceptualization similar to Blake an Mouton (1964) and Thomas (1976), Rubin and Brown (1975), differentiated these styles on two basic dimensions, concern for self and concern for others. Studies by Ruble and Thomas (1976), and Van de Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) yielded general support for these dimensions. And all these studies are consistent with the contemporary theories of leadership in organizations: Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory of leadership, House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership, and Vroom and Yetton's (1973) normative theory of leadership. According to these theories, there is no one best style for dealing with different situations effectively. Whether a particular leadership style or strategy is appropriate depends on the situation.

Whether we call it management styles or management strategies, one wonders about the coping mechanisms in which an actor, whether a person or a team or an organization, should adopt given various environmental or structural conditions. It may be inappropriate, therefore, for us to examine the relationship between environment and the actor without examining the strategy choices made by the very same actor (Anderson & Paine 1975). The word Strategy is a borrowed term from the military. The origin of this term is the Greek strategia, meaning the art of war. Within its original context, it was simply understood as a military means to political ends (Sun Tzu, 1981, Chaharbaghi 2007).

One of the first known applications of strategy to business occurred when Socrates consoled Nichomachides, a Greek militarist who lost an election to the position of general to Antisthenes, a

Greek businessman (Bracker 1980). Socrates compared the duties of a general and a businessman and showed Nichomachides that in either case one plans the use of one's resources to meet objectives. This viewpoint was lost, for all practical purposes, with the fall of the Greek city-states and was not to rise again until after the Industrial Revolution. The need for a concept of strategy related to business became greater after World War II, as business moved from a relatively stable environment into a more rapidly changing and competitive environment. Ansoff (1969) has attributed this change in environment to two significant factors: (1) the marked acceleration in the rate of change within firms, and (2) the accelerated application of science and technology to the process of management. The accelerated rate of change put a premium on the ability to anticipate change, to take advantage of new opportunities, and to take timely action in avoiding threats to the firm. New technologies spurred interest in and acceptance of analytic and explicit approaches to decision making that increased management's ability to deal with the increasingly uncertain future (Bracker 1980). In fact, the primary task of a manager has been described, above all, as to make decisions (Brousseau 2006). At any moment in any day, most executives are engaged in some aspect of decision making: exchanging information, reviewing data, coming up with ideas, evaluating alternatives, implementing directives, following up. But while managers at all levels must play the role of decision maker, the way a manager approaches the decision-making process changes in reference to the way he or she perceives the environment and very organization he or she belongs. An environmental or situational analysis is used to determine a firm's posture in its field, and then the firm's resources are utilized in

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an appropriate manner to attain its major goals. Strategic management is the direct organizational application of the concepts of business strategy that have been developed in the academic realm. That is, strategic management entails the analysis of internal and external environments of a firm to maximize the utilization of resources in relation to objectives. This statement can be considered as a macro definition of the concept of business strategy, or strategic management (Bracker 1980, Porter 1996).

After Porter (1996) a search for "fit" between external environment and internal capabilities become the norm. This approach, by simplifying the schematic view, made possible to group and classify the possible strategies (or styles). A considerable volume of existing terminologies and typologies can be regrouped for analyzing these styles from different perspectives.

Systems thinker Russel Ackof (1974), who first introduced the leadership styles, under the title of "planning", addressing them as "primary colors", in "*Redesigning The Future: A systems Approach To Societal Problems*" (1974), as "inactivism, reactivism, preactivism and interactivism" and argue that under different conditions each may be best. (Although Ackoff uses the term "preactivism", the imposed meaning is exactly in accordance with the word "proactivism" which is commonly used in this study.)

As the name implies, Ackoff takes inactivists as defenders of status quo seeking stability and survival and want-what-they-get instead of get-what-they-want. They are satisfied with the way things are and the way they are going. They take a do-nothing posture; they try to "ride with the tide" without "rocking the

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boat" (Ackoff 1974). They face the pressures of change as an annoyance to be dealt with. They do not believe in planning, not even in problem solving. Thus "instead of simply adjusting means to ends, ends are chosen that are appropriate to nearly available means" (Hirschman & Lindblom 1969). A great deal of activity becomes necessary to keep things as they are and avoid change. This approach makes organizational structure highly mechanistic and makes leadership highly autocratic. All important decisions should be made at the upper levels of management and disseminate downward. Attempts for upward communication are discouraged. Ackoff points to an important functional structure typical to inactivist strategy: they are heavily inclined to set up committees, councils, commissions, study groups, task forces, etc. in which discussions can go on indefinitely. Responsibilities and authority is deliberately kept vague and insignificant. They are understaffed and underfinanced. Hence their impact is kept at a minimum.

Unlike inactivists who are inclined to "ride with the tide", Ackoff views reactivists as "trying to swim against the tide, back to a familiar shore". They are more "panacea-prone problem solvers", not planners. Their orientation is remedial, not visionary or inspirational. They try to avoid the undesirable rather than attain the desirable therefore complexity itself poses a threat for them. They try to reduce complex problems to simple problems and thus search for simple "tried and true" solutions. This orientation makes them value common sense, intuition, and judgment based on long experience. And this in turn makes them

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value seniority and age and allocate status and responsibility accordingly.

Ackoff approaches preactivism on the basis of "predict and prepare" approach. Preactivists plan for the future; they do not plan the future itself. They want to optimize on this predicted future. They attempt to identify and deal with problems before they become serious, if possible, before they arise. This is the reason why preactive (proactive) approach is concentrated on forecasts, projections and other more scientific, technological and logical methodology and see planning as a sequence of discrete steps. Therefore, they are on the other end of the approach to problems in comparison to reactive approach which values the human touch. Preactive decision makers and planners think of the system as resources and capabilities which the same system controls. This orientation of internal resources and capabilities direct their decision making and planning more competitive and directive. Using the metaphor mentioned above, Ackoff, concludes that, "preactivists seek neither to ride with the tide nor to buck it, but to ride in front of it and get to where it is going before it does, and in this way, they believe, they can take advantage of new opportunities before others get to them".

Interactivists are idealizers, concludes Ackoff. They plan to do better in the future than the best that presently appears to be possible. Thus, they try to "create" the desired future, not merely exploit opportunities. Again using Ackoff's metaphor; "*Interactivists desire neither to resist, to ride with, nor ride ahead of the tide, they try to redirect it*" (Ackoff 1974).

Therefore they require continuous reformulation in light of what has been learned. They try to design the implementation of every decision as an experiment that tests its effectiveness and that of the process by which it was reached. Hence experimentation replaces experience wherever possible. The most important point to consider in the interactivist approach is its perception of competition and its relationships with the environment. Interactivists try to induce cooperative changes in environing systems. This cooperative approach is based on the assumption that both the actor and environment has the resources and capacities, and that effective and coordinated utilization of these resources makes the desired future possible. Interactivist approach takes a unifying approach to the dilemma between technology and human touch. They treat science and humanities as two aspects of one culture, not as two separate cultures.

Ackoff (1974) summarizes appropriateness these four approaches simply as follows; if the external dynamics of a system is taking one where one wants to go and is doing so quickly, inactivism is appropriate. If the direction is right (or simply uncontrollable) and the movement is too slow, preactivism is appropriate. If the change is taking one where one does not want to go and one prefers to stay where one is or was, reactivism is appropriate. However, if one is not willing to settle for the past, the present, or the future that appears likely now, interactivism is the appropriate style. Ackoff emphasizes the importance of interactivist approach, by accusing the other styles as retrospective; preoccupied with identifying and removing deficiencies in the past. Retrospective approach, Ackoff states,

moves from what one does not want, rather than toward what one wants. Thus, it is like driving by looking backwards which gives no control over where one is going. Instead he proposes a prospective posture which is formulated in interactive strategy (style).

A similar systems approach based on resource dependence, which conceptualized the basic leadership styles as inactive, reactive, proactive and interactive describe these styles in graphical representations.

Dilber and Alpay (1985) presents "system model" as a foundation which can be used to analyze a system. It is constructed around one concept: In a relationship, the relation of one side (system) to the other side (environment) is largely dependent on the perception of resources of self and the resources of the other.

The system's perception of own resources can be demonstrated graphically. A – C line represents the system. "A" indicates the point where the system puts the high value to its own resources. The line declines to the point "C" where the system does not value its own resources.

Figure 2: DESCRIPTION OF THE STYLES: FIRST LINE REPRESENTING
THE SYSTEM
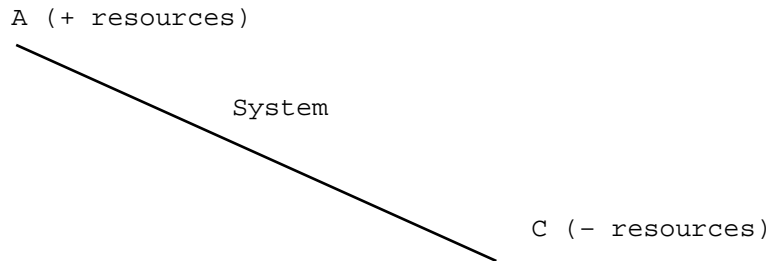
A (+ resources)

System

C (- resources)

Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,
NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

Second line (B – D) represents the environmental component
which is in relation to the system. The strategy and responses of
the system against this component partially resides at the point
where it perceives the value and importance of the resources of
this component. If the system believes that environment possesses
valuable resource, it will act accordingly. The line declines to
the point "D" where it perceives the resources of environment as
unimportant and valueless.

Figure 3: DESCRIPTION OF THE STYLES: SECOND LINE REPRESENTING
THE ENVIRONMENT
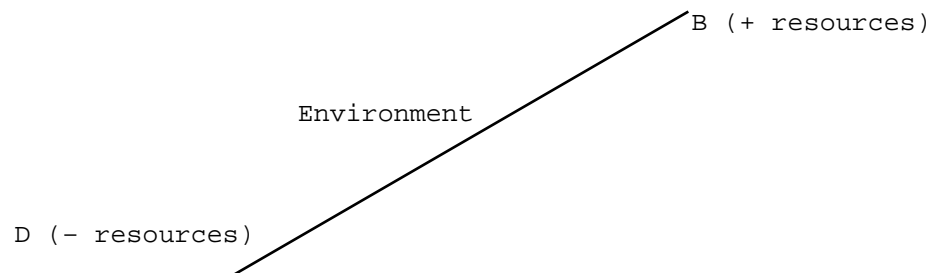
B (+ resources)

Environment

D (- resources)

Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,
NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

To analyze the relation of system to the environment, it can be said that there are four assumptive rows. These assumptions indicate the basic strategies with which the system utilizes its relationships with the environment.

Figure 3: DESCRIPTION OF THE STYLES: FOUR QUADRANTS
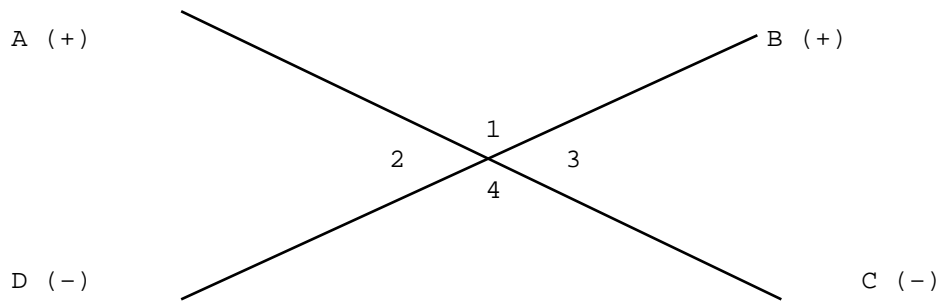
Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik, NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

First Quadrant

Assumption: First quadrant is constructed by connecting the lines A and B. This quadrant represents the points where system perceives both its resources and environment's resources as valuable. The statements which best represent this quadrant is as follows:

"I can help you; therefore you can help me too"

"We can share the knowledge; my calculations are these, what are yours?"

"I'm sure we can find a solution which will benefit both of us"

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Figure 5: FIRST QUADRANT: INTERACTIVE
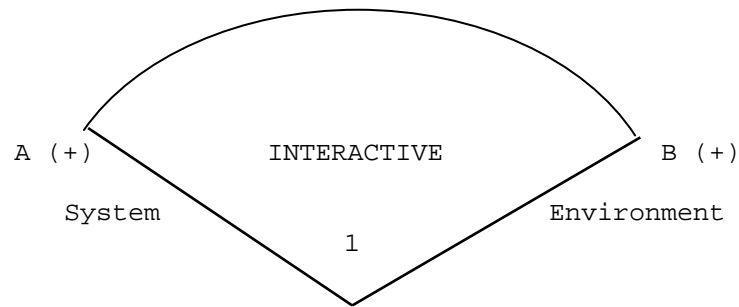
A (+)   INTERACTIVE   B (+)

System   Environment

1

Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,

NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

Strategy: Because both the system and environment posses the valuable resources, strategy of the system will be to utilize both. We name this basic strategy "interactive". In inactive strategy purpose is to join share the resources both sides possess. Thus characteristic action pattern for this strategy will be collaboration and integrating to create synergy.

Second Quadrant

Assumption: Second quadrant is constructed by connecting the points A and D. The assumption represented by these points is that the System has the required valuable resources while the environment does not. The statements which best represent this quadrant is as follows:

"I have all the important and valuable resources, but you don't"

"I want you to follow my instructions and execute the orders"

"This may be hard for you to accomplish, but do your best and let us see"

Figure 6: SECOND QUADRANT: PROACTIVE
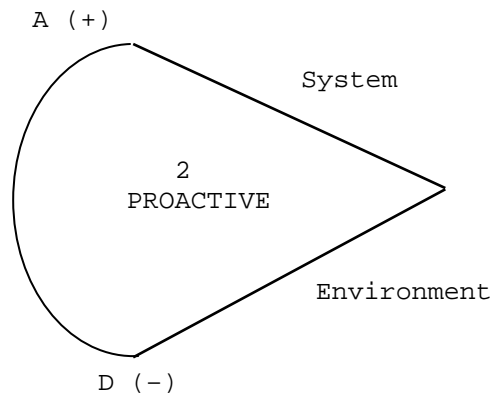
```
        A (+)
                      System


            2
         PROACTIVE

                      Environment


        D (-)
```

Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,

NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

Strategy: Even if the environmental resources might be necessary, their contribution to the solution is limited. Therefore, the strategy of the system will be to direct and shape the environment to where "it should be". We call this strategy "proactive". In proactive strategy dominating, authoritative action is the common action pattern.

Third Quadrant

Assumption: This quadrant is constructed by connecting the points B and C, and implies that the environment has the important resources while the system does not. The statements which best represent this quadrant is as follows:

"You can help me but I don't think I can help you".

"You have authority and power but I don't".

Figure 7: THIRD QUADRANT: REACTIVE
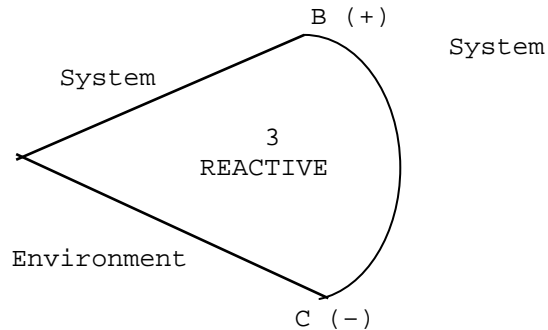
```
                         B (+)
                                      System
              System
                           3
                        REACTIVE


              Environment
                          C (−)
```

Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,

NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

Strategy: Since the system perceives itself as insufficient in terms of rights, authority, power, or physical resources, it will be in a tendency to be shaped by the environment. We label these types of behavior patterns as "reactive". In reactive strategy the most common action pattern is yielding and accommodating.

Fourth Quadrant

Assumptions: This quadrant is constructed by connecting the points D and C and assumes that neither the system nor the environment has the adequate and sufficient resources. We call these types of behavior as "inactive". The statements which best represent this quadrant is as follows:

"I can not help you and you can not help me"

"Let us have a break"

"Let us forward this matter to the sub committee and see."

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Figure 8: FOURTH QUADRANT: INACTIVE
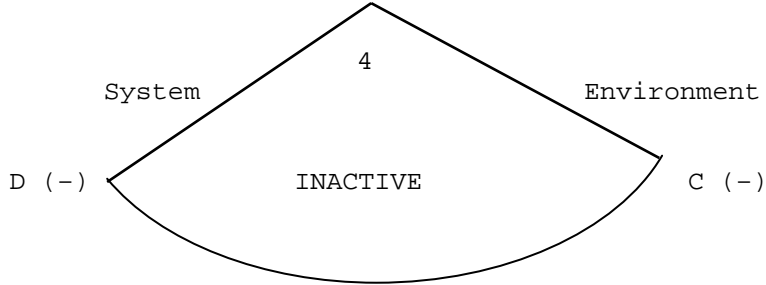
Source: Dilber, M., Alpay, G., Liderlik ve Gurup İçinde Etkinlik,

NASAŞ, Yeğenaga Matbaacılık, İstanbul,Turkey, 1985

Strategy: Because both the system and the environment lack the necessary resources, strategy of the system will be to minimize interaction. Both the system and the environment are related to the matters, but the system neither initiates nor requests a solution. Thus common action pattern will be to evade and to postpone the problems with an dominant action pattern of indifference.

Dilber and Alpay (1985) emphasize that this model does not intend to restrict the boundaries of all the existing strategies. Rather, in a simplified manner, it indicates possible alternative strategies or leadership styles. Of course it should be noted that these strategies are not permanent structures. They are prone to change, and most importantly, each can co-exist with the others in accordance to the situation. This dialectical co-existence, emphasized by Ackoff (1974) too, will be discussed in detail in the further sections.

This typology details each strategy by analyzing the basic dimensions such as knowledge search and sharing, conviction and enforcing, authority and power over, subordination and escape. These dimensions are studied by Blau (1986) in "*Exchange and Power in Social Life*". In his study, Blau simplifies the social situation between two interacting actor as;

Figure 9: SOCIAL SITUATION BETWEEN TWO INTERACTING ACTOR

	A's choice	
	Expressing regard	Withholding regard
B's choice Expressing regard	Peer relation	A superior to B
Withholding regard	B superior to A	No relation

Source: Blau, P.M., Exchange and Power in Social Life, Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick, USA, 1986, (Tenth printing 2006)

If both A and B has high regard for the other, a peer relationship exists which can be called "interactive". But if only one has high regard for the other, the former assumes a role. Obviously if both do not have high regard, no relation will be possible. Blau (1986) call this representation a pay – off matrix, in reference to game theory, and reaches an interesting result: If each actor chooses the strategy that can yield first preference, both actors end up with their least preferred choice (no relation). If each adopts the danger of maximum possible loss, both express

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regard for the other and a peer relation becomes established. This analysis, if reviewed from the standpoint of one actor, is in accordance with the study of Dilber and Alpay. If A has high regard for B and B has high regard for A, an interactive peer relation should be expected. But if A has high regard for B but B does not, a proactive strategy from the standpoint of A will be the dominant one (Blau 1986). As a result, actor A will find it easier than B to dictate the terms of the relationship by threatening to withdraw from the exchange The most likely result of this power imbalance is that A will appropriate a larger portion of the overall benefits accruing from the exchange (Friedkin, 1986).

Such a typology which directly employs inactive, proactive, reactive and interactive strategies has been presented by Astley and Van de Ven (1983). To outline a meta-theoretical scheme for classifying the major schools of thought in organization and management theory, they regrouped them into four basic views which are based on two analytical dimensions:

(1) the relative emphasis placed on deterministic versus voluntaristic assumptions about human nature and,

(2) the level of organizational analysis.

Seen from the voluntaristic orientation, individuals and their created institutions are autonomous, proactive, self-directing agents; individuals are seen as the basic unit of analysis and source of change in organizational life. The deterministic orientation focuses not on individuals, but on the structural properties of the context within which action unfolds,

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and individual behavior is seen as determined by and reacting to structural constraints that provide organizational life with an overall stability and control. Historically, the exchange of views between voluntaristic and deterministic approaches to organization analysis has been intertwined with a further distinction between the levels of organization analysis that are used. Traditionally, single organizations have been the primary focus; however, a number of recent theorists have raised the level of analysis to study total populations of organizations, under the assumption that populations exhibit distinctive properties and dynamics of their own that are not discernible in individual organizations. The major reason for our making this micro-macro distinction is to focus on the part-whole relations existing in all organizational phenomena. Discussions about appropriate levels of analysis have overlapped the voluntarism-determinism argument, but this does not erase the analytical distinction between the two dimensions on which these debates are based.

Astley and Van de Ven (1983) thus classify schools of thought by these two dimensions yields four basic perspectives: system-structural (reactive), strategic choice proactive), natural selection (inactive), and collective-action (interactive) views of organizations.

They have presented their findings as follows:

Figure 10: ASTLEY AND VAN DE VEN (1938) TYPOLOGY OF ORGANIZATIONS

	Manager Role: **INACTIVE** **NATURAL SELECTION VIEW** Schools: Population ecology, Industrial economics, Economic history Behavior: Random, natural, or economic environmental selection	Manager Role: **INTERACTIVE** **COLLECTIVE ACTION VIEW** Schools: Human ecology, political economy, pluralism Behavior: Reasonable, collectively constructed, and politically negotiated orders
Macro Level		
Micro Level	Manager Role: **PROACTIVE** **STRATEGIC CHOICE VIEW** Schools: Action theory, contemporary decision theory, strategic management Behavior: Constructed, autonomous, and enacted	Manager Role: **REACTIVE** **SYSTEM-STRUCTURAL VIEW** Schools: Systems theory, structural functionalism, contingency theory Behavior: Determined, constrained, adaptive

Deterministic Orientation........Voluntaristic Orientation

Source: Astley, W.G., Van de Ven, A.H., Central Perspectives and Debates in Organization Theory, Administrative Science Quarterly, V.28 No.2, 1983

According to the system-structural view, the manager's basic role is a reactive one. It is a technician's role of fine-tuning the organization according to the exigencies that confront it. Change takes the form of "adaptation"; it occurs as the product of exogenous shifts in the environment. The manager must perceive, process, and respond to a changing environment and adapt by rearranging internal organizational structure to ensure survival or

effectiveness. The focus of managerial decision making, therefore, is not on choice but on gathering correct information about environmental variations and on using technical criteria to examine the consequences of responses to alternative demands. As the figure outlines, the strategic choice view draws attention to individuals, their interactions, social constructions, autonomy, and choices, as opposed to the constraints of their role incumbency and functional interrelationships in the system. Both environment and structure are enacted to embody the meanings and actions of individuals - particularly those in power. Managers are regarded as performing a proactive role; their choices are viewed as autonomous, and their acts are viewed as energizing forces that shape the organizational world. In the natural selection view, the evolution of corporate society and its economic infrastructure is driven by environmental forces. Change is explained in terms of a natural drift of resources through the economy, rather than in terms of internal managerial action. Primacy is ascribed to the environment, which inhibits choice by channeling organizations in predetermined directions. In this sense, the managerial role can be described as inactive (see Figure 09) or, at most, symbolic (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). The collective-action view focuses on networks of symbiotically interdependent, yet semiautonomous organizations that interact to construct or modify their collective environment, working rules, and options. The manager's role is an interactive one. He transacts with others through collective bargaining, negotiation, compromise, political maneuver, and so on. Movements toward solutions are guided by norms, customs, and laws, which are the working rules of collective action (Astley & Van de Ven, 1983).

Such a conceptualization is highly congruent with literature (Wheelen & Hunger 2008). The theory of population ecology, for example, proposes that once an organization is successfully established in a particularly environmental niche, it is unable to adapt to changing conditions. Inertia prevents the organization from changing leaving the strategy of inactivity as the only option available (Baum 1996). Institution theory in contrast, proposes that organizations can and do adapt to changing conditions by effectively applying reactive strategies especially imitating other successful organizations (Staw & Epstain 2000). The strategic choice perspective goes one step further by proposing that not only do organizations adapt to changing environment, they also have the opportunity and power to reshape their environment, thus apply the proactive strategy (Ruefli & Wiggins 2003). Finally organizational learning theory says that an organization adjust defensively to a changing environment and uses knowledge offensively to improve the fit between itself and its environment within a dynamic process by employing interactive strategy (Lewin & Voloberda 1999)

Sage and Rouse (1999) use the conception of proactive, reactive, inactive and interactive strategies in their book "*Systems Engineering and Management*". They analyzed management issues from an inactive, reactive, interactive, or proactive perspective and used these approaches to classify measurement strategies. They describe inactive organization as one that does not worry about issues and does not take efforts to resolve them, an unrealistically optimistic perspective, but usually one that will lead to issues transforming into serious problems. This strategy on measurement denotes an organization that does not use

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metrics or that does not measure at all except perhaps in an intuitive and qualitative manner. Inactive and reactive measurements are associated with organizations that have a low level of process maturity. On the other hand reactive organization will examine a potential issue only after it has developed into a real problem. It will perform an outcome assessment and, after it has detected a problem, or failure, will diagnose the cause of the problem and often will get rid of the symptoms that produce the problem. Interactive organization will attempt to examine issues while they are in the process of evolution so as to detect problems at the earliest possible time. Issues that may cause difficulties will not only be detected, but efforts at diagnosis and correction will be implemented as soon as they have been detected. This will detect problems as soon as they occur, diagnose their causes, and correct any difficulty through recycling, feedback, and retrofit to and through that portion of the life-cycle process in which the problem occurred. And proactive organization predicts the potential for debilitating issues and will synthesize an appropriate life-cycle process that is sufficiently mature such that the potential for issues developing is as small as possible.

Sage (2003) used same typology on risk and conflict management. He states that in *"inactive risk and conflict management"*, one simply neglects to consider risk and conflict issues at all. Management does not bother to address or concern them with the possibility that things may well not turn out as they intend. In reactive risk and conflict management, they attempt postmortem efforts to ameliorate the effects of risk and conflicts that have materialized. This may involve crisis management efforts

to extricate an organization from a significant mess. More often, it is concerned with getting rid of bad or defective products, often in the form of inspections, before they are delivered to consumers. This involves scrap and rework and, therefore, increases production expenses. In interactive risk and conflict management, they are concerned with risk and conflict throughout each of the various lifecycles of various efforts to engineer a system. Management pays particular attention to such needs as configuration management and project controls to insure that each phase of each lifecycle is as risk and conflict free as possible in terms of the risk and conflict associated with the product of that particular phase. In proactive risk and conflict management, one plan and forecast risk and conflict potentials and then adopt systems management activities for technical direction that control, to the extent possible, risk and conflict potentials across all organizational lifecycle processes. Ideally, management manages risk and conflicts in a manner such that it is very likely that any unnecessary risk and conflict actually occurs. In this way, they avoid the scrap and rework associated with an exclusively reactive approach to risk and conflict management.

Kesken & İlic (2008) reveal how the dominant upper manager's ideological pressures results withdrawal and inactive strategy among the staff. They further explain that a 'one man performer' supervisor, who refuses to explain, share or collaborate, can create a learned reactive atmosphere across the organization.

The conception of proactive, reactive, inactive and interactive strategies has been used in other areas too.

Cohen & Thompson (1999) used this approach, especially analyzing them from the perspective of time, to train teams to take initiative. Queuing proactive, predictive and reactive actions on a time scale, they demonstrated that taking initiative with respect to the competition required taking initiative within the organization, and both required critical thinking. By means of critical thinking teams will be able to develop proactive tactics both toward the competitors and toward their own organization. In doing so, they develop a mutually supporting framework of proactive and reactive orientations toward different aspects of the task. The long-term result is improved adaptation to environmental variability at the organizational level.

Figure 11: SEQUENCE OF ACTIONS ON TIME SCALE
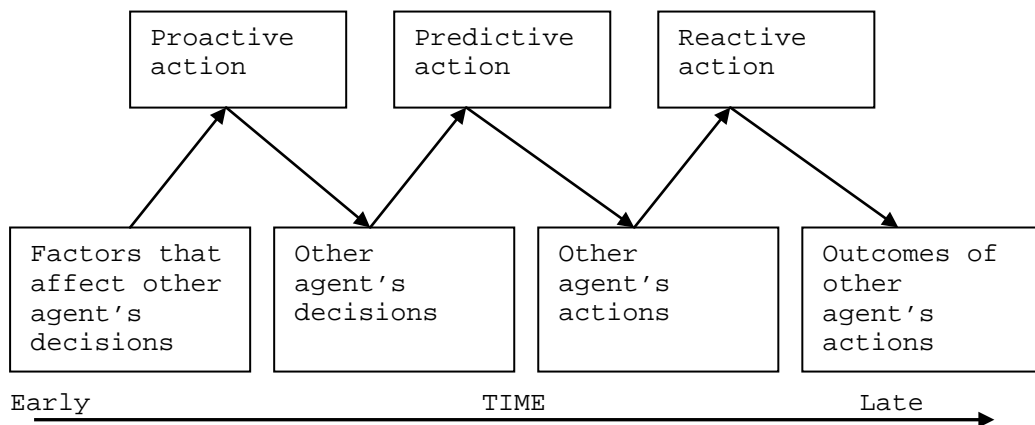
Source: Cohen,M.S., Thompson, B.B., Training teams to take initiative: Critical thinking in novel situations, Army Research Institute under Contract No.DASW01-97-C-0038 with Cognitive Technologies, Inc.. September 1999 www.cog-tech.com/papers/ NavyTraining/TrainingTeamInitiative.pdf

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Another study conducted by Peter W. Pasold (1975) analyzed the effectiveness of various modes of sales behavior in different markets which is in close agreement with Dilber and Alpay's study both in conceptualization and strategies. Pasold based the research by looking at the four strategies developed by Ackoff taking one dimension as buyer and the second as salesman:

Figure 12: EFFECTIVENESS OF SALES BEHAVIOR

Buyer acts to control situation

	NO	YES
Salesman Acts to NO	**INACTIVE**	**REACTIVE**
Control Situation YES	**PROACTIVE**	**INTERACTIVE**

Source: Pasold, P.W., The Effectiveness of Various Modes of Sales Behavior in Different Markets, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol.12, No.171-6, 1975

Pasold (1975), than, defines the four different market types as: (1) Perfect competition, (2) Imperfect competition, (3) Oligopoly, (4) Turbulence. His model is as follows:

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Figure 13: PASOLD'S (1975) EFFECTIVENESS MODEL

MODEL PROPOSING MOST EFFECTIVE BEHAVIOR IN EACH MARKET TYPE

Salesman's Behavior	Market Type			
	I Perfect competition	II Imperfect competition	III Oligopoly	IV Turbulence
Reactive	BEST			
Proactive		BEST		
Inactive			BEST	
Interactive				BEST

Source: Pasold, P.W., The Effectiveness of Various Modes of Sales Behavior in Different Markets, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol.12, No.171-6, 1975

Axel Brueggemann (1996) used the same approach in social planning. According to him there are four types of social planning. Reactive planning, aims at restoring the past by identifying and removing the dysfunctions. Most projects are based on this logic of interfering in order to reestablish the equilibrium of the social system. From the perspective of these projects, a social problem is always a social dysfunction created by certain undesirable changes that took place in the system. From this point of view, the most important moments of social planning are represented by the identification of the problem, of the causes leading to its appearance, the removal of these causes, and the construction of solutions to reestablish the equilibrium. Inactive planning is trying to preserve the present by preventing the changes that might lead to the appearance of some dormant social dysfunctions. The

present is accepted as such, it is considered as an acceptable situation, and the intervention suggested within the project is meant to maintain the existing structure. Inactive planning does not mean social immobility, freezing in structure considered ideal, but, on the contrary, it is seen as a permanent modification of the comprising elements in order to preserve the existing equilibrium. Inasmuch as social care is concerned, these projects focus especially on preventing the appearance of a new problem or the amplification of an already existing one (for instance, in child protection, an inactive project is one which aims at reducing the number of institutionalized children by preventing them from entering the residential environment). Proactive planning is oriented towards the future, the latter being seen as a sum of opportunities. The change is understood only as a progress and this can be achieved only if it is being prepared. This type of planning is constantly aiming at development; it is focused on planning rather than on solving the existing situations (Gharajedaghi and Ackoff, 1986), especially by accelerating the events in order to make the desirable future appear. Consequently, proactive planning implies high costs related to research and anticipation (Cojocaru, 2006). Interactive planning is more flexible and innovative. The purpose of this type of project is to dissolve the problem, which requires a change of the system that is experiencing this problem, thus it may be seen as the most efficient manner of removing the problem (Cojocaru, 2006).

David Annandale (2000), who conducted a survey among managers in Canada, classified the mining company approaches to environmental approval regulations, into the same four strategies.

In inactive strategy the issue is of no concern for the company. Managers refuse to acknowledge that any change in corporate behavior is necessary. Annandale divides reactive strategies into two groups; Negative reactive strategy attempts to obstruct the public process whereas positive reactive strategy accepts the regulation as legitimate and adapts its behavior accordingly after the event. Proactive strategy proposes that rather than fighting change or simply accommodating it, the organization should attempt to influence change by changing the external environment, or by modifying internal structure and policies. And finally Interactive approach seeks mutually acceptable outcome among diverse interests.

The same typology has been used by Tulder, Wijk and Kolk (2009) to classify the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of the various firms. The *inactive* approach reflects the classical notion of Friedman that the only responsibility companies (can) have is to generate profits. This is a fundamentally inward-looking (inside-in) business perspective, aimed at efficiency and competitiveness in the immediate market environment. Entrepreneurs are particularly concerned with 'doing things right'. They comply with the law, at least under those jurisdictions where the law is adequately enforced. Good business from this perspective equals operational excellence. CSR thus amounts to 'Corporate *Self* Responsibility'. The moral motivation for CSR is primarily utilitarian (Swanson, 1995), derived from so called 'consequential ethics' where the focus is on the end result rather than the means by which it is achieved. Hence, the allegation that Friedman is basically against Corporate Responsibility is fundamentally mistaken – the

presumptions in his neo-classical theory are also aimed at creating the maximum wealth for society, and thus can be interpreted as a narrow approach to CSR.

A variation on the inactive attitude is the *reactive* approach, which shares the focus on efficiency but with particular attention to not making any mistakes. This requires an 'outside-in' orientation where entrepreneurs monitor their environment and manage their primary stakeholders so as to keep mounting issues in check without otherwise allowing it to give rise to fundamental changes in the business philosophy and primary production processes. Corporate philanthropy is the modern expression of the charity principle and a practical manifestation of social responsiveness (Post *et al*, 2002). In this approach the motivation for CSR is primarily grounded in 'negative duties' where firms are compelled to conform to informal, stakeholder-defined norms of appropriate behavior (Maignan and Ralston, 2002). They cannot be held legally liable for violating these informal rules, but they may incur costs due to reputation damage. The concept of 'conditional morality' in the sense that managers only 're-act' when competitors do the same, is also consistent with this approach.

An (pro) *active* approach to CSR is explicitly inspired by ethical values and virtues (or 'positive duties'). In business ethics reasoning this orientation is approached as a theory of organizational integrity (Kaptein and Wempe, 2002), in which the objectives are realized in a socially responsible manner by autonomous choice, and regardless of actual or potential

stakeholder pressures. Such entrepreneurs are strongly outward-oriented (inside-out) and they display a certain 'missionary urge' (e.g. in the case of the Body Shop) which makes them heroes to NGOs but an annoyance to 'true' entrepreneurs. They are set on doing 'the right thing'. CSR in this approach gets its most well-known connotation – that of Corporate *Social* Responsibility.

They speak of an (inter) active CSR approach when an entrepreneur involves external stakeholders right at the beginning of an issue's life cycle. This interactive CSR approach is characterized by *interactive* business practices, where an 'inside-out' and an 'outside-in' orientation complement each other. In moral philosophy, this approach has also been referred to as 'discourse ethics', where actors regularly meet in order to negotiate/talk over a number of norms to which everyone could agree (Habermas 1990). The CSR approach often implies medium-term profitability and longer-term sustainability, not only for themselves but for the whole sector, their supply chains and sometimes even for the whole economy (adding a welfare orientation to a company's aims). This strategic type comes closest to what authors since the end of the 1990s have started to refer to as the meaning of the CSR abbreviation in the sense of Corporate *Societal* Responsibility (Andriof and McIntosh, 2001). With the introduction of the broader concept of Corporate Societal Responsibility, the issue of CSR shifts from a largely instrumental and managerial approach to one aimed at managing strategic networks where longer-term relationships with stakeholders are prominent in the strategic planning of the company.

1.7 Conceptualization of Leadership Styles from the Perspective of Organization Theory

There is a considerable volume of studies which do not employ the same terminology but describe the same conceptualization and perspective.

One of the most prominent studies is Miles, Snow, Meyer, and Coleman's "The Strategic Typology" (Miles et al., 1978). The study starts by asking what strategies organizations employ in solving their entrepreneurial, engineering, and administrative problems. Their research described four basic strategies predominantly employed four types of organizations: Defenders, Analyzers, Prospectors and Reactors. Each strategy has its own unique pattern of acting. This classification specifies relationships of the organizations to their environments in a dynamic exchange structure.

As will be discussed in further sections, such a classification is a simplification and unlikely to cover every form of organizational behavior. Moreover, an organization may employ more than one type of strategy depending on the situation along the continuum of time. However, organizations' behaviors, compared to other organizations' behaviors, appear to fit predominantly into one of the four typological classifications (Miles et al., 1978).

Figure 14: MILES AND SNOW (2007) TYPOLOGY OF ORGANIZATION TYPES

Analyzers **"balance"** interactive strategy seekers	Prospectors **"change"** proactive strategy seekers
Defenders **"stability"** reactive strategy seekers	Reactors **"no response"** inactive strategy seekers

Source: Miles, R. E., Snow, C. C., Organization theory and
supply chain management: An evolving research perspective,
Journal of Operations Management, 25, 2007

The four typological classifications can be summarized as
follows:

The first type of organizations called "analyzers" can be
addressed as "interactive strategy seekers". The key characteristic
of the analyzer organization is the proper differentiation of the
organization's structure and processes to achieve a balance between
the stable and dynamic areas of operation. Thus, analyzer
organizations cultivate collaboration among different departments
and units internally, while, attempting to minimize risk but
maximize the opportunity for profit externally. Therefore the word
that best describes the analyzer's adaptive approach is "balance".
This duality evident in the analyzer's domain is visible in its
structure: they typically employ matrix organization structure. For
example, in manufacturing organizations analyzer organizations
frequently includes a large group of application engineers who are

rotated among teams charged with the task of rapidly adapting new product design to fit existing stable technology. The Analyzer's matrix structure is supported by intensive planning between the functional divisions of marketing and production, broad-gauge planning between the applied research group and the product managers for the development of new products, centralized control mechanisms in the functional divisions and decentralized control techniques in the product groups, and so on.

The second type of organizations called "prospectors". Prospector organizations are oriented towards finding and exploiting new product and market opportunities. Therefore innovation is the basic orientation of a prospector organization. In fact, because of the inevitable failure rate associated with sustained product and market innovation, prospector organizations fid it difficult to maintain high profit levels. Prospector organizations typically develop and maintain the capacity to survey a wide range of environmental conditions, trends and events. Thus they keep a continuous alert stance to scan the environment for potential opportunities. Because of this orientation prospectors are frequently the creators of change in their respective environment which is the word that best describe their innovative approach. This approach reflects to the structure of the organization by deployment and coordination of resources among numerous decentralized units and projects, hence making structure-process mechanisms "organic". These mechanisms include a top-management group dominated by marketing and research and development experts, planning that is broad rather than intensive and oriented toward results not methods, product or project

structures characterized by a low degree of formalization, decentralized control, lateral as well as vertical communications, and so on. The prospector organization's descriptive catchword is proactive.

The third type of organizations is "defenders". Defenders seek to maintain status-quo and defend the market share they posses. Their aim is stability which is achieved by sealing off a portion of the total market by producing only a limited set of products directed at a narrow segment of the total potential market. Within this limited domain, the Defender strives aggressively to prevent competitors from entering its "turf". Their competitive strength originates from efficiency, focused to a single core technology that is highly cost-efficient. Therefore their behaviors commonly include standard economic actions like competitive pricing. This approach reflects to the structure of the organization as "mechanistic", which is focused to achieving strict control of the organization in order to ensure efficiency. Defender organizations typically react to problems mostly usual and technical in nature. However defender organizations tend to ignore developments and trends outside of their domain. Their mechanistic structure gives little or no room for scanning of the environment for the new areas of opportunity with intensive planning oriented toward cost and other efficiency issues, functional structures characterized by extensive division of labor, centralized control, communications through formal hierarchical channels, and so on. This orientation carries the risk of being unable to respond to a major shift in the environment. If the Defender's market shifts

dramatically it has little capacity for locating and exploiting new areas of opportunity.

Finally, the fourth type of organization for Miles et al., (1978) is "reactor". This type usually does not employ any set of response mechanisms which it can consistently put into effect when faced with a changing environment. They do not have a systematic strategy, design or structure. They do not make long term plans, because they see the environment as changing too quickly for them to be of any use, therefore reluctant to engage, they typically exhibit inactive strategy.

Mintzberg (1973) has also made such a classification. In search of the decision making process called strategy making in business and policy making in government, he classified the styles as "modes". In "planning mode" representing proactive style, formal analysis is used to plan explicit, integrated strategies for the future in which the process is always systematic and structured. In the "adaptive mode" which represents the reactive style, the organization adapts in small, disjointed steps to a difficult environment. "*In the adaptive mode, the strategy-making process is characterized by the 'reactive' solution to existing problems rather than the 'proactive' search for new opportunities*" (Mintzberg 1973). The adaptive organization operates continuously responding the problems and crises in a difficult environment. Little time remains to search out opportunities and even if there were time, the lack of clear goals in the organization would preclude a proactive approach. Thirdly, Minzberg describes "entrepreneurial mode" in which the main purpose is growth, risk

taking is common and continuous adjustment of purposes and strategies indicates a more interactive approach with the environment.

1.8 Conceptualization of Conflict, Conflict Management, and Congruity with the Leadership Styles

Literature on conflict management comprises a remarkable parallel to the typology used in this study. Although management styles in general and conflict management styles may differ, there exists a great deal of overlap. Recent work within conflict management acknowledges that conflict is not only inevitable in distributive relationships, but helps define the very essence of intra-organizational relationships (Deutsch 1994; Pondy 1992; Koza 2006). Within this view, conflict is thought of as more or less continual reality of contemporary intra-organizational relationships, and becomes one of the defining descriptors of what makes up the intra-organization relationships.

The beginning point for the conflict process is being defined as the point when other social processes (e.g. decision-making, discussion) 'switched over' into conflict (Thomas 1992). Therefore it is being assumed as a process which begins "when one actor perceives that another has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of her/his" (Thomas 1976). However, some scholars like Pondy (1992) suggested that "*an organization was the opposite of a cooperative system: if conflict didn't take place, then the*

organization had no reason to exist. Long-lasting companies were those which had institutionalized conflicts and diversity in the organization's structure as a normal part of the relationships in the existing behavior patterns of the day-to-day functioning". Therefore, conflict management style of a manager is an integral part of his/her repertoire of strategies which might be considered as parallel. Tjosvold (1998) complements this statement arguing that conflict is not the opposite of cooperation but a mechanism that allows to perceive benefits of cooperative work (Ikeda et. al., 2005). Indeed, according to Wilmot and Hocker (1985), conflict occurs when individuals experience competing goals or ideas in which the common ground of resource dependence theory and exchange theory established as discussed above. According to Deutsch (1973), theories in cooperation and competition provide an approach for the understanding of the dynamics and the outcomes of organizational relationships. Sternberg & Soriano (1984) find that the behavioral tendencies people exhibit during conflict are also likely to be displayed in non-conflict situations. Thus an employee who typically adopts a proactive style, to manage conflict with co-workers very likely will adopt the same style in other types of social interactions (Aquino, 2000). Therefore a general look on conflict management literature and fundamental conflict management styles will shed light to our understanding of management styles in general.

As mentioned above after the early theoreticians (e.g. Follet 1940), it was Blake and Mouton (1964) who first presented a conceptual scheme for classifying the modes or strategies for handling relationships as conflict management styles. Blake and

Mouton identified five different 'approaches' to managing conflict, namely; forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. The model is represented as a grid with *concern for production* as the X-axis and *concern for people* as the Y-axis; each axis ranges from 1 (Low) to 9 (High).

Figure 15: THE MANAGERIAL GRID

Concern	Country Club 1,9 **(Accommodating)**	Team Leader 9,9 **(Sound)**
for People	Impoverished 1,1 **(Indifferent)**	Authoritarian 9,1 **(Dictatorial)**

Concern for Task

Source: Blake, R. R., Mouton, J., The Managerial Grid,

Gulf Publishing, Houston, 1964

The resulting leadership styles are as follows:

- The indifferent (previously called impoverished) style (1,1) : evade and elude. In this style, managers have low concern for both people and production. Managers use this style to preserve job and job seniority, protecting themselves by avoiding getting into trouble. The main concern for the manager is not to be held responsible for any mistakes, which results in less innovative decisions.

- The accommodating (previously, country club) style (1,9): yield and comply. This style has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. Managers using this style pay much attention to the security and comfort of the

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employees, in hopes that this will increase -performance. The resulting atmosphere is usually friendly, but not necessarily very productive.

- The dictatorial (previously, produce or perish) style (9,1): control and dominate. With a high concern for production, and a low concern for people, managers using this style find employee needs unimportant; they provide their employees with money and expect performance in return. Managers using this style also pressure their employees through rules and punishments to achieve the company goals. This dictatorial style is based on Theory X of Douglas McGregor, and is commonly applied by companies on the edge of real or perceived failure. This style is often used in case of crisis management.

- The sound (previously, team) style *(9,9)*: contribute and commit. In this style, high concern is paid both to people and production. As suggested by the propositions of Theory Y, managers choosing to use this style encourage teamwork and commitment among employees. This method relies heavily on making employees feel themselves to be constructive parts of the company.

(There is a fifth style in most of the models, which is usually a middle of the road position, but within the scope of this study only four styles at the poles considered)

Another study called Dual Concern Theory (Pruitt and Rubin, 1986) is related to earlier work by Blake and Mouton (1964).

Figure 16: TYPOLOGY OF "DUAL CONCERN THORY"

Concern	**Yielding**	**Problem Solving**
for Others	**Avoiding**	**Forcing**

Concern for Self

Source: Pruit, D. G., Rubin, J.Z., Social Conflict: Escalation, stalemate and settlement, Random House, NY, 1986

Dual concern theory argues that conflict management is a function of high or low concern for self, combined with high or low concern for others. High concern for self and low concern for others results in a strategy of enforcing, focused on imposing one's will on others. Forcing involves threats and bluffs, persuasive arguments, and positional commitments. Low concern for self and high concern for others results in a preference for yielding, which is oriented towards accepting and incorporating others will. It involves unilateral concessions, unconditional promises, and offering help. Low concern for self and others results in a preference for avoiding, which involves reducing the importance of the issues, and attempts to suppress thinking about the issues. High concern for self and others produces a preference for problem solving, which is oriented towards an agreement that satisfies both own and others' aspirations as much as possible. It involves an exchange of information about priorities and

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preferences, showing insights, and making trade-offs between important and unimportant issues.

Based on the work of Blake and Mouton (1964), Thomas (Thomas and Kilmann 1978, Thomas 1992) attempted to separate these conflict management approaches from the fixed managerial styles and the underlying values proposed by Blake and Mutton, and isolated them into a taxonomy which generalized them beyond superior-subordinate relationship.

A version of the taxonomy is as follows:

Figure 17: THOMAS – KILMANN TYPOLOGY

	Competing	Collaborating
Assertiveness	Avoiding	Accommodating

Cooperativeness

Source: Thomas, K. W., Kilmann, R. H., Four perspectives on conflict management: An attributional framework for organizing descriptive and normative theory, Academy of Management Review, 1978

Thomas-Kilmann model takes two basic dimensions (1) assertiveness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns, and (2) cooperativeness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy the other person's concerns and maps the results in five modes which are avoiding as inactive strategy, competing as proactive strategy, accommodating as reactive strategy and collaborating as interactive strategy. The fifth mode presented by the model is compromising

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explained as intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness which is beyond our interest. When analyzed in detail; avoiding is unassertive and uncooperative. When avoiding, an individual does not immediately pursue his or her own concerns or those of the other person. He or she does not address the conflict. Avoiding might take the form of diplomatically sidestepping an issue, postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. Competing is assertive and uncooperative, a power-oriented mode. When competing, an individual pursues his or her own concerns at the other person's expense, using whatever power seems appropriate to win his or her position. Competing might mean standing up for your rights, defending a position you believe is correct, or simply trying to win. Accommodating is unassertive and cooperative—the opposite of competing. When accommodating, an individual neglects his or her own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person; there is an element of self-sacrifice in this mode. Accommodating might take the form of selfless generosity or charity, obeying another person's order when you would prefer not to, or yielding to another's point of view. And finally Collaborating is both assertive and cooperative. When collaborating, an individual attempts to work with the other person to find a solution that fully satisfies the concerns of both. It involves digging into an issue to identify the underlying concerns of the two individuals and to find an alternative that meets both sets of concerns. Collaborating between two persons might take the form of exploring a disagreement to learn from each other's insights, resolving some condition that would otherwise have them competing for resources, or confronting and trying to find a creative solution to an interpersonal problem.

Thomas and Kilmann (1974) make it clear that there is no "one best" approach to handling conflict and that all approaches might be effective in particular circumstances. They also provide some guidance on the appropriate use of each of the modes:

Negotiation is fundamentally a collaborative, win-win approach to conflict resolution. **Collaboration** is likely to be particularly useful

- to find integrative solutions without compromising either sets of concerns;
- when your objective is to learn and find out the other party's views;
- to merge insights from people with different perspectives on a problem;
- to gain commitment by incorporating the other's concerns into a consensual decision; and
- to work through hard feelings which have interfered with interpersonal relationships.

Negotiation may involve **accommodating** as an element of conflict-handling. Accommodating is likely to be useful

- when you realize you are wrong;
- to avoid further damage in a situation which is not going well;
- when the issues are more important to the other party than to you;
- as a goodwill gesture, to build-up credit points for later issues which are important to you; and

- when preserving harmony and avoiding disruption are important.

The other two modes of conflict-handling, avoiding and competing are not used by skilled negotiators. However, if negotiation is seen as one possible approach among several options to any situation, both may be appropriate in certain circumstances.

Avoiding is likely to be useful

- when the issue is trivial or symptomatic of another more basic issue;
- when you perceive no possibility of satisfying your concerns, perhaps because of an adverse balance of power;
- when the potential damage of confronting an issue outweighs its resolution;
- to let people cool down, reduce tensions, regain perspective and composure; and
- when gathering more information is more important than making an immediate decision.

Competition is likely to be useful

- when quick, decisive action is vital, e.g. emergencies;
- when issues are important and where unpopular courses of action need implementing;
- when issues are vital to organization welfare, when you know you are right; and
- to protect yourself against people who take advantage of non-competitive behavior.

Using a conceptualization similar to that of Blake and Mouton (1964) and Thomas (1976), Rahim (1983) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict along two basic dimensions: concern for self and concern for others. The first dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns. The second dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person wants to satisfy the concerns of others. These dimensions portray the motivational orientations of a given individual during conflict (Rubin & Brown, 1975). Studies by Ruble and Thomas (1976) and Van de Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) yielded support for these dimensions. Combination of the two dimensions results in four specific styles of handling interpersonal conflict.

Figure 18: RAHIM'S (1983) CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES TYPOLOGY

Concern

Integrating	Obliging
Dominating	Avoiding

for Others

        Concern   for Self

Source: Rahim, M.A., A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict, Academy of Management Journal,Vol.26 No.2, 1983

Integrating

This style involves high concern for self as well as the other party involved in conflict. It is concerned with collaboration between parties (i.e., openness, Exchange of information, and examination of differences) to reach a solution acceptable to both parties.

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Obliging

This style involves low concern for self and high concern for the other party involved in conflict. An obliging person attempts to play down the differences and emphasizes commonalities to satisfy the concerns of the other party.

Dominating

This style involves high concern for self and low concern for the other party involved in conflict. It has been identified with a win-lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one's position.

Avoiding

This is associated with low concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict. It has been associated with withdrawal, passing-the-buck, sidestepping, or "see no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil" situations.

Finally the study of Hall (1969) polarized the four styles as follows;

Figure 19: HALL'S (1969) FOUR CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES

Concern for	**Accommodator (Yield-lose/Win)**	**Synergistic (Win/Win)**
Relationships	**Avoider (Leave-Lose/Win)**	**Controller (Win/lose)**

Concern for personal goals

Source: Hall, J., Conflict management survey: A survey of one's characteristic reaction to and handling of conflicts between himself and others, Conroe, Texas, USA, 1969

Competing/Controlling is assertive and uncooperative – an individual pursues his or her own concerns at the other person's expense. This is a power-oriented mode, in which one uses whatever power seems appropriate to win one's own position – one's ability to argue, one's rank, economic sanctions. Competing might mean "standing up for your rights," defending a position which you believe is correct, or simply trying to win.

Accommodating is unassertive and cooperative – the opposite of competing. When accommodating, an individual neglects his or her own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person; there is an element of self-sacrifice in this mode.

Accommodating might take the form of selfless generosity or charity, obeying another person's order when one would prefer not to, or yielding to another's point of view.

Avoiding is unassertive and uncooperative – the individual does not immediately pursue his own concerns or those of the other person. He or she does not address the conflict. Avoiding might take the form of diplomatically sidestepping an issue, postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation.

Collaborating is both assertive and cooperative – the opposite of avoiding. Collaborating involves an attempt to work with the other person to find some solution which fully satisfies the concerns of both persons. It means digging into an issue to identify the underlying concerns of the two individuals and to find an alternative which meets both sets of concerns. Collaborating

between two persons might take the form of exploring a disagreement to learn from each other's insights, concluding to resolve some condition which would otherwise have them competing for resources, or confronting and trying to find a creative solution to an interpersonal problem.

Compromising is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness. The object is to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solution which partially satisfies both parties. It falls on a middle ground between competing an accommodating. Compromising gives up more than competing but less than accommodating. Likewise, it addresses an issue more directly than avoiding, but doesn't explore it in as much depth as collaborating. Compromising might mean splitting the difference, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground position.

Composite of the most commonly used models comparison with Dilber's typology:

Figure 20: COMPOSITE REPRESENATATION OF MOST COMMONLY USED CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES IN COMPARISON TO DILBER & ALPAY'S TYPOLOGY

Dilber & Alpay	B&M	Pruitt
Interactive	Sound	Problem solving
Proactive	Dictatorial	Forcing
Reactive	Accommodating	Yielding
Inactive	Indifferent	Avoiding

Thomas -Kilmann	Rahim	Hall
Collaborating	Integrating	Synergistic
Competing	Dominating	Win-Lose
Accommodating	Obliging	Yield-Lose
Avoiding	Avoiding	Lose-Leave

Comparing this conceptualization with Dilber and Alpay's (1985) study, overlap is visible; collaboration is coinciding with interactive strategy, accommodating is reactive, competition is proactive and finally, avoiding coincides with inactive strategy. Two points should be mentioned again: **1)** in almost all of these models there is a fifth 'middle of the way" style. Within the concept of this study, however, the polarization of the styles are studied and the middle of the way styles are excluded. **2)** There are numerous other studies concerning conflict management which function in a similar vein as the above mentioned models (Druckman, 2005; Forsyth, 1999; Van de Vliert, 1997; Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). The models selected above are the ones which are cited more frequently in the literature.

1.9 Dynamic Interrelationships and Dialectical Coexistence of the Basic Leadership Styles

Each of the four leadership styles represents only a partial view of reality, so that together they provide a repertoire of complementary ways to understand interaction (Astley & Van de Ven 1983). This suggests the desirability of systematically juxtaposing the four perspectives to provide a more comprehensive understanding. At the same time, however, each of the styles contradicts others in key respects, since each presents its own distinctive interpretation of reality. This conflict suggests the

desirability of systematically analyzing these four perspectives within a dialectical overview. Thus we can recapitulate that leadership styles or strategies are not some fixed and pre-set formats with clear and unchanging boundaries. All styles may exist in different intensity and reflect in the attitudes and actions of the leaders. It should be clear that behavioral dispositions (Thomas 1992) or the preferred styles of the leaders do not solely originate from incentive structures or the actors' 'stakes' in the relationship. Social pressures or normative forces on the interacting actors emanating from different kinds of stakeholders and 'ambient social pressure' from bystanders are also effective. Rules and procedures or constraints upon the interaction process such as decision rights, negotiation procedures for mediating or arbitrating the relationship, will have considerable effect too. In the end, the leadership style of the actor in any given relationship will be determined by the cumulative effects of all four styles (Thomas 1992). Therefore instead of selecting one style for each actor, the priority or the 'mix' of leadership styles should be considered which has been analyzed as "response hierarchy" in this study.

Dilber & Alpay (1985) emphasized this point by describing their model as an extreme polarization of reality for the sake of simplicity. It will be unrealistic to assume that resources will be concentrated totally on one actor, and the other will have virtually no resource at all. On the contrary, both the actor and the environment will possess 'some' amount of resource. Moreover, interactions and perceptions will be subject to change in time. The actor may have gained weight and become dominant in some point of

time, but an unexpected necessity of resources can drastically alter the weight and dominance to environment. In most of this complex relationships, although there will be a predominant style, secondary and tertiary patterns are sure to emerge. Even the dominant style will change as the situation and/or the perception of the situation changes (Dilber & Alpay 1985). Thus the model aims to determine the basic types of strategies in general to analyze their effects in optimum. Moreover this model will serve as a planning tool to analyze and value the various methods of resource utilization.

Consider reactive and proactive styles. Reactive – proactive dichotomy has been covered by Larson et. al., (2007), and it is concluded that the dichotomy is overly simplistic for describing complex managerial behavior. Kolb (1983) in his critique of the proactive problem-solving view of management observed that such approaches can be over-rational, too linear and are misleading because they fail to realize the complex ways in which executive action is determined. Moreover, previous research *(e.g.* Mintzberg, 1973) showed that the nature of a manager's job may be very hectic and a manager can go through the day reacting to others and allowing the pace of the job to dictate activities (Larson et al., 2007). Others *(e.g.* Stewart, 1979) suggest that those holding senior positions participate in the formal planning of their operations and this participation provides for long term considerations that push a manager toward the proactive pattern. This implies that managers can be proactive or reactive depending upon the purpose of their interpersonal contacts with others.

This dichotomy of proactive and reactive strategies is referred as "the two sociologies" by Astley & Van de Ven (1983): one views individual action as the derivative of the social system and the other views the social system as the derivative of individual action. They claim that a dialectical reconciliation that escapes one sided subjectivism should be employed. Social system does maintain a degree of cohesion which must always be maintained through a partial suppression of actors' immediate desires. However, within the rules, several different strategies are always possible. Moreover, rules can be broken, but only to a limited extent. The actor remains free, but to win, an adaptation of a strategy in reasonable conformance with the rules is necessary. From this perspective environment that necessitates reactive strategy might incorrectly underplay the role of predetermined role of an actor. Thus a partial employment of active and reactive styles, although in different proportipns, may be feasible.

Same dialectical dichotomy is present between other styles too. An example might be the contrast of the self-interest orientation of rational model of administrative behavior which might be represented by proactive style against the collective interest orientation of administrative behavior represented by interactive leadership style. On the one hand actors behave autonomously so as to maximize their chances of obtaining resources, apart from those of the collectivity. On the other hand, the same actors are committed to the unifying patterns and resource needs of the group. The need to establish a balance between these opposing pressures underlies what Thompson (1967) descried as "the

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paradox of administration" (Astley & Van de Ven 1983). Same contradictions exist in different parts of organizations also. Different parts of an organization may find different systems to be more appropriate, so that any one type may not be used throughout an entire organization. This is valid for all the actors within groups too; there are bound to be perceptual differences throughout an organization's hierarchy so that top managers could be utilizing one type of system in formulating strategies while lower levels may rely on another type for their execution. As a result; although the four strategies are discussed in their pure form, it should be kept in mind that many hybrids, overlaps or combinations exist in reality (Miesing & Wolfe 1985).

1.10 Influence of Group Dynamics and

"Intra-group – Inter-group" dichotomy

Relations between an actor and environment or between an actor and other actor(s) can be classified as intra-group or inter-group. This classification might be important because of the potential to give more insights to management styles by taking the group dynamics into account.

Complex organizations create different subsystems with homogeneous tasks and distinct goals to increase overall effectiveness (Rahim, 1992). Although these subsystems develop distinct norms, orientations and attitudes, they are required to work with each other for the attainment of organizational goals.

This interdependence of the subsystems on tasks, resources and information validates exchange relationships with all of the consequences including various degrees of conflict. A "law of inter-group conflict" states that all groups are in partial conflict with each other (Downs, 1968) and it is an inevitable part of organizational life.

Numerous studies have been conducted on group dynamics since Hawthorn Studies. Roles, norms, conformity, cohesiveness and status systems all have massive influence on both the perception of the situation and the attitude to respond. In relation with the other groups, members tend to conform to the group norms more and they tend to become more loyal to the group (Schein, 1980). This will have considerable effect on the management styles of actor, be it the leader of the group or a common member of the group. Rahim (1992) cites the 'social identity theory' as; "*The mere perception of belongingness to two distinct groups – that is, social categorization per se – is sufficient to trigger intergroup discrimination favoring the in-group. In other words, the mere awareness of the presence of an out-group is sufficient to provoke intergroup competitive or discriminatory responses on the part of the in-group*". (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Rahim, 1992)

Thus, interpersonal relations within the group tend to 'smooth' the attitudes and relationship styles in reference to inter-group exchange relations, especially if there is a perception of competition and/or conflict between those groups which is very likely as explained above. Therefore, it may be expected to find the smoothing effect of the group when comparing background

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classifications of gender for the management styles. However the degree of the smoothing effect might be different for each demographic characteristic. Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher (1997) re-classified the demographic variables as; visual individual demographic differences (i.e. sex, age) and informational demographic differences (i.e. education). Smoothing effect is expected to be more effective on the management styles corresponding visual individual demographic differences.

1.11 Research Conducted on Leadership Styles in Turkey

In Turkey, the pioneering educational establishments offering management programs emerged in 1950's (Üsdiken & Pasadeos, 1993; Berkman, 2009). In 1960 and 1970's, number and divergence of these educational establishments began increasing and extended beyond İstanbul and Ankara. In accordance, academic periodicals focusing on management and organizations began to be published. Within the light of these advancements it is possible to accept 1960's as the beginning of management literature in Turkey (Berkman, 1987; Üsdiken et. al., 1998). One of the very early studies about Turkish Managers was conducted by McCelland (1961) in a comparative study made in four countries including US, Italy, Poland and Turkey. This study finds the management styles of Turkish managers to be quite

different from the other 3 countries. Turkish managers exhibited a lower need for achievement both compared to professionals in Turkey and to the managers in the other three countries.

In a later study, Üsdiken (2002) mentions 1980's as the transition period in management literature. During this period both qualitative and quantitative methods, new and genuine metaphors began emerging.

One of the earlier studies on Turkish Managers' behavior styles was published in 1981 by Dilber titled: "Managerial Behavior within the Turkish Private Sector". This study is a comparative follow up of Dilber's unpublished doctoral dissertation (Dilber 1967). In both studies, Dilber focused on the behavioral characteristics of Turkish Managers and, based on the classification of Harbison & Myers (1964), found Turkish managers not mature enough to reach the 'industrial logic' and demonstrate conforming behaviors. Dilber finds a parallel between the management behaviors and industrial advancements in terms of financial strength and technical advancement. He finds typical Turkish managers preferring Weber's bureaucratic organizational structure which promises relative regulation, security and stability, and treating their subordinates along the perspective of McGregor's X theory. Thus, concludes Dilber, predominant characteristics of Turkish managers is authoritarian and paternalistic, (although the latter study indicates some degree of modernization) and should be changed to more democratic and participative style and proposes micro and macro level remedies for this change.

A later study conducted by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), also found Turkish organizations vertically structured with great emphasis on hierarchy, employment of very low level of delegation, centralized decision making and especially strong personality of managers. These findings can be explained by the work of Kabasakal & Bodur (1998), who claimed that high significance attached to family and other in-group members is associated with a hierarchy of relationships (Özkalp et al., 2009). Strong interdependence with other members of their in-group and family based relationships reduce the importance attributed to performance.

Kabasakal and Bodur (1998) have explained this qualification from the in-group perspective. The high significance attached to family and other in-group members is associated with a hierarchy of relationships. Leader power in Turkey has been related to the feudal links and has strong roots in Turkish culture, and Turkish leaders are expected to promote patronage relationships with their followers (Kabasakal and Bodur 1998). Fikret-Pasa (2000) has found that culture-specific leader behaviors of Turkish leaders are "granted authority" and "sharing of responsibility of followers" which implies the implicit benevolent paternalistic leadership behaviors of Turkish managers (Özkalp et. al., 2009). Team-oriented leadership is also perceived as the most effective leadership style in Turkey by Kabasakal & Bodur (1998); which is consistent with the family and in-group-oriented societal culture that is dominant in Turkey. Leaders use consultation and diplomacy to hold the group together and create a feeling of belonging to the group in Turkey

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(Kabasakal and Bodur, 1998). These findings are in accordance with the study of Aycan et al., (2000). They claim that managers in Turkey believed that employees, by nature, did not take a proactive stance to their work and feel obligated to help others within the organizational context. Centralized decision making, autocratic and paternalistic leadership style are the dominant characteristics of Turkish management culture. Aycan et al. (2000) conceptualized and operationalized the paternalism construct in a recent study. Accordingly, paternalism has been described as a subordinate-superior relationship, whereby people in authority assume the role of a parent and consider it an obligation to provide support and protection to those under their care. Subordinates, in turn, reciprocate such care, support and protection of the paternal authority by showing loyalty, deference and compliance to him/her (Özkalp et. al., 2009). Kozan (1989, 2002) found that the tendency was to be more accommodative towards one's superiors expressed as respect for authority; suppressing/and or avoiding competition between peers which indicates the focus on collectivism and group harmony; and imposing solutions on subordinates which is analogous to a parent-child relationship (Özkalp et. al., 2009).

As mentioned above, actual leadership behavior and followers beliefs and perceptions are in dynamic interaction embedded within the wider context of social structures. Thus culture can be defined as an important contextual factor that moderates the effects of managerial practices and motivational techniques on employees' behavior (Erez, 1994). Erez and Early (1993) suggest that management practices that are consistent with a society's predominant cultural values are evaluated favorably, initiate feelings of satisfaction, and motivate the employee to

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contribute to the organization (Marcoulides et.al. 1998). In a similar vein, Hofstede (1991) provides a framework for classifying work-related values in different national cultures and concludes that it is possible to classify work-related values into four dimensions: individualism versus collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity versus femininity. Hofstede (1991) suggests that these value dimensions influence preferences or tendencies toward certain organizational practices. Indeed, several reporters support the heavy influence of culture on leadership styles, indicating that unique cultural characteristics such as language, religion, and values necessitate distinct leadership approaches in different societies (Ronen & Shenkar 1985, Triandis 1993). In a recent study Baltaş (2010), emphasizes this approach. There are some words and concepts used commonly in Turkish management and leadership jargon which simply do not exist in other languages (Baltaş, 2010). By comparing the findings of the GLOBE research (Chhokar et. Al., 2007), Baltaş (2010) finds the leadership styles of Turkish managers mainly autocratic (%53), paternalistic (%25), interactive (%13,6) and democratic (%8,5) and concluded an improvement in time, which he attributes on globalization in general and industrialization of Turkey in particular. Aslan (2001) also points to the increase in achievement orientation of the Turkish leaders because of rapid economic growth. However, Aslan (2001) argues that achievement orientation in Turkey other historical roots too; unlike Western European empires, ordinary subjects in the Ottoman Empire, even slaves, were able to climb to higher places, including the top echelons of political power, because of the absence of an aristocratic class. Thus leadership behaviors in Turkey include achievement orientation

and assertive characteristics which are analogues to the hierarchical-autocratic style (Paşa at al. 2001). Outstanding leaders in Turkey are perceived to be decisive and make decisions on their own rather than seeking consensus. On the other hand, they are expected to involve everybody in the team in a collaborative way indicating the findings of Hofstede (1984) and Chhokar et.al (2007) and participating style serves this purpose. Yet, Paşa et al. (2001) argues that participative roles of leaders in Turkey have different meaning than in the other parts of the world. Participation is used more to make followers feel part of the group than incorporating their ideas into the decision making process or seeking consensus. It has been used by the leaders with the purpose of shoving the followers that "they are valued" rather than improving decision making (Paşa et al. 2001) which is conforming with high power distance, collectivist and high uncertainty avoidance dimensions of Turkish work-related values.

Can it be concluded that the culture is the most dominant, maybe the determining factor explaining the leadership styles? The rationalistic school argues that leadership practices are rational responses to such factors as industrial development, technological level, and the degree of competitiveness (Hoecklin, 1995). Therefore, conditions determine what practices will be used, not geographic location. Marcoulides et.al.(1998) offers a reconciliation between the culturalist and rationalist paradigms. In a research comparing Turkish and US managers, they find that a range of managerial styles exist in both countries, implying rationalistic approach, yet a great deal of difference on the emphasis placed on each style indicating the culturalist approach.

Rating on a continuum of six leadership styles ranging from directive to nondirective, they find that Turkish managers had higher scores at the directive end of the continuum (i.e., for the Autocratic style) and US managers had higher scores for the nondirective end of the continuum (i.e., for the Consensus style) (Marcoulides et.al. 1998).

Kozan & Ergin (1999) takes a different perspective by questioning the effects of culture on leadership not on national level but on intra-national level. They take Turkey having a heterogeneous culture with major differences in values among various segments, due to systematic two-centuries-long attempts to transform from a traditional society to an industrialized nation. By cross coupling Interactive style (problem solving) to openness to change, Proactive style (forcing) to self-enchantment, Reactive style (accommodating) to self-transcendence and finally, Inactive style (avoiding) to conservatism, the successfully analyzed the underlying value systems effecting the leadership styles. Their research revealed that, among Turkish managers there is a strong and persistent relationship between tradition, security and conformity values and avoiding style, as well as power values and proactive style, which is in conformity with the studies of Hofstede (1984) and Dilber (1981).

Chapter II

THE RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

The purpose and objectives of this study is to identify and describe the differences between "ideal" and "(current)" leadership styles in both "individual level" and "intergroup level", across various control variables. Taking control variables (independent variables) one at a time, hypotheses to be tested are constructed along the following lines in terms of gender, age, task, experience, education, sector, and ownership.

2.1 Measurements for the Demographic Variables

2.1.1 The effects of gender differences on leadership styles

Brewer, Mitchell & Weber (2002) noted that an increasing number of women are moving into decision-making positions in organizations and that there has been an increased focus on the

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possible existence of sex differences in the ability to manage conflict as a leader. Early psychological studies in gender differences resonate with studies involving gender differentials is socialization (Brahnam et. al., 2005). Traditionally women are assumed to define themselves within the context of relationships (Gilligan 1982) and are socialized to abandon personal goals for the benefit of others. Men in contrast are assumed to define themselves in terms of domination and control and are perceived as more aggressive and independent (Eagly and Karau 1991). Havenga (2006) found that females made use of the interactive style on a more frequent basis than men, but the other styles showed no significant difference in usage by either of the two genders. Researchers have indicated that female supervisors tend to use interactive, compromising, collaborative, accommodating, integrating, cooperative, avoiding, pro-social and communicative methods. In contrast, there is evidence that male managers tend to use more aggressive, competitive, confronting, assertive, pro-task, and coercive strategies more often and faster then female managers (Sutschek, 2002). Similarly, the Sorenson and Hawkins study (1995) found that males were more competitive then females and females were more cooperative and communicative then males in leadership style. A late research conducted by Humbert Consulting Group set out to compile and analyze performance evaluations; concludes that women excel man on motivating others, fostering communication, producing high-quality work and 'listening to the others' all of which are indicators of interactive leadership style (Sharpe 2000). Women's and Men's scores in the categories of strategic planning and analyzing issues were statistically even (Robbins & Coulter, 2007).

Within the light of all these work, one should expect a higher incidence of interactive style among females.

The following hypotheses are posed for the basic leadership styles:

>**Hypothesis 1a:** "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between genders on the intra-group and inter-group level."

>**Hypothesis 1b:** "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between genders on the intra-group and inter-group level."

The following hypothesis is posed for comparison between current and desired leadership styles:

>**Hypothesis 1c:** "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between genders on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.1.2 The Effects of Age Differences on Leadership Styles

It can be assumed that higher age can go along with experience and higher managerial positions and might cause change in the leadership styles. Havenga's (2006) study finds that the older the actor becomes the less proactive and reactive the style used becomes although variance was not particularly large. A study conducted by Zhang (2005) found that older participants favored the reactive style over the interactive style. Young adults either

preferred the interactive style to the reactive style, as predicted, or judged the two styles as equally positive.

Another investigation has explored management style preferences from a life-span perspective (Williams & Bergstrom, 1995). Williams and Bergstrom (1995) have examined intergenerational conflict management and found that respondents reported most satisfaction with an older co-worker who was interactive and least satisfaction with a young co-worker who competed (proactive). Bergstrom and Nussbaum (1996) found that younger individuals preferred the competing (proactive) style, whereas older people preferred the problem-solving (interactive) style. These authors argued that older adults have learned from their lifetime experience and use an engaging, cooperative style, whereas young adults have yet to learn that skill. Expanding this research to include middle-aged participants, Bergstrom (1997) found support for the claim that preference for problem-solving in conflict management increases with age.

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of age has been constructed as follows:

Hypothesis 2a: "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between the age groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis 2b: "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between the age groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

And for comparison between current and desired leadership styles for each age group:

> **Hypothesis 1c:** "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between the age groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.1.3 The effects of Task Differences on Leadership Styles

Organizational relationships are almost inevitably hierarchical and characterized by inequalities in relative power and status (Aquino, 2000). Hierarchal authority, accompanied by coercive and reward power, translate directly into observable differences in how persons act and react in relations. Thus power originated from the task structure will have a direct effect on the basic leadership styles. It sure is sound to expect that as people progress through their careers; their predominant leadership style would evolve too. A research conducted by Brousseau et. al. (2006), concluded that the leadership style of a successful director is the opposite of a successful first-line supervisor's. Moving up the ladder makes one move further and further away from where the action takes place, so it's essential to use a leadership style that keeps the information pipeline open and the data flowing freely. Therefore it should be expected to find more and more open and interactive leadership style as one moves upward the ladder, because managers must drop the attachment to the technicality oriented hierarchic proactive modes of leadership in favor of the more inclusive interactive style. Interestingly, Brousseau at.al.,

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(2006) finds a sharp turn at the CEO level. Beyond the directory level, the pressure to think in an exploratory and creative way drops off, and more focused thinking again becomes important. At this level managers must narrow down their choices and commit people and resources to particular plans, thus employ more proactive style.

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of task (management level) has been constructed as follows:

> **Hypothesis 3a:** "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between the task groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."
>
> **Hypothesis 3b:** "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between the task groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

For comparison between current and desired leadership styles for each task group:

> **Hypothesis 3c:** "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between the task groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.1.4 The Effect of Work Experience within the Same Organization to the Leadership Styles

Same rationale for the age should be valid for experience too. Higher experience can go along with age and higher managerial positions and might cause change in the leadership styles. Therefore higher the experience of the subject, more interactive style then the other styles should be expected. The effect of higher experience should have an effect on expert power which will have direct influence of the style selected by the actor. Regardless of age, participants will evaluate the experienced worker (more senior in years) as having more expert power. Some researchers found that job experience matters a lot in influencing leadership styles. Athanasaw (2003) found that the length of service is identified as being a significant factor influencing the leadership styles of the executives. In a research completed by Giri & Santra, (2010), observations indicated that the impact of experience of employees on leadership styles have been found to be positive and significant. This indicates that the mindset of the older employees is different from that of the younger employees. Same study indicates same reverse findings at the higher ages; highly experienced employees have high mean scores on laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership displays an absence of behavior (which can be labeled as inactive style), where decisions are not made, actions are delayed, and authority is not utilized. Here, it implies that organizations with the increasing age and experience, some people avoid taking up challenging tasks and as a result they might develop certain characteristics of the laissez-faire leadership. The same difference was found in a study

conducted among academicians. Academics with 11-20 years of experience accommodate more. The reason might be that the older they get the more collaborative and interactive they become. (Çetin & Hacıhafızoğlu 2004). In general, the researchers contended that the amount of managerial experience might influence preferences for certain managerial styles (Sorenson & Hawkins, 1995).

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of experience (employment history) has been constructed as follows:

Hypotheses for the basic leadership styles:

Hypothesis 4a: "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between experience groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis 4b: "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between experience groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis for comparison between current and desired leadership styles:

Hypothesis 4c: "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between experience groups on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.1.5 The Effects of Level of Education to the Leadership Styles

Again same rationale for the age should be valid for experience too. Higher education expected to accompany a demand for more interactive style for both ways (upward and downward). Therefore higher the education of the subject, more interactive style then the other styles should be expected. In fact research suggested that the changes which have taken place in the educational background of the workforce may have important implications for the management styles and the effectiveness of these styles (Lawler, 1985). Pinto & Ferrer (2002) find significant differences among the participant from different educational backgrounds, especially on proactive and interactive styles. They found that up to graduate degree dominant style is proactive and inactive, after post-graduate degree the dominant style switches to proactive and interactive styles. Yet some other studies find contradictory results. A study conducted by Vokic & Sontor (2009), find highest rating among the graduate level for the reactive style, and lowest for the proactive style, but in general concluded that the differences are not statistically significant.

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of education has been constructed as follows:

Hypothesis 5a: "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between the groups of different educational background on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis 5b: "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between the groups of different educational background on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis posed for comparison between current and desired leadership styles is:

Hypothesis 5c: "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between the groups of different educational background on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.2 Measurements for the Institutional Variables

2.2.1 The Effects of the Sector Differences (Services – Manufacturing) on Leadership Styles

Concerning the sector type more interactive style should be expected for services producing sector. Because more direct contact with the consumers which necessitates quick action is the differentiating characteristic of services sector from goods producing sector. Hence the necessity of more flexible, quick responding staff makes interactive strategy feebler for the successful conduct of business. Therefore, more interactive style among the services producing respondents then the other styles should be expected compared to goods producing respondents. There are some studies comparing profession and management style (Cornille et. al., 1999; Çetin & Hacihafizoğlu, 2004), who find

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significant variations in the styles of managers. Contrarily Vokic & Sontor (2009) find no significant difference at all. It should be, however, expostulated that no research related to compare the styles of the managers of service producing activities and goods producing activities encountered.

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of sector type has been constructed as follows:

> **Hypothesis 6a:** "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles between the sectors on the intra-group and inter-group level."
>
> **Hypothesis 6b:** "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles between the sectors on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis posed for comparison between current and desired leadership styles is:

> **Hypothesis 6c:** "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles between the sectors on the intra-group and inter-group level."

2.2.2 The Effects of Differences on Institutional Ownership (Public – Private) on Leadership Styles

We cannot locate a consensus to say the leadership styles vary among the public sector activities than private. Simon (1949) argued that the means of administration (the facts) are quite

different from the ends (the values). The inference is that the values of the public sector, aimed at consensus, are different than the values of the private sector, aimed at profits. On the other hand, to say that profits are never the objective of public sector activities is equally misleading. Government projects are notoriously subject to cost-benefit analysis, and efficiency in government is a by-word of bureaucrats. Once stereotypes are discarded, similarities emerge (Murray 1975). To carry the argument further, however, a distinction made is that the criteria of political decisions are based on objectives of compromise, consensus, and democratic participation, and that these are quite different from the private sector objectives of efficiency, rationality, and profit or product maximization. But on the other hand concerning the recruitment procedures, the private sector candidates theoretically are recruited through formal credentialing systems while in the public sector, recruitment, especially for top-level positions, is often informal, ad hoc, and on a personal (who do you know) basis which usually drags employee to what is been called 'ivory tower escapism'(Long 1954).

Within the boundaries of this research more interactive and proactive style expected in the private sector against more reactive and inactive style in the public sector.

Therefore hypothesis to differentiate the leadership styles against the background of institutional ownership classified as public and private sector activities has been constructed as follows:

Hypothesis 7a: "There is a difference in ideal managerial leadership styles among the ratings between the public and privately owned institutions on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis 7b: "There is a difference in current managerial leadership styles among the ratings between the public and privately owned institutions on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Hypothesis posed for comparison between current and desired leadership styles is:

Hypothesis 7c: "There is a difference between the ideal and current leadership styles among the ratings between the public and privately owned institutions on the intra-group and inter-group level."

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

3.1 Research Instrument

A questionnaire form used earlier by Dilber and Alpay, was utilized to collect data. Front page of the form contained demographic variables such as gender, age, education, experience, task (managerial level), and also variables indicating the organization such as, sector type (public – private), institutional characteristic (services – manufacturing). The form consisted of 8 questions to be answered both for ideal and current milieus. The first four questions describe intra-group behavior, while the last four relate to intergroup behavior of the participants.

For each question, four alternative behavior patterns are offered. The respondents are asked to rate the most desirable (ideal) behavior as 1, and the least desirable behavior as 4, on a

four point scale. They are further asked to make a similar rating in the most currently predominant behavior and the least predominant one, again on a four point scale. Each of the four alternatives represent a different leadership style; namely, interactive, proactive, reactive and inactive. As can be seen from the final summary page of the questionnaire, column I represents interactive style; column II represents proactive style; column III represents reactive style, and column IV represents inactive style.

3.2 Sample

For convenience all of the respondents have been selected from İzmir area. The toughest challenge in collecting data was to convince public authorities that this research posed no risk of exposing their institutions to media. After some disappointing encounters, the deputy manager of the district municipality agreed to cooperate. With his help two other institutions from central municipality allowed the collection of data among their staff. Except for the addition of a small group of public school teachers, the mass of the public sector data, originates from these two institutions.

Collecting data from the private sector was much easier. Three companies from manufacturing sector, producing canned food, textile and industrial chemicals, located in a nearby industrial zone, allowed collection of data from their personnel. Another five rather small companies covered the collection of data for the services sector.

For data collection, respondents were gathered in small groups, preferably during the break time, not to obstruct the proceedings of their work. They were briefed about the questionnaire by a short speech and asked to fill the forms individually; always a pollster was present to answer the possible questions, to reduce the errors. Even with this precaution, approximately %20 of the forms filled turn out to be unusable.

Of the 422 forms filled, only 378 turned out to be usable. Thus the resultant rate of usable questionnaires was 89.57% (N=378), which can be considered high, taking into account the complexity of the questionnaire.

Biographical data indicated 54.50% (N=206) male respondents against 45.50% (N=172) female respondents. In the grouping of age; 8.20% (N=31) for 18-25 age group, 41.20% (N=156) for 26-35 age group, 37.30% (N=141) for 36-45 age group, 13.00% (N=49) for 46-60 age group and 0,30% (N=1) for 61-90 group. Because last group has only one respondent, it has been merged with the previous group, thus resulting four groups instead of five.

Grouping for the task differences resulted in 71.40% (N=270) as workers, 8.70% (N=33) as team managers, 12,20% (N=46) as department manager and finally 29% (N=29) as general manager.

To see the differences between workers and managerial staff (whatever the level) same data has been re-grouped and re-analyzed:

first group 71.40% (N=270) as workers and 28.60% (N=108) as managerial staff.

Grouping in accordance for the experience consists of 5 groups. 12.70% (N=48) has less than 1 year of experience, 27.00% (N=102) has 1 to 5 years of experience, 23.50% (N=89) has 6 to 10 years of experience, 22.50% (N=85) has 11 to 15 years of experience and finally 14.30% (N=54) has more than 16 years of experience.

Results for education came out as follows: 9.50% (N=36) primary school, 28.80% (N=109) high school, 55.00% (N=208) University level and 6.70% (N=25) post graduate level education. Because of the imbalances of the frequencies and expected insignificant difference between primary - high school and university – postgraduate education, data has been regrouped as follows: 38.36% (N=145) for primary + high school education as the first group and 61.34% (N=233) for graduate and post graduate education level as the second group.

For the analysis of sector type (i.e. services – manufacturing) the resultant data demonstrated a balanced distribution. 53.20% (N=201) representing services producing activities and 46.80% (N=177) representing goods producing activities been made grouping for the sector types.

This research failed to locate and reach public + goods producing institutions. Thus to compare public and private sectors, private sector data has been split into private + service and private + goods producing institutions. Than regrouping the data as: 52.74% (N=106) as private + service producing activity respondents and 47.26% (N=95) as public + service producing activity from a total frequency of 201 instead of 378.

And finally the results indicated a very small amount of (6.30% N=24) foreign owned institutions against (93.70% N=354) domestically owned institutions, thus this subject has been totally excluded from the analysis.

The final shape of demographical data and corresponding frequencies and percentages are as follows:

Table 1: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF THE SAMPLE AND CORRESPONDING
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	206	54,5
	Female	172	45,5
Age	18-25	31	8,2
	26-35	156	41,3
	36-45	141	37,3
	46-90	50	13,3
Task	Worker	270	71,4
	Team Manager	33	8,7
	Dept Manager	46	12,2
	Gen Manager	29	7,7
Education	Primary +High School	145	38,36
	University + Post Grad	233	61,64
Experience	1 year	48	12,7
	1-5 years	102	27
	6-10 years	89	23,5
	11-15 years	85	22,5
	16 years and up	54	14,3
Sector Type	service sector	201	53,2
	goods sector	177	46,8
Institution	Private	283	74,87
	Public	95	25,13
	Total	378	100

3.3 Procedure

By answering questions, subjects rate 4 strategies (leadership styles) by valuing them on a 4-point rating scale with 1 indicating most preferred and 4 indicating least preferred. The analysis was used to determine which groups differed significantly in how they rated the dependent variable under study i.e., preferred leadership style.

Non parametric statistical tests were used to analyze the data since data were collected using an ordinal 4-point scale, and therefore did not satisfy the requirements for parametric tests.

■ Friedman's Two-way analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to generate the mean rankings of respondents' preferences for strategies (leadership styles).

■ The Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA measured differences in the patterns of responses based on the independent variables (age, task, experience, gender, education, sector type, public private).

■ Mann-Whitney U test applied to all possible pairs of contrasts of the groups within the independent variables.

■ Than Wilcoxon tests applied to analyze the differences concerning "current – ideal" differentiation among all dimensions

Figure 21: STATISTICAL TESTING DIAGRAM
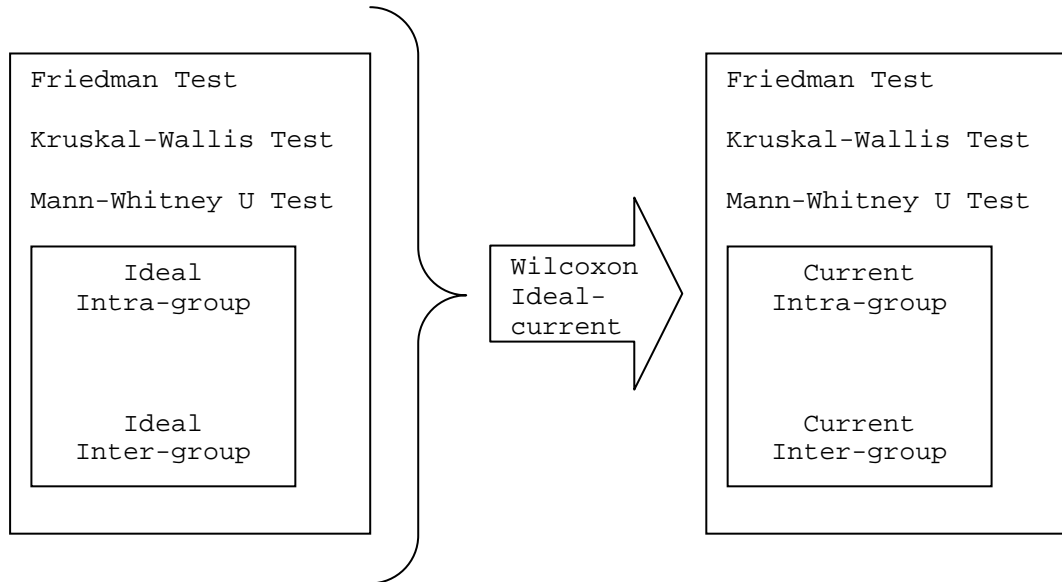
3.4 Results

3.4.1 Overall Results for the Total Data Set

Initially by inspecting the Friedman's Two-way analysis of Variance (ANOVA) covering all of the respondents' preferences for strategies (leadership styles) following is observed:

Table 2: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR ALL THE DATA AS ONE GROUP

Ranks

				Mean Rank
Interpersonal Level	Ideal	Interactive	IDINTINT	3,23
		Proactive	IDPROINT	8,23
		Reactive	IDREAINT	10,49
		Inactive	IDIKFINT	12,99
	Current	Interactive	CUINTINT	8,57
		Proactive	CUPROINT	7,67
		Reactive	CUREAINT	7,93
		Inactive	CUIKFINT	9,50
Intergroup Level	Ideal	Interactive	IDINTEXT	4,88
		Proactive	IDPROEXT	10,48
		Reactive	IDREAEXT	8,61
		Inactive	IDIKFEXT	10,00
	Current	Interactive	CUINTEXT	7,95
		Proactive	CUPROEXT	9,28
		Reactive	CUREAEXT	8,33
		Inactive	CUIKFEXT	7,88

Test Statistics [a]

N	378
Chi-Square	1284,780
df	15
Asymp. Sig.	,000

a Friedman Test

On interpersonal level, ideal rankings are as expected; interactive style being the most preferred style, proactive second, reactive third and inactive least. The current perceived rankings are very close to each other, proactive and reactive styles slightly more preferred than interactive and reactive strategies.

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The gap between ideal and current strategies may be result of the general organizational climate prevailing in Turkey.

Dilber (1981) detected and emphasized this point as:

> "*The managers' conducts in Turkey conflicts with the contemporary management theories. However, managers explain this contradiction from a more pragmatic perspective by stating that the current realities of practical conditions necessitates such practices*"

On intergroup level, the moderating effect of being in a group is clearly revealed. Most hoped for ideal style is still interactive. But second most ideal style is reactive instead of proactive. Proactive style is the least ideal style on this intergroup level, ranked even behind the inactive style, meaning that respondents do not see proactive strategy as a preferable strategy for the group as a whole.

Again on intergroup level, current perceived styles demonstrates no significantly different rankings.

The gap (difference between ideal and current styles) on the level of intergroup, reveal wider difference on interactive style; less in ideal and more in perceived. On interactive style current is less then ideal while on all the other styles (proactive, reactive and inactive) current is more than ideal.

3.4.2 Results for the Demographic Variables

3.4.2.1 Results demonstrating the effects of gender differences on leadership styles

Table 3: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR GENDER

Ranks		Main Rank MALE	Main Rank FEMALE
Intra-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	3,42	3,01
	Proactive	8,17	8,30
	Reactive	10,37	10,65
	Inactive	12,88	13,13
Current	Interactive	8,15	9,07
	Proactive	7,92	7,37
	Reactive	8,24	7,56
	Inactive	9,59	9,39
Inter-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	5,07	4,65
	Proactive	10,44	10,53
	Reactive	8,77	8,42
	Inactive	9,57	10,51
Current	Interactive	7,74	8,20
	Proactive	9,79	8,65
	Reactive	8,15	8,56
	Inactive	7,76	8,03
Test Statistics [a]			
N		206	172
Chi-Square		657,711	647,852
df		15	15
Asymp. Sig.		,000	,000
a Friedman Test			

On interpersonal level and on ideal rankings, female respondents rate interactive strategy higher than male respondents (3.01 < 3.42 in reverse order rating) and rate inactive strategy less (9.07 > 8.15) in reverse order rating.

Contrarily, they rate perceived (current) interactive strategy less than male respondents (9.07 > 7.15 in reverse order rating) and

reactive strategy more than male respondents (7.56 < 8.24 in reverse order rating). Therefore the gap between ideal and current styles for interactive style is wider in female respondents than male respondents.

Female respondents perceive proactive active strategy more than male respondents and in ideal rate proactive strategy less than male respondents. Therefore the gap is wider than male respondents but in completely opposite way then interactive strategy. In interactive strategy ideal is higher than perceived, yet in proactive strategy ideal is much less than ratings for perceived current situation.

On intergroup level, most hoped for ideal style is again interactive. But female respondents rate it higher than male respondents. And again on intergroup level, current perceived styles demonstrates no significantly different rankings but female respondents perceive less interactive style than male respondents.

Both Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney U test for gender differences revealed statistically significant differences on three and four strategies consecutively. On interpersonal level, there is statistically significant difference between male and female respondents in interactive strategy (chi-square 6.795, Z=-2.607, sig. on <,05). Female respondents rated significantly higher. On intergroup level, again there is statistically significant difference between male and female respondents in interactive strategy (chi-square 4.851, Z=-2.531, sig. on <,05). Female respondents rated significantly higher. Remarkably, on intergroup ideal strategy, there is statistically significant difference for interactive style (Z=-3.163, sig. on <,05). And finally, on

intergroup level and current perceived proactive strategy, there is statistically significant difference between genders; females perceive higher proactive strategy than male respondents (chi-square 6.407, Z= -2,531, sig. on <,05).

Wilcoxon signed rank test for gender to compare the differences between ideal and current leadership styles revealed that; on interpersonal level while the gap between ideal and current strategies do not differ for male respondents (Z= -1.121, not sig. on <,05), it differs for female respondents (Z= -2.757, sig. on <,05). For male respondents what they perceive and what is ideal is close to each other, but for females they are much different, confirming the findings of Friedman test where female respondents perceive more proactive strategy in current than ideal. Same difference is visible on interpersonal level too. While male respondents' ratings of proactive strategy do not differ (Z= -1.808, not sig. on <,05), female respondents' do differ statistically (Z= -2.757, sig. on <,05).

Figure 22: GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RATINGS FOR GENDER
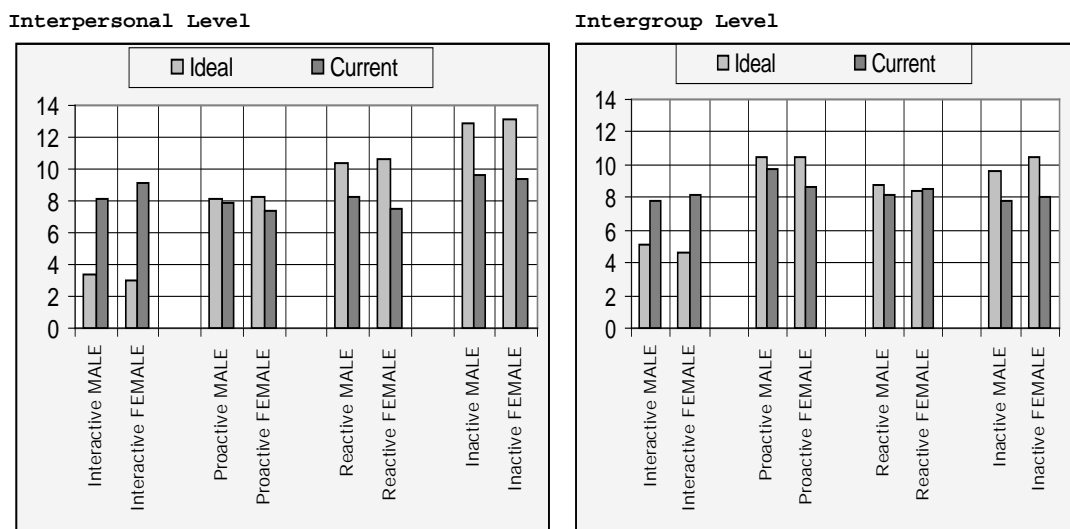
Within the light of these findings we can conclude that Hypothesis 1a is accepted for interactive style for both on intra-group and inter-group level and for inactive style for only on the inter-group level. Hypothesis 1b is accepted only for proactive style on inter-group level. Finally Hypothesis 1c is accepted for proactive style for both intra-group and inter-group level.

Table 4: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 1a
	Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
		Proactive	Rejected
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Rejected
	Inter-group	Interactive	Accepted
		Proactive	Rejected
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Accepted
Current Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 1b
	Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
		Proactive	Rejected
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Rejected
	Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
		Proactive	Accepted
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Rejected
Gap between ideal and current			Hypothesis 1c
	Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
		Proactive	Rejected
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Rejected
	Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
		Proactive	Accepted
		Reactive	Rejected
		Inactive	Rejected

3.4.2.2 Results demonstrating the effects of age differences on leadership styles

Rating of interactive style is systematically increasing in parallel with age. Remarkably first age group of 18-25 ages rated proactive strategy very high (6,68 < 8.36 , 8.35 , 8.40). On the other groups proactive strategy slightly lovers as age goes upper, which is consistent with the predictions, but the differences are rather small.

Table 5: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR AGE

Ranks		Main Rank 18-25	Main Rank 26-35	Main Rank 36-45	Main Rank 46-90
Intra-group Level					
Ideal	Interactive	5,18	3,02	3,53	1,85
	Proactive	6,68	8,36	8,35	8,40
	Reactive	10,66	10,17	10,54	11,29
	Inactive	11,69	13,4	12,63	13,53
Current	Interactive	7,1	8,87	8,69	8,21
	Proactive	8,71	7,47	7,3	8,66
	Reactive	8,11	8,00	8,02	7,34
	Inactive	10,27	9,4	9,59	9,09
Inter-group Level					
Ideal	Interactive	5,08	5,28	4,84	3,60
	Proactive	9,74	10,32	10,57	11,17
	Reactive	9,73	8,49	8,34	9,04
	Inactive	9,27	9,74	10,37	10,21
Current	Interactive	8,52	7,97	7,91	7,64
	Proactive	8,82	9,18	9,66	8,79
	Reactive	8,89	8,64	7,79	8,56
	Inactive	7,55	7,70	7,90	8,62
Test Statistics a					
N		31	156	141	50
Chi-Square		72,044	537,642	467,54	259,183
df		15	15	15	15
Asymp. Sig.		,000	,000	,000	,000
a Friedman Test					

Kruskal Wallis test, conducted to test multi groups in accordance with age find that the only statistically significant difference exists in interactive strategy at the interpersonal level and ideal situation (chi-square 12.678, sig. on <,05 level). For all the other strategies, demographic variable 'age' does not demonstrate any significant change in strategy.

The Wilcoxon test conducted for age groupings revealed that between current and ideal, there are statistically significant differences on almost every strategy. But as a general tendency, as age increases gap increases as well. Proactive strategy demonstrates significant variations among the age groups for both interpersonal and intergroup level. Among18-25 age group there is no statistically significant difference between current and ideal strategies (Z=-1.500, not sig. on <,05 level for 18-25 years group, but Z= -2.740, sig. on < .05 level for 26-35 , 36-45 and 45-90 years of age groups). Again proactive strategy demonstrates variations on intergroup level too. 18-25 age group shows no significant difference (Z=-1.066, not sig. on <,05 level), but for 26-35 age group there is significant difference (Z=-2.473, sig. on <,05 level), 36-45 group no significant difference (Z=-1.618, not sig. on <,05 level), and finally 45-90 group there is significant difference (Z=-2.932, sig. on <,05 level).

Figure 23: GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RATINGS FOR AGE

Interpersonal Level
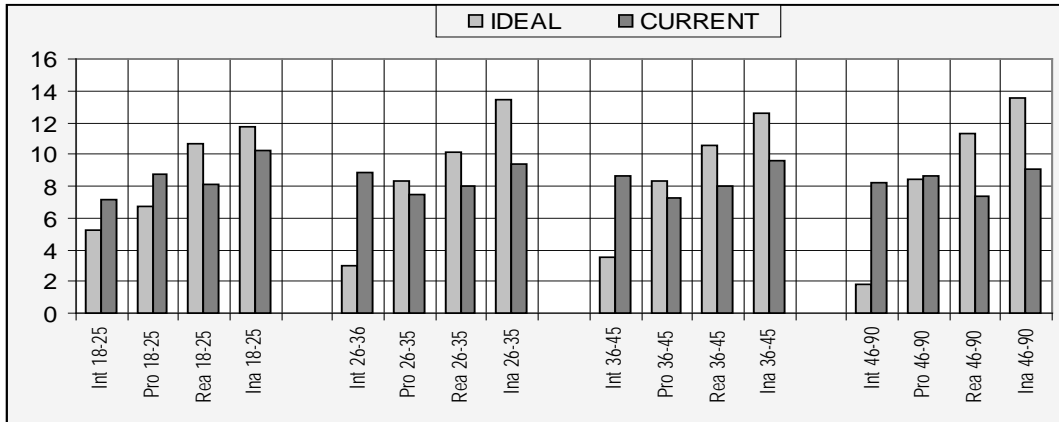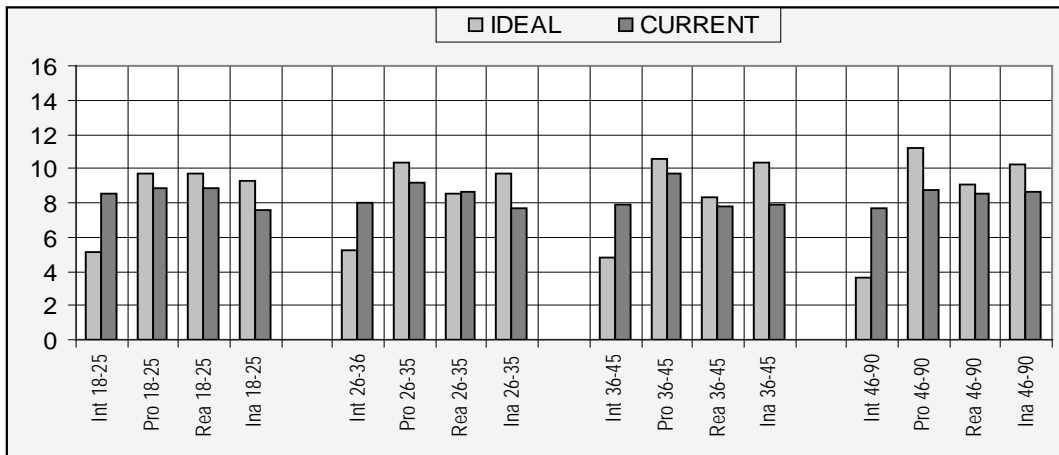
Intergroup Level

Therefore it is been concluded that Hypothesis 2a is accepted for interactive style only on ideal, intra-group level. For all the other styles on all levels it is rejected. Similarly Hypothesis 2b is rejected totally for all styles at all levels. And finally Hypothesis 2c is accepted for proactive and inactive styles on intra-group level, only proactive style on inter-group level.

Table 6: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR AGE DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 2a
Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Current Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 2b
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current			Hypothesis 2c
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Accepted
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

3.4.2.3 Results demonstrating the effects of task differences on leadership styles

3.4.2.3.1. Results by taking task groups as intended

Rating of interactive style is systematically increasing in parallel with task just like age but more steep an increase. And

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rating of proactive strategy gradually decreases in reverse direction to the respondents grouping for task.

Table 7: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR TASK

Ranks		Main Rank WORKER	Main Rank TEAM MG	Main Rank DPRT MN	Main Rank GENR MN
Intra-group Level					
Ideal	Interactive	3,44	2,97	2,62	2,55
	Proactive	8,42	7,33	7,91	7,97
	Reactive	10,31	10,82	11,23	10,67
	Inactive	12,77	13,88	13,32	13,55
Current	Interactive	8,79	7,88	8,16	7,95
	Proactive	7,75	6,30	8,18	7,66
	Reactive	7,81	8,98	7,78	8,05
	Inactive	9,25	10,58	9,51	10,6
Inter-group Level					
Ideal	Interactive	4,95	5,03	4,38	4,76
	Proactive	10,65	9,56	10,23	10,29
	Reactive	8,65	9,02	8,30	8,28
	Inactive	9,81	10,09	10,91	10,12
Current	Interactive	8,17	7,65	7,53	6,86
	Proactive	9,10	10,47	9,50	9,21
	Reactive	8,34	8,30	8,23	8,43
	Inactive	7,79	7,14	8,20	9,05

Test Statistics [a]

	WORKER	TEAM MG	DPRT MN	GENR MN
N	270	33	46	29
Chi-Square	845,784	147,691	198,994	125,426
df	15	15	15	15
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000	,000	,000

a Friedman Test

Kruskal Wallis test for one way between-groups analysis revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between task groups. Therefore the differences in the mean rankings of age groups are not statistically significant.

Wilcoxson signer rank test to compare the differences between ideal and current styles revealed that; between current and ideal, interactive strategy on interpersonal level exhibit consistent strategically meaningful difference among the task levels. But on

proactive strategy while there is a difference for workers (Z=-7.086, sig. on <,001 level), and the management levels (team Z=-1.327 not sig. on <,05 level, department Z=-0.111 not sig. on <,05 level, General Man. Z=-0.547, not sig. on <,05). Same variation is valid on intergroup level too. In accordance with these results it should be concluded that both Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b is rejected for all styles at all levels. Hypothesis 3c is accepted for proactive and reactive styles in intra-group level and proactive and reactive styles in inter-group level.

Table 8: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR TASK DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies		Hypothesis 3a
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Current Leadership Strategies		Hypothesis 3b
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current		Hypothesis 3c
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Accepted

These findings seem provocative enough to re-group the task data as "workers-managers" and conduct the same analysis to gain further insights.

3.4.2.3.2 Results by regrouping tasks as worker – manager

Table 9: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR TASK (RE-GROUPED)

Ranks		Main Rank WORKER	Main Rank MANAGER
Intra-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	3,44	2,71
	Proactive	8,42	7,75
	Reactive	10,31	10,95
	Inactive	12,77	13,55
Current	Interactive	8,79	8,02
	Proactive	7,75	7,47
	Reactive	7,81	8,22
	Inactive	9,25	10,13
Inter-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	4,95	4,68
	Proactive	10,65	10,04
	Reactive	8,65	8,51
	Inactive	9,81	10,45
Current	Interactive	8,17	7,39
	Proactive	9,10	9,72
	Reactive	8,34	8,31
	Inactive	7,79	8,10
	Test Statistics [a]		
	N	270	108
	Chi-Square	845,784	458,413
	df	15	15
	Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000
	a Friedman Test		

The differentiation between workers and managers are more visible on the ideal, interpersonal level. But after moving intergroup level differences becomes much more 'smoothed'. Further analysis made on this grouping by using Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal-Wallis test revealed statistically significant differences on interactive (Chi-square= 3.914, Z=-1.978, sig. on <,05 level) and inactive (Chi-square=5.327, Z=-2.308, sig. on <,05 level) styles both ideal and on interpersonal level.

Indeed, main ranks of managers on interactive strategy is much higher than workers (2.71 < 3.43 in reverse order rating) and much lover in inactive strategy (13.55 > 12.77 in reverse order rating)

Wilcoxon signed rank test conducted to detect the gap between ideal and current strategies for the differences between workers and managers revealed that; While workers find the difference between current and ideal strategies significantly different (Z=-2.595, sig. on <,05 level), managers perception did not demonstrate statistically meaningful difference (Z=-0.951, not sig. on <,05 level).

Figure 24: GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RATINGS FOR TASK (RE-GROUPED)

Interpersonal Level
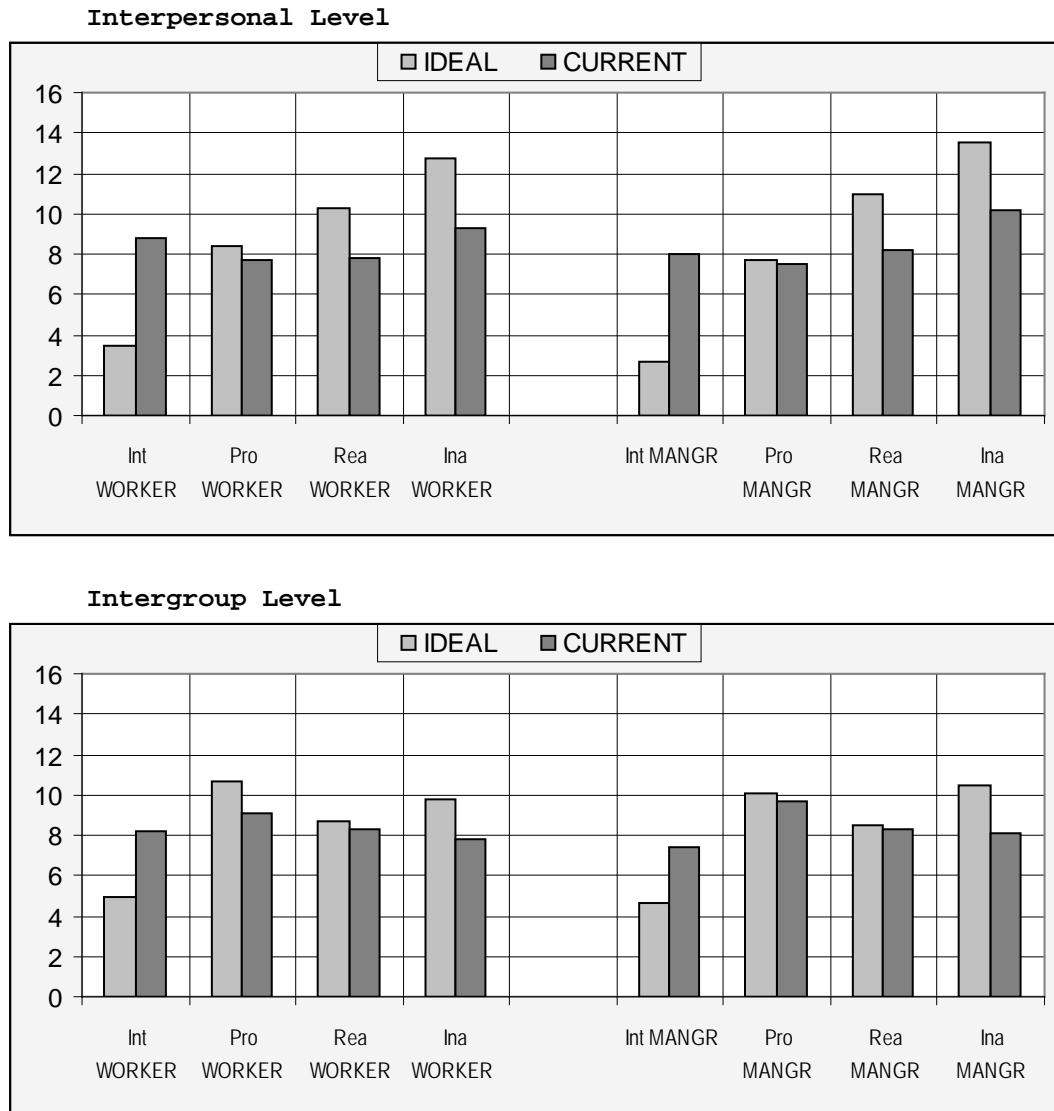
Intergroup Level

Within the light of these results re-evaluation of Hypothesis for task differences are as follows: Hypothesis 3a is accepted for interactive and inactive styles in ideal, intra-group level, while rejected for all the current styles at the same level. Hypothesis 3b is rejected for all the styles at all levels. An finally again, Hypothesis 3c is accepted for proactive styles both for inter-group and intra-group level.

Table 10: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR TASK DIFFERENCES (RE-GROUPED)

Ideal Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 3a

Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Accepted
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Current Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 3b

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current   Hypothesis 3c

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

3.4.2.4 Results demonstrating the effects of work experience within the same organization to the leadership styles

Table 11: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR EXPERIENCE

Ranks		Main Rank 1 Year	Main Rank 1-5 Years	Main Rank 6-10 Years	Main Rank 11-15 Years	Main Rank 16 and Up
Intra-group level						
Ideal	Interactive	4,52	3,31	3,89	2,11	2,62
	Proactive	8,36	7,59	8,23	8,59	8,73
	Reactive	8,84	10,45	10,28	11,34	11,08
	Inactive	12,56	13,31	12,66	13,52	12,48
Current	Interactive	6,71	9,65	8,79	8,58	7,81
	Proactive	7,47	7,54	7,37	7,92	8,18
	Reactive	8,88	7,64	8,06	7,64	7,86
	Inactive	10,94	8,88	9,29	9,57	9,62
Inter-group level						
Ideal	Interactive	5,99	4,76	5,26	4,35	4,29
	Proactive	10,13	10,35	10,57	10,45	10,92
	Reactive	8,16	9,35	8,19	8,21	8,94
	Inactive	9,55	9,62	9,95	10,78	9,94
Current	Interactive	7,96	8,26	8,04	7,45	7,97
	Proactive	9,28	9,25	9,32	9,2	9,36
	Reactive	8,40	8,79	8,26	7,77	8,42
	Inactive	8,26	7,26	7,84	8,52	7,79

Test Statistics [a]

	1 Year	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16 and Up
N	48	102	89	85	54
Chi-Square	117,83	369,569	252,222	405,776	213,625
df	15	15	15	15	15
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000

a Friedman Test

In interpersonal and ideal level interactive strategy keep getting higher ratings till 16 years of experience, than a slight downward inclination on ratings occur, inactive strategy seems to fill the this place instead of interactive strategy after the level of 16 years of experience. The moderating effect of intergroup

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level ratings is visible. An interesting differentiation occurs on the 1st year employees; they rate current perceived interactive strategy considerably higher than the other groups. Again the moderating effect of being in a group is observed at this level too. Reactive strategy on interpersonal level shows same indications; 1 year experienced respondents, rate higher than the other groups.

Kruskal-Wallis test to analyze one-way between-groups variance conducted and this test detected very high statistically significant difference on interpersonal ideal interactive strategy (Chi-square=-22.297, sig. on <,001 level), and high statistically significant differences on interpersonal ideal reactive strategy (Chi-square=-15.389, sig. on <,05 level), and interpersonal current interactive strategy (Chi-square=-10.968, sig. on <,05 level).

And finally comparing the Wilcoxon test results, 1st year employees rate no difference between ideal and current reactive strategies (Z=-0.166, not sig. on <,05 level), all the other employees find statistically meaningful differences between ideal and current strategies (2-5 years Z=-4.877, sig. on <,001 level , 6-10 years Z, sig. on <,05 level, 11-15 years Z=5.798, sig. on <,001 level, 16-Up Z=-4.302, sig. on <,001 level). In intergroup level, difference between ideal and current proactive strategies are not significant for 1st year and 6-10 years experienced employees but significantly different for 2-5 years, 11-15 years, 16-Up years groups.

Graphical representation of the ratings of groups according to their experience is as follows:

Figure 25: GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RATINGS FOR EXPERIENCE

Interpersonal Level
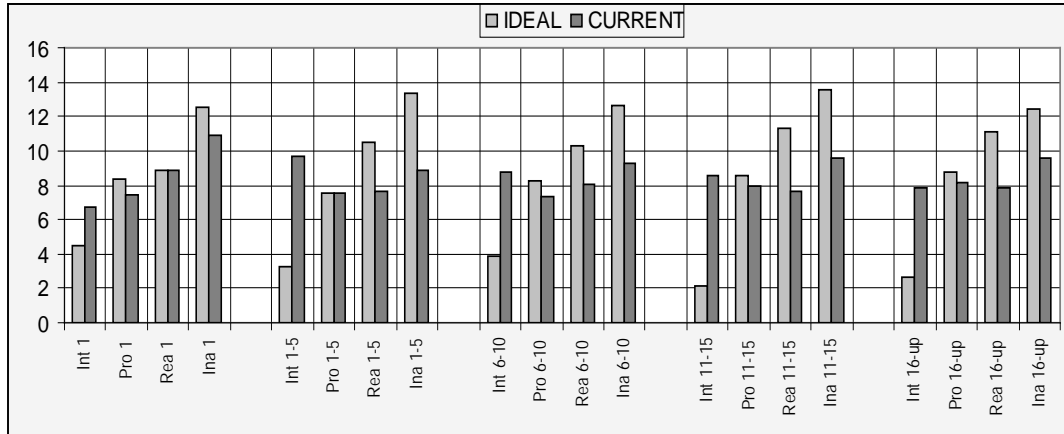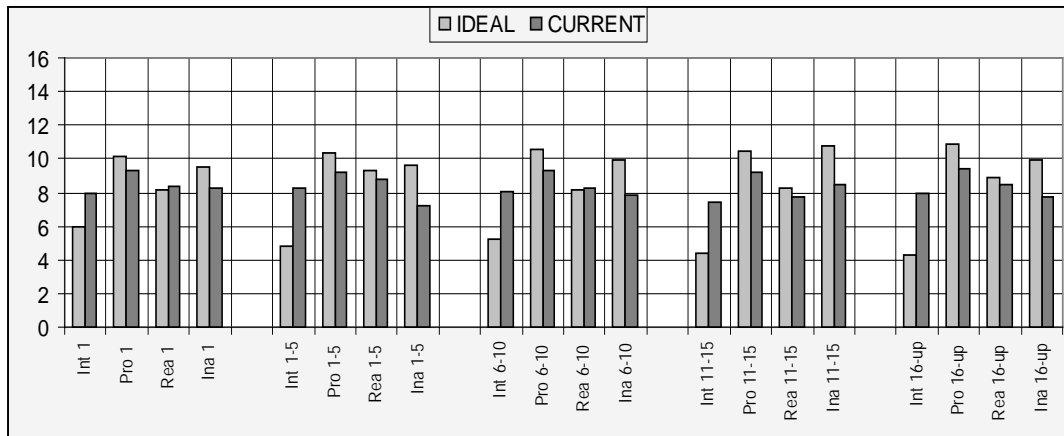
Intergroup Level

Within the light of these findings Hypothesis 4a is accepted for interactive and reactive styles in ideal intra-group level, and only interactive style on current intra-group level.

Table 12: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR EXPERIENCE DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 4a

Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Current Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 4b

Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current   Hypothesis 4c

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

3.4.2.5 Results demonstrating the effects of differences of level of education to the leadership styles

Table 13: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR EDUCATION

Ranks		Main Rank Prim+High	Main Rank Univ+Up
Intra-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	4,49	2,45
	Proactive	7,96	8,39
	Reactive	9,68	11
	Inactive	12,39	13,37
Current	Interactive	7,64	9,15
	Proactive	8,48	7,16
	Reactive	8,46	7,6
	Inactive	9,46	9,52
Inter-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	5,52	4,48
	Proactive	10,14	10,69
	Reactive	9,24	8,21
	Inactive	8,98	10,63
Current	Interactive	7,77	8,06
	Proactive	9,04	9,42
	Reactive	8,69	8,11
	Inactive	8,07	7,77

Test Statistics [a]

N	145	108
Chi-Square	318,081	458,413
df	15	15
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000

a Friedman Test

Friedman test rankings for education reveal considerably high differences on the rankings between the first group which represents the respondents who have primary and high school education and second group which represents the respondents who have university and upper level educated respondents. On interpersonal level ideal interactive strategy rated much higher by university graduates than primary and high school graduates (2.45 < 4.99 in reverse order rating). Contrarily, on all the other

strategies, proactive, reactive, and inactive; university graduates rated lower, confirming the arguments and other findings in the literature

Mann-Whitney U Test and Kruskal-Wallis Test conducted for education groups exposed many strategies as statistically significant (greatest volume of statistically meaningful differences emerged according to this grouping). On interpersonal level ideal interactive strategy (Chi-square=31.201, Z=-5,586 sig. on <,001 level), ideal reactive strategy (Chi-square=11.870, Z=-3,445 sig. on <,05 level) and ideal inactive strategy

(Chi-square=4.930, Z=-2.20 sig. on <,05 level) was meaningfully different between graduate and undergraduate level educated respondents. Again on interpersonal but current perceived strategies, interactive strategy (Chi-square= 7.986, Z=-2,528 sig. on <,05 level) and proactive strategy (Chi-square=7.403, Z=-2.721 sig. on <,05 level) demonstrated statistically meaningful differences. On intergroup level and on ideal, interactive strategy (Chi-square=7.986, Z=-2.826 sig. on <,05 level), reactive strategy (Chi-square=8.356, Z=-4.398 sig. on <,05 level) and inactive strategy (Chi-square=19.347, Z=-4.398 sig. on <,001 level) demonstrates statistically meaningful differences.

Wilcoxon signed rank test conducted to compare ideal and current styles demonstrated that; on interpersonal level, while there is not a significant difference for proactive strategy for undergraduates (Z=-0.716, not sig. on <,05 level) , there is a significant difference for grads (Z=-3.932, sig. on <,001 level) , revealing that less educated respondents expect proactive style and perceive proactive style as expected, but university graduates

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expect in ideal much less proactive strategy and find much higher
proactive strategy.

Graphical representation for the gap between ideal and current is:

Figure 26: GRAPHICAL PRESENTATIONS OF RATINGS FOR EDUCATION

Interpersonal Level
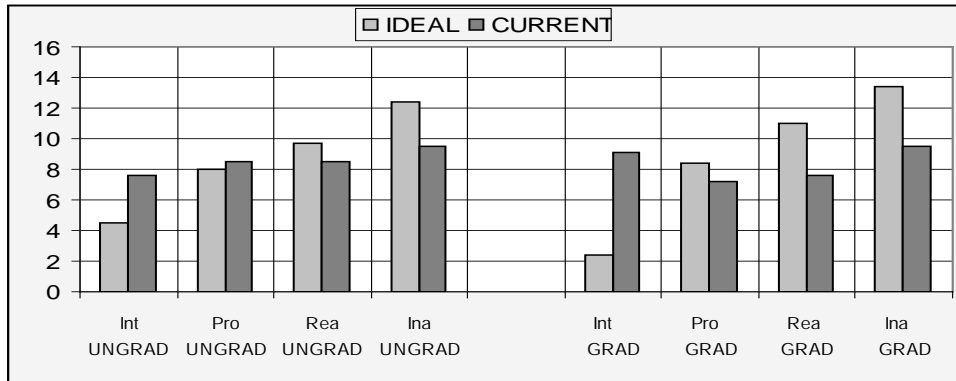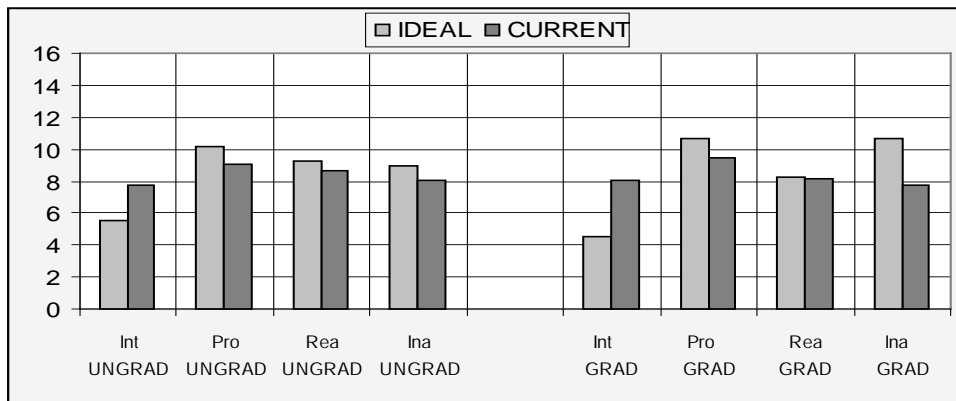
Intergroup Level

Therefore these results indicate that Hypothesis 5a is accepted for
interpersonal, reactive and inactive styles in ideal, both for
intra-group and intergroup level. Hypothesis 5b is accepted
interactive and proactive styles only at the inter-group level. And
Hypothesis 5c is accepted only for proactive style at intra-group
level.

Table 14: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR EDUCATION DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 5a

Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Accepted
Inter-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Accepted

Current Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 5b

Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current   Hypothesis 5c

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

3.4.3 Results for the Institutional Variables

3.4.3.1 Results Demonstrating the Effects of Sector Differences (Services – Manufacturing) to the Leadership Styles

Table 15: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR SECTOR

Ranks		Main Rank SERVICES	Main Rank GOODS
Intra-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	3,47	2,96
	Proactive	8,51	7,90
	Reactive	10,52	10,46
	Inactive	12,66	13,37

Current	Interactive	8,97	8,11
	Proactive	7,48	7,88
	Reactive	7,72	8,16
	Inactive	9,19	9,85
Inter-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	4,86	4,89
	Proactive	10,49	10,46
	Reactive	8,89	8,29
	Inactive	9,97	10,03

Current	Interactive	8,3	7,55
	Proactive	8,78	9,83
	Reactive	8,41	8,24
	Inactive	7,77	8,01

Test Statistics [a]

N	201	177
Chi-Square	633,051	672,323
df	15	15
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000

a Friedman Test

Friedman test rankings against the groupings for services producing sector respondents and goods producing sector respondents revealed opposite results then argued. Goods producing sector respondents rated interactive strategy slightly higher than service in interpersonal and ideal level. On all the other strategies there are no visible differences between styles. Indeed, Kruskal-Wallis

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test conducted to detect differences revealed no statistically significant

difference for this grouping and Mann-Whitney U test detected only current proactive strategy on intergroup level (Z=-2.121, sig. on <,05 level).

Wilcoxon conducted to reveal the gap between ideal and current strategies and findings demonstrated statistically significant difference between ideal and current strategy on both interpersonal and intergroup proactive strategy (Z=-3.932, sig. on <,05 level, Z=-3.966, sig. on <,001 level) for service sector, but no significant difference on proactive strategy for goods sector (Z=-0.556, not sig. on <,05 level, (Z=-1.592, not sig. on <,05 level).

Therefore Hypothesis 6a is rejected for all the styles at all the levels. Hypothesis 6b is accepted only for proactive style in inter-group level. And, Hypothesis 6c is accepted for proactive style for both intra-group and inter-group level.

Table 16: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR SECTOR DIFFERENCES

Ideal Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 6a

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Current Leadership Strategies   Hypothesis 6b

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current   Hypothesis 6c

Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

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3.4.3.2 Results demonstrating the effects of the ownership character of institution (public – private) to the leadership styles

Table 17: FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS FOR INSTITUTIONAL OWNERSHIP

Ranks		Main Rank PRIVATE	Main Rank PUBLIC
Intra-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	4,33	2,52
	Proactive	8,23	8,83
	Reactive	9,80	11,33
	Inactive	12,50	12,84
Current	Interactive	8,93	9,02
	Proactive	7,45	7,51
	Reactive	7,86	7,57
	Inactive	9,27	9,09
Inter-group Level			
Ideal	Interactive	5,66	3,97
	Proactive	9,91	11,14
	Reactive	9,26	8,47
	Inactive	9,49	10,51
Current	Interactive	8,43	8,15
	Proactive	8,53	9,06
	Reactive	8,29	8,55
	Inactive	8,05	7,46
	Test Statistics [a]		
	N	106	95
	Chi-Square	238,5	423,889
	df	15	15
	Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000
	a Friedman Test		

Friedman Test rankings reveal more highly rated interactive strategy for public sector for interactive strategy in both for interpersonal and intergroup level. And other strategies, proactive reactive and interactive, rated higher by private sector. Comparing these findings with the results of Mann-Whitmey U test and Kruskal-Wallis test, there are statistically significant

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differences on interactive (Chi-square=10.695, Z=-3.270 sig. on <,05) level and reactive (Chi-square=9.879, Z=-3.143 sig. on <,05 level) ideal strategies.

And on intergroup level interactive (Chi-square=5.031, Z=-2.243 sig. on <,05 level), proactive (Chi-square=5.983, Z=-2.446 sig. on <,05 level) and inactive (Chi-square=4.863, Z=-2.205 sig. on <,05 level) strategies. In both interpersonal and intergroup level there are no statistically significant differences between the strategies against the background of public and private organizations. And finally Wilcoxon tests for public and private organizations revealed that; on interpersonal level, private sector does not perceive a statistically meaningful difference between current and ideal proactive strategies (Z=-1.825 not sig. on <,05 level), but public sector do (Z=-2.535 sig. on <,05 leve)l. Exactly the opposite is true for intergroup level; private sector perceives a statistically meaningful difference between current and ideal proactive strategy (Z=-2.502 sig. on <,05 level) while public sector do not (Z=-3.095 not sig. on <,05 level).

Therefore it is concluded that Hypothesis 7a is accepted for interactive and reactive styles in intra-group level and interactive, proactive and inactive styles in inter-group level. Hypothesis 7b is totally rejected for all styles. Hypothesis 7c is accepted for proactive style for both intra-group and inter-group level.

Table 18: HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS FOR THE DIFFERENCES IN
INSTITUTIONAL OWNERSHIP

Ideal Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 7a
Intra-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Accepted
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Accepted
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Accepted

Current Leadership Strategies			Hypothesis 7b
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Rejected
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

Gap between ideal and current			Hypothesis 7c
Intra-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected
Inter-group	Interactive	Rejected
	Proactive	Accepted
	Reactive	Rejected
	Inactive	Rejected

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CONCLUSION

Discussions of the Results and Managerial Implications

The objective of this study was to investigate basic leadership styles within the light of academic literature and compare the ideal and perceived styles of Turkish managers against the background demographic variables such as gender, age, education, experience, position and organizational variables such as public and private sector dichotomy and services and manufacturing sectors. Findings provide useful results about the leadership styles predominantly employed within the Turkish organizational context.

By and large, results support the hypothesis.

In overall look, it is interesting to find that the most common encountered style for the current situation is 'proactive', followed by 'reactive' with a slight difference. And these styles

gave way to 'inactive' and 'interactive' styles consecutively on the intergroup level.

Rankings of idea styles reveal that, both in individual level and intergroup level, most preferred style is 'interactive'. This is highly expected considering the changing landscape of the business in Turkey and the world as well, from routine and less sophisticated tasks to more complex, creative and non routine tasks, which in turn creates a demand for more job involvement, and more voice on the matters and more collaborative approach.

Kesken & Ayyıldız (2008) emphasized this point by stating that socio-economic advances direct individuals to search for a "meaning" in almost every activity they get involved, which implies the most preferred style as "interactive". Expectancy of the individuals consistently shifts towards more un-financial reward and values like; self improvement, loyalty and hope. Thus individuals question their relations with the environment they actively participate and try to crate a meaning out of these relations.

Kesken & Ayyıldız, thus, discusses authentic leadership, by establishing its ties with transformational leadership and underlies the basis of the psychological well being of the individual as having the opportunity to "interact" and extract a meaning out of the task s/he conducts.

But on the other styles, an interesting differentiation is observed; while 'proactive' style is ranked second best in ideal style by the individuals, contrarily, within the group it is last. Respondents clearly do not expect 'proactive' style in the group

settings. Rather they expect 'reactive' and 'inactive' strategies as second and third most ideal styles.

Figure 27: ALL OF THE RESPONDENTS' RATINGS' FRIEDMAN TEST RESULTS IN GRAPH FORM (Ratings are reversed for the ease of graph reading)

INTER-PERSONAL LEVEL

Interactive IDEAL	Proactive IDEAL	Reactive IDEAL	Inactive IDEAL	Interactive CURRENT	Proactive CURRENT	Reactive CURRENT	Inactive CURRENT
12.8	7.7	5.5	3.0	7.4	8.3	8.0	6.5

INTER-GROUP LEVEL

Interactive IDEAL	Proactive IDEAL	Reactive IDEAL	Inactive IDEAL	Interactive CURRENT	Proactive CURRENT	Reactive CURRENT	Inactive CURRENT
11.1	5.5	7.3	6.0	8.0	6.7	7.6	8.1
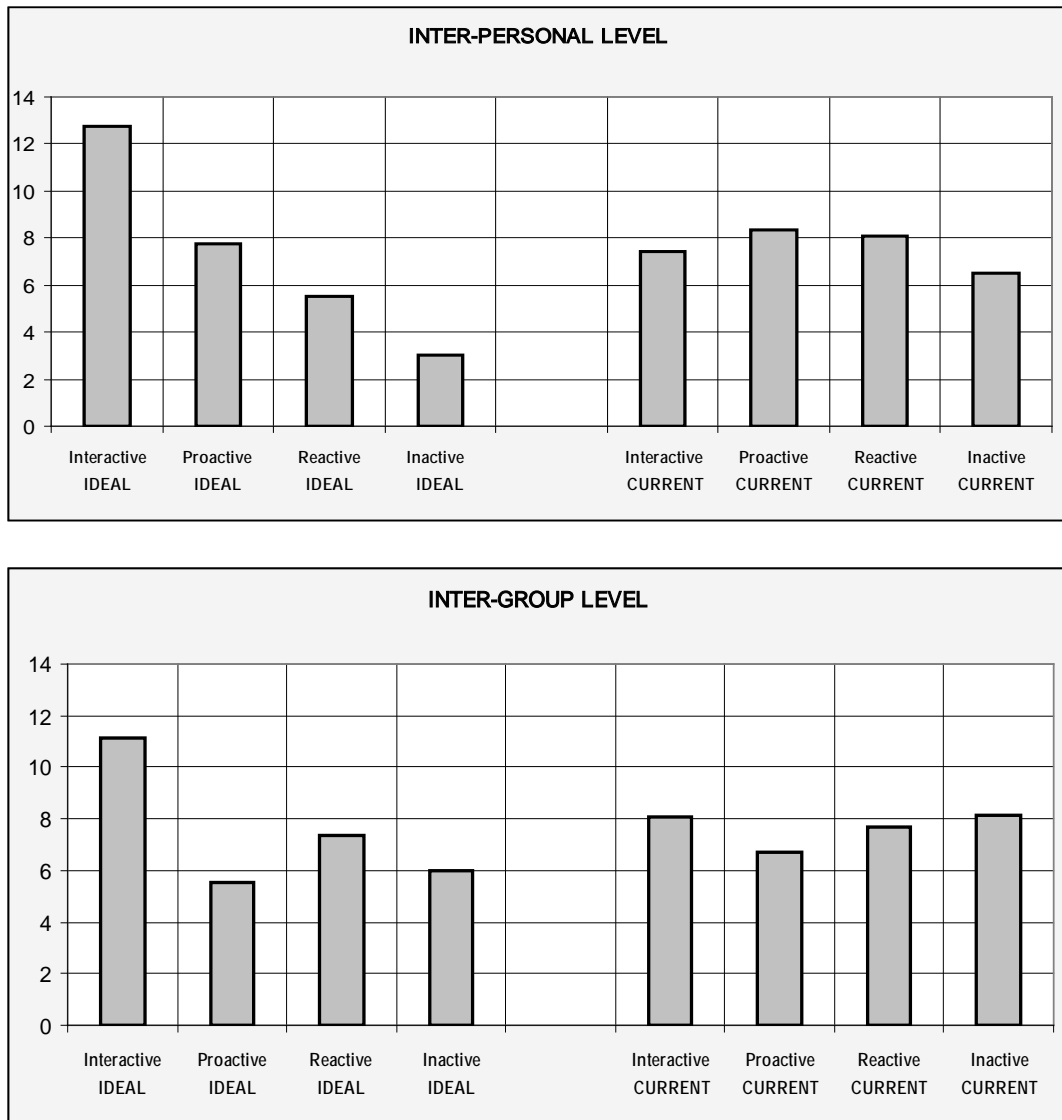
These finding are in conformity with the findings of other researchers. Hofstede (1984) find Turkish culture more collectivist and relatively low in individualism. Turkish managers have been found to use a competitive, forcing style in direct exchange situations with other actors, especially with a subordinate (Kozan,

1989) and in general they are known for their authoritarian climate (Kozan 1994; Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur 2001). Thus it is not a surprise to find 'proactive' style as the perceived predominant style among all the respondents subject to this study. On the other hand being in a collectivist culture may be effect of group on the perceived leadership style. Indeed, although an emphasis on group and an emphasis on individuals can be considered mutually exclusive, groups can support and defend individuals thus affect their perceptions of the styles the face. Therefore, being in a group alters the perception totally so that, 'proactive' strategy, ranked as first in the individual level, ranked last when within a group. Although not in the first rank, the reactive strategy's persistent existence on both individual and group level is interesting too.

Results support our expectations, in reference to literature, on gender differences. Female respondents rated interactive style higher than male respondents in ideal, while they perceive proactive style more than male respondents in the current. Thus the gap between the ideal and the current is much higher among female respondents than male respondents.

Among the hypothesis construction stage of the research, it has been expected that the results concerning age, task and experience (higher managerial position) characteristics would behave together, differentiate among the groups and as they move higher, the more prevailed 'interactive' style in both ideal-current and individual-group levels. As expected results indicated a statistically significant differentiation on 'interactive' style as age went up. But against the groupings of task, findings did not indicate a significant difference. When the data re-grouped as

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workers-managers, then a statistically meaningful difference emerged as expected. And for the groupings according to experience, a stronger (significant on p<,001 level) differentiation observed.

Another point is related to the findings of Brousseau at. al, (2006) which expect a turn at the higher managerial levels from interactive style to proactive style under the pressure to think more focused. Such a turn is not observed within the groupings against the task. But such an observation is present on the groupings against experience; ratings of interactive style increases as experience increases, but after the level of 15 years it turns and drops off.

Gap analysis for age, revealed that there are differences among the age groups especially on 'proactive' strategy in both individual and group level. It seems age group of 18-25 years; perceive same proactive strategy in current and ideal, revealing statistically insignificant difference. On the other hand findings indicate completely reverse results for the task groupings. While workers perceive a gap between current and ideal proactive strategies, where perceived is much more than ideal, management level workers do not perceive such a gap.

In accordance with the arguments mentioned above, education is the grouping which revealed biggest number of differentiation among the leadership styles and widest gaps for proactive style for the individual level, and reactive style for the group level.

Contrary to predictions, ratings of styles are statistically insignificant between services and manufacturing sectors. Moreover, rankings revealed by the Friedman test positioned manufacturing

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sector higher on interactive style then service sector, which is totally opposite of early predictions made in this study. But reassuring enough, on group level, respondents from manufacturing and service sector ranked interactive style exactly the same.

Like education, respondents from public and private sector organizations rated considerably distinctively from each other. Respondents from public sector idealize 'interactive' style more than private sector, and perceive proactive style more than them. Thus the gap between the ideal and current found to be wider for public sector respondents.

Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

This study has several limitations that deserve comment.

The data is collected from İzmir which has distinct characteristics and may not be representing the organizational climate of Turkey in general. A wider research covering other cities and even rural areas would strengthen and add to the study, and reveal more representative results for Turkey.

A public organization in manufacturing sector can not be located and involved in the data. Thus the analysis to compare service and manufacturing sector, conducted comparing "private + services" data with "private + manufacturing" data using smaller size.

Effects of country culture can be added to the research for cross comparison which would give deeper insights.

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APPENDICES

App.1: STATISTICAL OUTPUT TABLES

Table 19: Mann-Whitney U Test for differences on the leadership

strategies between genders (Male – Female)

Test Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-2,607**	**0,009***
		Proactive	-0,873	0,383
		Reactive	-0,593	0,553
		Inactive	-0,657	0,511
	Current	Interactive	-1,657	0,097
		Proactive	-1,153	0,249
		Reactive	-1,012	0,311
		Inactive	-0,528	0,597
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-2,202**	**0,028***
		Proactive	-0,112	0,911
		Reactive	-1,011	0,312
		Inactive	**-3,163**	**0,002****
	Current	Interactive	-0,790	0,429
		Proactive	**-2,531**	**0,011***
		Reactive	-1,317	0,188
		Inactive	-0,475	0,635

a.Grouping Variable:
GENDER

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Test Statistics		MALE				FEMALE		
		Z		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		Z		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT – IDINTINT	-9,120	a	0,000 **		-8,863	a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT – IDPROINT	-1,121	b	0,262		-2,757	b	0,006 **
	CURBAINT – IDRBAINT	-5,322	b	0,000 **		-6,670	b	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT – IDIKFINT	-7,397	b	0,000 **		-6,940	b	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT – IDINTEXT	-6,262	a	0,000 **		-7,349	a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT – IDPROEXT	-1,808	b	0,071		-3,905	b	0,000 **
	CURBAEXT – IDRBAEXT	-1,593	b	0,111		-0,131	b	0,896
	CUIKFEXT – IDIKFEXT	-4,755	b	0,000 **		-6,479	b	0,000 **
	a. Based on negative ranks.			** sig on ,001 level				** sig on ,001 level
	b. Based on positive ranks.			* sig on ,005 level				* sig on ,005 level
	c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test							

WILCOXON Signed Rank Test to compare ideal and current leadership styles for GENDER
Table 20

Table 21: KRUSKAL WALLIS Test for AGE differences

Test Statistics [a,b]				Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive		**12,678**	**3**	**0,005 ***
		Proactive		5,205	3	0,157
		Reactive		3,253	3	0,354
		Inactive		5,456	3	0,141
	Current	Interactive		3,059	3	0,097
		Proactive		5,724	3	0,249
		Reactive		1,784	3	0,311
		Inactive		1,177	3	0,597
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive		7,180	3	0,066
		Proactive		4,653	3	0,199
		Reactive		4,250	3	0,236
		Inactive		5,393	3	0,145
	Current	Interactive		7,180	3	0,670
		Proactive		4,653	3	0,366
		Reactive		4,250	3	0,468
		Inactive		5,393	3	0,545

* sig on ,05 level

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: AGE

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Test Statistics

		18-25		26-35		36-45		45-90	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-2,261	0,024 *	-8,353	0,000 **	-7,400	0,000 **	-5,501	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-1,500	0,134	-2,740	0,006 *	-2,525	0,012 *	-0,137	0,891
	CUPERAINT - IDRERAINT	-2,516	0,012 *	-4,662	0,000 **	-5,174	0,000 **	-4,163	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-1,312	0,189	-7,518	0,000 **	-5,556	0,000 **	-4,306	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-3,068	0,002 *	-5,519	0,000 **	-5,866	0,000 **	-4,495	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-1,066	0,286	-2,473	0,013 *	-1,618	0,106	-2,932	0,003 *
	CUPERAEXT - IDRERAEXT	-1,079	0,281	-0,174	0,862	-1,129	0,259	-1,201	0,230
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-2,011	0,044 *	-4,878	0,000 **	-5,259	0,000 **	-2,597	0,009 *

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Based on positive ranks.

c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

** sig on ,001 level

* sig on ,005 level

Wilcoxon Tests for AGE; Current -Ideal COMPARISONS
Table 22

Table 23: Kruskal Wallis Test for Task Difference

Test Statistics [a,b]				Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive		5,577	3	0,134
		Proactive		4,030	3	0,258
		Reactive		3,683	3	0,298
		Inactive		5,701	3	0,127
	Current	Interactive		2,130	3	0,546
		Proactive		6,393	3	0,094
		Reactive		3,147	3	0,370
		Inactive		4,349	3	0,226
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive		1,729	3	0,631
		Proactive		2,908	3	0,406
		Reactive		1,697	3	0,638
		Inactive		2,967	3	0,397
	Current	Interactive		2,997	3	0,392
		Proactive		2,697	3	0,441
		Reactive		0,150	3	0,985
		Inactive		2,389	3	0,496

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: TASK

Test Statistics

		WORKER		TEAM HM		DPRT HM		GENR HM	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT – IDINTINT	-10,583 ᵃ	0,000 **	-3,901 ᵃ	0,000 **	-4,686 ᵃ	0,000 **	-3,305 ᵃ	0,001 *
	CUPROINT – IDPROINT	-2,595 ᵃ	0,009 *	-1,327 ᵇ	0,185	-0,111 ᵇ	0,912	-0,547 ᵇ	0,584
	CURERINT – IDRERINT	-7,086 ᵇ	0,000 **	-1,470 ᵇ	0,142	-3,561 ᵇ	0,000 **	-2,613 ᵇ	0,009 *
	CUIKFINT – IDIKFINT	-8,406 ᵇ	0,000 **	-3,021 ᵇ	0,003 *	-3,875 ᵇ	0,000 **	-2,805 ᵇ	0,005 *
Inter-group	CUINTEXT – IDINTEXT	-8,467 ᵃ	0,000 **	-2,345 ᵃ	0,019 *	-3,285 ᵃ	0,001 *	-2,141 ᵃ	0,032 *
	CUPROEXT – IDPROEXT	-4,324 ᵇ	0,000 **	-0,951 ᵇ	0,342	-0,927 ᵇ	0,354	-0,828 ᵇ	0,408
	CURERAEXT – IDRERAEXT	-0,934 ᵇ	0,350	-1,111 ᵃ	0,266	-0,359 ᵇ	0,719	-0,031 ᵇ	0,975
	CUIKFEXT – IDIKFEXT	-6,397 ᵇ	0,000 **	-2,785 ᵇ	0,005 *	-3,315 ᵇ	0,001 *	-1,727 ᵇ	0,084

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Based on positive ranks.

c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

** sig on ,001 level

* sig on ,005 level

Wilcoxon Tests for TASK; Current – Ideal COMPARISONS
Table 24

Table 25: Mann-Whitney U Test for differences on the leadership

strategies for task regrouped as Workers - Managers

Test Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-1,978**	**0,048***
		Proactive	-1,461	0,144
		Reactive	-1,911	0,056
		Inactive	**-2,308**	**0,021***
	Current	Interactive	-1,326	0,185
		Proactive	-0,408	0,683
		Reactive	-0,805	0,421
		Inactive	-1,672	0,094
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive	-0,254	0,799
		Proactive	-1,175	0,240
		Reactive	-0,149	0,881
		Inactive	-1,199	0,230
	Current	Interactive	-1,551	0,121
		Proactive	-1,263	0,207
		Reactive	-0,309	0,758
		Inactive	-0,781	0,435

a.Grouping Variable: GOREV

Test Statistics		WORKER			MANAGER		
		Z		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-10,583	a	0,000 **	-6,934	a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-2,595	b	0,009 *	-0,951	b	0,342
	CUREAINT - IDREAINT	-7,086	b	0,000 **	-4,487	b	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-8,406	b	0,000 **	-5,696	b	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-8,467	a	0,000 **	-4,602	a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-4,324	b	0,000 **	-0,662	b	0,508
	CUREAEXT - IDREAEXT	-0,934	b	0,350	-0,807	b	0,420
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-6,397	b	0,000 **	-4,629	b	0,000 **
a. Based on negative ranks.				** sig on ,001 level			** sig on ,001 level
b. Based on positive ranks.				* sig on ,005 level			* sig on ,005 level
c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test							

WILCOXON Signed Rank Test to compare ideal and current leadership styles for TASK regrouped as Worker - Manager

Table 26

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Table 27: Kruskal Wallis Test for the Differences on Experience

within the same institution

Test Statistics [a,b]				Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.	
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive		**22,279**	**4**	**0,000**	******
		Proactive		3,728	4	0,444	
		Reactive		**15,389**	**4**	**0,004**	*****
		Inactive		2,465	4	0,651	
	Current	Interactive		**10,968**	**4**	**0,027**	*****
		Proactive		1,731	4	0,785	
		Reactive		4,111	4	0,391	
		Inactive		8,472	4	0,076	
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive		5,977	4	0,201	
		Proactive		1,524	4	0,822	
		Reactive		8,454	4	0,076	
		Inactive		8,507	4	0,075	
	Current	Interactive		1,413	4	0,842	
		Proactive		0,157	4	0,997	
		Reactive		1,355	4	0,852	
		Inactive		6,779	4	0,148	

				* sig on ,05 level	
a. Kruskal Wallis Test					
b. Grouping Variable: Experience					

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Test Statistics		1 Year		2-5 Years		6-10 Years		11-15 Years		16-Up Years	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-gr	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-2,358 a	0,018 *	-6,970 a	0,000 **	-5,530 a	0,000 **	-6,810 a	0,000 **	-5,184 a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-1,590 a	0,112	-0,462 a	0,644	-1,602 a	0,109	-1,595 a	0,111	-1,151 a	0,250
	CURRAINT - IDRRAINT	-0,166 b	0,868	-4,887 a	0,000 **	-3,247 a	0,001 *	-5,798 a	0,000 **	-4,302 a	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-2,033 a	0,042 *	-6,316 a	0,000 **	-4,798 a	0,000 **	-5,433 a	0,000 **	-3,161 a	0,002 *
Inter-gr	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-2,311 a	0,021 *	-5,556 a	0,000 **	-3,927 a	0,000 **	-5,177 a	0,000 **	-4,139 a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-0,969 a	0,333	-2,201 a	0,028 *	-1,627 a	0,104	-2,211 a	0,027 *	-1,834 a	0,067
	CURRAEXT - IDRRAEXT	-0,030 a	0,976	-1,101 a	0,271	-0,023 a	0,982	-0,567 a	0,571	-0,879 a	0,380
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-1,914 a	0,056	-4,595 a	0,000 **	-3,503 a	0,000 **	-4,056 a	0,000 **	-3,095 a	0,002 *
a. Based on negative ranks.			** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level
b. Based on positive ranks.			* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level
c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test											

Wilcoxon Tests for EXPERIENCE; Current -Ideal COMPARISONS

Table 28

Table 29: Mann-Whitney U Test for differences on the leadership

strategies between different levels of education

Test Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-5,586**	**0,000****
		Proactive	-0,926	0,354
		Reactive	**-3,445**	**0,001***
		Inactive	**-2,220**	**0,026***
	Current	Interactive	**-2,528**	**0,011***
		Proactive	**-2,721**	**0,007***
		Reactive	-1,885	0,059
		Inactive	-0,506	0,613
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-2,826**	**0,005***
		Proactive	-1,135	0,256
		Reactive	**-2,891**	**0,004***
		Inactive	**-4,398**	**0,000****
	Current	Interactive	-0,325	0,745
		Proactive	-1,178	0,239
		Reactive	-1,144	0,253
		Inactive	-0,985	0,324
a. Grouping Variable: EDUCATION				

	Test Statistics	Primary+High		Univers + Up	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-5,814 a	0,000 **	-11,139 a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-0,716 b	0,474	-3,932 b	0,000 **
	CURBAINT - IDRBAINT	-2,455 b	0,014 *	-8,621 b	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-5,591 b	0,000 **	-8,433 b	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-4,361 a	0,000 **	-8,790 a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-2,494 b	0,013 *	-3,155 b	0,002 *
	CURBAEXT - IDRBAEXT	-1,314 b	0,189	-0,411 b	0,681
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-2,331 b	0,020 *	-7,955 b	0,000 **
	a. Based on negative ranks.		** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level
	b. Based on positive ranks.		* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level
	c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test				

WILCOXON Signed Rank Test to compare ideal and current leadership styles for EDUCATION
Table 30

Table 31: Mann-Whitney U Test for differences on the leadership strategies between Services producing – Goods producing companies' employees

Test Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive	-0,253	0,801
		Proactive	-1,299	0,194
		Reactive	-0,385	0,701
		Inactive	-1,693	0,090
	Current	Interactive	-1,805	0,071
		Proactive	-1,737	0,082
		Reactive	-0,707	0,479
		Inactive	-1,129	0,259
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive	-0,681	0,496
		Proactive	-0,014	0,989
		Reactive	-1,311	0,190
		Inactive	-0,430	0,667
	Current	Interactive	-1,565	0,117
		Proactive	**-2,121**	**0,034***
		Reactive	-0,450	0,653
		Inactive	-0,770	0,441
a.Grouping Variable: IS SINIFI				

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Test Statistics		SERVICES			GOODS	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-9,493 a	0,000 **		-8,316 a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-3,062 b	0,002 *		-0,556 b	0,578
	CURBAINT - IDRBAINT	-6,284 b	0,000 **		-5,605 b	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-7,152 b	0,000 **		-7,209 b	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-7,520 a	0,000 **		-6,034 a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-3,966 b	0,000 **		-1,592 b	0,111
	CURBAEXT - IDRBAEXT	-1,133 b	0,257		-0,584 b	0,560
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-5,453 b	0,000 **		-5,790 b	0,000 **
	a. Based on negative ranks.		** sig on ,001 level			** sig on ,001 level
	b. Based on positive ranks.		* sig on ,005 level			* sig on ,005 level
	c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test					

WILCOXON Signed Rank Test to compare ideal and current leadership styles for SECTOR (Services - Goods)
Table 32

Table 33: Mann-Whitney U Test for Public Sector – Private
Sector differences in strategies

Test Statistics			Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-3,270**	**0,001***
		Proactive	-0,713	0,476
		Reactive	**-3,143**	**0,002***
		Inactive	-0,687	0,492
	Current	Interactive	-0,639	0,523
		Proactive	-0,070	0,944
		Reactive	-0,520	0,603
		Inactive	-0,226	0,821
Inter-group	Ideal	Interactive	**-2,243**	**0,025***
		Proactive	**-2,446**	**0,014***
		Reactive	-1,670	0,095
		Inactive	**-2,205**	**0,027***
	Current	Interactive	-0,747	0,455
		Proactive	-0,877	0,380
		Reactive	-0,939	0,348
		Inactive	-0,667	0,505

a.Grouping Variable:
KURUM

Test Statistics		PRIVATE		PUBLIC	
		Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Intra-group	CUINTINT - IDINTINT	-5,701 a	0,000 **	-7,564 a	0,000 **
	CUPROINT - IDPROINT	-1,825 b	0,068	-2,535 b	0,011 *
	CUREAINT - IDREAINT	-2,999 b	0,003 *	-6,056 b	0,000 **
	CUIKFINT - IDIKFINT	-5,185 b	0,000 **	-4,989 b	0,000 **
Inter-group	CUINTEXT - IDINTEXT	-4,592 a	0,000 **	-6,177 a	0,000 **
	CUPROEXT - IDPROEXT	-2,502 b	0,012 *	-3,095 b	0,111
	CUREAEXT - IDREAEXT	-1,930 b	0,054	-0,595 b	0,560
	CUIKFEXT - IDIKFEXT	-2,380 b	0,017 *	-5,416 b	0,000 **
	a. Based on negative ranks.	** sig on ,001 level		** sig on ,001 level	
	b. Based on positive ranks.	* sig on ,005 level		* sig on ,005 level	
	c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test				

WILCOXON Signed Rank Test to compare ideal and current leadership styles for organizational ownership (Public - Private)

Table 34

Table 35: Mean Ratings of the total sample

IDEAL — Intra-group

Soru	I	II	III	IV	
1	C	B	A	D	
	547	840	1021	1372	3780
	1,4471	2,2222	2,7011	3,6296	10,0000
2	B	A	B	C	
	575	880	1083	1242	3780
	1,5212	2,3280	2,8651	3,2857	10,0000
3	C	D	B	A	
	579	1071	1189	941	3780
	1,5318	2,8333	3,1455	2,4894	10,0000
4	D	C	B	A	
	672	972	906	1230	3780
	1,7778	2,5714	2,3968	3,254	10,0000
	2373	3763	4199	4785	15120
	6,2779	9,9549	11,1085	12,6587	40,0000

CURRENT — Intra-group

Soru	I	II	III	IV	
1	C	B	A	D	
	944	888	814	1134	3780
	2,4974	2,3492	2,1534	3,0000	10,0000
2	B	A	B	C	
	937	836	990	1017	3780
	2,4788	2,2116	2,6190	2,6905	9,9999
3	C	D	B	A	
	907	942	1020	911	3780
	2,3994	2,4921	2,6984	2,4101	10,0000
4	D	C	B	A	
	1009	972	873	926	3780
	2,6693	2,5714	2,3095	2,4498	10,0000
	3797	3638	3697	3988	15120
	10,0449	9,6244	9,7803	10,5504	40,0000

IDEAL — Inter-group

Soru	I	II	III	IV	
1	D	C	A	B	
	930	669	1180	1001	3780
	2,4603	1,7698	3,1218	2,6481	10,0000
2	A	D	C	B	
	560	1222	924	1074	3780
	1,4815	3,2328	2,4444	2,8413	10,0000
3	C	A	D	B	
	786	982	792	1220	3780
	2,0794	2,5979	2,0952	3,2275	10,0000
4	C	D	A	B	
	661	1350	938	831	3780
	1,7487	3,5714	2,4815	2,1984	10,0000
	2937	4223	3834	4126	15120
	7,7699	11,172	10,1429	10,9153	40,0000

CURRENT — Inter-group

Soru	I	II	III	IV	
1	D	C	A	B	
	998	972	955	855	3780
	2,6402	2,5714	2,5265	2,2619	10,0000
2	A	D	C	B	
	897	965	987	931	3780
	2,3730	2,5529	2,6111	2,4630	10,0000
3	C	A	D	B	
	908	858	924	1090	3780
	2,4021	2,2698	2,4445	2,8836	10,0000
4	C	D	A	B	
	862	1199	911	808	3780
	2,2804	3,1720	2,4101	2,1375	10,0000
	3665	3994	3777	3684	15120
	9,6957	10,5661	9,9922	9,7460	40,0000

I	II	III	IV
Interactive	Proactive	Reactive	Inactive

Attn: Ratings are in reverse order, i.e. most preferred is 1 least preferred is 4, therefore lower the number, higher the preference

Horizontal and vertical sums confirm error free calculations

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App.2: Questionnaire Form

İlişikteki anket İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesinde bir doktora çalışması kapsamında kullanılacaktır. Bu ankette yer alan bilgilerin ticari amaçlı hiçbir kullanımı söz konusu değildir.

Anket doldurulurken hiç bir şekilde kurum ismi, ve/veyahut kişi ismi istenilmeyecek ve yazılmayacaktır. Anketin sonuçlarının doğruluğu açısından dolduran kişilerin bilinmemesi gerekmektedir.

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER

Cinsiyetiniz : ☐ **Erkek**   ☐ **Kadın**

Yaşınız: ☐ **18 – 25** ☐ **26 - 35**

☐ **36 - 45** ☐ **46 – 90**

Göreviniz:

☐ **Çalışan**   ☐ **Takım yöneticisi**

☐ **Bölüm yöneticisi**   ☐ **Müdür**

Eğitim Durumunuz:

☐ **İlkokul** ☐ **Lise** ☐ **Üniversite**

☐ **Yüksek Lisans** ☐ **Doktora ve üstü**

Bu işte kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız:

☐ **1 yıl** ☐ **1 – 5 yıl** ☐ **6 – 10 yıl**

☐ **11 – 15 yıl** ☐ **16 yıl ve üstü**

KURUM İLE İLGİLİ BİLGİLER

☐ **Özel sektör**   ☐ **Devlet sektörü**

Özel sektör ise : ☐ **Sahiplerinin ağırlığı Yerli (TC vatandaşı)**

☐ **Sahiplerinin ağırlığı yabancı (TC vatandaşı değil)**

İş sınıflaması:

☐ **Hizmet sektörü**   ☐ **İmalat sektörü**

KAYNAKLARIN KULLANIMINA FARKLI YAKLAŞIMLAR

<u>Giriş</u>

İzleyen sayfalarda bir çalışma grubu veya birimdeki iletişim ve ilişkilerin değişik yönleriyle ilgili bir dizi durum bulacaksınız. Sizden istenen her durum için, verilen değişik cevaplardan sizce ideal olanını (sol kolonda) ve çalışma grubunuz veya bölümünüzde şu andaki durumu gene sizce en iyi yansıtanı (sağ kolonda) işaretlemenizdir.

Her soru için önce sol kolona ("nasıl olmalı"), sizce en ideal olan cevabın yanına 1 koyun; gene aynı kolona en iyi ikinci olarak gördüğünüz cevabın yanına 2, sonra da sırasıyla 3 ve 4 yazın.

Sol kolonu tamamladıktan sonra, sağ kolonu da gene, cevapları çalıştığınız kurumda bugünkü durumu ne ölçüde iyi yansıttıklarına göre sıralayarak doldurun. Başka bir deyişle, bugünkü durumu en iyi yansıttığına inandığınız cevabın yanına 1, ikinci en iyi tanımlayanın yanına 2, sonra da sırasıyla 3 ve 4 koyun.

Anketi tamamladığınızda, verile sekiz problem veya durum için iki kolonda da sıralamaları tam olarak yapıp yapmadığınızı kontrol edin.

İlk dört soruyu karar alma amacıyla sürekli katıldığınız kurul, komite veya grup içindeki ilişkiler açısından cevaplayınız. Burada odak noktası sık sık bir araya geldiğiniz gruptur.

1. **Olumsuz sonuçlar yaratabilecek güç bir sorun ortaya çıktığında, gruptakiler,**

   a. Soruna en yakın olan kişiden bir çözüm getirmesini beklerler, genellikle bir çözüm fazla incelenmeden kabul görür.

   _____   _____

   b. Sorun üzerinde kendi başlarına çalışarak bir çözüme varırlar, sonra da kendi önerilerinin yararları ve diğerlerininkilerin sakıncalarını vurgulayarak grupta tartışırlar.

   _____   _____

   c. Konu hakkında birbirilerine bilgi verirler, sorunun ve alternatif çözüm yollarının daha iyi anlaşılabilmesini sağlamak için herkesin kendi fikir ve görüşlerini ortaya koymasını teşvik ederler.

   _____   _____

   d. Sorun üzerinde durmazlar veya suçu koşulların üzerine atma eğilimi gösterirler.

   _____   _____

2. **Grupta fikir ayrılığı çıktığı zaman, grup üyeleri genellikle,**

   a. Diğerlerinin kendi ileri sürdüklerini daha iyi anlamalarını sağlamak için kendi görüşlerini açıklığa kavuşturmaya çalışırlar.

   _____   _____

   b. Fikir birliğine varabilmemiz için sorunun ileride tekrar ele alınabileceği veya önemsizleşeceği varsayımıyla tartışmayı başka yöne kanalize etmeye çalışırlar.

   _____   _____

   c. Sürtüşme ve tansiyonu önlemek için sorunun ileride tekrar ele alınabileceği
   veya önemsizleşeceği varsayımıyla tartışmayı başka yöne kanalize etmeye
   çalışırlar.

   _____   _____

   d. En iyi yolu bulabilmemiz için kendi görüşlerini ve diğerlerininkini açıklığa kavuşturmaya çalışırlar.

   _____   _____

3. Grup sorun çözmek veya karar almak için toplandığında grup üyeleri genellikle,

a. Grup üyelerinin kendi başlarına hareket etmelerine mümkün olduğu ölçüde
izin verirler; gruptakiler genellikle diğerlerinin baskısıyla karşılaştıklarında veya karşıt görüşler nedeniyle tansiyon veya sürtüşme ortaya çıktığında iyi çalışmazlar.

b. Kendi görüşlerini ortaya koymaktan kaçınırlar ve işlerliği olabilecek sonuçlara varmak için taviz vermeye hazırdırlar.

c. Değişik görüşlerin incelenmesini teşvik ederler. Alternatiflere varabilmek için
belirli ölçüde fikir mücadelesi gerekli olabilir. Bu süreç sırasında herkesin görüşlerinin ortaya konması ve tartışılması sağlanmaya çalışılır.

d. Diğerlerinin kontrolünü ve yönlendirilmesini sonuç elde etmek için en iyi yol
olarak kabul ederler.

4. Grupta başarılı olan insanlar genellikle,

a. İşle ilgili sorunlar hakkında görüşlerini ortaya koymazlar, popülerliklerini koruyabilmek için diğerlerini kişisel ilişkiler yoluyla kendi yanlarına çekmeye
ve etkilemeye çalışırlar.

b. Kurumca benimsenen görüşlere katılırlar ve kendi görüşlerini kurumun beklentileri yönünde değiştirmeye hazırdırlar.

c. Kendi görüşlerinin ve savundukları şeylerin doğruluğu hakkında diğerlerini ikna edebilirler; fikirlerine karşı çıkıldığında baskı yapmaktan çekinmezler.

d. Fikir birliğine varılabilmesi ve kararların herkesçe benimsenmesi için kendi savundukları fikirleri anlamaya çalışırlar.

Aşağıdaki dört soru da sizin bölümünüzle kurumunuzdaki diğer birim, grup ve kişiler arasındaki ilişkilerle ilgilidir.

5. **Daha üst düzeyler tarafından yeni politika ve uygulamalar yürürlüğe**
   konulduğunda, bölümde çalışanlar genellikle,

   a. Resmi olarak bunları kabul ederler, fakat işleri kendi inandıkları yöntemlere
   _____ bağlı kalarak kendi bildikleri gibi yaparlar.   _____

   b. Genel talimatları aynen kabul ederler ve bunları nadiren eleştirme veya
   tartışma gereksinmesi hissederler.
   _____   _____

   c. Önerilerinin dikkate alınacağından emin olarak, yeni politika veya
   uygulamanın geçerliliği üzerine kendi görüşlerini belirtirler.
   _____   _____

   d. İşe ilişkin sorumluluklarını, herhangi bir kalıcı politika veya prosedüre bağlı
   olmaksızın, ortaya çıkan duruma göre hareket ederek yerine getirmeye
   devam ederler.
   _____   _____

6. **Çalıştığım bölümle, kurum bünyesindeki diğer bir bölüm**
   arasında fikir ayrılığı çıktığında, bölümümde çalışanlar
   genellikle,

   a. Meseleyi ve yapılan varsayımları incelerler ve sağlıklı sonuçlara varabilmek
   için ilgili kişilerle bir araya gelip fikirbirliği veya anlaşmazlık olan konuları
   _____ saptamaya çalışırlar.   _____

   b. Kendi görüşleri doğrultusunda hareket ederek ve diğer grubu etkileme
   çabasına girişmeyerek fikir ayrılıklarının ortaya çıkmasına engel olmaya
   çalışırlar.
   _____   _____

   c. Fikir ayrılığını, tam olarak benimsemediklerini ama diğer grupça kabul
   _____ görecek çözüm yolları arayarak gidermeye çalışırlar.   _____

   d. Kendi görüşlerinde ısrar ederler ve diğer gruba başka bir yol izlemekten
   doğabilecek sorunları ve güçlükleri göstermeye çalışırlar.
   _____   _____

7. Benim bölümüm, kurumda çalışan diğer insanları etkileyecek politikalar
ve kurallar oluşturmak, amaçlar saptamak görevlerini üstlendiğinde,
bölümümde çalışanlar genellikle,

a. İlgili kişilere kendilerinden ne beklendiği, verilerin neler olduğunu ve ne şekilde hareket etmeleri gerektiğini açıklarlar. Fikirlerimizi zorla kabul ettirmemiz gerekmeyebilir ama diğerlerini yönlendirmemiz gerektiğine inanırız.

b. İnsanların kendi başlarına karar alabileceklerine ve işlerine karışılmaması gerektiği düşüncesinden hareket ederler.

c. Diğer görüşlerin neler olduğunu araştırırlar; varsayımları, kendi düşüncelerine ve diğerlerinin görüşlerine dayanarak uygun kararların alınabileceği veya doğru tercihlerin yapılabileceğidir.

d. Başkalarının görüşlerini anlamamızı ve bunlara uygun hareket etmemizi sağlarlar. Mümkün olan her durumda, ilgili olanların, onların görüşleri ve tecrübeleri doğrultusunda saptanabilmesi için amaçların ve politikaların oluşturulması sürecine katılmalarını sağlarız.

8. Birlikte çalıştığımız diğer birimlerin açık ve kesin talepleri ile karşılaştığımızda, bölümümde çalışanlar genellikle,

a. Onların gereksinmelerine cevap verebilmek ve isteklerine uygun hareket edebilmek için mümkün olan her şeyi yaparlar.

b. Diğerlerinin belirttiği gereksinmeler ve istekleri kendi görüşlerimize uygunluğundan emin olmak ve buna göre kabul veya reddedilmek üzere dikkatle incelerler.

c. Bu birimlerle birlikte çalışarak onların görüşlerini daha iyi anlamaya ve onların bizim görüşlerimizi daha iyi anlamalarını sağlamaya çalışırlar; amaç, her zaman her iki tarafın da benimseyeceği sağlıklı çözümlere varmaktır.

d. Bu tür istekleri kale almazlar, reddederler veya vazgeçilmesini isterler.

KAYNAKLARIN KULLANIMINA FARKLI YAKLAŞIMLAR

<u>Puanlama</u>

Doldurduğumuz anketi lütfen ekteki puanlama çizelgesini kullanarak puanlayınız. Puanlama
çizelgesinde biri "Nasıl Olmalı" biri de "Şu Anda Nasıl" cevaplarını puanlamak için iki ayrı bölüm vardır.

Ankette toplam olarak sekiz soru yer almaktadır. Her soru için dört seçenek vardır. Seçenekleri birden dörde kadar sıralamış bulunuyorsunuz. Her soru için, cevap seçeneklerinin her birine verdiğiniz sırayı (1, 2, 3 veya 4), puanlama çizelgesinde o cevap seçeneğinin (A, B, C veya D) karşısına koyun.

Örneğin birinci soruda A cevabına (3.) sırayı vermiş olabilirsiniz. Bu durumda soru 1'in karşısına ve kolon III'ün altına "3" koymanız gerekir. Sonra, B cevabına vermiş olduğunuz sayıya bakın. Bu sayıyı puanlama çizelgesinde soru 1'in karşısına ve B'nin yanına (kolon II) koyun. Aynı şeyi C ve D cevapları için yapın. Sonra 2. soruya geçin.

Aynı şeyi sekiz soru ve çizelgenin iki bölümü için tekrarlayın. Sonra da puanlamanızı aynı şekliyle ikinci kağıda geçirin.

KAYNAKLARIN KULLANIMINA FARKLI YAKLAŞIMLAR

Puanlama Çizelgesi

	Sizce ideal olan (Nasıl olmalı)					Sizce kurumunuzda bugünkü durum (Şu anda nasıl)			
	Kolon					**Kolon**			
Soru	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**Soru**	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
1.	C--	B--	A--	D--	**1.**	C--	B--	A--	D—
2.	D--	A--	B--	C--	**2.**	D--	A--	B--	C—
3.	C--	D--	B--	A--	**3.**	C--	D--	B--	A—
4.	D--	C--	B--	A--	**4.**	D--	C--	B--	A—
Ara Toplam	--	--	--	--	Ara Toplam	--	--	--	--
5.	D--	C--	A--	B--	**5.**	D--	C--	A--	B—
6.	A--	D--	C--	B--	**6.**	A--	D--	C--	B—
7.	C--	A--	D--	B--	**7.**	C--	A--	D--	B—
8.	C--	D--	A--	B--	**8.**	C--	D--	A--	B—
Toplam	--	--	--	--	Toplam	--	--	--	--

Not: Dört kolonun toplamının 80 olması gerekir gerekir

Not: Dört kolonun toplamının 80 olması gerekir

VITA

Tarık Atan was born in Sivas, on February 23, 1954. He received his B.S. degree in Electric and Electronics Engineering from the Middle East Technical University on 1984. He worked abroad in various countries as engineer and later in managerial positions. After returning Turkey, he received his MBA degree from İzmir University of Economics on 2005. Currently he is working as lecturer in the same university.