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LITERATURE REVIEW**

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Performance

J. Richard Hackman (1984) maintains that the prevailing definition of performance has been one where the measurement consists of output, especially where that output exceeds certain 'minimum standards' of the people who receive it. Hackman however, disputes the fact that there can be any such unidimensional or objective criterion for the analysis of performance effectiveness, the lack of objectivity being even more marked when one takes into account the ever present dependence of performance assessment on evaluations of others. The author suggests that the very process of carrying out the task in hand may well influence and enhance the performing units' capacity for competent work in the future. Stemming from this is the idea that the work experience contributes to the general development, growth and satisfaction of the person performing it. If this is the case, then it is quite reasonable of Hackman to suggest that isolating individual causes of performance effectiveness does not constitute a very helpful approach, such an approach may well give an indication as to the strength of individual influences, but as regards a holistic understanding of the phenomenon of performance it does not go very far. What is needed, says Hackman, is a line of thought and research which goes beyond traditional levels of analysis, that will give systematic descriptions of performance effectiveness, a line of thought that has multiple perspectives, congruent with the nature of the phenomenon of effectiveness. Because they are unidimensional, contingency models of behaviour are rejected by the author, instead he favours a contingency model or models based on an in depth understanding of the phenomenon of effectiveness, and thoughtful conceptual analysis, along the lines set out above. There must be developed a theory which takes into account the multiple possibilities generated by and inherent in the nature of performance effectiveness, attention must be paid to human choice rather than entirely devoted to impersonal elements such as structure or output.

Hackman makes quite a condemning attack on productivity improvements and research, it has, he says, avoided the problem of any fundamental questioning as to how organisations are designed and managed, being accepting and submissive instead. There is an 'unexplored, forbidden land of management', and in an ever changing environment, where some changes may even be unintended, it is vital to begin an exploration. It is, Hackman says, of vital importance to seek out organisations that proceed along business lines which are markedly different from standard corporate practice, and with careful documentation, to create and observe the creation of non-traditional organisational forms. The ensuing research must be well disciplined, 'dealing explicitly with the assumptions and values held by managers in the organisation where the research is conducted', in other words 'doing research that makes a difference' involves tailoring research to the individual and special organisational circumstances.

Daniel R. Ilgen and Janet L. Faurlo (1985) view the limitations in generalising from psychological research to performance appraisal, the usual approach they say, is to have a rater, who does the assessment, a ratee, being the one under assessment, and to come up on the basis of the raters evaluation of the ratee, with a judgment. In the evaluation of performance, individual characteristics, such as personality, and

environmental factors, such as organisational form, both make a contribution towards actual behaviour and behavioural outcomes. It is not an easy task though to untangle the characteristics and environmental factors, and further, actual behaviour and its outcomes are often 'temporally inseparable'. Ilgen and Faulro do not propose an alternative means of performance evaluation, but they maintain that an approach which concentrates solely on the effects of each factor is lacking, traditionally there has been little emphasis on the effect of environmental factors on behavioural outcomes, but an intensive concentration on actual behaviours.

Another problem which the authors mention is the possibility that when observing the behaviour of a ratee, distinctions between the behaviour of the rater, its consequences and environmental factors may not be terribly easy to make. The very perceptual processes which the rater uses to evaluate the ratee may distort the impression of the ratee's behaviour, making it apparent instead of actual. Should the rater meet the ratee in the future, impressions gained there may also influence any subsequent judgment. The authors maintain that these flaws bring us into the realm of attribution theory, where we overtly maintain that we deal not with actual causes of behaviour, but only perceived causes, since there is such a degree of cognitive mediation involved in actually observing behaviour.

Norman B. Wright (1986) investigates the relation between top executive performance and the degree of adeptness at human relations skills on the part of the manager, there is a definite relationship he says, giving insensitivity to others, coldness/alooftness and betrayal of trust as the most common interpersonal failings among managers. There is he says, a limitation to the degree of power at the disposal of the manager to influence other people, our behaviour is our own responsibility and no other person has control over it unless we relinquish our control. The responsibility is even greater considering the dramatic ways in which other people may respond to our behaviour, to be right or to think we are right is not enough in view of this.

Successful performance, Wright says, involves the ability to select the most effective actions, the ability to know ones own values and understand what those values say about ones ideal behaviour so that there emerges a standard by which all behaviour can be measured. There must also be on the part of the manager, an ability to assess a situation, combined with a skill at predicting the probable outcomes and impact of actions. The successful performer must be willing to act in accordance with their own values rather than acting out of habit, essentially this all goes back to the ultimate responsibility the individual has for their behaviour, successful performers must exercise great self control.

Wright then goes on to discuss some of the skills required for effectively performing with other people, the values of others must be appreciated, despite the fact that one should act in accordance with ones own value system, allowance must be made for the place of others' values. The managers' attention must remain focussed on the goal in hand and this must take preference over the desire to 'be right'.

Destructive impulses must be controlled and the good interpersonal performer must never act on their frustrations. From this stems the prescription that the manager must learn 'not to say and do things', and not to take things personally, thus remaining open to alternative suggestions and courses of action. Others must be taken into account, they must be allowed to participate in the finding of a solution, and there must be provision for them to change their positions without dishonour. This said however, there is little room for appeasement for the sake of a quiet life, and others should not be involved in disputes unnecessarily especially where there may be an unwarranted attempt to blame them for failure. The successful performer must understand trust and always be gracious even in defeat. A relationship, Wright says, must be managed to be maintained, the humility to seek help when this is needed is an important facet.

Charles Garfield (1986) has something in common with the previous author when he says that the locus of control is internal rather than external and that the secret of 'peak performance' is to bring performance under voluntary control. Peak performers he says, have several common factors despite the environment in which they operate, they have 'missions which motivate', achieve 'results in real time', have achieved 'self development through self mastery', they are proficient at 'team building and team playing', 'course correction' and 'change management'. People are viewed as the peak performers most valuable and basic resource, they are trusted and confidence is held in them. There is an ability to focus activity in a clear, defined direction, with a clear purpose. Peak performers possess mental agility, good concentration and an ability to learn from mistakes, manage change and adapt to it.

Peak performers appear to use the most typical situations as opportunities for achievement, they always feel that there is something that can be done about a situation, as Garfield says, they have a 'constructive restlessness'. Their confidence is based upon human capacities which are constructive and productive, their primary investment is in capital that is human. They are forever searching and learning and have an 'internal impulse to growth', they balance inherent talent and acquired information to achieve results.

One of the factors which unites peak performers is their possession of a motivating mission. A mission is an 'image of a desired state of affairs', an essential component of which is the ability to see beyond what is probable to that which is possible. Action is based on a long view involving the exercise of vision, action also involves the alignment and getting into perspective of the personal and organisational mission. Preconceived limitations must be banished from the mind, values are perceived as the force which will pull the individual from the probable to the possible, the peak performer draws from the past and trusts intuition, realising that an input or contribution must be made to achieve profit.

The peak performer obtains consistent results. The ability to manipulate circumstances and the possession of great degrees of self reliance are important factors here. It must be realised however that goals can impersonate mission, thus there is call for effectively sorting, setting and implementing well

integrated processes for the achievement of goals, which at the same time are recognised as mere yardsticks and signposts towards the wider mission. Throughout this orientation towards results new skills are acquired and existing skills are developed, these new and old skills are used to pursue goals which are personally meaningful. Goals must be clearly communicated, in this way others will be attracted to participate in their achievement, at the same time contributing their individual personal resources to the overall mission. When others become involved, the peak performer must demonstrate commitment, the skills of good timing, the ability to persuade rather than to order. The skills of team building are required, inputs from others should be actively sought, but political sensitivity must be shown towards them. At the end of the day achievements and results must be shared with others rather than appropriated alone. The peak performer must be able to handle both the macro view and the detail of a situation and must move easily from 'consolidation to innovation'. Where there is an opportunity it must be seized to contribute towards the movement to success and away from failure.

Garfield maintains that as opportunities expand and complexity increases, creative thinking and high performance are necessary. Peak performers are self directed and are highly skilled in problem solving and information seeking, their thinking under pressure is calm and unaffected. Their confidence in themselves regarding their ability to give micro and macro attention is of the highest level, this self confidence is internal, but the mastery and effectiveness which it gives rise to is external, these internal and external qualities are, according to the author, not opposite but entirely complimentary. Both of the attributes working in this complimentary way give rise to consistency of planning and action, achievement of results, initiative and self management, the ability to build teams and manage others in the empathetic ways described above, there is also a well defined ability to 'correct course' and to manage change so that its opportunity is directed towards the achievement of even more peak performance. Garfield introduces that useful concept of 'hardiness' here, a specific strength of ego that comes from repeated and well directed confidence in the course one is taking. All does not depend on the individual manager however, the perceptions and judgments of others must be used and taken into account. The peak performer concentrates not only on the daily tasks in hand, but devotes equal care and attention to long range strategies. There is also the essential recognition that responsibility for personal growth is shared by the organisation and the individual.

In the realm of team building and team playing, Garfield introduces the concept of 'empowering others to produce', thus 'gaining leverage' for future production. The real peak performer assists others to fulfil themselves through full use of their capabilities, other people must be stretched to near their maximum to realise their potential, to empower them they must be delegated responsibility. Educated risk taking is to be encouraged and power to make decisions is placed where it will be most effectively used, not simply appropriated according to a feeling of where it should lie. Risk taking is not viewed as a gamble, it is viewed by the peak performer as creation of an opportunity. Through all the involvement of others, the

spirit of the mission must be kept alive and in mind, communication is the essential factor here, the author sets the role of management as one of setting goals and managing the environment for achievement.

Course correction, the ability to keep the mission in sight and separate from individual goals, and resetting the bearings when it strays away is another feature of the peak performer. The author maintains that mental agility, concentration skills, the ability to learn from mistakes and to see the 'critical path' are essential here. There must also be the ability to initiate change and to 'capitalise' on that change which is forced on one. Rapid and radical change may temporarily change or upset the course but rather than be allowed to cause undue anxiety, this should be expected with the ultimate knowledge that one possesses the skills to right the course in the end. Situations however, must be carefully evaluated and options faced with 'resilience', 'stamina', 'flexibility', 'adaptability' and 'hardiness'. Regardless of the situation the peak performer always keeps it in mind that they have control over events. Failures and mistakes are viewed as inevitable and can be made valuable, instead of blaming others however, the peak performer goes straight for the solution. Accurate information is essential for course correction, information about oneself, the organisation and environmental, macro forces, with such accurate information possibilities can be seen before they become obvious, thus the peak performer is always one informed step ahead.

Garfield says that there are two approaches to change, management and resistance, peak performers always manage change, anticipating it, adapting to it and viewing it as part of a lifelong process of learning. The peak performer expects to succeed, but always has a repertoire of alternative futures to hand with which to deal with change. The mission thus will not fundamentally change but may be subject to a process of updating. Part of successful management of change is the ability to use elements other than the rational to deal with situations, feelings and hunches are interpreted by the peak performer and used in the same way as any other source of information.

Finally, Garfield maintains that the peak performer is both truly motivated and a true motivator, motivated by 'achievement and full development'. Here again a strong commitment to values comes in, a commitment to the values of 'achievement', 'contribution', 'self development', 'creativity', 'synergy', 'quality', 'opportunity' and 'character'. The 'zone of peak performance' is, the author says, where the personal mission is aligned with the specific demands of the job and the overall organisational objectives and environment. The peak performer finds a place to stand in and stand out.

J. Quincy Hunsicker (1986) writes of the importance of 'vision' in performance and success. Vision, he says, is the 'ability to construct and evaluate the implications' of a scenario. It is also the ability to view apparently unconnected events and situations with the aim of understanding the pattern of underlying forces. Real vision allows one to know when tradition should be challenged and the situation reassessed, it allows one to evaluate the merits of basing action on insights gained from previous analogous situations. Qualitative and quantitative judgments are balanced and complimentary. Hunsicker maintains that it has

always been against the European way of doing things to tolerate failure, qualitative judgment, however, is becoming more important, with the ability to judge relevance in spite of quantitative analysis. Leadership, the author says, is a 'natural consequence of vision', since visionary individual has a very clear indication of where they are going, they can thus encourage others to follow them in the process of realising their vision. Such a visionary has the ability to adjust style to match the situation in hand, time is used to develop solutions and space is made for others to solve problems. Above all there is a belief in 'productivity through people' combined with an ability to make excellence at work exciting and challenging. The implements and techniques available to management can be manipulated by the visionary, especially the implements that shape the overall philosophy. Hunsicker believes that effective leadership is largely situational and that the effectiveness of any leadership style depends on the ability and motivation of the followers, that said however, the leader should adapt their style to those being led. The author maintains that concentration on strategic issues and a strategic line of thought is inadequate for the achievement of 'productivity through people', he states that emphasis on sharply defined boundaries of authority and responsibility has led to an institutionalisation of the tradition of military type staff organisation, it must be realised that structure is only one of a number of tools available to the leader. Further to this, Hunsicker maintains that the ability to manage on a structural basis will diminish as complexity increases.

To have a true vision oriented management style, both the rational and emotional sides of followers must be understood, self confidence on the part of the leader is also essential hand in hand with an enduring confidence in and commitment to the goals believed in and the 'themes and values' they represent. The visionary must also have faith in the ability of the organisation to succeed, in conclusion Hunsicker says that the 'managers of the future will need vision to perceive the future and leadership skills to operate along these lines'.

James Brian Quinn (1986) discusses the phenomenon of managing innovation, the barriers to change are real in large organisations, he says, and the complex products and systems of large companies serve only to increase the problem. Some of the bureaucratic barriers to innovation Quinn says, are isolation of top management, intolerance of fanatics, the prevalence of short time horizons, accounting practices, excessive rationalism, excessive bureaucracy and inappropriate incentives.

On the other hand, large companies can be innovative when the correct and balanced atmosphere and vision are present, when the top level of management appreciates innovation and in turn manage the atmosphere and values of their company to support it. There also needs to be substantial contact at the top with the realities of the market, necessitating interaction between marketing and technical people lower down. Hierarchical organisations are not favoured by the author, instead small work groups and a 'small flat organisation' seem better for a climate of innovation. Another essential feature in achieving real innovation is the presence of multiple approaches to problems and many prototypes of the same product. The more objective information the better for decision making also. There should be as few physical or organisational

barriers as possible to the free flow of innovative information, this in turn, the author says, will contribute towards an atmosphere of shared learning, in which learning from the customer features quite prominently. An atmosphere of innovation is also one in which there is an 'opportunity orientation', all avenues must be explored for opportunity at the same time as resources are pumped into the most promising areas. Finally, Quinn maintains that management should be 'matched to the process'.

Jeremiah J. Sullivan (1986) says that goals, objectives, technology, structure and power relationships constitute only the surface reality of organisations. The deeper levels of structure contain values and beliefs which have been left largely unexamined, these values and beliefs are accessed when purposes, behavioural intentions and role relationships are being formulated. As of yet the relationship between the surface and this deeper structure has been left uninvestigated. In wider social science, Sullivan maintains that concepts of human nature have remained unrelated to imperatives and behaviour. He identifies four stages of the social science view of man, democratic, modern, totalitarian and hermeneutic. At present, the author says, management theory is largely dominated by a modernist view of man, a view in which human nature is bound to obey physical and chemical laws, but which, within those bounds, has almost a limitless range of behavioural possibilities. Modern motivation theory maintains that human beings are bound by the laws of nature and social science, the hermeneutical perspective, on the other hand, maintains that modern motivational techniques will not succeed unless human beings are allowed to participate in 'meaning making'. In conclusion, the author maintains that this meaning making perspective may lead towards a beginning in understanding deep structures in which the emergence of organisational form may be rooted.

Andrew Kakabadse (1987) in attempting to establish a criterion for assessing top executive performance, concentrates on personal style, attitudes and personality. An executive possesses certain drives, composed of 'vision' and 'executive values'. Vision, as we have seen before, involves the ability to visualise the future and express that vision clearly. Executive values, on the other hand, involve the handling of and identification with other people. Certain orientations exist, firstly, 'business achievement oriented' individuals concentrate on customer needs, profitability and satisfaction. These individuals are characterised by high energy and drive as well as effectiveness. However, they devote little of their time to organisation or administration. Secondly, 'organisation oriented' individuals are committed to role boundaries and organisational structure. They are well disciplined and identify with efficiency and competent follow through. They can thus negotiate 'relevant relationships' so that there will be others to identify with their requirements. The author maintains that over indulgence in this orientation leads to individuals who are inflexible and out of touch with organisational reality. Thirdly there is the 'interpersonal orientation', such oriented individuals tend to judge others by their interpersonal behaviour. There is a certain difficulty in distinguishing between 'requirements and personal performance' and in any case appearances can be deceptive. These individuals may tend to deposit blame at the door of others or place it on themselves, they are thus subject to stresses and depression under unfulfilled expectations. Fourthly, 'independence oriented'

individuals tend to value their 'personal space' and freedom of expression. Any encroachment of these is often viewed negatively. Such individuals may find the grasping of team concepts and behaviour difficult. Fifthly, the 'expertise oriented' individual highly values expertise and discipline. This wrapping up in their own world may make communication with outsiders difficult. High standards are often set by such individuals and they may, the author says, have difficulty identifying with the wider employing organisation. Finally, 'integration oriented' individuals are characterised by their sensitivity to the 'demands, issues and problems' faced by both subordinates and fellow team members. A team with this orientation tends to move forward cohesively, the individuals work effectively with their colleagues and have clear individual and team goals.

Kakabadse also identifies 'implementation skills' firstly there is 'appropriate application of organisation structure'. Structure must be viewed as a means to an end, not as an end in itself, this requires conceptual abilities on the part of the executive to visualise present and alternative configurations. Respect is also needed, for structure, role and procedures, but policies must be driven through and followed through. Secondly, there is 'communication of a coherent set of beliefs and values'. Quite simply, the author mentions the necessity of presentation skills, effective interpersonal contact, and obvious identification with organisational policies, direction and structure. Thirdly, we have 'personal maturity'. This involves the ability to manage 'ambiguity, contradiction and paradox' and the ability to maintain relationships under stressful conditions. Trust and honesty are essential qualities, the author says, as is an understanding of and preparedness to accept change. A deep understanding of others is also essential, an understanding of the reasons why they act the way they do and say what they do. The executive must also have an intimate understanding of organisational life, of the nature of the business and must have sufficient senior experience to handle many complex problems effectively. There must be an ability to distance oneself from one's own feelings as well as the ability to see matters and problems through the eyes and feelings of other people. Feedback, Kakabadse says, must be positively received and the executive must be able to distance themselves from that feedback so as to depersonalise it. Finally, 'interpersonal skills', which involve the way the self is presented to others. The executive must have the ability to influence others and to handle political situations. The skills extend to both the overt and covert handling of others.

The author maintains that there are many impacts of performance on many areas of organisational life, there are 'opportunity costs' in that the quality of working relationships are dependent on the personal values held by each individual, for effective group functioning the values of each member must be compatible. Executives must make full use of their potential discretion, here it is helpful to have an understanding of the criteria for effective performance. There are also implications for the team. The difference, the author maintains, between a group and a team, 'is a matter of cohesiveness. When values are shared there is a team identity, without these shared values there is the need for the integration orientation. Open discussion of vital or sensitive issues can easily be prevented or upset by the absence of team

out structure teams and their functions are properly defined, executives must recognise the value and impact of structure, not to do so leads to 'incompetence and blame', the author says.

Kakabadse mentions the importance of consistency in communicating 'a coherent set of beliefs and values'. Without consistency in this, there will be an absence of trust on the part of the subordinate, as well as damage to the team and indeed the wider organisation. Indicators of managerial immaturity are difficulty in coping with ambiguity, problems in accepting feedback, too open a discussion of sensitive issues and the public venting of feelings.

Finally, in the long term there are personal costs and implications of performance. The author says that although tension and harmony are natural alternations in relationships and that results can be achieved through both, 'in tension oriented circumstances there is a personal cost'. Hostility may reduce opportunity costs under bad structure or situations where values are unshared, but otherwise great personal resilience is required, the author says, to avoid 'stress and demoralisation'.

Effectiveness

William J. Reddin (1970) says that managerial effectiveness is 'the extent to which output requirements of a position are met'. The usual answers to questions of effectiveness do not, the author says, always reflect output and are not always due to managerial effectiveness.

Effectiveness can be inhibited by the description of the managerial job or position due to the reinforcement of bureaucratic styles. The concept of effectiveness can also be corrupted when it is mistaken for 'apparent effectiveness' or 'personal effectiveness'.

Reddin proposes a 'three dimensional' theory of managerial effectiveness, the main elements of which are 'task' and 'relationships with other people'. Devotion to either of these elements can be in different proportions among individuals. 'Style flexibility' is another important concept in Reddin's theory, implying situational sensitivity and situational management skills. The 'situation' consists of the managers' organisation, superiors, co-workers and subordinates.

Regarding style, the author maintains that while the trait theory of style is not necessarily wrong, there is an absence of information as to which traits are important for different managerial situations. Leadership behaviour has two independent factors, 'initiating structure' and 'consideration'. The first factor corresponds roughly to task and the second to interpersonal relationships. A leader/manager can be employee centred or production centred, that is a task leader or 'socio emotional leader'.

There is no ideal managerial style for effectiveness, Reddin says, the effectiveness of an individual style depends on its appropriateness for the situation in hand. Each individual may have a repertoire of styles, one may be the dominant style, another the supporting style and finally there is the overrejected style, which is steered away from. Flexibility of style, the author says, lends to a manager who succeeds under a variety of situations, a manager with low flexibility tends to like to maintain control, whereas an individual with high flexibility tends to allow change. Once again, effectiveness depends upon the situation in which the style is used in the first place.

Reddin maintains that the manager must look outwards to the situation rather than inwards for influence on style. Each situational element makes a demand on style, and the effective manager must make an accurate assessment of the overall situation to diagnose what the probable effects and demands on style will be. Situations 'exist for the manager to work in and improve effectiveness'. Reddin introduces the idea that there are four styles based on the task orientation/relationships orientation dichotomy, these are 'integrated', 'dedicated', 'related' and 'separated'.

One of the influences on style is technology, and it is essential, the author says, to recognise this in the attempt to achieve managerial effectiveness. On the technology front, managers with an integrated style tend to emphasise subordinate interaction and interdependence, manager interaction, the multiplicity of solutions and the autonomy of individual pace. Those with a dedicated style emphasise the physical component of technology, the managers' knowledge, planning for unscheduled events, the directions needed and performance measurability. A manager with the related style emphasises subordinate skill and the commitment involved, they also emphasise autonomy of individual methods, span of discretion and the creative component. Finally, individuals with a separated style emphasise the intellectual component, system control, intrinsic interest and subordinate autonomy.

The wider organisation and its people also influence style. The managers superior may have very high expectations, coworkers exert an influence especially where there is need for frequent interaction or a high level of interdependence. Subordinates also have certain expectations about the way a manager will operate, they may relate to the manager as individuals or as a group, they may act for or against change, and there is always the possibility that a subordinate will gain promotion and become an eventual coworker. The manager, Reddin says, also needs to be sensitive to the philosophy of the organisation. The main style or the founders style may exert substantial influence on the managers' own style, as may the dominant group, family or technology. In an organisational and human context integrated styles tend towards participation, interaction, motivation, integration and innovation. The dedicated style tends towards organisation, initiation, direction, completion and evaluation. The related style trusts, listens, accepts, advises and encourages. Finally, the separated style examines, measures, administers, controls and maintains.

Another problem demanding style flexibility, Reddin says, is that of having to deal with many individuals at the same time, to both relate to and work with them. The 'total situation' is composed of 'many different specific situations' and situational elements may vary in the ease with which they can be manipulated. Effective managers must not simply respond to situations, they must manage them. Certain abilities are required to do this, namely situational sensitivity, style flexibility and situational management skills. 'Situational sensitivity' involves an assessment of what the situational elements are and then an evaluation of what behaviour would be most appropriate. Qualities which contribute towards this ability are age and experience, 'intellectual alertness and curiosity', rationalisation and the ability to both invent and accept interpretations. Certain fault may mitigate against situational sensitivity, 'projection' of ones faults onto others, accepting things as they are, the mistaking of 'symptoms for causes', lack of a shared conceptual language among managers who work together, a value system that colours all the individuals views. Style awareness is important but it must be an honest awareness, distortion of style can lead to inappropriate responses to situations.

Reddin maintains that 'a central skill in management is the smooth introduction of change or overcoming resistance to change'. Skill is required to manage a business as a going concern, especially in the face of alternation between the effects of long range and short range factors. Leadership, the author says, should be 'the power to modify all or most situational elements in the short run'. This said however, people cannot be ignored in the face of change, and the effects of change on any individual involved must be assessed by the effective manager.

Management courses, Reddin mentions, 'may tend to be a survey of problems in social science', because of the conflict between the approaches to the study of management styles, the types approach which uses types as its reference points, the psychological approach explaining organisational problems by referring to individual needs and styles, the either or approach, which maintains that styles are either good or bad, the ideal style approach, which speaks for itself, the normative approach, asserting that one thing is better than another and finally the man is a beast approach, advocating the solution of problems by agreement on the characteristics of human nature with a solution developed accordingly.

Finally, Reddin comes up with eight types of manager based on the integrated, dedicated, related and separated styles giving an overall character description rather than one referring to particular influences or demands on style as he did before.

John P. Campbell, Marvin D. Dunnette, Edward E. Lawler III and Karl E. Weick (1970) investigate the determinants of managerial effectiveness, its definition and measurement. The type of person likely to be an effective manager is able to sustain defeat, alert, ambitious or achievement oriented, assertive, capable of good judgment, competitive, concrete, creative, decisive, dedicated, dynamic, emotionally stable, energetic, extraverted, fearful of failure, group oriented, honest, intelligent, mentally

healthy, optimistic and confident, pragmatic, predictable, reality oriented, self controlled but defensive, tolerant of frustration. The authors list some factors which managers described as being least or most descriptive of effectiveness in their fellow managers, least descriptive were amiable, conforming, neat, reserved, agreeable, conservative, kindly, mannerly, cheerful, formal, courteous and modest. The qualities labelled most descriptive were decisive, aggressive, self starting, productive, well informed, energetic, creative, intelligent, responsible, enterprising and clear thinking.

Regarding the process of managing effectively, the authors maintain that it is work which should be managed rather than people, planning and organisation must be undertaken effectively and goals set realistically. Responsibility must be taken for decisions but there must also be delegation to the group, delegation should not be an excuse for abrogating responsibility. The manager must be a stimulus for action on the part of others and must coordinate activity effectively. Cooperation with others is essential as is the demonstration to them of consistent and dependable behaviour. The authors mention that there has been to date 'an evasion of discussion of the outcomes of effective management' among theorists and researchers.

The products of effective management are organisational efficiency and growth, high productivity, maximisation of profits, industrial leadership, organisational stability, and employee and wider social welfare. The authors say that it would be a worthwhile activity to explore how personal traits and job behaviours relate to desired organisational outcomes. They see the managers job as 'a function of ability, motivation and opportunity as reflected in situational or organisational circumstances.

In terms of the definition and measurement of managerial effectiveness, Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick say that rather than considering them as a single goal, organisational performance factors should be considered together as a set. Regarding the measurement of performance, they maintain that measurement at a point in time fails to take into account the dynamic nature of organisational processes. Systemic qualities rather than individual goals should be the criteria for evaluating organisational effectiveness, and both organisational characteristics and performance must be taken into account. The effective manager is 'an optimiser' when it comes to resources, the authors maintain, so when it comes to measurements or statements concerning effectiveness they should be 'based on the handling of optimising requirements and opportunities offered by the job'. Objectives set by the manager should be compatible with the overall plans of the organisation, they should be attainable through the efforts of the individual who set them but at the same time they should set a challenge, they should be well defined according to the task in hand and they should include methods of effectiveness or performance assessment.

Finally, the authors mention a few 'possible predictors of managerial effectiveness'. These include, the level of achievement motivation, self confidence, work and career organisation, level of dependence, tendency towards affiliation and integration, degree of optimism or pessimism, willingness to assume a

leadership role and to assume a subordinate role, general state of adjustment and 'usage of dimensions' in problem solving and decision making.

John P. Campbell (1974) looks for the development of criterion measures of effectiveness to compare organisations, to evaluate the effects of organisational development efforts and eventually, to determine what characteristics of organisations are associated with effectiveness. The author says that since effectiveness is a construct, it must be located in a theoretical framework, but there is no definitive definition of organisational effectiveness, according to Campbell the usefulness of any concept is affected by the values of the user and the particular organisational context. As well as these problems, one cannot avoid making value judgments when speaking about organisations, thus there will be as many interpretations as there are value systems. The judgment made regarding the purpose of the assessment of effectiveness is also important, the 'identity of the decision makers affects the strategy used to measure effectiveness', thus there will turn out to be many dimensions to effectiveness, multi criteria measurements, the author says have fewer opportunities for use in organisational effectiveness measurement as opposed to individual effectiveness. Organisational effectiveness is, according to Campbell, 'an underlying construct without a necessary and sufficient operational definition'.

Finally, Campbell proposes a list of variables which may be used as indices of organisational effectiveness: 'overall effectiveness, productivity, efficiency, profit, quality, accidents, growth, absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, motivation, morale, control, conflict/cohesion, flexibility/adaptation, planning and goal setting, goal consensus, internalisation of organisational goals, role and work congruence, managerial interpersonal skills, managerial task skills, information management and communication, utilisation of environment, evaluation by external entities, stability, value of human resources, participation and shared influence, training and development emphasis and finally, achievement emphasis. The author says that in order to determine which of these variable are means and which are ends, a value judgment must be made, and also maintains that it may be counterproductive to follow a multivariate approach since 'each organisation has only one degree of freedom'.

John J. Morse and Frances R. Wagner (1978) adopt the person, process, product approach. The person is defined in terms of traits and abilities, the product concerns the organisational results and the process is the managers' behaviour and activities in the job. The authors maintain that process has received too little attention, given that we are dependent on the observation of observable actions leading to the accomplishment of organisational goals. The authors also assert that more attention should be paid to the similarities and differences in managerial jobs. There is a common set of roles engaged in the performance of managerial work, and the more awareness of and engagement in the role the more effective the manager. Differences in behaviour which leads to effectiveness in different situations, could, the authors say, be analysed by attention to and emphasis on 'identifiable activities within a common set of managerial roles'. Characteristic behaviour and activities must be identified; such as strategic problem solving, resource

management, conflict handling, organising, information handling, motivating, providing for growth and development, coordinating and managing the organisational environment. Because organisational situations are so varied, the authors say, and because individual managerial jobs have so many varying demands and constraints, individual managers may have to behave and act in ways which reflect those differences. The level of management may also affect the performance of the managerial role. Differences in personality may also have some bearing on which role characteristics come further forward than others. None of these factors affects, however, the assertion that the effective manager is the manager who is aware of how behaviour and action lead to organisational results and who chooses to engage in those appropriate to the particular organisational environment, job, situation and personal preferences.

Valerie Stewart and Andrew Stewart (1980) in their discussion of managerial effectiveness and contingency theory, say that it is most difficult to define what exactly is meant by effective or ineffective management 'because a skilled performance always looks easy' and it is very difficult to see below the surface of action and performance. They maintain that the language of management theory is 'impoverished' and that it is quite impossible to communicate what we really want to say to others, good theories are also difficult to construct when the necessary language is not available. They mention that the dearth of adequate language is not equally bad in all areas, human relations skills are far more neglected than the more logical strategy and structure areas. There are more words to describe management failure than there are to describe its success and there are more to describe the top and the bottom as opposed to the middle. Each theory, the authors maintain, because of the paucity of language, holds its own simply until a better one comes along. People like their own theory and they also like their own measurement criteria, which depend on the reason for doing the measurement in the first place.

Managerial effectiveness, the authors say, varies from job to job, and also from culture to culture and with the team situation, managers in different jobs have different demands made upon them and to deal with these demands they require different skills. The 'contingency theory of managerial effectiveness' advocates self management, monitoring of one's own performance. Managers must set realistic objectives, effective managers can recognise their mistakes and learn from them, they can get themselves out of 'ruts' and they can improve their performance under pressure. The effective manager can adapt easily and cope with unpleasant tasks. Interpersonally they can stay calm in the face of another's anger and show enthusiasm for the ideas of others. They have the personal maturity to admit their own ignorance and to cope with both success and failure, they willingly accept help and have clear and positive plans. With their subordinates, they set clear objectives and standard of performance, they check progress frequently. Training is accomplished by delegation where the effective manager will help rather than take complete responsibility. Subordinates are not chastised in public and they and their organisation will be defended by the effective manager from public criticism. However, the manager must never defend themselves by placing blame on a subordinate. Credit is given willingly where it is due, the effective manager never tries to

subordinate may take to complete it. The effective manager can work even according to someone else's guidelines or brief and unpopular company policies are put forward unflinchingly. On the technical and financial control level, the effective manager can estimate resources well. Information is absorbed easily and jargon is understood. The ability to develop competence in other people, the authors say, is more important than the possession of individual technical competence on the part of the manager. Other skills in this area are project evaluation, planning, budgeting and negotiation.

Regarding company policy and public relations, the effective manager always puts the company forward in a good light, they are aware of all the implications that their decision making may have, internally and externally. The manager must be willing to undertake the duties of figurehead for the organisation but also be prepared to use real authority when it is necessary. They must make every attempt to keep up to date, alter company policy in its formative stages, but have the grace to accept a decision taken against them.

In the realm of communication and clear thinking, the effective manager exhibits clarity, conciseness and timeliness. There is also a good sense of direction in terms of goals. They can listen well and accept and even reproduce contrary viewpoints without difficulty. They have an ability to distinguish between areas they can and cannot control, and between fact and opinion.

Finally the Stewarts mention some factors that are associated with variations in management effectiveness. These may be the product, the location of the industry, the level and nature of accountability, the nature of competition, the size of the company and the age of the manager. The seniority of the manager may also have some influence. The success or failure of the organisation has a particular bearing along with the degree of uncertainty in the general organisational and outside environment. Other factors are trade union activity and the political or legislative context.

Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman Jnr. in their search for excellence, maintain that the two most important tasks of the manager are the reaching of rational decisions and the paying of attention to the welfare of employees. A managers available time is quite fragmented and there is, the authors say, a tendency to hang onto ideas long after their time has passed. Despite any inadequacies however, it must always be remembered that human beings count for a lot, structure is not the most important thing in the world.

The authors propose that an intelligent approach to management is one where attention is paid to structure, strategy, people, management style, systems and procedures, guiding concepts and shared values and present or hoped for corporate strengths and skills. Truly innovative companies have the ability to respond to changes in the environment as well as to produce new and exciting products, this the authors say, just about defines the task of the excellent manager on the team. Excellent companies they found, were

'brilliant on the basics', and they 'worked hard to keep things simple in a complex world'. Most managers and organisations have however, lost sight of the basics today.

Today's managers have an analytical, rational approach. The common complaints against them are the type of business school they attended, their lack of the right perspective despite calling themselves professional managers, their lack of identification with what their companies actually do, their failure to take enough interest in the people they deal with and finally the fact that managers appear to have 'become isolated in their ivory towers of analysis'. The inability of today's managers to cope with flexibility and a lack of structure comes from the fact that their training centres around analytical skills, their talents in these areas are accepted, masking their overall deficiencies. Overreliance on analysis has eliminated risk, but, the authors say, it has also eliminated action. Planning has become an end in itself, and the dependence on numerative analysis has led to a new found conservatism among managers. 'To be narrowly rational is often to be negative', caution in the allocation of resources is fair enough but when experimentation is avoided and mistakes are as abhorred as Peters and Waterman seem to have found they are, management would appear to be losing all flexibility, and the organisational world appears to be becoming over complex.

The excellent company's response to complexity is 'fluidity' and reorganisation, while the rational approach celebrates analysis and formality, the excellent companies celebrate casual and regular communication. The rational model forgets the place of values in organisational life and there is certainly little room for internal competition. The whole rational model, the authors maintain, has led to an 'imbalance in the way we think about management', too much emphasis has been placed on the rational process and elements involved in decision making, and for too long.

All this rationalism goes against the very nature of most human beings, they are not very rational at all. They are, the authors say, 'flawed and wonderful information processors', their 'symbolic right brain' is just as important to them as their rational left. We are creatures of our environment and we indulge in a desperate search for meaning. Team building demands rational skills and natural tendencies, human beings need rewards and winning, the authors maintain, should be celebrated, people need to believe they are successful, then they can become excellent.

People tend to reason intuitively, they tend towards simplification rather than complexity, experience is as valuable as technical, on the spot skill. Experimentation is as vital to human beings and organisations as detached study and analysis. Managers today seem to know little about the value of 'positive reinforcement', small successes should be rewarded, and it should be done immediately. Feedback that is not analytical is just as valuable as that which is, that which is unpredictable and intermittent can make as good a contribution as that which is structured. When people are delegated to in small ways, then they come to believe in what they are doing, a few key values, Peters and Waterman say, with employees 'taking their own path' can achieve just as much as any rigid structure.

The role of the leader, the authors say, is to 'make meanings', the leader is responsible for the communication and sharing of values, an organisation based on this, with a strong culture, does not need to depend on rule and regulations. Many poorly performing companies seem to have a strong culture, but it is incorrectly focussed. A correct focus should lead the organisation to greater environmental sensitivity and greater adaptability. Leadership must be 'transactional' and 'transforming', for when an individual perceives that they have more control over their destination, then they develop an increased level of commitment.

The excellent companies have the capacity to manage through ambiguity and paradox, they have integrated values and loosely coupled systems which are so much more adaptable than complex rigid ones. Adaptation is the crucial factor in the management of ambiguity and paradox, adaptation also implies learning, and the excellent companies are, the authors maintain, 'learning organisations'. 'Small is beautiful' and effective, and tidiness can easily be sacrificed and efficiency gained, when there is a will to do it.

Excellent companies seem to have a great favour for informal communication, especially when it comes to the honouring of success and the swapping of good news. They also appear to have a preference for small action groups, which tend to get things done more efficiently than larger more cumbersome structures. The teams in excellent companies, seem, the authors say, to fit exactly the academic requirements for success, they are willing to experiment and their size makes it constantly possible, moreover, they generally function in an organisational atmosphere that encourages experimentation. People find it easier to think creatively, since they then learn while they think, experimentation is 'quick learning'. Such excellent structures appear to have completely taken into account the limitations of the human being, and have built structures to supplement and enhance their capabilities.

All excellent companies appear to have a great closeness to the customer and dedication to service. Ranks are frequently broken when it comes to decisions about service. Such an orientation to service, the authors find, can generate excitement among the members of an organisation, and a real sense of pride. Excellent companies also listen well, paying attention to what members and customers alike think and say. A lot can be gleaned about an organisation, by the way its people talk about it.

Excellent companies have 'champions'. These product champions also have a well structures system of support which encourages their innovation and breeds success. Part of this process is the informality and intensity of communication, in turn this communication network is given physical support in the excellent environment. This informal system of control can, the authors say, serve as a remarkably tight control structure, the frequency of communication means that there is always a process of checking up. This said however, failure is tolerated. Excellent companies seem to realise that serious mistakes arise in improperly supervised, oversized and unstructured work groups. Delegation is also important in the nurturing of future product champions, they are given autonomy and responsibility at an early stage. Team

members are 'recruited' they are not 'assigned' they join the team and absorb and shape its values. Bureaucracy is kept to a limited level in the excellent company, and there is a constant focus on doing this, the incentive which the managers of excellent companies have to keep them working, appears to be far more successful than any bureaucratic machine.

Productivity, the authors maintain, is achieved in the excellent company 'through people. People are treated as adults and respected as the most important source of productivity. Respect for the individual is the most pervasive theme. It seems that when an individual's peers have high expectations of them, the individual performs far better, this philosophy seems to be enshrined in the excellent company. Failure, the authors maintain, is rarely attributed to the lack of care bestowed by the manager on people, the failed company more often than not blames its workforce. Many excellent companies seem to view themselves as some sort of extended family, which has a conspicuous absence of any rigidly set chain of command. Full integration of all areas of the company, so that each knows what the other is doing, is common among the excellent companies. Financial information, for example, is brought to all levels, to make the employees more comfortable and involved. Structuring and layering of the organisation appears to be less in the excellent companies, rewards also tend to be non monetary as well, making them socially more valuable. ..

The excellent companies are 'hands on and value driven', by this the authors mean that an environment is set up which, through personal attention and direct intervention down the line, an atmosphere of excitement is established. Combined with this, the excellent company has a well defined set of guiding beliefs and makes more qualitative statements of corporate purpose than run of the mill companies. Peters and Waterman also notice that the excellent companies tend to 'stick to the knitting', that is, they diversify, but around a single skill, and the diversification is internally generated.

Finally, the nature of organisational form is also a factor which the excellent companies appear to have in common, with a simple organisational form there can be fewer administrative staff, since there is no complexity to legislate for, and thus there can be more operators, for greater productivity.

Morgan W. McCall and Michael M. Lombardo (1983) discuss 'derailment' and 'arrival of executives. Insensitivity to others is cited as the major cause of derailment. Such derailment usually results from a situation in which, all of a sudden, the executives' strengths have 'become liabilities' and their weaknesses have assumed great importance in a situation which demands the acquisition of new skills.

Most of the derailed executives which the authors came across had the following faults, insensitivity, coldness, aloofness, arrogance, betrayal of trust, over ambition, thinking ahead to the next job, playing politics, specific performance problems, overmanaging: an inability to delegate effectively or manage a team, inability to staff effectively, inability to think strategically, inability to adapt to a boss with a different style, and overdependence on an advocate or mentor. The authors remark however, that none of

the executives had all the faults mentioned, they did however share some further problems such as, their behaviour under stress, failure to change and admit problems, and problems in changing from doing work to overseeing that it is done. Events conspire for the derailing executive, strengths become weaknesses, deficiencies that never mattered before suddenly do. Derailed executives may have had success however, but it either went to their heads or they had far less diverse success than their arriving counterparts. Arrivers, the authors maintain, handle mistakes with 'poise and grace', they don't blame others for their failures nor do they dwell on a situation once it is resolved. While derailers react to failure by going on the defensive arrivers are too busy worrying about the job in hand to think about a future one. Arrivers demand excellence from their people in problem solving, and they develop many contacts as a way of avoiding the mentor problem. They can get along with all types of people, they can be outspoken without causing offence. Arrivers are consistent and predictable, they can understand the perspectives of others, they have a 'special ability' with people and they have real self awareness combined with a willingness to change their course of action when and if necessary. Finally, the author says that there is no one best way to success.

George a Steiner (1983) discusses the 'new CEO' and the qualities required by them for the 'effective operation of companies and the survival of free enterprise'. Administrative ability is essential, as is a thorough knowledge of economic and technical characteristics within the company, the CEO must be familiar with the internal and external environment of the company. The new CEO must be an astute administrator and a decision maker able to integrate 'traditional decision making criteria with new qualitative criteria stemming from society. Regarding leadership, the new CEO must be able to influence people to follow willingly and enthusiastically to achieve objectives. People must be led to become more sensitive and the ability and inspiration to influence in public must also be present.

Politically, the CEO must be ever watchful for political and social forces which could affect the company, they must also have the ability to recognise threats and opportunities. The 'ability to balance constituent interests' the author maintains, is an ability to balance in decision making economic and technical interests with non economic interests of the internal and external constituents. Economic, political and social considerations must be balanced and the CEO must be able to cope with competing and contradictory forces. The CEO accepts responsibility for advocating ideas or actions on behalf of the company, others should be involved, complimenting and enlarging.

The author maintains that the CEO must be able to communicate effectively and must possess the intellectual skills to analyse and understand relevant issues. They must be able to articulate in different environments and exchange a wide variety of ideas choosing their subject with care. The CEO must also be familiar with public affairs, and be as at ease in the public as in the organisational arena, they must understand the political arena and how politicians think and act. They must be prepared to work diligently on each case affecting their organisation and have the ability to use organisations to influence policy. Along with this there must be sensitivity to public opinion and how to influence it. The dangers of political

involvement must also be recognised. The new CEO must be a veritable strategist, devoting less time to tactical, administrative problems and more to a global perspective. They must have, the author maintains, a 'broad gauged intellect'. Finally, Steiner says, the new CEO must have a high moral tone about them, and must maintain their 'poise' amid a wide variety of frustrations and forces.

David L. Bradford and Allan R. Cohen (1984) maintain that there is a significant gap between what is known about what organisations ought to be like and what individual managers need to do to achieve excellence. The model of leadership that we are using is not particularly helpful, there is an insufficient distinction between actual and potential behaviour and the models actually used by most managers belong to another era. The problem with leadership theories, the authors maintain, is that they actually prevent excellence from being achieved, the theories portray managers in a heroic light, at the centre of all the action. The consequence of this is that the good manager is portrayed as always knowing what is going on, always having more technical expertise than a subordinate, always able to solve any problem and always the primary person responsible for the solution of any problems that may arise in the department.

This situation has very real consequences for the achievement of excellence, the free flow of information is hampered and it does not reach the places in which it is required, responses to demands and opportunities are diminished and the quality of decisions is lowered. The manager who assumes all encompassing responsibility for problem solving could not possibly, the authors maintain, make full use of their subordinates qualities and competencies, in this situation subordinates are deprived of job challenges and thus the chance of development. Narrowness and self interest are also products of this line of thought, decisions also become loaded with 'win or lose dynamics'. In this analysis, management and leadership have assumed equal necessity and there is a lack of an exciting vision of the future, to prevent the hindrance of subordinates' growth and learning, the new form of leadership must be beyond participative management.

The authors call the new style of leadership 'postheroic' seeing the manager as a developer. This new situation does not mean that the manager abandons all responsibility and control, an entirely new definition of leadership is implied, the key point in it is, that the manager must first believe in a concept and then 'act in the development of a team of key subordinates'. Finally, there are three components to this new view of leadership, building a shared responsibility team, continuous development of individual skills and determining and building a common department vision.

Alan Mumford (1984) states that there are varying definitions of effective managerial behaviour, the developmental process seems, the author says, to emphasise activities in which managers are required to be effective rather than emphasising the knowledge necessary for action. The 'management by objectives' approach represents, the author maintains, a shift in attention to what managers actually do rather than abstract statements about what they ought to do. Still however, there appears to be insufficient acceptance that working to help a manager become more effective depends more on recognising and dealing with the

specifics of their job than on 'helping them through generalisations about what managers need to know'. There is, the author says, an overemphasis on developing managers for the future, rather than concentrating on current requirements. Research and theory have not dealt with the reality of how a manager learns, managers may, Mumford maintains, learn differently from the same situation. Management development, then, must become a learning experience rather than a teaching experience.

Frederick G. Harmon and Garry Jacobs (1985) maintain that what sets high achievers apart from the rest is 'energy' and the way they use that which is available to them. Energy must however be focussed, disciplined thus breeding discipline, available energy is extended to the organisation and harnessed by it, this energy is controlled by authority and directed to work in the interest of the organisation through 'systems and skills'. An important factor in good management is the building up of a core of dedicated employees through attention given to their needs and development, the induction of new members into an organisation needs to be viewed as an 'influx of new energy'. The good manager knows how to utilise people's capacities to the full, bearing in mind that valuable energy can be wasted on internal conflicts and indecisiveness.

Energy must be properly channelled through carefully designed systems which are 'precisely coordinated and integrated with the structure and function of the organisation'. The organisation then focuses the energy for the fulfilment of its central purpose. The good manager will set goals which though achievable only through all out effort, are nonetheless realistic. After success the effective manager will always ensure that there is celebration. Focussed intense energy, the authors say, is not 'agitated excitement', the intensity is expressed confidently from the highest to the lowest level. For a manager to have the same attitude to subordinates as to peers requires a great effort, thus a great effort must be put into careful listening. The attitude will then be on its way to becoming permanent. Most top executives, the authors say, are people who work hard and 'inspire others to do the same', full attention is given by them to every detail of the work at hand. 'Calm, power, harmony and perfection' are, according to Harmon and Jacobs, the attributes of the excellent organisations.

Personality, the authors maintain, determines the way energy flows in an individual, some are constructive others destructive, corporations also have a corporate personality. Despite changes in attitude and thoughts, as with the individual, the basic personality remains the same. The more powerful and well integrated the personality, the higher its aims, the stronger its organising will, the more varied and developed its skills, the greater the energy it can harness and the intensity it can generate, thus the greater results it can achieve. Each corporation, the authors believe, has a 'psychic centre' which consists of beliefs, values, mission, attitudes and objectives that determine both long term direction and short term goals. The structure and hierarchy of an organisation act like character and will in the individual, and organisational systems are like their traits, finally its skills are its means to refine and express energies. Energy is converted into intensity and purpose only by means of the corporate personality, institutions do not however evolve by

themselves, they need leaders, leaders must extend and widen their vision in order to release the corporate energy and help organisational evolution. The personality of the leader may be imprinted upon the corporation or else the corporate personality can 'impose its own personality on the leader'.

Central beliefs and values give direction, the authors maintain, to top managers in a time of crisis, the most important ideas though, are those which a company has about day to day affairs. Ideas only become powerful when they are enforced, and the most powerful corporate values are those which permeate all levels of the organisation and are not merely dictated by management. Corporate values must however be translated into explicit objectives, and this requires, on behalf of the corporation, a genuine commitment to a higher goal. Decisions about values thus become institutionalised as a structure which eventually leads to standards, rules and systems, coordination and integration. The authors maintain though, that skills are also required, along with recruitment and training attention, eventually however, values are 'deeply ingrained' and it is no longer necessary to enforce them on individuals. Now and only now has the corporation got a 'culture'.

The CEO has a major role in this process, the authors say that tremendous mental efforts are required in the adoption of higher level beliefs and values, decisions must be communicated effectively and translated into policy, programmes of execution and action plans. It is a constant strain to maintain such a momentum and a total, consistent effort must be devoted to it, in the effective manager, the necessary mental energy is augmented by what the authors call, 'buoyant vital energy', well supported by physical energy. This is, the authors say, the power of translating higher values into action. It is not 'the luxury of the rich, but a way to become rich'.

Harmon and Jacobs maintain that a properly structured organisational system 'compliments and completes individual talent and inspiration'. Factors must be identified within the organisation which can be used to promote success, and by far the most important of these is what the authors call 'local dynamism', as opposed to 'central edicts'. The organisation represents the 'character' of the corporation, and the authors maintain that it is this which 'gathers, mobilises and directs' overall resources to fulfil the values, objectives and mission of the psychic centre of the organisation. A strong corporate culture of this kind is essential, the authors maintain, for a linkage between ideas and action, and between structural and functional aspects of the organisation. Without such a corporate culture, decisions are not executed effectively, organisational morale is low and as a result potentials are not realised.

The authors say that the creation of a hierarchical structure and the delegation of authority are two primary powers of organisations. Specialisation of systems and forms of reporting are also important, as are coordination and integration. Harmon and Jacobs also introduce the concept of 'harmony', between and within people who are they say, the key to all the above mentioned powers of organisation, furthermore, it is a real challenge to release all these latent powers for the achievement of effectiveness and continuous

production. For effective release of these powers, healthy discipline is required, for energies and talents cannot be put to use without it. Laxity and indiscipline, the authors maintain, are often confused with 'the freedom necessary to achieve enduring success', the dividing line being dependent on the corporate character.

Reward systems are also important in motivating individuals to effectiveness, material rewards, the authors say, refer only to the performance of people, and not to the people themselves, the individual also needs systems of social approval and reward necessary to their growth, and the organisation must commit itself to this process of promoting personal growth amongst its members. An integral part of this promotion of personal growth is the establishment of positive authority.

Harmon and Jacobs say that 'systems are an organisation's fixed patterns of response to recurring situations' and that they provide room for evolution of policy against an accepted standard. Systems within organisations must be fully integrated, so that they provide continuous possibilities for creativity, in this way, systems are the channels 'through which organisations translate ideas into actions' and they are 'bridges and bonds' which connect even the outermost parts of the organisation to the whole. Values, the authors maintain, can be used to give greater force to systems to achieve effectiveness, but overall the effectiveness of any organisational system depends on regular review and overhaul. All systems should function properly, in the way they were intended at their inception, and where they intersect, in human and structural terms there should be 'harmonious coordination and integration'. Furthermore, any system which is employed should be fully utilised and the systems used by other organisations should be examined with a view to the innovation of new systems.

To make a 'habit of success' the authors maintain that there are certain standard qualities which the effective companies have adopted as their own. There are 'physical skills', technical skills', organisational skills' and 'social skills' dealing with all elements of the organisation in turn. 'Managerial skills' can be institutionalised for the betterment of the whole and consist, according to the authors, of the following: 'conceptual skills' are necessary for the understanding of work in the context of a totality, 'planning skills' identify objectives and 'decision making skills' provide the will to adhere to them. 'Skill in exercising authority' is necessary to provide a management structure and a system of discipline which is acceptable to all, while 'time management skills' are essential for the maximisation of time and the maintenance of a clear mind for clearer planning. 'Psychological skills' become more indispensable the higher though the levels of human interaction one rises, among these are 'factual reporting skills' consisting of the ability to detect factual information from all other, 'listening skills' simply letting the other person speak and at the same time demonstrating the skills and self control needed for personal growth, the ability to display 'empathy', to know how another person thinks and feels and to respect and honour their thoughts and sentiments. Skill in judging people is also an important quality, judging character, motives and abilities accurately, objectively and perceptively hand in hand with 'self awareness', the 'observations of patterns in

one's own life' as well as 'those in the lives of others. The authors also mention 'silent will', centred around the premiss that 'speaking pleasantly carries a power' and the integral skill of knowing when and where to exercise and refrain from exercising each skill.

Top management must have the ability to recognise the multiplicity of skills which are required for high performance and must cultivate them systematically at all levels of the organisation by 'education, training and proper recruitment'. High levels of corporate success require then, physical, technical, social, organisational, managerial and psychological skills in every area of functioning and at all levels of the organisation.

Finally, the authors say that corporate values can be expressed in the smallest ways, and because of this it is possible to learn about the character of a company and its members through the appearance of its facilities, the quality of its products and services, the way it handles materials, money and machines, through the nature of its surroundings, the level of maintenance, the quality of inventory control, general product quality and attention to essential procedures such as accounting. As such, the authors would surmise that 'the corporate body is only the external manifestation of the vital inside'.

Legal Requirements of Executives

The executive is answerable, as is any other citizen, to the general requirements and prohibitions of the law, but in addition to these general requirements there are of necessity certain duties, requirements and prohibitions which are specific to the executive. In their guide to Directors' Personal Liabilities, the Institute of Directors (1988) have taken account of recent development in compiling the new edition. Firstly, there is the new 1986 Insolvency Act, with the 1986 Company Directors Disqualification Act now including the provisions of the 1985 Insolvency and Companies Acts. Secondly, there is the enactment of the 1986 Financial Services Act. Finally, there is heightened public awareness of company responsibility for criminal offences in the light of recent tragedies when such legislation has been cited and prosecution mooted.

The guide stresses that in recent years directors' public expectations, duties, responsibilities and corresponding personal liabilities have increased. Directors are urged to 'serious thought', and the overall aim of the publication is to give a guide to the complexity and mixture of common law and statute which a director will encounter. But this complexity of the law does not overshadow the more simple common law duty of the director in regard to care, skill and good faith. 'The primary duty of directors is to direct their companies to the best of their ability'.

The editor maintains that the law is not as clear cut as it could be, even the definition of a director is in some doubt! There has been no formal development of law relating to directors, and the common law treatment of it comes from the laws of trusts, contract and tort. 'The principle statute...is the Companies Act 1985; but many of the most fundamental provisions which affect the way they are to act are contained only in the Articles of Association...these are matters of custom and agreement'. '...there is a mass of legislation...in which economic intervention clashes with corporate status and directors become the human embodiment of the company for the purpose of being proceeded against and punished.'

Liabilities, the guide says, may be civil or criminal. Criminal offences are 'acts which are committed against the body of citizens generally', and the same act may create both criminal and civil liabilities. The sources of directors' liability are listed as: 'the directors' duties to his company', 'personal liabilities arising to third parties as a result of an individual holding the office of director', 'liabilities arising from the Companies Act', vicarious responsibility for Company torts', and 'vicarious responsibility for corporate criminal offences'. The guide gives a comprehensive illustration and explanation of the contents of each of these legal headings and goes on to describe the new disqualification legislation. Enforcement of the law and penalties for its violation are given in some detail.

The Institute of Directors Guide to Boardroom Practice No.5 (1984) is designed to indicate the general nature of the legal considerations in the area of consumer protection which face boards. The introduction states that it '...is a fundamental tenet of the Institute of Directors' philosophy that customer choice, freely and intelligently exercised, underpins the free enterprise system. Consumption and use are the only reason and justification for production, and the price an individual is willing to pay for fairly competing products the only true basis of value.'

Developments over the last fifty years in the area of consumer protection are highlighted, and it is suggested that the work of the Office of Fair Trading in conjunction with trade associations heralds a return to the rudiments of the guild system 'as a result of the extension of public rights.'. 'Legislation setting minimum standards protects honest businesses as much as consumers, and that is a principle which members of the Institute should support.' The guide acknowledges however, that new consumer protection legislation can and does cause some problems for boards and their companies. The normal common law relationships between producers and consumers are much modified by other specific statutory provisions which have been made. Civil liabilities, criminal liability and actions for damages are all possible results from breaches of consumer protection legislation, with companies being just as liable as individuals.

The scope of the consumer protection law is examined under two headings, fair trading and consumer safety. The guide goes on to examine the problem of delegated responsibility in the event of an offence, the actions which a board should take, the relevant statutes and gives a comprehensive list of statutes, their penalties and defences which may be offered.

The Institute of Directors Guide to Boardroom Practice No.5 looks at the directors' appointment. Most difficulties, the guide says, arise 'from failing to recognise that the same individual acquires dual legal status if he or she is both a director and an employee.' The nature of the office of director is explained thus: 'by becoming a director an individual becomes a member of a company's governing body...directors, as such, are not employees, but statutory officers...[the Companies Act] does not lay down a rigid framework. Many elements of a company's administration are left to be determined by its own constitution in its Memorandum and Articles of Association.'

The document goes on to examine eligibility, modes of appointment and reappointment, remuneration, registration, consent to act and notification of appointment. Special regard is given to the status and position of executive directors and subsequently, specimen form of service agreements are illustrated.

The role of the non-executive director is examined in the Guide to Boardroom Practice No.12 (1988). 'The guide contains a summary of the role of the board as a whole; of the part that non-executive directors play in this role; the qualities required in a non-executive director; how to identify, appoint and reward the right people; and how both company and non-executive director can establish and maintain on a continuing basis a relationship which enables that former to obtain the maximum benefit from the appointment and enables and motivates the latter to make the best possible contribution.'

In performing its role, the company board 'must set objectives, strategies and policies; approve operational and financial plans and monitor their achievement. The board will also establish the corporate culture and ensure that there is an adequacy and continuity of human, physical, and financial resources. It must also give an account of the company's affairs to the parties that have an interest in them.' Members must have experience of 'a wide range of subjects, situations and disciplines', they must provide 'specialist knowledge, 'complimentary skills, worldly wisdom and independent judgement'. Team work, team spirit, personality balance and careful selection are also pre-requisites for good direction. The functions of the board are listed as strategic direction, execution, supervision and accountability.

The guide asserts that the non-executive director is required 'to participate to the full in all the board's deliberations', and that he or she has a special contribution to the areas already listed.

Success

Charles Margerison and Andrew Kakabadse (1984) examine how American chief executives succeed. Practical leadership experience appears to be essential to the upcoming top manager, as does attention to personal and interpersonal factors and relations. Those individuals who are destined to become

chief executives seem also to have what the authors call a 'personal and deeply felt need to achieve results', in addition to this they respond to challenges and take both risks and responsibility. There would appear to be some necessity for such individuals to have most are all of these characteristics in their early 30s if they are to be truly successful.

The authors maintain that in the development of top executives, there is both a personal and organisational emphasis on communication skills, delegation, respect for others, decision making ability and self discipline. The top executive or upcoming executive would appear to devote most of their time to planning, paperwork and meetings and in addition, unplanned activities and organisational politics. Successful top executives are enterprising people always seizing the opportunity to meet with others, share ideas and display an intent to influence others' thinking and behaviour, while at the same time they maintain an interest in conceptual work.

In examining the factors which contribute to the success of chief executives and with development in mind, the authors identify certain questions which may be expanded upon to yield interesting and useful information in this area, such as the key influences the individual would identify with, what they had to learn in the course of achieving success, what are the most difficult aspects of success, why they reached their present position, how they view their fellows, what aspects of their work consumes the most time, the importance of personality and which development areas are in need of most concentration.

Career success, the authors say, appears to have two components, achievement and maintenance, while effectiveness is measured against established targets with the chief executive rarely consulted as to their perception of the criteria of measurement. Top executives however do appear to take pride in the achievements and their effectiveness and expect others to do likewise. Similarly, they have a personal need to achieve and enjoy setting and meeting difficult targets, they believe in high performance standards but their achievement orientation is one of the factors that is rarely measured in the selection procedure, in a sense then, they are self selecting.

Certain qualities are important in the top executive, among these are an ability to work with a wide variety of people, the ability to communicate and delegate effectively and the ability to deal with others in a patient and tolerant manner. Indeed it is this, the management of others, which the authors say top executives find most difficult, and which, it appears is generally learned from experience. Top executives have also maintained that they view their jobs as a challenge related to personal identity and personal growth, but the authors maintain that the concept of what constitutes a challenge has not been sufficiently researched.

The successful top executive shows right along the development line, a willingness to initiate change and has what may be called a 'competitive streak'. There is also a willingness to take 'well assessed

risks, and to make decisions based on these 'calculated risks'. Successful executives are forgiving of failure and willing to assume responsibility for the consequences of their decisions and actions. To gain these important qualities, the author maintain that it is important for the aspiring top executive to have responsibility early, especially so that they themselves can assess their performance. They should, the authors say, be encouraged to apply their skills in other functions than their own area of specialisation, but this requires foresight from both the organisation and the individual, nevertheless, an effort should be made to cross functional boundaries.

The United States is, the authors maintain, 'more future oriented', managers must look beyond the present towards a process of continual improvement with new standards being introduced to promote higher goals and a general policy of staying ahead. Learning to lead in such an environment, with new technology being all important, as a practical experience is difficult to achieve in the broad manner that is necessary in such a sophisticated environment, but a 'desire to make ideas work' and to 'see the idea through' are useful tools in the struggle. In studying success, account must be taken of individual style and how the executive 'uses behaviour to get results from people', in relation to behaviour, one of the qualities of the successful executive, the authors maintain, is the ability to remain true to self and values through a variety of behaviours. On a more down to earth level, the executive must be able to get day to day jobs done to ensure the survival of the organisation, this ability requires the personal quality of being able to take a tough stance where it is needed, but at the same time maintaining flexibility in relation to the viewpoints of others.

The top executive would, the authors say, appear to succeed personally rather than having 'aided achievement', high visibility is not essential and the playing of politics would not seem to be recommended, such self achievement can however have detrimental effects on home life and can lead to excessive stress. Regarding the training of the executive, a sound technical background seems to be the most important factor, with little emphasis being placed on off the job training.

In interpersonal relationships, the successful top executive is the cultivator of interpersonal relationships and the promoter of working relationships with others. Often however, the executive is ill prepared for the interpersonal demands of the job, this being related to the emphasis which is placed on the possession of technical skills. Personal and interpersonal activities would appear, the authors say, to be an important aspect in any development programme for top executives in the future. Energy needs also to be devoted to communication, both in the transmission and reception of information, being a top executive is about managing people and inherent in this is an ability to delegate, respect for others and trust. The executive must also devote substantial time to network building, often involving an extensive range of contacts and thus the stresses of near incessant travelling.

In a discussion of gender in relation to successful top executives and their behaviour, Margerison and Kakabadse say that male executives have a preference for team work and team building, whilst female executives concentrate more on task accomplishment. A problem area for males is the ability to have patience with people, whilst prejudice and the need to be aware of this problem could be a problem for the female executive. Male executives tend to discuss matters more openly, females tend to emphasise organising, self discipline and analytical ability, taking a personal rather than the team approach of their male counterparts. Dealing with personnel is found to be quite easy for female executives, whereas, the authors say, they cite planning as being 'difficult and frustrating'. Here, there may be a conflict between personal concepts and corporate realities, necessitating the development of skills to deal with both people and processes. Female executives also tend to be more individualistic as opposed to males valuing leadership and its attendant interpersonal skills, women also tend to hold a more self oriented view.

Another useful way of gaining an insight into the qualities of the successful top executive is to question what they expect in this line from their fellow chief executive officers, in other words, what are they looking for in other people in the same or similar positions as themselves. The authors identify the following qualities: ambition, intelligence, creativity, a knowledge of the business, honesty, integrity and a sense of ethics (identified by the authors as an area needing inclusion in training programmes). Hard work was not cited as an important quality.

Regarding training programmes, top executives seem to be of the opinion that programmes do not take into account the realities of the managerial job, but rather have some ideal vision of it, training programmes are not, the authors maintain, sufficiently job related and a link is wanting between management development and work related experience.

Margerison and Kakabadse tease out some implications from the study and indicate some further lines of research which may be followed, how potential can be recognised in the young employee is one promising area, along with study into how long an individual should spend at a particular job. Approaches to off the job training seem also to be in need of revision, along with ways of identifying and encouraging achievement. Experience seems to need to be given to the aspiring successful top executive at a crucial point in time, by the appropriate delegation of work and the giving of accountability, personal leadership abilities also need to be developed at an early stage, preferably, the authors say, before the age of 25. Top executives need a broad view of business, and the way in which they will receive this at an early stage needs to be planned. Tasks need to be developed and delegated where the abilities of the executive can be stretched, and this needs combination with regular feedback and reports. Generally, CEOs need to keep very much up to date, thus 'short sharp and relevant injections of knowledge and skills as a planned process of continuing development' are needed, the authors maintain. Such a process and programme needs to be integrated into the very career of the executive, addressing the real problems and challenges that they are faced with. A 'well managed appraisal process' is an essential element here, laying an appropriate emphasis on self

development. Other important areas identified by the authors are: self understanding, developing effective management teams, working with consultants, improving presentation skills, allocating time to personal development. Finally the authors say that the successful top executive must realise the strengths and weaknesses, skills and styles that they possess, and in turn it must be realised that successful CEOs are 'made, often self made, but not born', and that in a team, 'managers hold clear roles only with the cooperation and assistance of other team members.'

Charles Margerison (1984) discusses the perceptions which executives have about managerial success factors, the idea of a manager as a 'planner, leader, organiser and controller' is being challenged by more modern theories of managerial work, the present view being centred around a series of roles, demands, constraints and choices. Little however is known even now, Margerison says, about the importance of managerial skills, abilities and experience 'in contributing to the success of senior managers'.

Major influences in this area, the author maintains, are personal strengths and the ability to work with a wide variety of people, and these qualities increase in importance through the levels of seniority. It is not natural charm that is required, but patience, understanding, listening ability, tact and tolerance, and these must be learned. The ability to develop successful teams and to motivate others is also important, according to Margerison, since most time is spent in the senior managerial roles either trying to influence others or being influenced. Responsibility is a central concept in any discussion of top management, encompassing responsibility for decisions, actions and, tasks, as well as for profit and loss. Managers seem to often feel that their skills and abilities are underutilised, especially in the face of their need to achieve results and the demands made upon them to gain personal experience of leadership. Experience is something, Margerison maintains, in line with what he and Kakabadse outlined in the previous study, which must be gained early, a wide experience being necessary for senior management by the age of 35, in addition, experience must be wide and challenging, to fulfil the achievement orientation possessed by the manager and to promote personal growth.

Top managers have certain predominant perceptions of others in the same position as themselves, and the qualities Margerison lists are, hard work, energy, getting things done, leadership ability, an inspiring nature, dynamism, concern for people, sound commercial acumen, trustworthiness, honesty, getting the best out of people, competence, thinking things through, patience, tact, listening skills, tolerance, self understanding, skills in the management of others, including delegation, understanding others' motivation and skills of picking and developing teams. These qualities and skills, the author says finally, must be learned.

Modesto A. Mardique and Robert M. Hayes (1985) in their investigation of 'the art of high technology management' concentrate on 'strategies, policies, practices and decisions that result in successful

leadership is essential in the face of change such as that experienced in the high technology industries, and the dilemma appears to be how to unleash the sort of creativity that promotes growth and change without fragmentation of the industry and how to control motivation 'without stifling it'. There are, in the words of the authors, 'periodic shifts between chaos and continuity'.

The authors identify certain factors which appear to be important in the successful management of rapidly evolving organisational and industrial situations, 'business focus', involves closely related products and focussed research and development, concentration on one or two areas and an enduring commitment with consistent priorities. There must be a belief in competitive effectiveness and the priorities and pattern of behaviour of the organisation must be constantly reinforced by top management. 'Adaptability' means the achievement of a balance between a well defined focus and the willingness to undertake rapid and often unpredictable change, organisational flexibility must be inbuilt along with structural agility. 'Organisational cohesion' is the term the authors use to describe the necessity of cooperation in the translation of ideas into practice, they maintain that for effective functioning, 'the energy of the whole organisation must be tapped'. Integration of all the members of the organisation is essential, and the authors are wary of any enforced separation between the executives and the more manual levels of the organisation. Those firms who have a strong culture and a strong theme seem to display 'a sophisticated understanding of their businesses. On the personnel front job motivation keeps organisational boundaries fluid, and is necessary along with role integration, multidisciplinary teams, long term employment and intensive training for the promotion of industrial excellence. 'Entrepreneurial culture' is quite closely related by the authors to the previous factor, there is in the most excellent firms an evident activism in promoting internal agents of change and there are almost always excellent communication channels. Some limitations can be placed on the pervasiveness of entrepreneurial culture by the subdivision of firms. Other essential components are a tolerance of failure, a variety of funding channels and the pursuit and uptake of opportunities to undertake outside projects. A 'sense of integrity' concerns a commitment to long term relationships and the subordination of everything to a well formed set of higher level ethical values, this commitment, the authors maintain, must 'stand at the top' and be combined with self understanding on the part of members of the organisation and the ability to reconcile ideas with reality. Finally 'hands on top management' involves the understanding by executives of the principles of the firms technology so that they can interact successfully and at a high enough level with their employees, thus facilitating the establishment of an effective communications network. Top managers must also have the ability to understand the risks which may be perceived by the technical and scientific staff.

In conclusion, Mardique and Hayes see the first three qualities as implying 'stability and conservatism' whereas the second three are 'synonymous with rapid change'. There appears therefore to be a tension between order and disorder, necessitating ambivalent management and the sort of qualities which make the management of ambiguity possible and lead to excellence even in the face of rapid technological environmental change.

David Freemantle (1986) discusses the development of 'superbosses', and says that in order to achieve managerial success, executives must have an in depth appreciation of the meaning and application of values such as honesty, trust, commitment and accountability. Organisational success appears to be dependent, the author maintains, on 'the evolution over a long period of a framework of management principles deeply believed in and put into operation day by day'. The successful manager must have an open mind to new ideas and the further development of the principles and practices for the development of managerial excellence. Part of managerial success is the perception of the task of managing as exciting, stimulating and challenging, such managers have an action orientation, the author says, taking immediate action to solve problems and achieve results. There is a 'completely positive attitude of mind' a belief that results can be achieved and that 'opportunities exist in every organisation every day for doing even better', and furthermore that those opportunities can be seized upon immediately. The successful manager must be prepared to learn and to continue learning, managing is 'a questioning experience' every opportunity must be seen, the author says, as a learning experience.

Gerhard Banner (1986) examines the power which CEOs possess in order to establish how they can most effectively use that power for success. There is a difference between what a CEO is allowed to do and what can be and is done, much depends it appears on the executive's personal ability and skill at convincing others and harnessing their capabilities. Failure, Banner says, is most often ascribed to some personal inadequacy, but is really more likely to be a fault of the institutional power structure than of ineptitude. In fact, 'system structures seem to count for more than the capacities of individuals'. The actual authority of CEOs is then in question, according to the author, since the powers that they are granted on paper may not correspond to those which they can actually exercise in reality.

For the achievement of 'maximum power' which the author identifies as effective and not just nominal control over the administrative apparatus' or influence in careers, the CEO must assume an unassailable position and have a guaranteed period of power, there must be control over relations with the outside environment and in the 'strategically vital zone of uncertainty' the CEO must be the undoubted controller. Skilled negotiation is necessary with all the attendant abilities, since the CEO is 'no longer able to command obedience in the Weberian sense', these negotiations must, the author says, be based on power.

The CEO faces problems on the environmental and political level also, the industrial environment tends to undergo all manner of rapid changes, and problems present themselves ever quicker, more people than ever want a say in the running of the organisation in the increasingly pluralistic environment and they have the power to get it. The very nature of organisational politics is also changing with the trend steering away from personality politics towards interest groups and organised competition.

The author maintains that the solution for the successful CEO lies in initiative and leadership more than ever before, the CEO must lead not only subordinates but must be seen to be the leader at the head of the organisation. The successful top executive will exert 'pressure from both sides without the rules being stacked so that one always succeeds'.

Robert Galvin describes the 'relaxed management style of a high technology company', authority and responsibility are decentralised whilst a general corporate perspective and overview are maintained. Top executives have their own area of responsibility, but each also has the authority to make corporate decisions should the need arise, and in the event of such decisions being made, each executive 'would faithfully follow the decision that the other has taken', rank, the author maintains, would only come into play where there is disagreement over a common cause.

The attraction towards decentralisation comes, the author says, from a desire on behalf of the top executives to keep people motivated, small businesses seem to give individuals the ability to express their need 'to become proprietors' and they feel that they are to some extent their own bosses 'in the context of a larger institution'. Coordination of such a system may appear to be difficult, but, the author says, once allocations have been made at divisional level, there is a good degree of freedom to spend the allocations in any way that is deemed to be appropriate.

The structure of the organisation as it approaches management level tends to commend technological excellence, and the freedom of the system is such that even the vice president is appointed rather than elected, so that a good and fair fit is almost guaranteed. The philosophy tends towards that of dealing with people on an individual basis, based on the premiss that a person will be 'more motivated with optimum control of his or her destiny'. Inbreeding, the author says finally, is a big danger in a small firm, and the successful organisations naturally like to 'grow their own' but always bring in enough outsiders so that they do not isolate themselves from the rest of the world.

Andrew Campbell sees the recipe for executive success as lying with the 'difference between seeing an event as an opportunity or a threat'. The unsuccessful have a fear of the unknown, the successful, the author says, have a responsible sense of adventure and challenge. They have a positive attitude, an ability to focus energy and they become stimulated by the challenge of creating the future, all this leads to a drive to get the job done successfully and effectively. Apprehension is converted by the successful into a positive drive, and there is always the belief that goals set are attainable. The successful create a positive self image and measure their performance and that of others against goals to be achieved rather than against past failures. In the event of failure, such a 'winning attitude' helps the executive to 'look forward to the future and to the next opportunity, rather than dwelling and despairing in failure. Naturally, Campbell says, these qualities and attitudes are backed up by 'good business qualities' but when individuals have these winning

attitudes, they do indeed 'determine success' and the corporation as well as the individual can reach its full potential.

Brian O'Connell maintains that a deep sense of commitment and a 'passion for the cause' together with 'strong personal allegiances to the mission of the organisation' are necessary qualities for success. The successful executive will take time to get to know all aspects of their organisation in good detail, so that the best communication between them and all other levels is possible. There is a willingness to ask questions, but care is taken in their formulation, to avoid undermining self or others. The successful executive keeps 'the dream out in front' and realises that the success of the organisation depends not on individual work but on the sum of the work of the whole. Such executives succeed because they have reached their positions after demonstrating an ongoing commitment to 'doing something for the cause' of the organisation, such an attitude builds a 'fellowship' rather than a mere working relationship, and all board members know 'when the organisation is lacking'. Finally, O'Connell says, it is necessary to involve all members of the organisation in the setting of goals, but to do this, qualities of patience, tolerance and flexibility are needed, especially amongst those at the top whose job it is to instil these values and qualities into the organisation in the first place.

Managerial Competence

Richard E. Byrd (1987) says that the old categories of management skills planning, controlling, leading, organising and motivating were 'geared towards people with a charter, a budget, a market, a number of direct reporting relationships and clear organisational boundaries'. In such closed systems, managerial relationships were based on the assumption that organisational structure could be clearly defined.

Byrd proposes a 'new synthesis' of corporate leadership skills and competencies for a new organisational environment and the new demands which top managers face because of them. 'Anticipatory skills' involve foresight and the ability to accept that the world is constantly changing. The attention of managers who possess this skill is focussed on those people around them, they can anticipate defeat and failure and they share their skills and competencies, expertise and sophistication to help others. Political skills are also an essential element in the anticipatory competence. 'Visioning skills' describe the ability to 'create mental and verbal pictures of desirable future states'. The exercise of this ability is persistent and constant, and the competent manager persists and perseveres, 'sharing and creating a new reality with others'. 'Value congruence skills' mean that the manager has 'basic assumptions and beliefs about the nature of the business', and these are often very deeply internalised. In order to be properly described as having this competence, a manager must be in touch with the psychological, economic, safety, spiritual, sexual, aesthetics and physical needs of others. A good value system gives the manager the resources to deal

with uncertainty and provides a set of standards by which choices can be made. If a leader/manager possesses values, the author maintains, and these values are deep enough to be recognised by others then they provide a valuable resort when asserting authority on matters of principle, at the same time offering a vision that members of the organisation can find meaningful and identify with. Regarding employees, the author says that this skill can help to 'unify human resources management policies', bring employees together in pursuit of a mission and help them 'overcome feelings of inertia'. In cautionary fashion, the author asserts however, that managers values must be congruent with the shared underlying assumptions of the organisation, the manager must live up to these values and most of all they must be translated into observable behaviours. 'Empowerment skills' describe the ability of managers to share power amongst their employees, power must be shared, Byrd maintains, employees must be 'allowed share satisfaction of achievement'. The manager must have a belief in people and must unlock latent motivation rather than attempt to create it in them. Finally, 'self understanding skills', the competent manager must recognise strengths and compensate for any identifiable weaknesses, also essential is the ability to accept feedback, discern gaps between skills and job requirements and the ability to create a frame of reference to 'arouse and understand motivation'.

Jim Padden and Ian Faulder (1983) discuss the development of managerial competencies and say that it is essentially about the 'development of specific skills for specific purposes. The authors mention that insights and practice have an important bearing on performance and that low achievement may well be due to a lack of knowledge or practical experience. Knowledge, feelings and behaviour can all affect one another, the authors maintain, feelings, for example, 'can guide the way a person behaves and the way they define knowledge'. The competent performer achieves a balance between the three, appreciating that knowledge has two components, theoretical and personal. The personal element allows competence development to be described as a 'personal journey' by the authors, including a consideration of things that may hinder or help along the way. Finally, Padden and Faulder mention that competence development does have costs, in the form of feelings about risk taking, thoughts about failure, thoughts about the criticisms and opinions of others, the giving up of a favourite feeling and even becoming a beginner in some situations. There is, the authors say, 'no instant success'.

Bernard Taylor and Gordon Lippitt (1983) introduce the concept of a 'career anchor' into their discussion of managerial competencies, this career anchor is 'a syndrome of talents, motives and values which gives stability and direction to a persons career', it derives from previous experiences in the persons career and reflects a persons view of themselves in terms of their 'pattern of talents and abilities'. The career anchor can be an important constraint in situations which prove to be incompatible with the individual's value system, talents or needs.

Managerial competence as a concept comes into play when, the authors maintain, a person is seeking opportunities to manage and climb the managerial ladder to the level where their decisions will

make a real difference, 'management per se is the motivator. Certain competencies stand out in importance for the authors in such a situation, 'interpersonal competence' is the ability and desire to handle a variety of interpersonal relations and situations without undue difficulty; 'analytical competence' is the ability and desire to identify problems, analyse them and develop solutions; 'emotional competence' is the ability to bear high levels of responsibility to make difficult and unprecedented decisions and to exercise leadership and power without personal conflict; 'technical/functional competence' comes into play where the person is seeking their various technical talents and specialised areas of competence; 'security' is where the person is motivated by 'the need to stabilise the career situation even if it means subordinating some personal needs and letting the organisation dictate the career'; 'autonomy and independence' describes the person seeking a work situation where they will be to a great extent free of any organisational constraints to pursue specialised technical or functional competence.

Finally, the authors identify some more minor competencies, the need for identity, the urge to give service, the desire to express personal and interpersonal needs, the search for power, influence and control, the search for variety and the search for a career into which the individuals entire lifestyle, work, home, family and friends is integrated.

Edward A. Powers (1987) attempts to identify managerial behaviours characteristic of superior performance, he divides the competencies and their orientations into 'clusters'. The goal and action management cluster' encompasses the 'efficiency orientation' concerned with improving performance in comparison with previous performances of oneself or others or in comparison with a certain standard of excellence. The author maintains that 'proactivity' is also characteristic of this cluster, along with a disposition towards taking action to accomplish a certain goal. Such a manager is concerned with 'impact' and with 'the symbols and implements of power to influence others. Concepts are used diagnostically and previously held concepts may be used to explain and interpret current situations. The 'directing subordinates cluster' involves the use of unilateral power and influence 'to obtain compliance'. There is an emphasis on developing others and providing performance and other forms of feedback to help people to improve their performance. Also integral to this cluster is the ability to communicate easily and express oneself freely. The 'human resources management cluster' incorporates accurate self assessment and a 'realistic and grounded view of self'. Such managers exhibit self control and have an ability to subordinate personal views to the service of organisational goals. Stamina and adaptability are essential components and energy is needed to sustain long hours. A 'flexibility orientation' is needed to adapt to changes in both personal and organisational life and a positive outlook on life, with the ability 'to express a positive belief in others', is also important. 'Perceptual objectivity' and the ability to be 'relatively objective' and unlimited by subjective biases are important. Regarding other people, there must be an ability to effectively manage group processes and to stimulate others to work effectively, often under difficult conditions and in group situations. 'Socialised power' must be used along with forms of influence to facilitate the building of coalitions, networks and alliances. Finally, the 'leadership cluster' necessitates self confidence and the ability

to 'consistently display decisiveness or presence. An ability to conceptualise is important with the use of concepts to identify patterns in the assessment of information. Logical thought processes are necessary, in which causal sequences can be ordered effectively. The manager must be adept at the use of oral presentations.

Powers goes on to say that 'for each competency there are identified behavioural characteristics expressed at the skill level'. In some instances, he maintains, competencies are further identified in terms of their 'motive or trait level' or their 'social role or self image dimensions'. The American Management Association has, the author says, concentrated on the skill level of competencies because skills can be expressed in observable behaviours and furthermore, because competencies at the skill level can be taught and learned.

Certain components are identified by the author as comprising the process of competency acquisition. Firstly, there is 'recognition', the ability to realise a competency when it is possessed or its lack when it is not. Secondly, there is 'understanding' of how the particular competency relates to managerial performance. Thirdly, 'assessment', the measurement of the degree to which any competency is possessed. Fourthly, 'experimentation', the trying out of new managerial behaviours. Finally, there is 'practice', the using of a competency 'on the job' in a consistent and appropriate way. Powers asserts that 'repertoire' is a critical notion when discussing competencies, and that all the competencies mentioned, and their underlying characteristics are important skills 'in a generic sense'. Having all of the competencies is of course most desirable, but, the author concludes, 'the critical test of effectiveness is to use them in ways appropriate to the managerial and organisational situation'.

Smith and Petersen (1988) give a good account of the development of leadership theory and practice. The authors begin by examining the origin of the leadership concept. The early part of this century saw the development of psychometrics which made a major contribution to the study of leadership, especially the study of leadership as a personal trait and the links between personality type and leadership. This emphasis has been developed to the present day with research into managerial talent and promotional success, along with the number and variety of psychometric instruments. The authors maintain, however, that these studies are always somewhat removed from giving us an explanation of why traits are important and what people do as they perform their day to day tasks. Whilst this approach to leadership presupposes a quality which is 'inherent in particular persons' looking at leadership as a behavioural style identifies a 'specifiable set of behaviours which we may delineate as the skills of leadership, but they are not inherent in the person. Indeed, once identified, the skills may be taught to others, who may thereby become effective leaders.' Regarding this approach to the study and research of leadership, Smith and Petersen say that an absence of empirical verification has detracted from its appeal, and that it still 'fails to take account of the circumstances within which leadership acts occur.'

Smith and Petersen discuss contingency models of leadership as '...a series attempts by researchers to repair what they saw as the deficiencies of the [previous] approaches to leadership...'. These attempts were, the authors maintain 'heavily influenced by the earlier work...and...continued to analyse leadership in terms of certain leader behaviour patterns or styles acting upon a group of subordinates...they proposed that the emergence or effectiveness of any one style was contingent upon the environment in which the leader was operating.' The authors look at the progression of contingency theories of leadership ending with that of House (1988) which finally abandons the idea that the leader 'acts upon others in a unidirectional manner', House maintains that 'a key element in the leader's choice of style is their expectations of how others will respond to them.' The authors say that 'House's reformulation is...part of the broader tide of opinion within psychology...away from crudely behaviourist conceptions and towards a more detailed examination of the cognitions which guide actors' actions.'

The authors examine some of the radical proposals which have been put forward over the years to assist floundering theories of leadership. Replacement of leader style measures by those of reward and punishment, differentiation between subordinates, examination of the leaders' perceptions of their subordinates, a re-examination of subordinates' perceptions of their leader, and a review of the circumstances calling for leadership are all proposals which are detailed and critiqued by the authors. 'Taken together [the approaches] make it clear that a coherent account of leadership requires analysis of the manner in which two parties perceive and interpret one another's actions and of the manner in which this leads to processes of influence.'

In their analysis of recent approaches to leadership, Smith and Petersen look at the emphasis on the conscious and implicit choice processes of leaders, and the fact that now 'choice and cognition are increasingly seen as containing substantial elements of irrationality'. They divide the recent research into examinations of the 'experienced situation' including perceived events, schemas, attributions and salient values; 'choice processes' including programmed choices, motivated choices and hybrids of the two and 'behavioural choices'. The authors point out certain problems with the cognitive models of leadership and maintain that the social context of leadership should be given a more central role. To this end, they examine research which investigates 'leadership in its cultural and organisational context' as the management of conflicting demands. In this category is research which has concentrated on: the managerial role and managerial activity and work in general; 'the leader as pig in the middle' and models of role making. All these conceptualisations attempt to 'locate the leader within a more broadly defined context'. Some of the research which the authors examine under these headings has 'viewed conflict and choice as qualities which may be objectively determined' while other research devotes attention to 'the processes whereby leaders construe and interpret the meaning of events around them.' It is this latter perspective in which the authors are interested.

Smith and Petersen go on to discuss the concept, study and nature of 'event management'. According to the authors, the approach directly addresses the question of how managers deal with the problems posed for them in their work. Events, they say, 'may be seen as segments of organisational processes which, while they implicitly contain the whole of some process, are given particular meaning when they have actually been abstracted through individual cognition.' Event, as a concept, is somewhat analogous to role. 'Leadership which contributes to effective event management can be defined as actions by a person which handle organisational problems as expressed in the events faced by others.'

The authors explore theories of leadership as situated action, theories which 'emphasise the manner in which the context of actions helps to define their meaning to those concerned.' The nature of national and organisational cultural differences and similarities is explored, along with the implications of the leader's cultural context and universalisable or specific elements within it.

Leadership as the management of meaning is considered and the authors say that downward influence is the source of event meaning which is in question here. The reintroduction of the notion of charisma and charismatic leaders and related to organisational culture. There is a consideration of leaders as power holders, social power holders, with the concession from subordinates and others that 'the leader has the right to manage the meaning of events.' Leadership is also considered from the point of view of negotiation. The authors say that the event management model of meaning points out the conflict created in the form of differing constructions of social reality by alternative sources of meaning. 'When any one event is under scrutiny, the active or implicit negotiation of meaning must be considered at two points...on the one hand formal leaders negotiate an interpretation of events upon which their own actions can be based [and on the other] they then engage in a process of negotiating meanings with others and attempting to influence their actions. In this sense, all leadership actions are conflictual.' Smith and Petersen go on to consider the negotiation of order, colleague relationships, the representative role of the leader and the universals and specifics of the negotiating role.

The process of upward influence has been given little attention, the authors maintain, in considerations of leadership, despite the fact that it has become clear over time that leaders who have some degree of influence over their superiors are more likely to have influence over their subordinates. Smith and Petersen argue that the predominant view in Western cultures, of upward influence as favours being bestowed from above, or as merely good but non essential fortune, is not necessarily valid in other cultures. To this end, the authors examine individual and collective strategies of influence. They conclude the discussion by renouncing claims that there are two forms of influence (upwards and downwards), and asserting that the same concepts can be equally applied to both.

In the ultimate chapter, Smith and Petersen look at how far the new conceptions and theories of leadership which they have put forward depart from more orthodox thinking. And they examine the

implications of the new theory for practical leadership, especially leaders' attention to self management, the training of leaders and the implications for leadership in a multicultural world.

Managerial Behaviour

Robert W. Allen, Dan L. Madison, Lyman W. Porter, Patricia A. Renwick and Bronston T. Mayes (1979) discuss the nature of organisational politics and the behaviour of its actors. Political action in organisations, can, the authors say, be defined as the use of 'intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self interest of individuals or groups'. The literature they say, concentrates more on reaction to situations rather than 'proaction' or initiating behaviour, reactive behaviour tend to protect, proactive behaviour tends to promote.

Blaming others for adversity for instance, is a reactive form of political behaviour, its proactive counterpart could however be the reduction of competition for scarce resources in the face of any adversity. Information too can be used reactively or proactively. when it is used reactively, it may be withheld or distorted to suit the individual or the situational needs, or to overwhelm the opposition, when used proactively however, there is a concentration on 'physical and verbal image making' and the enhancement of real personal characteristics. The development of a base of support within an organisation is also a highly politicised activity, higher level managers, the authors say, are more sensitive to the proactive side of this behaviour, support can be gained by idea support building, ingratiation and the provision of rewards, but also by coercion and threats.

Finally the authors examine the 'personal characteristics of effective political actors', cautioning that there is a certain amount which depends on the perspectives of the individuals involved, including the beholder. The effective political actor would appear to be articulate, sensitive, socially adept, competent, popular, extraverted, self confident, aggressive, ambitious, devious, an organisation man or 'yes man', highly intelligent and logical. The authors conclude by saying that 'attribution theory', how individuals account for behaviour in others, may be useful here, especially emphasis on attributions of a dispositional or situational nature.

J.G. Wisseina, H.W. Van der Pal and H.M. Messer (1980) examine 'strategic management archetypes', the authors wish to find answers to questions concerning what determines whether or not an individual will function in a particular organisation and why one person provides leadership and others follow. There is they say, no general formula for leadership, it is dependent on the nature of the situation and the community and the amount of participation that is present or wanted in the first place. Too many stereotypes have emerged, the authors maintain, from concentration on the style of leadership and the level of affinity with the task.

A short analysis of a managers job, the authors say, would lead one to say that it is a problem solving activity and a complex information process, but the question is posed as to the extent of change of leadership type as the situation demands, leaders, they say, can change, 'but are not so flexible as to function in every kind of situation', effectiveness, in other words, is situationally dependent.

A strategy is needed, the authors maintain, in relation to the type of manager and their capabilities needed for the execution of particular strategies, and both the internal and external potential of the organisation must be taken into account. The authors suggest, that, bearing these considerations in mind, a manager should be typed according to five viewpoints conformity, sociability, activity, pressure to achieve and style of thinking. With these types go certain behavioural characteristics and action orientations, the pioneer, the conqueror, the level headed ruler, the administrator, the economiser and the insistent diplomat. Effectiveness and the chance of success may be quite dependent on type. Finally, the authors say, investigations need to be made into what happens when behaviour patterns are required in situations which are not in accordance with the behavioural tendencies so inseparably linked with the person.

Milton Leontiades (1982) says that when at the highest level of management, individuals are also dealing with the highest level of abstraction, and that this is a ground for desiring that traits should compliment long term strategy. Leontiades identifies certain stages of growth in business, the single business, the dominant businesses, related businesses and unrelated businesses. Complimentary management styles to these stages are steady state and evolutionary, and the author maintains that 'differences in type of managers are needed to optimise both'. Prototypes of steady state managers are identified by the author as activists, growth entrepreneurs, product managers and research and development planners. Prototypes of evolutionary managers are the remote controller, the aloof strategist, the acquirer and the growth director.

Robert Dubin (1982) analyses the concept of management in terms of 'meanings' attached to organisational behaviours, 'methods' employed in making the world of organisations and 'moxie', the energy or courage to do all of this successfully. There are, Dubin says, two different ways of interpreting the world of organisations, as a 'realist' and as a 'nominalist'. The realist sees organisations as 'real' having structures, boundaries, purposes and goals. Organisations are seen as having resources and members 'whose behaviours result from the structures relations among them'. The nominalist sees the world as made up of human perceptions and 'reality exists within the perceiver'. The organisation, in this analysis, becomes the shared perceptions of its members. Phenomena such as product image, organisational climate, leadership style and company character feature in this viewpoint.

Meanings, Dubin maintains, depend on the belief system which is brought to the data and the difference in belief systems between the realist and nominalist viewpoints is quite substantial. Certain

concepts have also remained uninvestigated, the concept of commitment for example, has, according to the author, remained somehow quasi religious due to the lack of empirical investigation devoted to it, leadership also appears to have been given only positive connotations in theories of organisations. Finally, Dubin says that many meanings in management and organisational theory will have to be reexamined, perhaps through an escape from 'endless emphasis on questionnaires and the mind life of managers'.

L.L. Cummings (1983) explores the various 'logics of management'. 'Management by information' emphasises the 'instrumental function of managerial action and organisational roles in society'. Causal mechanisms are assumed to be linear, concrete and logical, 'fulfilling a priori assumptions and pursuing clearly specified goals'. 'Management by ideology' aims to design management processes and organisational systems to serve the expressive functions of organisations in society. causal mechanisms are assumed to be non linear, even non rational. The purposes of organisations are seen as posterior as are the rationalisations for organisational action. Cohesiveness is provided by the acceptance of shared values, beliefs and intensive socialisation experiences rather than by information, logic or rationale, the former provide the basis for the distinctions 'by which organisational phenomena are differentiated'.

The author maintains that the increasing openness of organisational boundaries to 'participant values and attitudes' is causing the reemergence of management by ideology, there is less willingness to disengage value premises and less willingness to be 'managed by information'. Many other changes are also taking place because the above, the role participants are expected to take in decision making has changed and 'hypothesis testing is changing to confirmation and affirmation'. There is also a new role for innovation in management structures and policies, leadership is also undergoing changes with the emphasis on display of leadership acts moving to a development of true leadership.

Finally, Cummings identifies some of the myths that have come to be associated with management by information. Firstly, that the manager and the manager can be separated, secondly that information belongs to the manager, thirdly, that cause and effect are separable, fourthly, that managers are actors rather than interpreters, fifthly, that activity can be put aside from as place in the whole system and finally, that unmanaged activity does not exist. Organisations, the author says, 'should be viewed as resources'.

Donald C. Hambrick and Phyllis A. Mason (1984) maintain that 'organisational outcomes are viewed as reflections of the values and cognitive bases of powerful actors in the organisation. The more complex a decision and the more profound its organisational outcome, the more apt a behavioural theory of management is. Each decision maker, the authors say, brings a set of givens to the process, reflecting their cognitive base, knowledge or assumptions about future events, knowledge of alternatives and knowledge of consequences attached to alternatives. Also to be taken into consideration are reflected value, principles for ordering consequences or alternatives, idiosyncracies in place at the time of the decision making and other internal and external influences, All of these filter and distort the decision makers perceptions to a greater

or lesser extent. Hambrian and Mason mention that an individual's field is restricted most of the time, and even within that field of vision, there is a selection process exercised over phenomena. Information selected is further filtered through the cognitive base of the individual and their value system. Eventually, the authors say, perception combines with values to provide the base for strategic choice.

All this said, Hambrian and Mason maintain that too much research energy has been devoted to the observable characteristics of managers, age, tenure, functional background, education, socio economic roots and financial position. Psychological issues have been somewhat bypassed and subordinated to empirical information, and, the authors say, this is further compounded by the fact that the cognitive bases, values and perceptions of top management are not that amenable to easy measurement. However, complete concentration on psychological characteristics could limit the inquiry also. The authors maintain that everything should be taken into account, dispersion characteristics, homogeneity and balance in teams, attention to causality is also important. competencies, structures, processes and industry environment must be considered as well. Managerial backgrounds however, are not regarded by the authors as a useful source of behavioural information, since it is now realised that the process of their occurrence is not random. The authors hope that by going along the guidelines given and taking account of all important factors, the determinants of strategic choice and through these those of organisational performance will be made known. Certain situational conditions and 'upper echelon characteristics' will however lead to strategic choices that cannot be predicted by knowledge of either.

David J. Fritzche and Helmut Beuer (1984) attempt to introduce the importance of studying ethical beliefs and their relation to behaviour in the general context of managerial behaviour. They maintain that there are two main systems of belief, the 'utilitarian theories' consisting of actions and rules followed by outcomes and consequences, generally focussed on the 'common good' and 'the greatest good for the greatest number', and 'rights theories' concentrating on the importance of the rights of the individual, free consent, privacy, freedom of conscience, free speech and due process. Another system of ethical belief is that based on 'justice', centred around equity, fairness and impartiality. All of these, the authors maintain, are relevant to decision making and thus relevant to the overall study of managerial behaviour, especially when it comes to situations involving dilemmas of 'coercion and control', 'paternalism' and 'personal integrity'. The authors conclude by saying that there seems to be something of a reliance on utilitarian principles to guide managerial behaviour and thus decision making.

William Whitely (1985) says that a major impediment to 'the development of a theory of managerial behaviour' is the lack of agreement on the question of what managers do. He identifies two major approaches to the study of managerial work, the 'behavioural content approach', and the 'process characteristics or work activities approach'. The behavioural content approach concentrates on 'common behaviours engaged in' such as staff service, supervision, internal business control, product or service responsibility, strategy and planning, complexity and stress. The process characteristics or work activities

approach seeks common process characteristics among managers such as the duration of activity, mode of communications and mode of contacts. Managerial activities are, the author says, characterised by a large number of fleeting activities, most of which involve a large number of internal and external contacts. The identification of differences in managerial behaviour under these circumstances does not appear to have been given much attention, such attention is necessary, Whitely says, for succession planning, career development, performance definition and appraisal, managerial motivation and reward administration.

Managers can have work 'with a similar behavioural content' but can differ in emphasising their chosen behaviours in role making behaviour. To fully understand, or begin to understand this phenomenon, an integration of the two behavioural approaches would be useful, there has not been however, much of an attempt at this. This lack of integration, Whitely says, could be due to differences in the methods of data collection and analysis, the examination of behavioural content employs questionnaires which are, despite their accuracy, limited to exploring behavioural content. Accurate estimates of process characteristics are also limited, by the capacity of a managers memory in relation to the tasks and their duration etc. which have been undertaken. Process characteristics investigations employ a variety of methods such as diaries and direct observation. This fact brings not only categorisation problems, but also shows that the methods are not particularly useful for the collection of data on behavioural content.

Regardless of the approach however, the author asserts that there are large differences among the work behaviours of managers, and to investigate these there has been proposed a 'link with the social influence process used by managers'. Whitely concludes by drawing a list of questions which could be pursued, should a suitable method of investigation be adopted, for instance, 'what are the kinds of choices concerning behavioural emphasis which managers make when they have some latitude to shape the process characteristics of their work, and to what extent does that latitude in the choice of process characteristics influence subsequent changes in the content of managerial work. 'Several process characteristics differences concern verbal communication' and the author raises a question as to the extent to which these differences are related 'to the differential effectiveness of managers whose work has similar behavioural content'.

Laurie J. Mullins (1985) discusses management and organisational behaviour. The attributes of a manager are technical competence, social and human skills, sensitivity, flexibility with regard to the appropriate management style, conceptual ability, the ability to view complexities and overall objectives and to take part in strategic planning.

Behaviourally, Mullins says, managers are likely to incline towards a theory X or Y approach to their job, he mentions Black and Manton's idea that the dominant style of management is influenced by the organisation, the situation, values and beliefs, personality and chance.

Managerial effectiveness includes 'the results achieved by subordinates', the strength of staff motivation and morale, the success of training and development, the efficiency of systems and procedures and the standards of service. Managerial work, the author maintains, consists of 'decision making, problem solving, innovation, management of time and handling information'. For the managers themselves the concept of managerial work encompasses motivation, role perception, coping with stress or ambiguity, seniority and salary and age. In relation to other people, important elements of work are subordinates, peers, clients and handling conflict, leadership and power. For the manager as part of the wider organisation, important concepts are maintenance of the organisation and technical and financial control. Finally, the author says that the criteria of effectiveness are the 'allocation of resources achieving purpose, goal attainment, planning, organising, coordinating and controlling'.

Charles Margerison, Dick McCann and Rod Davies (1986) discuss 'team management resource', teamwork task areas include 'motivating, promoting, developing, organising, producing, inspecting, maintaining, advising and linking'. The authors imply that an extrovert individual will concentrate on relationships, whilst an introvert will concentrate on practical and creative matters, leading in the first place to a preference for information, and in the second, a preference for dependence on analysis and beliefs. Decision making in the first case may well be structured whilst in the second case it may be of a more flexible nature. Naturally there are implications for the nature, structure and performance of the organisation here.

Regarding role preferences, the authors say, 'creator/innovators' have ideas which tend to challenge the existing way in which things are done; 'explorer/promoters' excel 'at taking up an idea and getting people enthusiastic about it'; 'assessor/developers' will tend to look for ways and means in which an idea will work as practicably as possible; 'thruster/organisers' are people who will most certainly get things done, even under quite difficult situations; 'concluder/producers' take great pride in 'producing a product or service to standard'; 'controller/inspectors' enjoy doing work of a detailed nature and 'checking that facts and figures are correct'; 'upholder/maintainers' are usually people of 'strong convictions' about the way things should be done; finally, 'reporter/advisers' are good at 'generating information and gathering it in a way that can be understood'.

David E. Berlew and Roger Harrison (1974) examine 'attitudes to power and influence', and the problems that may arise for people in positions of power and with the ability to influence others, predominantly managers. An 'impoverished success fantasy' is descriptive of a situation where an individual no longer dreams in terms of successful influence and the acquisition of power. Expectations of influence and having ideas accepted by others are low and the barriers to success seem quite insurmountable. Any feeling or needs regarding influence are either weak or not dwelt upon. Such an attitude may eventually block an individual, the authors say, from seeing the way to goals which are in fact much desired. The effective use of imagination leads to the ability to see around obstacles and problems and to an

improvement in motivation, a lack of imagination results in 'the reduction of internal resources available for the pursuit of objectives'.

The problem of 'conflict avoidance' may develop to the extent that the individual withholds from making any contribution to discussion or debate. By placing more weight on the side of good feeling rather than the quality of the decisions take, the author maintains, there is a serious danger of mistaken priorities and bad organisational outcomes. This situation is a definite block to the effective exercise of power and influence and may also inhibit problem solving activities by preventing access to knowledge and true facts. Decisions may also be based on either inadequate or inaccurate information.

The 'inability to trust' is another difficult problem in the area of power and influence. It may take the form of undue self reliance and a mistrust of others' 'abilities, motives and dedication', or feelings that others take advantage of the individuals openness. Delegation becomes difficult because of the lack of confidence in other people and interpersonal relationships may be 'competitive'. Cooperation may begin to appear unrealistic, the individual preferring to do the job themselves. This attitude may prevent the effective utilisation of others in the wider organisational interest and may result in the individual feeling that all responsibility lies on their shoulders, since others are perceived as undependable. Others may begin to suffer from a lack of motivation and self esteem, the author maintains, and may prove uncooperative, withholding help.

A 'need for acceptance and fear of rejection' leads to an avoidance of 'deviant ideas and isolated strands'. There may be hesitancy in forwarding ideas and suggestions to others, a major distraction from the immediate task in hand. Such an attitude 'restricts freedom in a hostile or unsupportive arena' and over sensitivity, the authors say, may cause overlooking or distortion of the facts. More importantly, contributions that may have an important bearing on the proceedings may be withheld for the sake of gaining or because of fear of the loss of, the acceptance of others.

'Avoidance of personal power' may take the form of 'avoidance of power not authorised by custom, status, role or regulation'. The individual may exercise power, but it will not be on their own behalf, but as an agent of another. Political dealing and activity are avoided and self serving, authorised power is found distasteful, even viewed as 'dangerous forces to be kept in bounds by moral principle and bureaucratic control'. Power and influence, the authors maintain, are only 'exercised out of a sense of duty and not enjoyed', since there is quite a confusion of what is right with what is. Personal responsibility for decision making or action on change may be avoided, perhaps with damaging results for the wider organisation. Movement outside structures and procedures and using informal or personal means to influence may not be possible. This problem may, the authors say, be evidenced by an individual who allows change only through established ways.

'Fear of failure' may result in a preoccupation with failure more than with the enjoyment of success. Risk may be avoided or taken with undue caution, in such individuals, leadership activity may suffer with the process of leadership becoming one of influencing from behind the scenes rather than directly leading. The authors also remark that such an attitude may lead, in decision making to an overdependence on consultation and the giving of advice, rather than going ahead and making the decision. 'Win or lose competition situations are avoided', and many opportunities may be lost for exerting influence, at the same time effectiveness may be reduced by the deliberate process of trying not to make an impact. Limited work areas may be the result of the avoidance of a public stance, but since a public stance is usually required in the end, work requiring this sort of energy and time may be avoided completely and thus missed out upon by the wider organisation.

Finally, 'frustration avoidance' is often observed as an impatience 'with planning and there persistence and tolerance of frustration involved in influencing or managing others'. Such an individual, the authors say, prefers quick results, and if they are not apparent, they may give up. Details and lengthy discussions are found to be boring and 'working through others or managing them may seem more trouble than they are worth'. Any effort to persuade may be seen as 'not worth it also. Performance is seriously affected if an individual merely gives up when the going gets tough or when results are not immediate, and a lack of attention to detail may 'cause good ventures or ideas to come to nothing in the end'. Disinclination or boredom may cause valuable opportunities to have an impact to be lost.

Donald C. Hambrick (1988) is editor of a work which examines concepts and methods for the study of top managers. Hambrick and Gerald L. Brandon (1988) discuss executive values, and immediately recognise the incomplete nature of the knowledge base in this area. They look at the concept of value through the medium of the major authors on this subject. The four major value schemes of Allport-Vernon-Lindzey, Rokeach, England and Hofstede are reviewed and the authors conclude that there are too many different value dimensions and typologies put forward without adequate differentiation of one from another. To overcome this problem to some degree the a new set of six value dimensions is put forward, consisting of 'collectivism', 'duty', 'rationality', 'materialism' and 'power'.

The authors go on to discuss the origin of executive values stressing that 'the social system exists in several layers, including national culture, regional society, family, and employing organisations.' Senior executives, the authors maintain 'can be expected to have relatively entrenched value sets', this phenomenon is attributed to 'extended exposure to value-shaping stimuli...self selection into settings compatible with their values, and the reinforcement they have received through their successes.' The link between executive values and action is considered, and it is noted that despite the abundance of literature on values little has been established as to how values are converted into action.' The authors propose both a general and a moderated model of the influence of values upon action, and attempt to specify some of the links which may be expected between executive's values and the attributes of their organisations. The five value dimensions

identified by authors are linked to effects on strategy, structure, information/decision processes, rewards and people. Values are also considered in relation to organisational accomplishment, in regard to how they affect organisational performance and the effects of homogeneity or heterogeneity of team values.

Finally, the authors identify several areas of the study of executive values in which research is much needed. 'Methods and instruments should be given renewed attention', the authors maintain, since most to date have both strengths and weaknesses which have not been properly identified. Longitudinal research is needed in the area of the origin of values, and the 'straightforward association between executive values and action has so far gone largely untested.' Research needs to extend from the level of the individual to the level of management teams and the effect of values on the processes in which they engage. Research is also needed, the authors say, on the similarities and differences between the value dimensions of executives and those of other social groups.

William H. Starbuck and Frances J. Miliken (1988) look at the nature of executives' perceptual filters. They maintain that the practice of assessing executive action in retrospect and assigning labels of good or bad perception oversimplifies 'the connections between behaviours and outcomes, prescriptions derived from retrospective understanding may not help executives who are living amid current events.' The authors maintain that executives do not need totally accurate perception for success. Effective perceptual filtering is essential given its effect of amplifying the relevant and attenuating the irrelevant. Influences on the perceptual filtering process are discussed with perception divided into noticing and sensemaking. Both noticing and sensemaking should, the authors say, be viewed against the background of perceptual complexity and the consequent complexity of perceptual filtering which individuals encounter today.

Ellen F. Jackofsky and John W. Slocum Jr. (1988) examine the area of CEO roles in a cross cultural setting, and state that despite the importance of the CEO, there is a lack of knowledge about them. The knowledge base has, the authors maintain, been concentrated on 'executive succession or demographic statistics.' The work aims to explore 'the possibility that societal value systems are reflected in the process by which the CEO enacts his/her role(s)', in addition to recognising the effect of other variables such as environmental characteristics and business strategy. The authors examine the problems which are posed by cross cultural research, especially in relation to the definition and conceptualisation of culture. Five forces are identified which affect CEO behaviour, the first four, task environment, strategy, organisation structure and managerial characteristics have been given some attention, but the fifth force, culture 'has been neglected by most previous researchers.' The vagueness of the terms 'culture' and 'values' also poses problems. The authors relate four common cultural elements to CEO role behaviours: 'power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity.' Power distance refers to 'the extent to which a culture accepts the inequality of the distribution of power between people', uncertainty avoidance 'is the extent to which people in a culture feel threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and try to avoid them' individualism-collectivism is explained as a bipolar construct, the individuality pole of which

implies a loosely knit social structure and the collectivity pole of which implies a tightly knit structure, masculinity 'refers to the extent to which dominant values in a culture are masculine in terms of assertiveness, and acquisition of tangible things.' The authors look at the four other factors affecting CEO role behaviour and proceed to outline the methodology which they used to examine the consequences of cultural values on CEO roles. They identify eight country based clusters. The authors conclude by stressing the need for further validation of the research presented.

Elaine Romanelli and Michael L. Tushman (1988) consider the evolution of thinking on the relationship between executive leadership and organisational outcomes. They examine 'evidence...to argue that executive leaders can and do implement decisions about the content and character of organisational activity, and that the nature and timing of these decisions have substantive consequences for performance outcomes.' They put forward the proposition that 'where environments are relatively constant and performance outcomes remain satisfactory, the core task of leadership is to sustain ideological commitment to established patterns of activity.' A review is presented of previous approaches to the subject.

Firstly, the authors cite the stewardship studies, which seek to assess the relative influences of external environments, organisational characteristics, and leadership on the performance outcomes of organisations. Secondly, there are the succession studies which assess the influence of a change in executive to a change in organisational performance outcomes. The third set is the case history studies, whose research questions typically concentrate 'on how and whether organisations respond to changing environmental conditions', and consider that environments 'play a key role in signalling some need for activity by organisations.' The authors go on to consider approaches to the study of the conditions and characteristics of executive influence, they examine the 'metamorphosis model [which] attends simultaneously to dynamics of inertia and processes of change that influence the course of an organisation's development over time', and Pfeffer's classification of organisational outcomes into 'substantive and symbolic domains of activity.' 'Substantive refers to domains of organisational activity that have physical referents...symbolic refers to outcomes pertaining to beliefs, attitudes, and values of organisational members.' How the decisions and behaviours of executives serve either to sustain or reorient patterns in activity within organisations, and the conditions under which certain behaviours are appropriate is the final topic which the authors consider.

Anil K. Gupta (1988) considers contingency theories of leadership, he says that the outcome of recent research into the nature of executives has been an acceptance that the differences between CEOs are at least as important and profound as the similarities between them. The author cites an emerging theoretical perspective which proposes that these differences play a major role in the functioning of organisations, and specifically argues that 'because different organisations generally pursue different strategies and because the implementation of different strategies requires differing skills, values and knowledge on the part of chief executives a systematic alignment of executive leadership to organisational

strategies is likely to yield superior performance.' Against the background of this paradigm, Gupta sets out to elaborate some new research directions on linkages between organisational strategies and executive leaders.

The author looks at the development of contingency theories of strategic leadership on the corporate level and the Strategic Business Unit level, and examines the two paths available to researchers pursuing a 'meta-contingency analysis of strategy-leadership linkages.' The issues and assumptions of strategic contingencies research which are to be subjected to analysis in this process are constraints on the CEOs power, the importance of individual CEO characteristics versus those of the executive team, whether the primary role of CEOs is that of strategy formulators or strategy implementers, whether the source of contingencies is strategy or the environment, simple versus complex notions of fit, and whether demographic characteristics, personality or executive behaviour should be primary areas for strategic contingencies research.

In conclusion, Gupta asserts that CEOs need to be studied 'comparatively in high versus low discretion settings...both as individual CEOs and as executive teams...both as strategy formulators and as strategy implementers...in terms of linkages not only with organisational strategies but also with organisational environments...in terms not only of demographic and personality characteristics but also in terms of behaviour...and with the a priori expectation that different executive characteristics or behaviours are likely to have differing forms of influence on organisational strategies and performance.'

John R. Kimberly and Edward J. Zajac (1988) look at the dynamics of CEO/board relations. They say that there is comparatively little known about the structure and behaviour of boards and their impact on behaviour, and that 'while it appears reasonable to argue that performance depends on the articulation and implementation of the appropriate strategies, on the symbolic and substantive contributions of executive leadership, and on the informed and competent exercise of corporate governance, there are significant gaps in research.'

The authors examine the subject by means of four case studies into the dynamics of CEO-board relations, they then look at these relations from the point of view of an agency problem, approaching it from an agency theory perspective. A behavioural framework for analysing relations is proposed, and comprises a measure of 'intensity of involvement [which] refers to the degree of the CEO's or the board's involvement in the decisions affecting the strategic direction of the firm'. Finally, the authors discuss an agenda for research, emphasising the need for consideration of the impact of past executive and organisational performance, the importance of the history of relations between CEO and board, norms and signals, prior experience in similar roles, personal ties and the concentration of power.

Shelley R. Robbins and Robert B. Duncan (1988) look at the role of the CEO and top management in the creation and implementation of strategic vision. They say that 'the major challenge facing organisations today is to develop the capability to anticipate and influence the changes affecting them in their markets', and that 'given the comprehensiveness of these types of organisational changes, the CEO and top management play a more major role in their initiation and implementation than in smaller, internal decisions.' They define their objective as one of examining the role of the chief executive officer and top management team in the initiation of change and in the development of organisational visions.

Firstly, the authors look at strategic adaptation theories and their implications for top management, they identify theories of natural selection, which 'assumes that organisations are captives of a specific environment which is immutable with respect to influence attempts by the organisation it contains'; resource dependence, which 'suggests that organisations are...dependent on resources in the environment in order to survive...[and]...are more likely to survive when they can control those resources on which they are dependent'; strategic choice, which 'assumes that managers can exercise considerable choice concerning what environments they will operate in and how they will relate to those environments'; hybrid perspectives, which include those 'which suggest that both organisational and environmental variables will impact the degree of strategic choice available to managers in organisations' and other loosely coupled or random theories in which 'internal organisational changes are only loosely coupled with the desires of organisational leaders and with the demands of the environment', as the main lines of thought on contextual and organisational characteristics. Regarding process theories, they identify decision making process theories, which 'view organisational efforts as a result of a series of decisions made within the organisation'; cognitive process theories, which 'view the organisational change process as a cognitive sensemaking and problem solving process', and political and social process theories, which focuses on 'the dynamics of power [and] the areas in an organisation where top management exerts influence'. Psychological theories, which focus on 'the social influence process between leader and follower', sociological theories, which are 'concerned with the impact of the leader on organisational structures and performance', symbolic management theories, which support the view 'that organisational outcomes are so greatly influenced and constrained by environmental and organisational factors, that the role of the leader is seen as primarily symbolic', fit theories, which are 'concerned with demonstrating relationships between CEO characteristics, organisational characteristics, and organisational strategies', and normative role theories, which include 'theories of leadership which specify from a normative standpoint the types of functions which leaders should serve for organisations', are the main theories which the authors identify in the area of leadership.

The authors then discuss the leadership process from the point of view of the envisioning process, the 'process by which the CEO and members of top management create visions for the organisation's future.' Vision is defined as 'the shared aspired future state for the organisation which identifies the organisation's values, sets priorities for goals and objectives, and sets the guidelines or roadmap by which these goals and objectives will be achieved' Vision is given three attributes by the authors

'clear/ambiguous', 'consensus/lack of consensus' and 'simple/complex'. The envisioning process is then described by the authors as comprising of two phases: 'individual sensemaking', and 'the vision creation process'.

They conclude by asserting that the envisioning process is a way of explaining the process of strategic choice determination and that it has some direct implications for the executive in that 'it clarifies the concept of vision and its components as well as lays out a sequence of events that the leader might follow as he/she attempts to create or implement a new or modified vision for the organisation.'

Personality

D.B. Bromley asserts that most of the data available on personality has usually been acquired 'from observers judgments of individual's in natural behaviour settings, from self reports of subjects or from objective tests and laboratory procedures'. By 1960, the author says, it was clear that the same success that had been achieved with the objective measurement of intelligence, would not be achievable with personality. Some of the factors which mitigate against objective testing and observational procedures are sensitivity to social desirability, the differential effects of negative or positive phraseology, fatigue, the effects of practice at the technique, the attitude of the subject to the test situation, any tendency to agree, disagree, lie or fake, the degree of openness or evasiveness, the tendency to respond either neutrally or extremely to rating scales and the extent of interest cooperation or carelessness.

Cattell and Drager follow very much the natural science paradigm, where 'perturbations provide empirical data against which theoretical expectations can be tested'. The 'Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the California Psychological Inventory and the 16PF test all appear, the author says, quite functionally similar in that they seem to assess similar sets of personality characteristics.

It is important to realise, Bromley asserts, that many personality characteristics remain fairly constant over time, and that objective tests and laboratory procedures fail to distinguish the difference between different kinds of personality characteristics and do not reveal much consistency in individual behaviour. Preferably, we might 'study the complexities and variations in individual adjustment in different situations' with a view to making predictions about subsequent behaviour. There is also a need, Bromley maintains, to investigate the 'concepts and methods that observers themselves use in their assessment of others', this involves, essentially, an examination of the process of appraisal itself. Rules of inference have been introduced to the area of personality and they are usually 'tacit rather than explicit', the level of abstraction of the rules must also be considered as vitally important. Psychologists, says Bromley, have not made full use of the richness and complex infrastructure of ordinary language.

What is needed is an explanation and the ability to make predictions about individual behaviour, an ability to specify the particular dispositions, abilities and other characteristics of the person, the circumstances relevant to adjustment and the subjective meaning that those circumstances have for that individual. Personality appraisal is difficult, Bromley maintains, because 'human responses are subject to many influences and associated with many stimuli'. We should therefore think 'less about personality and more about persons in situations'.

The slow and uncertain development of personality study has happened, the author says, because of the 'narrow focus of clinical psychology on psychopathology', modern behaviourism however adopts a functional approach to the problem of personal adjustment by examining 'the organisation of behaviour as a whole'. The very history of personality appraisal displays a continual series of shifts of emphasis between personal and psychological factors on one hand and environmental and situational and environmental factors on the other. We must, out of line with what has gone for so long before, avoid thinking of these as alternatives, they are in fact, Bromley says, complimentary views. There have been some recent attempts to analyse the interaction between psychological and situational factors in the production of individual behaviour, but they are in their infancy. There is the author says, a growing resistance to the use of personality testing in its present form based on two main objections, the extent to which the tests seem to be 'unreliable, invalid, misleading and even unscientific' and that testing itself may be somewhat unethical. There is however a considerably growing interest in performance appraisal in the natural setting', the advantages of this are that 'the aim of the exercise is limited in size and scope and clearly stated at the outset, the admissible evidence is relevant, objective and direct, subjective views can be given a respectable place in relation to the interpretation of the evidence and the conclusions do not go far beyond the information given. New directions cannot, it seems, be established in the personality testing movement, because there is still the 'absence of a firm body of knowledge' that could justify them.

There are, the author maintains, obvious similarities between 'performance appraisal procedures in industry and behaviour modification procedures in other areas, both concentrate on all performance, investigating the circumstances governing that performance and seeking ways of improving individuals behaviour through counselling, reinforcement and environmental change. Attempts are made to identify problems which hinder improvement and to set out realistic standards and behavioural objectives against which performance can be measured. It is not a case, Bromley asserts, of 'never being able to go beyond behavioural or performance data'. Finally, Bromley states that what are needed most are theories to explain the 'organisation of individual behaviour', there is also a need to analyse the 'reasons and causes of individual personality conduct' and to find ways of relating 'covert mental and dispositional processes to overt behaviour and the situation in which it occurs'.

D.S. Wright, Ann Taylor, D. Roy Davies, W. Sluckin, S.G.M. Lee and J.T. Reason (1980) compare descriptions of trait and type. traits are 'reflected in the enduring features of an individuals behaviour'

whereas type 'depends upon consistently similar features within the behaviour of a group of individuals'. Individuals the authors say, cannot be forced into a limited number of type categories without remainder, 'the variability between people is too rich and complex to submit to the pigeon holing necessary for type schema'. There has been postulated a 'dimensional' rather than a 'categorical' system of types, this implies a 'discontinuous distribution of graded, quantitative estimations along a continuum, the extremes alone of which are identified by type labels'. Thus we have a typology indistinguishable from trait description which 'quotes extreme examples of the dimensions under consideration', if generality is to be a consideration, then the dimensions of typology are 'wider and more inclusive'. Eysenck regards trait and type as complimentary concepts, the authors maintain, and they are distinguished only by occupying different levels in his hierarchical structure of personality organisation. Trait is defined as 'a group of correlated behavioural acts or action tendencies' type as 'a group of correlated traits'.

In discussing the structure of personality, the authors mention that the most important concept in Cattell's structural model of personality is the trait, it is regarded as a mental concept, 'an inference made from observed behaviour to account for its regularity and consistency'. The search for a definitive list of traits has been an attempt to find underlying variables which 'largely determine the clusters of manifest variables that seem to go together'. Clusters of observable trait elements are 'surface traits' and are produced by the interaction of source of traits with the stimulus situation, thus they are less stable and more situationally dependent than source traits. The authors assert that only by factor analysis can the identification of surface traits as the basic components of personality be avoided. There are between 16 and 21 source traits, and they are relatively independent and uncorrelated, furthermore, the position occupied by an individual on one dimension, does not affect their position on another. Dimensions, the authors say, can be correlated to a certain extent, and submitted to factor analysis to obtain second and higher order factors, the greatest importance however, is placed on the predictive value of primary factors.

Eysenck's dimensional theory is 'multilevel and hierarchical' with extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism being the highest levels in the hierarchical model of personality structure. The trait level and the habitual response level represent responses that tend to occur under similar circumstances, however specific responses may or may not be characteristic of the individual. Trait and type as said before, are viewed as complimentary.

Finally, the authors compare the structural models of Cattell and Eysenck, they say that 'the differences in factor structure is due to technical differences in both the type of population investigated and the type of factor analysis to which the measures were submitted'. Eysenck uses neurotic and pathological groups whereas Cattell uses normal subjects, thus the authors conclude, there are 'technical rather than substantive differences'.

William Taggart and Daniel Robey (1981) discuss the nature of human information processing, especially in relation to the way people gather and use information in decision making. Firstly, 'modelling the heuristics', decisions, the authors maintain, become more complex the more interests that are involved, and this 'modelling' involves the building of a descriptive model of information processing, in turn providing decision makers with good and efficient models. Secondly, 'cognitive complexity' takes into account the 'relative complexity within an individual's conceptual system' there is, the authors say, an optimal level of 'environmental complexity' and individual differences must be taken into account. There appears to be a positive correlation of complexity with tolerance of ambiguity, but a negative correlation with authoritarianism or dogmatism. Either a single or a multiple focus can be taken and the amount of information used is important. The styles which the authors identify are 'decisive', 'hierarchical', 'flexible' and 'integrative', and identification of these styles is important in 'matching managers to decision situations'. Finally, we have 'emphasis on the dual nature of human information processing', quantitatively different styles are identified, 'analytic and systematic' and 'unsystematic and intuitive', partially corresponding to the left and right brain characteristics. Successful management, Taggart and Robey maintain, involves the full use of a range of processing skills, and there is a need for flexible, situationally dependent styles and strategies. Referring to the left and right brain, the authors assert that, a greater balance between the use of the left and right hemisphere's abilities will enhance management'.

Jung's theory of personality identifies two dimensions of human information processing, 'perception' and 'judgment', perception is achieved by 'sensation' and 'intuition', and judgment by 'thinking' and 'feeling'. From this emerge, the authors say, four decision styles, 'sensation thinking', 'intuition thinking', 'sensation feeling' and 'intuition feeling'. These styles are distinguished by personal focus of attention, method of handling things, the 'tendency to become' and the expression of abilities. 'Sensation thinking' emphasises facts and impersonal analysis and the individual with this style tends to be practical and matter of fact with an identification with technical skills. 'Intuition feeling' places an emphasis on possibilities and personal warmth, such an individual is enthusiastic, insightful, understanding and communicating. 'Sensation feeling' emphasises facts but also personal warmth, sympathy and friendliness with a willingness to give practical help and services. Finally, 'intuition thinking' emphasises possibilities, but impersonal analysis and a logical and ingenious thinking style concentrating on theoretical and technical developments. The characterisation of the style depends, the authors say, on how the information is processed and not how it is gathered, and they emphasise the need for flexibility.

Finally, Taggart and Robey identify the left hemisphere with a logical, sequential, objective, causal, deductive and analytic decision style, and with emphasis on strategies involving skills of adaptation and accommodation. The right hemisphere is identified with a non logical, simultaneous, subjective, acausal, inductive and synthetic decision style and with strategies involving the skills of prediction and placement.

Manfred F.R. Kets de Vries and Danny Miller (1986) maintain that the human function is characterised by certain patterns of dealing with the environment, which are 'deeply embedded and likely to continue'. A specific 'neurotic style' may predominate and this is, the authors maintain, is more of a problem under centralisation. Strategy and structure within the organisation are profoundly influenced by the top manager, thus 'linking the inner world of the executive with actual behaviour' is important in the study of personality in relation to culture and organisation. 'Shared fantasies may develop', among top teams for example, and this attains importance when it is realised that there may be parallels between 'pathological organisational types and individual dysfunctions'.

Many prescriptions for management, the authors maintain, 'run counter to the personalities of CEOs' and will be resisted, or where they are implemented may not fit the overall configuration 'and be thus lacking in appropriateness or impact'.

Rita L. Atkinson, Richard C. Atkinson, Edward E. Smith and Ernest R. Hilgard examine personality and its assessment. 'Personality assessment' is generally an informal evaluation, often biased by the 'halo effect', that is concentration on one particular characteristic. The view may also be based upon a stereotype, or, the individual under assessment may be 'acting'. Observational methods may be undertaken either in a natural setting or an experimental situation and the interviewing process may be structured or unstructured. Slight changes in the behaviour of the interviewer however, may have a profound effect on the interviewee, and a lot depends on the skill and awareness of the interviewer. If the impressions gleaned are to be recorded on a rating scale, the rater must have a good understanding of the scale and be 'sufficiently acquainted with the ratee to make judgments which avoid the 'halo effect''. Nevertheless, the authors say, stereotyping may occur, despite these precautions and advantages.

Personality inventories rely on an individual's self observations and upon an assessment of their reactions and feelings in certain situations. They resemble the structured interview, and may measure either a single dimension or several personality traits. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory is derived from the differences between the criterion and control groups. The fact that something is said is important, and the advantage of such a test over one based on the constructors assumptions is 'that certain answers indicate specific traits'. It does not however, the authors maintain, 'adequately sample some of the traits useful in describing the normal personality'.

The California Psychological Inventory measures traits like dominance, sociability, self acceptance, responsibility and socialisation. It is reliant on the individual's ability to understand questions and of course answer honestly in a situation where the best answer is usually apparent. People, the authors maintain, may tend to acquiesce or agree with the questions, and methods to avoid this problem have only been partially successful.

The authors discuss the 'trait approach' saying that it attempts to 'isolate and describe basic properties of the individual that direct behaviour'. There is a focus on the public personality, and the approach is concerned with personality description and prediction rather than with development. Variance is assumed on certain personality dimensions or scale, each representing a trait, and a global description is obtained from rating on a number of dimensions. A trait, the authors say, is 'any characteristic varying from person to person in a relatively permanent or consistent way'. Often traits are reduced to a manageable number by factor analysis.

In evaluating the trait approach, the authors say that although the approach appears to be objective, the personality factors found depend on the type of data being analysed, in terms of whether it is based on self rating or rating by another person, and on the specific factor analytic technique being used. There is also a considerable lack of agreement on the number of basic personality traits, and some overlap. behaviour also may vary quite widely from one situation to another and over a wide variety of situations, trait based tests have not been successful. To predict behaviour, the authors say, 'we need to know how personal characteristics are influenced by particular environmental conditions'. The interaction between traits and situational variables would appear, they say, to be the most important factor.

The situational learning approach emphasises the importance of 'environmental or situational determinants of behaviour'. There is a continuous interaction between personal and environmental variables, such as the effects of other people on behaviour and the effects of rewards and punishments. Observational learning also takes place, and people, the authors maintain, are likely to behave in ways that produce reinforcement, where that reinforcement may be direct, vicarious or self administered. 'reactions in a given situation depend on the characteristics of the situation, the appraisal of the situation and past reinforcement for behaviour in similar situations'. Generalisations and descriptions are constantly taking place, and individual differences in 'cognitive development and social learning experience' are thought by the authors to overshadow motivational traits.

Personal variables can also have a profound effect on behaviour, these include competencies, encoding strategies, expectancies, subjective values, and self regulatory systems and plans. The potential environment is the authors say, the same for all individuals, but the actual environment depends on behaviour.

Finally, the authors evaluate the social learning approach, saying that it 'leads us to see all human actions as reactions to specific environments and helps focus on the way environments control behaviour and how they can be changed to modify behaviour'. An overemphasis on the importance of situational influences could lead, the authors say, to a loss of the person in personality psychology, but more important, there is an unwillingness even to concede that 'personality has such little consistency as the theory implies'.

Managerial Work

Henry Mintzberg (1980) investigates the nature of managerial work, in the contemporary view of the manager's job, there is, Mintzberg says, a serious gap in knowledge, there is a tendency to focus on one aspect of the managerial job to the exclusion of all others, and there is much literature on the manager as leader and decision maker but little bringing the two areas together.

The 'classical school' views managerial work as 'a set of composite functions, Fayol (1916) identified planning, organising, coordinating, commanding and controlling as the major functions of managers. Gulick in the 1930s introduced the PODSCORB view of managerial functions, planning, organising, directing, staffing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. PODSCORB is, Mintzberg says, embedded in the minds of managers, teachers and students of management, but the identified functions do not describe the actual work of managers, merely 'certain vague objectives of managerial work'. What such views have served to do, is label the areas of ignorance and at the same time fulfilled the need of telling managers what they should be doing.

The 'great man school' provides, the author says, plenty of 'details and anecdotes but little general theory about managerial work'. 'Fortune' and 'Forbes' are in a set of publications which analyses managers in groups, along with their families, educations, affiliations, careers and personalities. They do not however focus on their work. The second set of publications are case studies of individual managers, often focussing on a crisis and telling about the individual manager's habits. Again, such publications say little about the manager's actual work, but concentrates on 'styles and strategies', which are devoid of generalisation. All in all, the accounts are 'too sketchy to be used in the construction of a descriptive framework of managerial work.'

The 'entrepreneurship school' deals with the manager as decision maker. Economists believe that, according to macro economics, managers do not have much decisional discretion but simply act rationally, maximising profit as best they can. Decisions for this school of thought, the author says, begin with problems, explicit goals and all courses of action are then set out before the manager who evaluates consequences, ranks alternatives and chooses the best one. 'Ambiguity, ill definition, conflicting goals and unpredictable consequences do not exist.' The manager therefore, compared to the company founder or entrepreneur has little interest for the economist. Mintzberg maintains that the one contribution from this school of thought is a specification, rather than a description of motivation as one component in managerial work.

The 'decision theory school' devotes attention to the unprogrammed decision, which is often complex, poorly understood and without predetermined method. The decisions of higher level managers

have 'longer time horizons and duration, greater discontinuity, more elastic time limits, more abstract data and causal relationships and greater uncertainty'. The decision theory school try to view decision making in terms they feel reflect more accurately the manager's real time limitations. Advocates of this school, the author says, regard managers as having no explicit goal systems or preference functions and the definition of problems in the first place is perceived as neglected. Alternatives and consequences are often unclear and choices are often made to satisfy constraints rather than to maximise objectives. 'Managers are usually reactive to avoid uncertainty in complexity' and the organisation is subject to pressures from a wide variety of interests with differing goals, in this situation, maximisation is impossible and the manager seeks to avoid conflict. In the decision theory school's view, the author says, the organisation is regarded as a 'loosely coupled set of programmes in hierarchical order so that high level programmes construct and modify low level'. The manager's job becomes one of 'programming or designing and modifying procedures used by subordinates', Lindblom describes it as the 'science of muddling through', caused by the inability of man to cope with many complex problems, a lack of information, the cost of analysis and the problems of timing and the difficulty of setting realistic goals. The manager is seen as acting in 'a remedial way' in which only marginal alternatives are considered, consequences are not investigated and in which goals are flexible and revised to suit means. The author maintains that a marriage of this view to that of the manager as entrepreneur is necessary to get a realistic picture of decision making.

The 'leadership effectiveness school' focuses not so much 'on the job but the man in the job' advocates seek to discover what set of personality traits or managerial styles lead to effective performance, in view of the fact that the traits approach has been unsuccessful. The 'humanists' of the 1960s focussed on styles criticising 'autocratic task oriented and advocating participative, people oriented'. The school maintains that recent arguments for situational and contingency theories are only eventually beginning to say something about the factors that produce successful leaders. Excessive attention, the author says, has been paid to autocratic versus participative leadership and a lack of understanding of interpersonal behaviours of leaders has slowed the whole process down.

The 'leader power school' on the other hand, is concerned with power and influence as the 'manipulative prerogatives' of leaders. They seek to investigate the extent to which the leader can manipulate the environment, and study the ability to use power through a focus on the position and the discretion it allows. Dalton, the author says, asserts that the 'informal social forces of bureaucracy tend to dominate individual action' and power is also considered to be dependent on style and approach to the job. Darwin Cartwright (1965) says that there are several different varieties of power 'reward power', 'coercive power', 'referent power', 'legitimate power' and 'expert power', and a distinction is made between informal leadership and formal leadership or headship, and between reliance on the different types of power.

The 'leader behaviour school' centres on the analysis of the actual content of the managerial job by studying the behaviour of incumbents. Methods of study are widely varied and there is no central theme or

set of conclusions. The conclusions, Mintzberg says, are 'extracted when worked into a framework of managerial roles' and they indicate a number of basic features in the content of the managers job.

Finally, the 'work activity school' is the school of inductive research, where the work activities of managers are analysed systematically and conclusions are drawn when they are supported by empirical evidence. The diary method is used to sample activity at random intervals, or there is structured observation, or the keeping of a diary by a researcher. A distinction, Mintzberg asserts, must be drawn between the content of managerial work and its characteristics, there have indeed been significant revelations about the characteristics but little about the content. Some attempts have been made to code diaries into activity categories, but there have been difficulties in 'finding words other than vague PODSCORB' to describe content. Mintzberg himself, in 1968 developed categories during and after structured observation, he says that the answer to whether 'different managerial jobs are characterised by essential similarities or differences should be that there are certain essential features common to all managers jobs and that there are also uniquenesses that distinguish every type of managerial job'. The common features, Mintzberg maintains, must be isolated, and the basic job of managing described, 'only then can we understand the differences', work activity studies, he says, should help here.

Mintzberg goes on to discuss some distinguishing characteristics of managerial work and delivers some propositions about managerial work characteristics. Managers, he says, have to perform a great quantity of work at an unrelenting pace, and even during their spare time, their minds tend to be on their work. Managerial jobs are characterised by, 'brevity, variety and fragmentation', frequent shifts of moods are needed and interruptions are commonplace. However, managers seem to prefer brevity and interruption, becoming conditioned by their workload, with superficiality often being the result. The manager, Mintzberg maintains, tends towards the more active elements of the job, which are 'current, specific, well defined and non routine', they favour current information and the pressure of work favours an 'adaptive information manipulator, not a planner' in such a stimulus response environment. The verbal media are also favoured, with mail receiving a ' cursory treatment', the informal media such as the telephone are used for brief and familiar contacts, but scheduled meetings consume most of the manager's time, while tours around various parts of the organisation provide the opportunity to 'informally observe action'. Mintzberg maintains that the manager stands between the home organisation and the outside world, essentially linking the two with a network of informers which is developed. Interactions with subordinates consume one third to half the manager's time with interactions occurring freely and widely, but little time appears to be spent with the superior. A superficial study, leads one to believe that managers control little of what they do, but self control, the extraction of information and the exercise of leadership gives a good degree of autonomy.

In discussing managerial roles, Mintzberg says that managerial activities and roles are divided into three categories 'interpersonal relationships', 'information processing' and 'the making of specific decisions'.

Sub categories of these roles include, figurehead, liaison leader, monitor, disseminator, spokesman, entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator, the ten roles, Mintzberg says, form an integrated whole.

Variations in managerial work, Mintzberg maintains can be explained by a contingency theory composed of 'environmental variables', 'job variables' and 'situational variables'. The level of the managers job and the function supervised account for the most variation. The more dynamic the organisational environment, the more time that is spent in informal communication; the more fragmented and varied the work, the greater the orientation to live action and the verbal media; the larger the organisation, the more time is spent in formal communications; the less brief and fragmented the activities, the greater the range of external contacts; the more developed the formal communications network and the greater the involvement with the external network, the less involvement with internal operations and the less substituting for subordinates. At the higher level of management, work is more unstructured, unspecialised and long range, and the issues are more complex, intertwined and extended over time, with work in general being more focussed. At the lower levels more time is spent as a disturbance handler and negotiator 'due to the emphasis on maintaining steady work flow', the lower level also has pronounced characteristics of brevity and fragmentation and a greater focus on current, specific issues. Senior managers also tend to work longer hours and are specialised in the information processed by them.

In some organisations, Mintzberg says, executive teams, dyads and triads, share responsibility for the performance of the ten roles of a single job, in this situation, 'nerve centre information' can be shared efficiently. Most common appears to be the dyad 'in which the CEO concentrates on external roles leaving responsibility for internal roles to the second in command'. Managerial jobs reflect the 'change/stability cycle', for instance the more threats or perceived threats, the more the role of disturbance handler will be in evidence, and the replenishment of contacts requires the liaison, spokesman and resource allocator roles. In new jobs managers tend to spend time developing contacts and collecting information, then they embark on innovation, finally settling into a work pattern.

Finally, Mintzberg maintains that 'societal shifts to greater organisational democracy' will require the leader role and the external roles of figurehead, liaison, spokesman and negotiator, these new demands on role lead to eight basic types, the 'contact man' (liaison and figurehead), the 'political man' (spokesman and negotiator), the 'entrepreneur' (entrepreneur and negotiator), the 'insider' (resource allocator), the 'real time manager' (disturbance handler), the 'team manager' (leader role), the 'expert manager' (monitor and spokesman) and the 'new manager' (liaison and monitor).

Leadership

Barbara Karmel (1978) says that little theory building and no clear conclusions have come from the history of leadership research. There is 'definitional confusion from the confounding effects of environmental factors' and, furthermore interpretation of the scope of the leader's responsibilities, resting on formal authority, and structural characteristics of the organisation, play havoc with the pursuit of a generalised and stable definition of this concept. 'Unrecognised, unassigned and unacknowledged assumptions have infiltrated the design of leadership studies' the operationalisation of variables associated with it and the interpretations of any findings.

So, the author maintains, 'definitional confusion' prevails, leadership is not a single concept but, depending on the purpose of the investigation, a collection of concepts sharing the common theme, 'behaviour that makes a difference' in the 'purposive behaviour of others'. This however, is not a sufficient base for the operationalisation of the leadership variable or for its definition but it does establish the boundaries of the domain. Leadership can be conceptualised, Karmel maintains, as 'a process or a determinant of behaviour directed towards goals', and it should not be used to specify the configuration, size or number of the elements within, neither should data alone be the basis for this.

Examining some of the leadership theories, Karmel says that House's charismatic leader theory appears to define the bounded area and deduce its characteristics by 'phenomenological observation and inference about the followers of charismatic leaders'. The 'quasi theory of leadership' based on Ohio State studies rests on factor analytic analyses of raw data without a systematic attempt 'to link those factors in a monological net'. It has been, the author says, a matter of convenience to apply the label 'leadership' to both even though they were generated for very different purposes, it may be necessary therefore to delineate and understand investigators purposes, in order to facilitate definition of the leadership concept, and furthermore, to classify the purposes of research into leadership. If as the author says, we infer a different connotation to each use of the word leader, then it is very difficult to settle on a single definition that will accommodate all these meanings.

Leadership research cannot be isolated from wider organisational research, nor undertaken to the exclusion of environmental factors which impact directly upon the leadership process. Karmel asserts that a global definition of leadership is not useful either, rather, definitional confusion should be attacked by 'specification and classification of the purposes of the inquiry'. This in turn requires an identification of the underlying dimensions of these purposes. Multidimensional research, the author says, 'can capture the effects of differences in sample size, precluding the comparative analysis of competing operationalisations. Also to be taken into account are the 'myriad of environmental factors which impinge on some operationalisations but not others', such as situation specific factors and differences in the level of analysis, i.e. whether it is perceptual or objective, individual or aggregate.

In examining some of the 'unrecognised research assumptions', Karmel goes on to say that there are two dominant directions in leadership research, 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' (of task and people). There seems to be however, the author maintains, a danger of developing a science of questionnaire behaviour and an 'oversimplified, narrow and unrealistic science of leadership, based on the assumption of dimensionality underlying instrumentation and research design' and the absence of construct validation leads to charges of 'undetected contamination'. Despite variations, the author says, the elements of leadership theories are the same, but the 'additional assumptions wrapped around the people and task dimensions, give each theory a unique appearance'. Finally, Karmel asserts that leadership style dimensions are too few and narrow in definition to be representative of outcomes of leader subordinate interaction. Obviously some improvements are necessary.

Robert P. Vecchio (1979) explains that there are two conceptual approaches to analysing the phenomenon of leadership, the 'aggregate' or 'group level' of analysis which employs group averages when assessing variables of interest, and the 'dyadic' level of analysis, concentrating on how each group member negotiates their role with the leader, and describing the exchange relationship which develops between group member and leader.

There are certain incorrect assumptions, the author maintains, in the traditional group approach, among them are that members of a group 'are highly similar among dimensions of perception and reaction, and may be dealt with conceptually and operationally as a single entity', and that leaders relate to each group in a similar manner. The reality is however, that some subordinates receive exchange opportunities whilst others are merely supervised. Research must also be alert to intrinsic and extrinsic incentives within and without the group and must explore the question as to whether leaders make use of subordinates or employees reward preferences when attempting to influence their behaviour.

The University of Aston Management Centre (1980) discuss leadership and managerial behaviour in their report. There is, the report says, no one thing called leadership, and distinctions must be made between leadership, headship and management. Emphases, the authors say, on leadership as a group phenomenon has been less than helpful, focussing on internal group relations to the neglect of other possible leadership domains, and on situational aspects rather than the 'macro dimensions' of organisation size, technology and structural characteristics. Leadership also means different things in different parts of the organisation, leadership activities outside the group must be considered, along with 'groupthink and the leader behaviour that promotes or discourages it. Other approaches that may be taken include the cognitive social psychological emphasis on information processing and social judgment, studies of cognitive complexity and the analysis of generalship. There is, the report says, no single small group approach.

Leadership and managerial behaviour studies have developed independently of each other, the first emphasise measurement and the second a more qualitative approach. There has arisen a greater interest in

construct development, and with that questions have arisen such as whether behaviours are situationally specific, or are they to be taken as given with situations merely modifying their impact and to what extent should a leader try to use direct action or indirect action to influence those in a position to make a decision. There is, the authors say, a broader range of managerial behaviours than those treated in traditional leadership studies, and many other viewpoints, such as the role of the cultural context in which managers act and how they affect and what they do to that culture, and the view of leaders as creators of organisations and their roles in managing transitions. Indeed, the report maintains, the cultural context of research has been ignored, along with cultural traits. The authors maintain that the focus of concentration should be what the leader makes rather than what makes the leader, leadership tasks must also be considered. Interventions in a political context must be explored, as must the management of meaning and the development and use of power.

There has been far too great a focus on the individual as the level of analysis, and with this a tendency to assume rational actors, there has also been a pronounced managerial approach, with infrequent use of the dependent/independent variable approach. The direction of causation has also been the victim of mistaken assumptions, and approaches have been in the subject rather than the problem oriented tradition. There also prevails a tendency to search for variables of economic success, with cross sectional analyses being relied upon to the neglect of longitudinal analyses. The range of variables has been too restricted, with little consideration of what leadership roles and tasks consist of and little attention devoted to investigation of how important role or task performance is and the degree to which it is effective for individuals, in terms of job satisfaction, and organisations and societies in terms of the time taken to reach decisions. Also in need of consideration are the changing requirements of leadership and how distribution rather than the formal appointment of leaders affects leadership performance. A chance should also be given to the judgment of leadership against democratic ideals, especially in the face of changes in the design of production systems, decentralisation, worker participation and changes in attitudes towards work. Contingency theories, the authors argue, tend to emphasise the wrong factors and tend to be timeless, especially in regard to the analysis of conditions which facilitate or restrict leadership. Finally, the report suggests that questions must be asked as to what exactly is meant by leader behaviour, interpersonal skills of leadership (macro, micro and structural), contributing eventually towards bridging the gap between knowledge and successful implementation of leadership theory and development.

James C. McElroy (1982) maintains that leadership is an ambiguous concept and that there is no integrated understanding of it, more conceptual work, he says, is needed on the 'exact domain of existing theories'. The 'attribution theory of leadership maintains that individuals have an inherent need to explain events, and bases itself on the cognitive process of assigning causes, 'a person is a leader because others say so'.

There are certain fundamental questions to be asked even before an examination of leadership can be got underway, firstly, what is to be studied? There are, the author asserts, inherent definitional problems, stemming from the fact that existing theories cause the content versus process conflict. The construct must be clarified by examining what leadership consists of (traits and behaviours), and by examining the process, how leaders decide what actions to take and their impact (path and goal). Another attribution approach seeks to determine the effects of theories on the process, and yet another, the two step attributional model which sees leaders as given evidence of subordinates performance, infer the cause prior to determining the course of action. Secondly, whom do you ask? The nature of the leadership set needs investigation, perhaps by being considered, the author says, analogous to the idea of a role set. Also needed is a clear idea of the individuals included in the context of the leadership situation. There has been, McElroy maintains, 'a traditionally narrow focus on leader subordinate relations, when most relations do not involve this interpersonal contact'. The relationship between the leader and those not in a position to observe the leader behaviour directly is often crucial to leader success, the 'opinions and perceptions of the detached'. One's own superior is also an important influence, as is the different information used by internal and external contacts in forming inferences and their tendency to process the same information differently.

The author gives some future directions for research, there should be more descriptive rather than prescriptive research, the dominance of prescriptive research he says, could be due to the assumption of a direct relationship between attributions and behaviour, an overemphasis on understanding the psychological processes rather than the practical implications, or the fact that it is easier 'to manipulate the antecedents of attributions rather than attributions themselves'. There is also a lack of prescriptive process research, and examination of the leader/subordinate/other attributional matches. It must be remembered, McElroy says, that subordinates also engage in a process of attribution. Other interesting questions include the degree to which leaders/subordinates/others disagree on the causes of performance and the effects of discrepancies, the extent of leader/other agreement or disagreement and finally, whether attribution theory is 'producing culture bound findings'.

Andrew Kakabadse (1983) introduces the 'four organisational politicians', but first indicates some areas which may be of importance. Managers, he says, may forget 'relations upwards', and research may neglect perceptions and actions and inner and outer directedness, and shared or unshared meaning. Simple strategies, the author says, 'aim for consistency', while more complex strategies 'involve suitable behaviour to meet only needs in the situation', they may be inconsistent but they are generally coherent.

The first of the organisational politicians is the 'traditionalist' who wishes to fit in and emphasises the value of acceptance. Group membership under the traditionalist will be controlled and judged on the basis of suitability. Role and status is another dominant concern of the traditionalist along with maintenance of superior/subordinate relations. Change and innovation, may very well be perceived as a threat, and there is a preference for work on detailed tasks. Secondly, the 'team coach' develops their own ideas and beliefs but

does not have independence of action, rather relying on the support of a like minded group. They have a missionary idea and emphasise the importance of personal relationships to ensure contentment and satisfaction. They have a task orientation, but unlike the traditionalist, they do not have a heavy reliance on status or role. They are accepting of changes, but can become quite defensive in the event of changes which will affect their group, they are also flexible in their interactions with different thinking individuals, but 'their need for consistency in behaviour prevents change in the group or real innovation'. Regarding work, the team coach believes that you should do what you were doing before, only better. Finally, the team coach is unlikely to display the same loyalty as the traditionalist, but they are loyal to the group instead. Thirdly, the 'company baron' sees 'the total organisation as it really is'. If needs be this 'politician' will advance their own needs at the expense of others. The company baron finds it difficult to become separate from the organisation, and as a result has difficulty in introducing changes that affect value and structure, rather they examine group performances and make alterations. The company baron will manoeuvre to gain the upper hand and will often support the traditionalist in 'espousing company loyalty, hard work and patronage'. They are conscious of status and will remain involved so long as their role and position remain unharmed. The company baron is outer directed and tends to share the values and norms of the organisation, they also tend to be efficient at both the small details and large scale organisation. The company baron needs other people on their side before action, and as a result of this they may often be seen as 'sitting on the fence', individuals of different vested interests are gathered around, and they become a 'vital link in achieving medium and long range plans'. Only evolutionary change is introduced, the company baron may well have grown up in the system and 'is now unable to distance himself from the past'. Finally, the company baron may dislike others who make too many demands for change, and a number of people with company baron tendencies, working together, may cancel each other out. Finally, we have the 'visionary' who also has the ability to see the organisation as a whole. They do not have the same need for loyalty as the company baron, and can stand back 'from majority values and views during reorganisation and restructuring'. The visionary operates from visions of the future in relation to the organisation and its environment, they have personal values and beliefs about what 'should and would happen', and they are able to predict which parts of the organisation are in need of adjustment for long term achievement. The visionary however, operates in relative solitude, with little sharing of values and little compromise, a situation which could well lead to in fighting. The organisation may suffer in long term planning, since although the visionary may share ideas on how decided strategies should be implemented, they may seek to introduce more dramatic change than has been planned for. The visionary is not cautious, partly because they are not too dependent on the support of others, but rather they will use their influencing skills to state their case and their interpersonal skills to convince others of it. The visionary is prepared to take risks, and thus they are often brought in at the top to revitalise a flagging organisation. Kakabadse warns however, that the visionary may relatively 'easily become bored, critical or feel constrained by the system'.

The author then goes on to examine how the four politicians operate in the organisation. For the traditionalist, the main question is 'whom to control and coordinate', most applied when the group is

threatened. Precedence is of the utmost importance to the traditionalist, and they maintain close supervision and controlled work activities, Kakabadse maintains that they have a 'childlike view of others'. The traditionalist relies very much on formal communication, awarding approval and favour for a job well done, but expecting gratitude for recognition. Maintenance of the status quo is high on the traditionalists list of priorities and they may resist change oriented interactions, or more seriously, they may resist 'all events leading to change or perceives as leading to it'. The team coach realises that working with difference is a necessary part of organisational life, approached with understanding and sympathy. They aim to make 'consensual patterns of decision making' and their approach to control and coordination is quite oriented to coordination. The team coach allows for change, and reward is given through group membership and praise. Informal communication is the norm and the team, coach aims for the organisation and the team to become open and integrated, they help the individual to identify with group norms, but the group will eventually develop its own norms. The team coach has a flexible attitude to change if there is no threat to the group, and spends time analysing the balance between groups. They are, the author says, 'reactive by nature'. The company baron is most concerned with how others view him, since role and status are so important. Control is confined to subordinates, and the baron is 'confident in interacting with differences by ensuring that subordinates do not upset the status quo'. Coordinating activities are determined by the procedures and by roles, often leading to lengthy decision making processes, and behaviour is adjusted to suit others during negotiations. The company baron 'interacts and spends time developing comradeship at senior levels' but interactions are always influenced by the views of others. Rewards are given in the form of increased payment or the putting forward of arguments on behalf of the individuals promotion, patronage, however, is the ultimate reward. For the company baron, it is important to have worked in the organisation for some time, since promotion is regarded as a form of control. Finally, the company baron will introduce step by step development and phased change, but there will always be the problem, the author says, of 'cognitive dissonance'. And finally, the visionary, who demands direct results and rapid change, with a strategy of direct control rather than coordination, and the bringing in of experts rather than consultation with subordinates, coordination with subordinates is in fact minimal, and they are further expected to put the visionary's wishes into practice. The visionary can tolerate internal and external confrontations and conflicts, maintaining direct control even under 'ethical objections and difficulties in implementing policies'. The visionary has little respect for the system, but adopts a policy of direct intervention and the taking of control. 'Competence and high energy' are rewarded and the visionary is attracted to 'high task skills and a professional approach to work', failures and losers are not forgiven easily, if at all, but rewards are given to achievers by means of increased money or position. The visionary, the author maintains, relies on 'skills of confrontation, direct control and personal charisma, and when change is needed, or perceived as needed, 'little respect is given to roles, authority or status'.

Jonathon E. Smith, Kenneth P. Carson and Ralph E. Alexander (1984) maintain that the assumption that leaders influence organisational performance has previously gone unchallenged, along with the assumption that leaders contribute significantly to organisational effectiveness, with the resultant focus

on the identification of traits or characteristics and appropriate styles or behaviours for leadership and the development of leadership skills. The 'question as to whether leadership makes a difference was never asked'.

It is not surprising, the authors say, that leadership should make little perceptible difference, since 'the selection process results in a homogeneous group being promoted and leaders are part of a social system that constrains behaviour by defining and limiting the range of action possible'. Forces external to the leaders control may also influence organisational outcomes and 'dilute the leader's impact'. House and Baetz disagree, the authors maintain, and believe that leadership can account for significant amounts of variance 'if the parameters that moderate the relationship between leader actions and outcome variables are considered'. The choice of methodology seems crucial, a methodological requirement is that change must take place and leaders must be replaced, this requirement is also shared by studies on leader succession. The authors assert that alternative designs and methodologies are necessary 'before the impact of organisational leadership on performance can be accurately assessed'.

Research, the authors say, has assumed that those in leadership positions are a homogeneous group, and that they possess superior leadership skills, the matter of an appropriate style of behaviour has been left out however. Neither has any attempt been made to distinguish 'the impact of outstanding or superior leaders'. Results it appears would be confounded with the characteristics of the particular organisational unit, especially since salary has previously been used to identify effective leaders. When effective leaders were differentiated from all others, the authors maintain that leadership definitely made a difference. Previously, leadership performance and succession literatures have been unable to separate leader influences 'from contingent organisational factors', but in the study undertaken by the authors, leaders were traced from one organisational unit to another. The great man theory has not been resurrected however, it is not assumed that a leader who is effective would be as effective in another setting. Leaders can only be described as effective, however, there is no insight into why they are so. Finally the authors say that attributes or characteristics of the individual may account for effectiveness across organisational units, and it may be time to go beyond describing leader activities or behaviours and concentrate on effective or influential behaviours.

James F. Bolt (1985) discusses the tailoring of executive development to strategy, he maintains that accurate identification of the results which a unit or function can achieve, are essential, as is identification of the changes necessary for the unit or function's current environment to produce superior results, feedback from subordinates is viewed as essential here. Strategies and opportunities must be identified that further empower the unit or function, and personal actions which reinforce or reward the values and behaviours required to achieve goals should be investigated. Strategies need to be articulated, direction given, opportunities identified and roadblocks avoided, and teamwork needs to be built.

There must be knowledge, the author maintains, of the external trends and environments and their impact at every level of the organisation, and there must be the realisation of the ability to influence the future in the face of change. It is also necessary to understand organisation and operation, and the 'leadership model should be tailored to changing market conditions, culture, size and business'. The leader must be able to make an assessment of strengths and weaknesses and undertake a programme of self improvement if necessary and the roles and functions of others must also be fully understood. The leader must be able to 'translate the corporate mission into action' and identify and communicate acceptable parameters of risk taking. Personal leadership behaviour, supporting and rewarding results should be developed, and a challenge should be perceived in the form of developing specific actions for very specific organisational situations. The total strategy of the company needs to be understood then, if all these ideals are to be fulfilled by the leader, along with the impact of their role upon business and how performance can be improved.

On leadership, Bolt maintains that a vision must be developed that can 'be communicated to the organisation in clear terms'. This communication should be followed up with clear directions so that the organisation knows what it has to do to translate that vision into reality. The organisation's commitment to that vision and direction is something that has to be gained rather than something that is accepted as a given. Also, an environment that is conducive to helping the organisation achieve its vision must be created, and a sense of trust and integrity nurtured at the top that gives the organisation the confidence to do what is required.

To Peters and Nancy Austin (1985) introduce the concept of a 'passion for excellence' based on 'the leadership difference'. Leadership, they say, means vision, cheerleading, enthusiasm, love, trust, verve, passion, obsession, consistency, the use of symbols, paying attention, drama, the creation of heroes, coaching and effectively wandering around. It 'must be present at all levels of the organisation' subject to adaptation and 'in touch with the outside world via living data'.

The number one problem, the authors say, is management who are out of touch with the workforce. There are however, tangible ways of being and staying informed, 'opportunistic customer listening', familial relations between suppliers and producers and the replacement of adversarial relationships. 'To innovate is to pay attention to innovation', Peters and Austin maintain, telling the customers what they want is certainly a bad idea, better is to listen to the sales force and 'walk the floor'. One of the first things, the authors maintain, that needs to be done, is the removal of all physical barriers to communication, all hands meetings help here, and informal interactions facilitate innovation and teaching of values to everyone, the technology of leadership is to realise that 'leadership is paying tangible attention'.

All the techniques and qualities mentioned, must, the authors assert, be employed from a 'base of integrity' and that integrity must start with the leader themselves. Common courtesy is cited as 'the

ultimate barrier to competition', in addition to a recognition that 'advantage comes from seeking the mundane edge'. Peters and Austin maintain that 'a thousand little things eventually add up to excellence'.

There is, the authors say, 'no such thing as a commodity', and they believe that the word should even be abolished, since it implies that your product is the same as that of everyone else's. Concentration should instead be devoted to selling quality rather than price, and the avoidance of what is a general focus on cost reduction caused by domination by financially trained executives and administrators to the exclusion of manufacturers, designers and people, even though this seems to be unintentional.

Perceptions, the authors say, are every bit as important as factual observations, and it is 'important to take into account that negligence in one area may be perceived as negligence in another'. Simple things, such as the insistence on 'real people rather than taped messages' and the perception of complaints as opportunities, are, for the authors, small ways to excellence. Performance also should be evaluated by the criterion of 'third party satisfaction', and a devotion to the conviction that 'feelings are facts'. Finally, management experience in sales is seen as essential by Peters and Austin, since 'the only way to really feel, is to be there', giving the best service in the customer's terms.

The excellent companies, the authors assert, have actual bulletins displaying stories of working with customers, and espousing customer contact by non customer functions. There is also a great respect for sales people, who are featured strongly in promotions to general management, along with a general clamouring to become involved in, and gain experience in sales. The importance of the customer pervades the excellent organisations, and there is an 'overall engagement in results oriented customer activities'. Even a special language is developed for customers, and contempt is taboo, reports are directed towards customers and revenue enhancing activities, and the impact of organisational change on the customer is always considered. Visits to customers are exchanged regularly at all levels, and even informal discussions focus on support for the customer, who is treated as unique and not as a statistic. Devices abound, the authors say, for customer listening, 'devices which are made and acted upon to link sales, engineering and manufacturing', customer satisfaction is measured regularly and an overkill of complaint mechanisms are firmly in place. Promises to customers are always kept, and even the diaries of executives reflect attention to customers, the authors maintain. Quality and reliability become an obsession in the excellent companies and 'every element looks to how it can differentiate the product'. The customers perception is what is considered important, and there is usually an 'explicit statement of philosophy dealing with this'. Executives not only engage regularly in primary customer functions, but they also manage the bureaucracy that could get in the way of customer services. Finally, the authors say, there is a 'passion for tiny customer related improvements in every department' and the orientation to the customer is lived with intensity 'as a matter of reflex'.

In the excellent organisation, there is generally a climate which nurtures and makes heroes of experimenters and champions. Innovation, the authors maintain, rarely results from formal product planning, but in an atmosphere of 'uncertainty and ambiguity', where the real tests of real products are on real customers. Successful champions are 'pragmatic, with a try it now dictum', and small teams can be most efficient in such an environment, with 'commercially viable innovation more likely to occur in a decentralised environment'. What is needed is a 'small project with a big mind set' and the conviction that compatibility is not the most important thing in the world, along with the realisation that optimisation almost always loses in the real product world. The authors say that forward looking customers may often be the most fruitful source of innovation, and thus listening to the market is a major formula for success, but not implying the forgoing of sophistication of design. The authors lay quite a bit of emphasis on skunkworks, which they say should be voluntary, with mutual responsibility, full of trust and positive reinforcement.

The 'context of innovation' should be one of informality, and there should be a 'physical feel' about the innovative place, with all hands involvement in all new products. There should also be an element of having fun, and the creation of new divisions and shifts of product responsibility should be the norm. The general manager as the excellent leader, should assume the role of 'corporate beater'. Openness in innovation is vital, the authors assert, normally innovation is kept a close secret and evidence of failure is withheld, but in reality, cheating and bringing people, resources and often customers together is more widespread than any bureaucracy would allow, by not admitting to this, the authors say, the executive is failing to allow the conditions necessary for emulation. In the excellent companies, talk is almost constantly centred around innovation, and the best people 'focus openly on past failures' thus personalising them. High monetary reward for achievement, the authors say, reduces sharing of the credit for success, and they warn, there is a fine dividing line between discipline and chaos, especially in the context of innovation.

Inaction is not tolerated among the excellent and innovative companies, there is an emphasis on trying, testing and immediate, shared action. Failure is tolerated and learned from, and it is stressed that the best people have failed many times. Practical team playing is much respected and invention alongside customers is taken for granted, with even senior and middle management showing disrespect for their own rules when it comes to this. Finally, the authors say, the excellent companies 'smell of their products' and constant effort is devoted to the small teams which innovates them.

Peter L. Wright and David S. Taylor (1985) maintain that the concept of skill in relation to leadership has been neglected. Leadership theories are 'all behavioural' and behaviour is described in general terms, styles or patterns. In the current context, the authors maintain, leaders are instructed as to what the appropriate is in certain circumstances but they are not told in any detail how to perform these activities. It is not merely that leaders do, Wright and Taylor say, but how well they do, and leadership

theorists have neglected this by concentrating their efforts on the development of theories instead of techniques.

Certain skills are necessary for effective leadership 'diagnostic skills' the authors say, give the leader the ability to identify what needs to be done to maintain performance and improve it where necessary. The leader must have a good understanding of factors affecting performance and must possess good motivation, appropriate abilities, and be accepting of feedback, and they must know what actions can be taken to influence these factors and thus improve performance. 'Perceptual skills' are also necessary in the analysis of performance and in the evaluation of any need for improvement. Such skills are especially necessary in interactions with others where 'low level information concerning beliefs, feelings and intentions may be in question'. Finally, the authors identify 'behavioural skills', concerning the 'components of questions, statements and non verbal cues that are the makings of interpersonal interactions'. To fully understand these qualities and skills, there must be a knowledge of the 'structural level of analysis where the components are sequenced'. Such skills also give the leader control over the overall approach to interactions, and an insight into the amount of participation and consideration which are necessary in any situation. Finally the authors say that an integrated framework of behavioural and other leadership skills and a knowledge of these skills on the researcher's and management development consultant's behalf allows more effective feedback and guidance in interpersonal skills training.

Larry E. Penley and Brian Hawkins (1985) discuss the leadership applications of interpersonal communications in organisations, they maintain that research on communication and leadership has concentrated on 'the communication behaviour of effective managers' rather than upon communication as 'the observable behaviour of leadership'. Much recent leadership research has focussed on leaders' consideration of and initiating of structure. Consideration, the authors say, has been the subject of study because 'it is operationalised in terms of an individual's interpersonal concern and emphasis on human relations.

Trudy Heller (1985) looks at the cultural aspects of changing authority patterns, she notes a decline in authority at both 'micro and macro levels'. Normally, the author maintains, authority is vested in the individual or the organisation by the members of the organisation or the members of a society for whom the individual or organisation contains a shared meaning. Perceptions of, or attitudes to authority, Heller says, are considered to be part of the culture of an organisation that is transmitted or transformed by the members, but many organisations are suffering from public mistrust or lack of confidence. Furthermore, organisations seem to be losing loyal and committed members, there is, Heller says, a 'loss of commitment or identification on the part of organisational memberships.

Looking through the history of the philosophy associated with authority, the author sees a substantial shift of the base of authority away from the abstract and macro and more towards the individual,

this has led to a declining willingness to submit to authority at all. In the organisational context, the boss has declined in the image of 'the father figure' and there is further disillusionment with 'the faceless bureaucrat'. The author goes so far as to say that 'the boss has become an organisational role that people do not want to play', there is then a 'crisis of leadership and followership', with the motive to manage, confidence in organisations, role protection, loyalty and commitment and willingness to submit to authority all lost or severely diminished.

Finally, the author maintains that when this process of the undermining of traditional authority patterns was noticed initially, there was a focus on the 'cultural loss' implications, then came efforts to reconstitute the past through the modification of innovation. Then there came the 'goal culture' acknowledged by the author as 'an ideal contrasted with the inadequacies of the present', and part of a grander process of related shifts and changes.

David A. Buchanan and Andrzej A. Huczynski (1985) discuss leadership and management style. Some of the functions of management which they identify are establishing overall purpose or policy, forecasting and planning the future, organising work and allocating duties and responsibilities, giving instructions and orders, checking performance and controlling it and coordinating the work of others. Leadership, the authors say, 'is more than the discharge of administrative functions, it is the way they are discharged', and it is the style of the manager in which the features of leadership lie, but that is not to say that managers automatically become leaders.

Notions of management have so far continued to overlap, with no clear separation between them. Edwin Fleishman in the 1940s emphasised the importance of social sensitivity and a production orientation, and that the most effective leaders emphasise both. Rosemary Stewart identifies qualities such as judgment, integrity, energy, human relations skills, dependability, fairness, dedication, initiative, foresight, drive, decisiveness, emotional stability, ambition, objectivity and cooperation, as qualities of effective leaders and managers. So far however, the authors maintain, attempts to identify the personality traits of effective leaders have failed, because it is very difficult to reach any agreement on how 'vague concepts like judgment and dedication are to be defined and measured'. Furthermore, personality traits and job successes are not usually linked, since a leader in an organisation is a person in a role, where the characteristics of the role will influence behaviour and its outcomes.

Finally, regarding power, the authors identify reward power, coercive power, legitimate power and expert power and maintain that the most effective style of management 'appears to be where the manager shares power with the subordinates'.

W.F. Coventry and J.L. Barker (1986) take a look at leadership and assert that most importantly in a position of leadership, a 'considerable amount of time must be spent on people rather than things' with

the giving of interest, encouragement and motivation. The authors also talk of 'achieving emotional poise', consisting of the right mental picture of the job, along with a true perspective. The leader should not make emotional demands upon other people, and should widen their horizons, extending their interests outwards 'to develop perspective and maturity'. The qualities of the mature and effective leader are innate and acquired and lie with vision, drive, good judgment, initiative, poise and maturity, personal magnetism commanding acceptability, enthusiasm, loyalty, cooperation, natural sincerity, tact, courtesy, a sense of humility, confidence, appropriate dominance, an ability to keep morale up and the ability to exercise control through inspiration rather than through command, whilst creating an overall atmosphere of cooperation and good will.

Marshall Sashkin (1987) investigates the answers to two questions, 'what makes leaders successful in terms of vitalising an organisation and creating a place where people want to do their best and do', and whether there is 'a real difference between effective leaders and managers'. Early research, Sashkin says, looked at the difference between leaders and non leaders, and not how effective and non effective leaders differ.

The effective leader appears to have a high need for power and exercises that power for the benefit of the organisation and its employees, not for personal satisfaction, they have a moderately high need for achievement, and they 'involve subordinates in a highly participative manner. The effective leader also strongly emphasises both task and interpersonal concerns through everyday behaviours, and has an appropriate combination of individual personality factors and behavioural skills, situational factors are also taken into consideration. Fiedler, the author maintains, examined the degree to which tasks have clear, step by step structures, and the degree to which leaders have power by virtue of their positions. From this, he advocated the control of situational factors, in other words, matching the situation to fit the leader type. Everyone, Sashkin says, has a preference or desire 'to exhibit one or other basic type of leader behaviour', and the leader can control the situation by being more controlling, directive or delegating involving subordinates. Tasks can also be less structured to add to subordinate autonomy, or more structured to increase clarity.

Hersey and Blanchard concentrated, the author says, on the willingness and ability of subordinates in relation to the effectiveness of the leader, but neither is really generally applicable, since neither incorporates the leader's personality, behaviour or situational factors.

Elliott Jacques devised a theory of cognitive development 'that links an individual's capacity for conceptualising complex chains of activity and then planning actions that put into [practice these visions]'. Emphasis is put on focussing attention, taking calculated risks, communicating skillfully and with empathy, demonstrating consistency and trustworthiness and expressing active concern for people including self. Through these behaviours, visionary leaders put plans into action on a microcosmic level and on an

organisational level, a culture set of beliefs or values is created that can 'guide the organisation in the long term'.

The author maintains that Peters and Waterman's eight factors are really eight strategies, some of which are 'generally useful' and some of which are useful only at a certain time, but it is the values identified at the end of the book which are the causes of excellence, not the eight principles. Values, Sashkin says, 'define a culture of excellence', a culture 'is set of shared beliefs, the basic values people agree to without ever realising it', and these values can only be communicated by behaviour, and not by words. Visionary leaders do this, defining and communicating excellence values through behaviour, 'creating excellence cultures', and as Jacques says, such leaders do have a special ability to vision 'due to their advanced state of cognitive development', but, all individuals can progress up the hierarchy. Our understanding of visionary leadership 'depends on how well we deal with personality, behaviour and situation'.

In the case of managerial leadership, Sashkin says that it is vital that we understand the leader's desire for power and achievement, and their motivation to derive satisfaction through task or relationships. The leaders' behaviour must be understood in terms of task or relationship oriented activities, actions that make use of power to benefit others and participative involvement. It is also necessary for us to understand the leaders' situation, position, the structure of their subordinate's tasks and the nature and willingness of their subordinates.

For visionary leadership, we must understand the leaders' cognitive capacity, and their ability to shape actions, reflect on paths to goals, extend and generalise cognitive models and identify and compare alternative approaches. The leaders' behaviours must also be understood, along with specialised task or relationship oriented behaviours, the focussing of attention, risk taking, communicating, demonstrating, trusting and expressing concern. The leaders' situation must also be understood in terms of the organisational values and cultures they are attempting to shape.

The implications of these new considerations for the leader are more effectiveness with a greater degree of self understanding, a clear idea of situational variables, the scope of the role and the skills mentioned above. Finally, the implications for organisations are in the promotion of people with acknowledged 'personality attributes associated with success' and more clearly defined leader roles, useful for the teaching and development of future leaders.

Mark J. Martinko and William L. Gardner (1987) say that previous research has been entirely concentrated on the process by which leaders make attributions for subordinates' behaviour and by which subordinates make attributions for leader behaviour, and there has been an almost exclusive focus on the analysis of the attributional processes of leaders while ignoring those of members. There have also been 'suggestions that attributional biases may stimulate conflict between leaders and members attributions

without articulation of the dyadic exchange of attributions which characterise leader/member relations'. The authors recommend that a comprehensive perspective of the 'interactive nature of the leader/member attributional process is needed'.

Joseph L. Badaracco and Richard R. Ellsworth (1987) attempt to confront the basic dilemmas of management by investigating the 'prejudices' which managers must have to become successful and effective leaders. The authors are looking for 'what distinguishes outstanding business leaders from ordinary professional managers', and maintain that throughout the years leadership has been likened to an invisible 'charisma', reduced to rules of behaviour and treated as undefinable due to its situationally dependent nature. About management, they say it has ceased to be regarded as a practical art and has come to be seen as a science, and made overly complex, with theorists thereby missing out on the 'responsibilities of business leadership'. Professional management concepts are not incoherent or incorrect, they are, the authors say, merely incomplete, 'personal qualities and individual behaviours cannot be replaced' and such notions do not include 'vision' as an integral part. The three philosophies which the authors go on to identify help us to understand the orientations of others and help managers to understand those with whom they must interact, each however, presupposes different beliefs, values and personalities and points managers in different directions for effectiveness.

The first of these theories is that of 'incremental leadership', managers are astute organisational politicians, they have powerful creative ideas but 'do not pursue their visions head on'. They keep goals broad, flexible and even vague and they move 'incrementally' and patiently to translate their goals into reality, in doing so, they prove themselves to be 'hard headed realists'. To incrementally translate goals into reality requires much skill at the art of implementation, but, the authors say, not selfish or manipulative behaviour, or the interests of personal gain or power.

Such a political view of organisational leadership is necessary because organisational realists do not regard the organisation as a 'happy family', rather it is a political arena. In such an arena, whether it be in a small or large company, 'the daily practice of extraordinary political and persuasive skills is required', and because the executive moves incrementally rather than boldly, it is called incremental leadership.

That what the authors call 'localitis' pervades companies, is one chief assumption of the incremental leadership philosophy, and that intensifying competition outside and increasing complexity outside the company is a fact of life is the second such assumption. The problem confronting managers therefore is nothing other than practical, getting the organisation, with these facts of life in mind, to achieve the leaders vision.

The notion of 'localitis' centres around the belief among middle managers and functional heads that their work and departments are critical to the success of the company, such individuals, the authors say,

are captives of their own ideas as to what their companies needs are, they also say that as a company becomes increasingly complex, the intensity of localitis grows, making the need for incremental leadership even greater. Furthermore, as a company becomes more complex, 'the leader becomes less an originator of new strategic ideas than a reactor to the ideas of subordinates'. Functional specialisation and indeed specialists themselves, increase the phenomenon of localitis, simply due to individual perspectives and senses of judgment. Competitiveness and complexity, because they are causes of localitis and 'splintering' of loyalties, are also regarded as one of the pillars on which the philosophy of incremental leadership rests.

Regarding the incremental leader, the authors maintain that the incremental perspective on organisations stands substantially at odds with more traditional thinking about management. Whereas such ideas relied on the manager taking strong personal action, the reality of the situation is that the manager may simply not have the time nor the expertise for personal intervention. The fact of relations having become more lateral, with a less distinct chain of command must also be taken into consideration. 'Managers are as much captives as masters of their firms' and the central tenet of incremental leadership is that 'strong business leaders must be adept at moving forward in small, incremental steps and at orchestrating astutely from behind the scenes'.

There are several implications of the incremental philosophy for managers, goals should be kept general and flexible, even occasionally vague, the situation is too complex, too volatile and too uncertain to do otherwise, and the evidence beginning to emerge, the authors say, from Japanese companies shows that they have been adopting this approach to strategic decision making for many years; strategy itself must be communicated over time, 'not at any one point in time' and 'it is communicated through a pattern of actions, not just through words', with the leader still shaping the vision; attention must also be paid to the powerful consequences of systems and structures, especially their political realities, changes must be made carefully with attention to the power and interests likely to be affected; leaders must also pay attention to the resolution of conflicts, negotiating compromises that reduce it, all the time maintaining an understanding of what is at stake, in terms of consequences and in the perceptions of the other parties. Regarding the work content of the leader, the authors maintain that as much time must be given to work on the 'process', that is the way groups make decisions and take actions as on the 'substance' of the issues facing the company. The leader must also adopt a non threatening approach, an open approach to others, 'working hard to understand how others perceive the world and being careful about their feelings'. By relying, for the greater part on informal methods of communication, managers 'can reduce the need to make formal decisions, thereby eliminating even more rigidity, but finally, the option to override or circumvent these approaches in times of crisis must always be perceived as firmly within the control of the leader.

The second approach to leadership is that of 'personal leadership', according to the authors this philosophy places 'overriding important on facts, not internal pressures and politics, and on the strategic

substance of decisions, not the process by which the decisions are made'. For excellent company performance, a manager must be clear, direct and forceful in dealing with others, must confront internal conflicts directly, take personal responsibility for important decisions, must contribute 'analysis, imagination and insight to strategic and operating decisions' and finally, must use systems and structure for clear direction, greater control over operations and generating the best possible information.

Regarding the philosophy of personal leadership, the authors are quick to point out that it bears no relation to autocratic management, since it does not involve the centralisation of power around the individual. Neither does it mean paternalistic management, instead the emphasis is upon genuine motivation to focus 'upon the strategic imperatives' of the business. Quite contrary to these views, the personal leader recognises the need to develop others in management and often delegates considerable authority, whilst they are also sensitive in their dealings with others, and recognise that they 'can no longer be the sole repository of leadership' in the modern organisation. Under this philosophy however, excellent managers are unwilling to compromise simply to avoid conflict, they will rather 'listen, persuade and then, if necessary, command'.

The author notes that the personal and incremental philosophies of leadership share many of the same basic assumptions about individuals and organisations, but that the central tenet of personal leadership is that direct, personal action is required by many organisations, and it does not presuppose that internal politics are the direct result of organised activity. Consequently, personal leadership philosophy exhorts managers to combat the destructive elements that may arise from a high level of political activity, but not to the extent of ignoring the political realities of the organisational world, in defense against localitis and internal pressures, the excellent personal leader returns to fact and substance. Some of the factors which allow personal leaders to avoid political manoeuvring are the fact that they tend to have an underlying faith in the abilities of people, they believe that ideas have considerable power to motivate people to follow the organisation and its purpose and finally, they recognise that managing a business is fun and an excitement.

The responsibilities of managers include developing strategy, managing systems and structures, managing personal contacts with others and resolving conflict, and personal leadership and incremental leadership, the authors say, provide fundamentally different answers to how they should be met. 'Rather than react to opportunities, a leader takes action' using judgment, imagination and insight to create a vision and 'embeds' this vision into the mission and strategy of the organisation, and the leader is actively involved in the creation of a sound strategy, objectivity is essential here. Regarding communication, the leader must use all available means to make strategy clear and explicit to all members of the organisation, hands on involvement makes all this clearer to subordinates. The authors also say that the personal leader realises the value of concentrating on a few principal objectives, this also makes it easier for the leader to have the

essential courage to translate ideas into action. The personal leader also has clear and focussed goals, making understanding for subordinates easier and planning more easy to evaluate.

In criticism of the incremental approach, the authors maintain that revealing strategy over time may indeed increase flexibility, but may also fail to employ fully the powers inherent in the executive office. Incremental leadership also has a tendency to fall into a preoccupation with internal politics, resulting in processes becoming ends in themselves, whereas systems and structures should only be means to goals and ends, systems must be reinforced by direct and positive action. Furthermore, counter to incremental theory, outstanding managers and leaders are committed to giving greater autonomy to others and to keeping structures and systems as simple as possible, excellent managers also place 'great emphasis on the hiring, developing and promoting' of key personnel.

The third and final philosophy of leadership is that of 'institutional leadership'. The authors begin by saying that 'exceptional company performance ultimately rests on the dedication and creativity of the entire organisation, not the personal efforts of one individual'. The institutional leadership philosophy rests on the commitment of followers to an institution rather than to a leader. A leader must always be concerned with the values embodied in their companies and furthermore, their actions must reflect basic values and serve basic purposes with which their followers identify. Excellent leaders, under this philosophy, energise their followers to take actions to benefit the whole, understands basic human desires and aspirations and creates an organisational purpose with which people can identify personally.

The institutional leader is also committed to the achievement of creativity and meaning by people through work and the creation in them of a sense of pride and ownership in the organisation. The leader is devoted to the sense of the company as a community, day by day working as a whole, with the basis of this feeling lying in shared values, in the shaping of which the leaders' role is crucial. The authors identify four sets of values firstly, adequate and acceptable pay and security, secondly, the need to take pride in work, thirdly, the need for creativity and individual initiative and finally, the desire for efforts to contribute to a worthwhile purpose. These values, the authors say, can greatly enhance the performance of an organisation.

A leaders commitment to these values and to the purpose of the organisation must be evident in everything that they do, strategy must 'include and transcend economics' and goals must be both qualitative and quantitative and there should be a hierarchy of goals, embodying the company's purpose and values. A strong sense of a business concept is also essential, and the excellent leader is aware of any potential threat to it, and to this end it is reinforced by a 'statement of purpose'.

Regarding the other two philosophies in relation to institutional management, the authors maintain that institutional leadership views the others as ignoring the fact the values 'can be a powerful source of management control, reducing the need for formal systems'. Leaders must always ask whether change will

promote values more than the current situation, and such leadership through attention to values can be a valuable source of autonomy for others, since shared values reduce internal conflict, one thing however that must not be delegated is the leaders responsibility for promoting and defending values, and to this end, the building of good interpersonal networks is a vital process.

Decision Making

James W. Fredrickson (1974) investigates the directions which studies of strategic decision processes have taken. The 'comprehensiveness' of strategic decision processes is a 'measure of rationality' the author says, and examines the attempts of organisations to be exhaustive or all inclusive in the making and integrating of strategic decisions. Strategy determines the match 'between the external environment and internal structure or processes' and also comprises the formal planning process. Strategy formulation is a decision making process in itself and any study must investigate how single decisions are made or integrated into strategy. Characteristics, the author says, tend to be consistent across strategic decisions, and there are two models, 'rational' and 'incremental'.

The differences between these two models lies in what exactly initiates the process, the role of goals, the relationship between means and ends and in the concept of choice. Comprehensiveness in making individual strategic decisions must also be taken into account, along with the comprehensiveness with which they are integrated. There are however, 'cognitive limitations' in any process of decision making, it is quite impossible for the individual manager to 'totally orchestrate events', and there is always a degree of uncertainty, especially in relation to environmental stability.

The decision process, Fredrickson says, is not confined to individuals at the top of the organisational hierarchy, but individual behaviour may or may not be comprehensive, in an organisation with a comprehensive process, decision making 'is viewed as a major element and as analytical, sensitive to impact and intent on rational solution'. In a non comprehensive situation, decision making is viewed as 'highly judgmental, resting in the hands of the dominant manager', analysis is replaced by informal discussion and behaviour is biased by experience and by orientation.

Luther Wade Humphreys and William A. Shrode (1978) review the decision making profiles of male and female managers. The authors assert that 'psychological differences between men and women may exert significant differences on decision making'. Female managers, they say, spend more time making personnel decisions, and this may reflect their 'people orientation', which is mentioned in some literature. However, similar qualities are required from both sexes to be successful in managerial positions, but the authors say, there is a difference in attitudes to challenging or unpleasant decisions, which appear to be least liked by female managers.

H.A. Badr, E.R. Gray and B.L. Kedia (1982) discuss the interrelationship of personal values and managerial decision making. 'Personal values' they say are ideas about what is desirable, and are the primary basis upon which individuals and groups select from among alternative modes, the means and ends of actions. Such values may be implicit or explicit, abstract, positive or negative. Generally they are hierarchical in nature, the 'same values but with a different priority or degree of importance'. Personal values make up a hierarchy of competing life directions, and they are a relatively permanent perceptual framework, far more stable or ingrained than attitudes, with many more classification schemes.

One of the questions raised by the authors is whether the relationship of personal values and decision making is direct or indirect through the perceptual process. The goals of organisations have been found to be 'significantly related to the personal values of managers, and this constitutes an influence on behaviour among alternatives in the decision making process, on corporate strategy and on the day to day decision making level. Finally, the authors say, it must be borne in mind that other factors can cause managers to behave inconsistently with their values.

Robert C. Shirley (1982) examines the scope of strategy through a decision based approach, he maintains that there are 'significant conceptual problems in defining the scope of the strategy concept', and with the focal points for the teaching of strategy and whether it should be broadly or narrowly defined, so that a concept can be developed which can be applied consistently 'across all firms and industries for both teaching and research purposes'.

The strategy of an organisation consists of those decisions that define 'the relationship of the total organisation to its environment and give guidance to administrative and operational activities on an ongoing basis'. The problem with definitions however, is that they do not offer sufficient guidance for defining the scope of the field of study called strategy, and this, combined with the lack of a clear decision focus when defining the concept, leads the author to assert the need to identify clearly, the decisions which are strategic in nature.

The reason for a decisional orientation to strategy is that it 'facilitates the study of both strategy content and process'. Decisions identified as strategic can provide a basis for defining the principle for teaching and research, and can also contribute towards the 'enhancement of communications between scholars and practitioners.

Shirley maintains that strategic decisions are identified by the fact that they are directed towards defining the organisation's relationship to its environment, the decision must take the organisation as a whole as its unit of analysis. The strategic decision must be 'multifunctional in character' and must depend

administrative and operational activities throughout the enterprise. Finally, the decision must be important to the success of the enterprise.

Finally, Shirley identifies some of the decisions which may be called strategic, they concern the basic mission of the organisation, customer mix, product mix, the service area of the organisation, goals and objectives and outside relationships.

Jeffrey D. Ford and W. Harvey Hegarty (1984) examine 'decision makers' beliefs about the causes and effects of structure'. Structure, they say, is a consequence of a decision problem that is influenced by the 'cognitive and motivational orientations of the decision makers'. A 'cognitive orientation' is defined as a series of systems for the organisation of information, and observation of thought in the process of individual and group problem solving. A 'motivational orientation' on the other hand, is defined as a series of systems for the organisation of values and evaluation in the process of individual and group problem solving.

The authors assert that beliefs about the causes and effects of structure act as a filter to seeing the world 'by providing hows and whys for events (cognitive orientation)', they also serve as guides for future actions and as justifications for the past. Values also influence choices, and beliefs influence 'how contextual factors are viewed and also how the decision maker copes'. Structure, Ford and Hegarty maintain, is the result of choice that may or may not take organisational context into account, but the link between context and structure is through the decision maker, and the characteristics of the decision maker determine the relationship. Some of the 'context dimensions' include technology, task variability, interdependence, people and personnel competence. Some of the 'structure dimensions' include complexity (the division of work), formalisation, centralisation (delegation) and performance (quality). Personnel competence and size have the greatest 'direct and cumulative causality', but the nature of any influence varies with the characteristics of the decision maker, the simplicity of cognitive maps and the limitations of information processing.

Paul Shrivastava and Ian A. Mitroff (1984) discuss the role of decision makers' assumptions. They assert that the present scientifically developed organisational theories are essentially useless because the assumptions on which they have been based are 'quite different from the assumptions managers have about the real world'. Managerial decision making is less structured and performed under time constraints by individuals whose subjective impressions and biases influence the decision making process, most of which is not taken into consideration by the theorists. The authors maintain that most organisational theories obscure the 'richness and complexity of the set of assumptions that managers must make to operate successfully in a rapidly changing and complex environment', and little attention is given to the role of managerial assumptions and 'implicit cognitive maps' in explaining organisational behaviour. The importance of assumptions in decision making, the author says, lies in their ability to sustain certain 'selective views of reality'.

Strategic information has a highly speculative and evaluative component, but the assumptions of researchers emphasise methodological issues related to the process of inquiry, while the assumptions of managers emphasise the definition of substantive issues related to organisational problems. Decision makers, the authors say, may be 'special kinds of theoreticians who possibly have very different standards for theory construction and concepts of what is appropriate theory'. The authors introduce the concept of a 'frame of reference' or 'paradigm' of which, they say, selective and partial aspects have been examined under the guise of 'ideology', 'values' and 'decision styles'.

Certain components of frames of reference are identified by Shrivastava and Mitroff as cognitive elements, cognitive operators, reality tests, a cognitive map of the domain of inquiry, the degree of articulation and metaphors. Existing organisational theories need, they say, to be evaluated for their usefulness in specific organisational situations, since they are not universally applicable, but only selectively adaptable to organisational situations 'so that they match with the assumptions of organisational members'. Here then, there are definite implications for transcultural and comparative analyses. Research designs, the authors say should use explanatory variables that have direct action implications, even though this may result in a trade in generalisability. There must also be greater use of rigorous, qualitative and interpretive research methods, along with interdisciplinary approaches. Finally, an extension of research analysis and its implications 'through a broader set of metaphors that make sense to managers' seems to be a prerequisite for progress.

James W. Fredrickson examines the 'effects of decision motive and organisational performance level on strategic decision processes'. The process used, he says, affects quality, as do individual differences in responding to problems and opportunities, i.e. whether the individual commits resources or sets precedents.

All decision processes begin with a motive or a stimulus, and the initial action taken is critical, but is dependent upon the motivating force. The author says that decisions can be characterised as either positive or negative in effect, and opportunities are exploited without analysis, but the same does not apply to problems. The level of organisational performance also affects the strategic decision process, a period of 'slack' for instance will decrease the general intensity of the search for information, and actions during periods of poor performance are more comprehensive. There can also be consideration of the processes in terms of rational analysis and intuitive synthesis, the author says. Finally, Fredrickson inquires as to whether strategic process theory is generalisable, and maintains that a theory must be developed which more accurately represents the process.

Martin L. Gimpl (1986) examines 'decision making under ambiguity' comparing Japanese to Western managers. Western managers are less tolerant of ambiguity, he says, since they are taught 'to act firmly' and 'need a firm set of goals' things which are just not possible under ambiguity, and this results in

ambiguity being converted into a state of uncertainty. Japanese managers on the other hand, feel comfortable in situations of ambiguity and will defer decisions until the situation clears, realising that 'the random error component cannot be overcome by premature decision making and the demand for hard facts'. Intolerance of ambiguity is indicated where managers hold onto the wrong beliefs longer and find change difficult if not impossible.

Firm goals however, can be established in both situations of certainty and uncertainty, but a 'complete and accurate knowledge of the outcomes of each possible action' is achieved only under conditions of certainty. When the manager cannot be sure of the effect or action, then a condition of uncertainty exists. However, the expected outcome can always be calculated, thus decision making under uncertainty requires firm goals and accurate forecasting.

Ambiguity, the author says, is a situation where the manager is unsure of goals because the situation is either unique or very complex, and formal techniques for decision making are useless under uncertainty. Western managers in ambiguous situations are 'under pressure to act decisively or rationally' requiring the premature formation of goals and the seeking of forecasts, decisions required under ambiguity are now used in uncertainty, and this can lead to biased forecasts and decisions. The author gives the example of a new product, with capital budgeting being the example of a forecast requirement, such forecasts are notoriously unreliable.

Many decision making techniques assume that goals are firm and known, and many students are taught that ambiguity does not exist, whereas good managers need tolerance for ambiguity. Thus, when the environment is completely new, the manager should refrain from premature goals setting, conducting instead 'exploratory experiments without any expectations'. Experiments can also be carried out with an end in mind and to, for example, determine the best choice, after these, goal setting is possible.

Finally, the author asserts that the best decision makers do not 'announce clear and explicit goals' since this can centralise the organisation and cause people to take rigid positions, thus eliminating creative and innovative options. Tolerance of ambiguity does not mean doing nothing or opting for helplessness, only in the early stages of ambiguity management, random actions are recommended.

David J. Hickson, Richard J. Butler, David Cray, Geoffrey R. Mallory and David C. Wilson (1986) examine strategic decision making among top management. Decision making is, the authors say a game of manoeuvre, and an organisation 'is less the result of deliberate design than it is the only partly intended accumulated result of decision making games over the years'. When the consequences of decision making are unclear, then caution is likely, but in research the descriptions of differences in respect of decision making are minimal, and there is a lack of hard data about organisational decisions, with all the grouping done in terms of problems, decisions and procedures.

The process of making a decision, the authors maintain, is a response partly to the problems caused by the subject of the decision and partly to the interests implicated by it, and problems create complexity, along with the 'rarity' of the matter, the 'consequentiality' and the 'precursiveness'. Strategic decisions are those which 'the parties involved believe will play a big rather than small part in shaping what will happen afterwards', a relative viewpoint. Strategic decisions are also rarer, and often involve the commitment of substantial resources, furthermore, they often set off 'waves of lesser decisions'. Strategic decisions, the authors say, must be understood from the point of view of the insider, and in terms of their significance for the organisation in the eyes of those at the top. Non decisions and negatives are also an important element of any consideration of strategic decision making, along with rarity, the radicality of the consequences, seriousness and diffusion and endurance. In choices which are made for the long term, it may be difficult, the authors say, to determine the consequences, in this case one examines the involvements, the more of these there are, the more complex the decision.

The involvement of interests in decision making is a response to politicality as well as indicative of complexity, 'organisational politics involve the efforts of interest groups to influence decisions that affect their position in the organisation', and the objectives of any interest group in a decision situation with regard to the outcome are the expression of long term interests. Interests, the authors say, remain constant, while objectives may vary, each decision has a decision set of interests, and power is exercised in 'an attempt to have those interests embodied in any decisions made'. 'Politicity is the degree to which influence is exercised', and the timing of influence is crucial, as is the choice as to which decisions to devote attention to. Power, the authors say, 'is the capacity or ability to attempt to influence, and it is latent. Authority does not necessarily mean influence as influence can be based on sources other than authority, influence is also defined by the feelings of those subjected to it.

Power bases, the authors assert, may vary according to the situation within the organisation, departmental status for instance, and there can be prominent personalities who have no real power. 'Bosses are ultimately powerless' because the world of organisations is made up of other interdependent organisations and is not entirely dependent on one figurehead individual, equally, it is dependent on internal and external specialisation.

Governmental influence, the authors say, is surprisingly weak, and is no greater in state owned industry than it is in the private sector, in nationalised industry, government appears to have influence on more decisions rather than more influence on decisions, often the influence is 'constraining or indicative'. Trade unions seem to come 'bottom of the influence pile' and that is quite contrary to their media image, with their influencing tactics frequently coming after decision making and during the implementation of the decided courses of action.

Politicality, the authors say, is heightened when decisions are 'leaned upon', but pressure is not to be confused with conflict, since politicality has its origins in cleavage which does not 'equate with contention of objectives'. 'No single senior executive can move mountains with a memo', and the most influential of all are the general management within an organisation, their influence, the authors say, 'matches their authority and is sustained by it'. The general management is strongest in the early, formative stages and late closing stages of decision making and they are the 'final arbiters of who is in or out'. General management are not totally above politicking, and they can intervene if things 'get out of hand'. By personifying the organisation, they 'ensure a bounded politicality' although theirs is not the dominant position in decision making and is open to challenge.

The decision making process begins with 'start up or identification' proceeds to the 'developmental stage' and ends with 'finalisation or selection', and there are routines within all these phases. The trajectory of a strategic decision is rarely smooth, the authors maintain, simply because the decision makers may exercise caution, and this may lead to 'disjointed incrementalism', taking a little at a time. Good managers are aware of this process, and properly managed 'it is a conscious, purposeful and proactive executive process. The duration of 'gestation period' before decision making seems to reveal the power available to set the decision making process in action, this is usually followed, the authors say, by investigation by inside rather than outside experts, with formal and informal interactions taking place which do not necessarily slow down the process all that much. Likewise, the fact that a decision may have to be considered by many committee forms, does not necessarily mean that the process will be a slow one.

There are, the authors explain, three types of decision making process, which describe 'a type of organisational or social process at the level of top management', these are 'sporadic processes', 'fluid processes' and 'constricted processes'. The type of process depends on the following factors scrutiny concerning information, expertise, confidence disparity and effort. Interactions may be formal or informal and negotiation scope may be marked by flow, disruption or impedence. The duration, gestation period, process time and level of authority of the initiator must also be taken into account. Sporadic processes are processes which are likely to have run into disruptive delays, the quality of information may be uneven and come from a wider range of sources. They generally have a high level of authorisation, but are 'informally spasmodic and protracted'. Fluid processes are almost the opposite, there is little informal interaction and discussion usually takes place through prearranged channels, although the decision is usually taken at a high level. Such decisions may have to attend a greater number of committees, but because these occasions provide a convenient forum for assessing the opinions of a wide range of people, the process tends to be hastened by this fact. Constricted processes, can have some delays, and they tend to have drawn on numerous sources of information, with the result of not being so focussed. There is less scope for negotiation and the decisions are taken at a lower level than the highest point in the organisation. Such processes are possible when there is a good information base to start off with. The differences between the processes are in terms of 'discontinuity and dispersion', sporadic processes tend to be most discontinuous

and fluid processes most continuous and dispersed, the fundamental processes of decision making such as these tell an awful lot about how a decision was made.

The authors maintain that 'the matter for decision affects the route to the conclusion because the route is not visible beforehand'. A decision may follow a certain route because within an organisation, there may be 'customary' routes to follow. Product and personnel decision topics appear to be non fluid and discontinuous, reorganisational concerns are rarely constricted, since they generally move into a wider arena, decisions about the organisation cannot stay within narrow channels either, and tend to be dispersed, and inputs decisions are likely to be fluid and continuous. Very strategic decisions tend to be in the non fluid, non constricted grouping whereas less strategic decisions tend to be in the non sporadic grouping, and the more strategic a decisions, the more likely it is to be a sporadic process. New product decisions are both complex and political, the authors say, and they tend to be sporadic, 'thus the link between complexity, politicality and process'.

In different decision situations, there may be a different set of problems, since processes often differ to accommodate different interests, and that set of interests varies. A process, the authors say, takes shape both to encompass the complexity of the problems raised by matters on hand and to accommodate the politicality of the implicated interests. High complexity and politicality decisions are thus 'more convoluted and confused decision making processes'. Not necessarily the most serious decisions are centralised, but sometimes the most unusual, the authors identify vortex, tractable and familiar subject matters, to describe 'the lively nature of subject matter'.

Organisations are seen by the authors as rules for how decision making games can be played, or a statement about which problems a decision making process should concern itself with. For instance, division of labour and division of authority questions divide the internal interest units, and assumptions and decision premises which are taken for granted must also be considered, along with non decisions, unquestioned assumptions and unthought of possibilities. Interests have their strategies of play and thus bring about changes, the outcome is framed by the organisational context, and also because it fits a strategy for the organisation, strategic decisions must be considered as part of wider strategies. Finally the author asks whether processes are related to the type of organisation in question, and what factors of this nature may affect them.

M. Ann Welsh and E. Allen Slusher examine 'organisational design as a context for political activity' organisational politics, they say, are actions undertaken to acquire, enhance and use power to obtain preferred outcomes in situations which have a dissensus on choices, and are used where there is no rational way to determine the outcome. Dissensus increases the turnover of departmental administrators, and consensus is related to centralisation, specialisation and heterogeneity, interacting with interdependence to determine political activity. Interdependence, the authors say is the 'need for internally

differentiated work units' and accomplishing tasks requiring cooperation among the units, it plays a major role in establishing the conditions conducive to political activity, since without interdependence, organisational participants lack a common interest. The highest levels of political activity come when interdependence and dissensus are highest.

Task specialisation is also another important consideration, an organisation differentiates into specialised units which develop distinctive goals, time horizons and interpersonal orientations, and with these a potential for heterogeneous preferences. Heterogeneity is, Welsh and Slusher say, synonymous with an increased need for specialised skill, with training usually received at different institutions with different value systems, giving a lower potential for consensus. Centralisation, they say, arises when more decision making authority is vested in the hierarchical levels, which allows the dominant coalition to improve the lot of its preferences. Centralisation may reflect an already existing consensus, but there is usually some feeling of less freedom in the expression of divergent viewpoints. Finally, the authors say that political activity depends on several variables, environmental conditions, the state of the organisation and the elements of organisational design, but it also depends on the particular decision and whether it is important enough to justify political activity and also on the uncertainty surrounding the decision.

Strategy, Organisational Form and Culture

John Hutchinson (1976) asserts that there has been an attempt to link strategy to structure in practice, with the design of a two tiered organisation, structures to cope with current and future operations. In this organisation, innovation is promoted, there is a multiple management arrangement, and a linkage of task specialisation to integration and coordination in a systematically designed organisational hierarchy. 'Strategy precedes structure' and there is a flexible organisation chart. There are several types of priority, the author maintains, which can be adopted by the individual manager when thinking of organisational form, people may be considered paramount, information flows may be the major focus, efficiency may be the major point of departure or the task to be done may be the vital element. The growth stage of a company may also affect the structures needed and indeed the type of manager dealing with the particular growth stage may also have an influence, in addition there may be different perspectives and roles relative to the organisation in question. There are, the author says, many different and adaptable organisational structures which are used depending on the nature of the individual business and market place.

In relation to the chief executive officer, the author maintains that there has evolved a situation where there is a senior vice president and executive office with no direct control over operating or staff units, or perhaps a formally established organisational unit where the executives act singly or as a group as if they are the president. In this situation, executive time is expanded, there is a focus on long range planning, there is balanced representation, a range of skills is on offer, there is room for adequate

management succession and as a result better decisions are made faster. There is, the authors say, a 'well defined need' for multiple executives, but they require excellent communications, personal compatibility, a chief executive committed to making it work and a dominant group executive concept.

Also considered necessary are facilities for the development of latent innovative talents in the shape perhaps of a 'new venture/new business group', which would go towards the general promotion of new ideas inside the firm, especially in a situation where the corporation may be 'ill equipped to evaluate new ideas'. The chief executive in such an evolving company needs to be committed, with longer time perspectives and plenty of tolerance and patience. Effective operations management is essential, but most important is heedfulness of the impact of the organisational environment, internal and external, the author recommends that intelligence gathering, long range strategic planning, coping and dealing with external politics, establishing objectives, providing for innovative responses to changes in the environment, following up on performance objectives and setting up structures for motivation to meet individual and organisational goals, should feature highly in the agenda of the evolving organisation.

Lane Kelley and Reginald Worthley (1981) discuss the role of culture in comparative management, they refer to Neghandi (1975) who maintained that management practices, behaviour and effectiveness are 'more functions of contextual variables than of sociocultural variables. The authors assert that different cultures possess different organisational norms and behaviour standards recognised as legitimate forms of influence, this being taken into consideration, 'use of a rational sample is not necessarily sufficient to test the impact of culture'.

Lawrence R. Jouch and Richard N. Osborn (1981) attempt to move towards an integrated theory of strategy. The 'traditional view', they say, focuses on the content of the organisation through the analysis of functional areas, with financial goals being considered dominant. Strategy, meanwhile, is considered to be 'a series of efforts to improve the chances of final success'. The 'top down view' on the other hand sees the organisation as having multiple, partially conflicting goals which are 'functions of internal and external pressures and previous strategies'. Managers, in this view, analyse interplay and find match between strategy formulation and implementation. A conceptual and operational view emerges from analysis of individual organisations and subsystems and these lead to a set of choices and desired conditions rather than a 'measured set of conceptually based variables'. In this view, strategy and strategic actions are closely linked with their descriptions being taken from business jargon, and actions are linked to strategy without a conceptual framework. Quantitative analysis, 'based on historical descriptions of success form the basis for new prescriptions, and there are rarely any attempts to specify the measurement guidelines before analysis.

Finally, the authors give their preferred definition of strategy, -it is they say, the combination of environmental, contextual and structural elements affecting an organisation at any one time, and it is also the congruity of these elements, combined with the predisposition of top management towards goals.

John L. Brown and Neil McK. Agnew (1982) discuss the balance of power in a matrix structure, they maintain that resources gravitate towards areas which provide 'clear and positive feedback', and resource allocation depends on clear standards for comparative evaluation. The balance between how power is allocated among 'project' and 'functional' managers in a matrix structure occurs where goals are clearly specified and technology is well understood. Project managers dominate where technology is poorly understood and functional managers where the goals are vague. Finally, neither dominate and conflict is greatest where goals are vague and technology is poorly understood.

Danny Miller, Manfred F.R. Kets de Vries and Jean Marie Toulouse (1982) investigate the relationship of the locus of control of executives and its relation to strategy making, structure and environment. This is, they say, a social/psychological approach to the study of organisations combined with the view that organisational phenomena are the product of structural factors and not personality differences. Using these two approaches to organisations together, the authors maintain that one can get an good insight into the relationship between personality and strategy making and whether this has implications for structure and environment.

The locus of control, the authors assert relates to whether the individual considers events to be under their control or more under the control of outside events or due to fate or luck. It is also dependent on the individuals relationship to alienation, satisfaction, involvement, leadership style and the level of business activity. Those individuals with an internal locus of control tend, the authors say, to exhibit more entrepreneurial qualities and are convinced of their ability to change events and the fact that they have the influence to do so. Those with an external locus of control are more passive, and are generally satisfied with participative leadership and the use of persuasion, they may also have the tendency to be more authoritarian and coercive. The locus of control also seems to affect attitudes towards risk taking, proactivity and futurity. Whether the organisation is dynamic or heterogeneous, and what sort of relationship the individual has with organisational scanning, technocratisation and differentiation, are also considered to be important, as is the possible influence of the selection and development process.

Kenichi Ohmae (1982) discusses the phenomenon of strategic vision, mainly from the point of view of Japanese business people. 'Analysis', he says, is the starting point, strategic thinkers dissect problems, trends and events and situations 'into their constituent parts' and discover the significance of each, reassembling them in a way calculated to be to the best advantage. An executive must have 'intellectual elasticity or flexibility' to come up with 'realistic responses to changing situations', a clear understanding of each element of the situation and must restructure the elements using 'human brainpower'. True strategic thinking, Ohmae says, contrasts with linear thinking, the first stage is to pinpoint the 'critical issue', which involves asking the right questions in a 'solution oriented manner', next the issue must be narrowed down 'by studying the observed phenomena closely', abstraction 'enables the critical issues to be brought to light

without the risk of overlooking anything important', this is followed by movement 'towards a concrete plan for improvement'. Ohmae maintains that for the strategic mind 'to work creatively' good insightful analysis is needed, this is very distinct from analysis done for the sake of 'vindicating one's own preconceived notions', which will not lead to creative solutions, and he asserts that intuition alone will not 'secure good business plans', on the contrary, only a good balance between the two will lead to a successful strategy.

Ohmae maintains that the 'more severe the pressure and the more urgently a broader view is needed, the more mental vision narrows', particularly if the vision is concerned with matters of success and failure. No organisation, he says, works entirely on an all or nothing scenario, and each day needs 'imagination and constant training in logical thought processes', success must be 'summoned'. Thinking for successful strategy must be flexible, and there are serious dangers in trying to draw up the perfect, failsafe strategy, timing is also essential, and the author feels that many people are quite unable to make well timed decisions, timidity being an important factor here, they are, he says, 'subject to a perfectionist obsession with detail, leading to an impulsion to qualify and a fear of asserting what is the case. Only in the pursuit of the key or critical factors, Ohmae concludes, must the strategic thinker be a perfectionist.

Andrew D. Szilagyi Jnr. and David M Schweiger (1984) examine how managers may be matched to strategies, the fundamental basis of this type of thinking lies in the linking of business and corporate strategy concepts with those associated with human resource planning, and with rejection of the notion that managers can successfully run any organisation regardless of the chosen strategies. In the selection of managers, there should, the authors maintain, be an emphasis on selecting those whose 'skills, management styles and behaviours are congruent with the requirements of particular strategies'. 'Nature and necessary actions differ at different levels for implementing strategies' and the comprehensive analysis of external and internal environments and the suggestions derived from strategic models are guidelines for the selection of strategies and are usually accompanied by certain actions for implementation. The authors assert that the literature on managerial selection suggests four factors, and evaluation of the job, an assessment of managerial skills pertinent to the job, consideration of organisational factors beyond the person and the job and finally, assignment of managers to the job on the basis of match achieved among these.

The authors go on to identify five models relevant to managerial selection and strategy, firstly there is the 'strategic archetypes model', based on two major conclusions from leadership research, namely that leaders can change their styles but lack the flexibility to function in all types of organisations or situations and that the nature of the situation affects the level of effectiveness. The model proposes to link strategy with the leadership styles available, and is, the authors say, 'built on a taxonomy of strategies based on a modified product life cycle adjusted for consideration of an organisation's internal potential'. The translation of strategies into job requirements is not well defined, and why certain characteristics were chosen and how they relate to strategy are not discussed.

Secondly, there is the 'stages of growth model', based on the stages of growth theory assuming that firms progress from a simply organised single product focus to eventual, multidivisional, multi industry diversification. There are, the theory asserts, two different management styles, 'steady state' and 'evolutionary', which essentially describe the strategy the firm uses to achieve growth. The authors maintain however, that the model leaves ambiguity in the relations between these strategies and the specific job requirements, managerial skills and behaviours, and the specific skills and behaviours and how they relate conceptually to strategies and job requirements are not articulated.

Thirdly, there is the 'reward system model', arising from critiques of the previous models, doubting the possibility of measuring and identifying the shapes of product life cycles and specifying the relationship between stages and strategies. The model is also based on the question of whether or not managerial personality traits can be accurately measured and identified or if they are even important to strategy implementation, and consideration must be given to the type of organisation and its structure. Managers are capable of several behaviours and styles, and the major issue is focussing manager's attention on critical areas and eliciting the managerial styles and behaviours necessary to meet strategic demands, this, the authors say, is accomplished through the design and administration of organisational reward systems. These reward systems are specified performance criteria based, and developed from the analysis of the requirements of each stage of product development, it is not suggested that rewards systems can elicit desired behaviours, since managers are not considered capable of changing behaviours to meet all demands 'but are capable of a number of styles and behaviours'. The authors say that the differences between managers are not taken into consideration by the theory.

Fourthly, the 'Miles and Snow model' addresses management coalitions in strategy implementation, the criteria for coalition development and the skills required of coalition members under different strategic conditions. Organisational adaptation is, the theory asserts, 'a complex and dynamic process and it requires a cycle of adjustment focussing on three major issues, entrepreneurial engineering and administrative', when confronted with four organisational strategies, 'defenders', 'prospectors', 'analysers' and 'reactors'. In this theory, the authors say that discussion of specific managerial skills is limited to identification of the functional skills of the most powerful members of the dominant coalition.

Finally, 'Porters Generic Strategies' are based on analysis of the firms' strategic advantage and strategic target. There are three generic strategies, 'overall cost leadership', 'differentiation' and 'focus'. This model alludes to the strategy/manager match but the specific managerial skills and behaviours associated with the job requirements are not discussed.

In conclusion, the authors evaluate the models, asserting that consideration of the chosen strategies is important, since job requirements are determined from it. They say that the actual meaning of strategy is often taken for granted without any analysis of the actual activities involved. The acceptance of product life

cycle in strategic choice 'ignores some major shortcoming' and the difference between stages is not always readily identifiable, and the relationship with strategies is not clearly established. The duration of the cycle can vary and not all industries follow the same pattern, since the shape of the growth curve can be influenced by management through product innovation and repositioning. There is also the question as to which strategic activities recommended by the choice models are empirically supported, since it is unclear as to which strategic choice models are most critical to organisational performance. The authors maintain that few of the strategy/manager matching models actually translate strategy into specific job requirements, and in the identification of important managerial characteristics, more attention is given to personality rather than to skills and behaviours. There is also a certain failure to relate personal attributes to skills or behaviours, and while leader traits are important, they 'do not always capture the crux of the leadership situation'. Leader behaviour and styles are multidimensional, but managers are not infinitely flexible, depending on a few styles or behaviours, taking this into consideration, situational conditions and variables in leadership contingencies must be clearly identified, and theoretically linked and measured with an acceptable degree of reliability and validity. There has also been a concentration on the naming of prototypes and archetypes at the expense of dealing with skills and behaviours associated with each. Other factors such as organisational goals, power structures and systems must also be considered.

The process of matching managers to strategies revolves around the evaluation and identification of 'key job requirements and managerial skills and behaviours along with more global organisational contingencies', as well as concern with the acquisition and use of the key managerial skills needed for successful performance. The authors mention that Katz identifies 'technical skills', 'human skills' and 'conceptual skills', while Mintzberg identifies 'interpersonal roles', 'informational roles' and 'decisional roles', whilst Stewart emphasises 'demands', 'constraints' and 'choices' and Kotter maintains that 'achieving effectiveness involves matching relationships, responsibilities and demands with key personal characteristics'

Ken G. Smith, Terence R. Mitchell and Charles E. Summer (1985) discuss top management priorities in different stages of the organisational life cycle. There has been, they say, a change in the criteria of effectiveness, with difficulties in determining management intentions and multiple levels of abstraction. Events reveal priorities, and an important consideration is how managers pay attention to, weigh and use information. Technical efficiency, organisational coordination and political support may be the managerial priorities at stages of inception, high growth and maturity, respectively. Technical efficiency to improve short term performance and maintain support, organisational coordination during growth resulting in complexity and political support as rates of growth slow. Caution must be exercised, the authors say, in making prescriptions, with due regard being given to the ease with which change can be made. Finally, two important questions are as to which intentions lead to particular organisational outcomes and the extent to which the outcomes are good for the organisation.

Ellen Earle Chaffee (1985) discusses three models of strategy in the context of lack of debate over 'the nature of the anchoring concept of strategy', and the fact that it is multidimensional and situational and will vary by industry. Consensus on a definition is difficult, and three models have emerged. There are however, areas of agreement among the models, on the inseparability of the organisation and its environment, on the fact that strategy remains unstructured due to the novelties of change, that it includes both the actions taken and the processes of their implementation, that strategy is either intended, emerged or realised, and that these three differ, and finally that the making of strategy involves conceptual and analytical exercises.

Firstly, the 'linear strategy model'. This model focuses on planning, and on the 'integrated decisions, actions or plans to achieve viable organisational goals'. Strategy is seen as having three components 'strategic planning' 'strategy formulation' and 'strategy implementation'. Top managers, the model asserts, have considerable capacity to change their organisations, and they tend to go through a 'prototypical, rational decision making process'. Profit and productivity are the measures of effectiveness and tight coupling is needed to maximise these, the environment is viewed as predictable and the organisation is seen as well insulated from it. The model assumes that firstly, there are organisational goals and secondly, that their achievement is the most important outcome of strategy. Interest in this theory waned, the author says, in the 1970s when it was realised that the strategic process was a lot more complicated than had been assumed.

Secondly, the 'adaptive strategy model' involves an assessment of the internal and external conditions of the organisation, and recognises the adjustment of the organisation and environment to 'create opportunities or risks, alignment and organisational capabilities and resources'. The monitoring and making of changes is viewed as a simultaneous process and there is no perceived time lag in planning. The model does not deal emphatically with decisions about goals, but 'focuses the managers' attention on the means', the goal being coalignment of the organisation and its environment. The model's definition of strategic behaviours includes 'subtle changes in style, marketing and quality', and little importance is given to planning which is viewed as less centralised among top management and more multifaceted and less integrated. The boundary between the organisation and the environment is viewed as highly permeable, and thus it is a major focus of attention, with actions being 'responsive to the sum of environmental pressures'. The environment is dynamic and less predictable under the 'evolutionary, biological model' and the organisation changes with its environment, not just deals with it, and there are more variables and propensity for change.

Finally, there is the 'interpretive strategy model', which 'parallels recent interest in corporate culture and symbolic management'. It is based on a 'social contract view' of the organisation, which is seen as a collection of corporate agreements entered into by free will. The existence of the organisation depends on its ability to 'attract enough individuals to cooperate in mutually beneficial exchange'. Reality is viewed

as 'socially constructed' and through a process of social interchange, perceptions are modified and reinforced according to their congruence with the perceptions of other people. Strategy is defined as 'orienting frames of reference that allow the organisation and its environment to be understood by stakeholders', and these stakeholders are motivated to believe and act in ways expected to benefit the organisation. Strategy is the 'emerging product of the partial resolution of environmental and intraorganisational dilemmas', and there is an emphasis on the management of meaning and symbol construction, and on legitimacy rather than on profit. The model sees a situation of calculated behaviour in unprogrammed situations, with organisational reality being viewed as incoherent. Strategy is an organisation wide activity, and motivation rather than information is critical in achieving strategic behaviour. The creation of strategy is also heavily dependent on symbols and norms, and there is an orientation in the model towards managerial perceptions, conflict and consensus and the importance of language. As in the linear model, there is emphasis on dealing with the environment through symbolic actions and communication, it is an open system, and leaders shape attitudes towards the organisation but not 'physical changes in outputs', and seek to increase credibility. Finally the author says that attitudinal and cognitive complexity rather than structural complexity is emphasised and there will, she says, be an eventual emphasis on the assessment of each situations' level of complexity for decision making.

Andrew Kakabadse examines the generation of strategies that work. The study of executives, he says, has tended to focus on objective analysis and facts rather than on interpersonal relationships, and there is a need for the development of instruments 'to identify and measure effective team performance at board level'. The aim is a comprehensive management development programme, incorporating the evaluation of the personality, aptitudes and competencies of successful directors to predict early potential. Also important is the establishment of means of measuring and assessing the quality of decision making and the effectiveness of decision implementation and how the behaviour of team members contributes towards this, in terms of the responses of other groups towards the new mission. A 'personal values profile instrument' would also be considered useful.

A future survey of the performance of senior managers would involve an assessment of shared or unshared values, the ability to respond to change, the ability to develop change in the levels below and the awareness of the implementation process during change. Also under investigation will be the manner of communication and information disclosure, with values being considered the key to success. The locus of control must also be investigated, that is the extent to which the individual believes that there is a connection between their efforts and the success of their organisation, as opposed to luck or politics. Self esteem is also an important concept, as to how the individual perceives himself in the organisational context, along with tolerance of ambiguity and flexibility. Social judgment, social perceptions and interpersonal sensitivity should also be investigated, as should risk taking, and attitudes to job security and mobility.

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