The Relationships between Personal Values, Leadership Behaviour and Team Functioning

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by

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Abstract

This research attends to the re-emergence of values as important phenomena in organisational leadership and business team life (Lord & Brown, 2004). It has a particular focus on the influence of personal values on the collective team leadership perceived and evaluated by business team members. The study utilises the generic modelling framework provided in the Hackman and Morris (1975) Group Interaction Process model and theoretical parallels with House & Mitchell's (1974) Path-Goal model of situational leadership behaviour. These models are employed to delineate the exploration of the key variable relationships namely; team member personal values, team member perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour; and team member perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. In doing so, the investigation follows a recommendation by several authors to restrict the number and type of variables in order to promote clarity of understanding surrounding the interplay of potentially related concepts, constructs and measures. This is especially important when these relationships are evaluated in a study of business team members, as opposed to original research non-business populations. The study is based on data collected from 191 business team members, drawn from a variety of teams in mainly public sector organisations, operating for the most part in New Zealand and the United Kingdom. The measures employed were selected on the basis of possible theoretical associations discovered in the literature and because of their appropriateness for the demographic diversity of the subject population sample. The scales are established individual and team unit of analysis instruments, not used before with business team members. The former personal values questionnaire is the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) and the latter scale the Team Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ), which includes measures of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and two team outcomes: perceived team effectiveness and perceived satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Prior research led to the development of four research questions and related hypotheses. The research questions, in order of their investigation were:

Research Question One: Based on the subject population sample and original research, are the selected personal values, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcome measures reliable and valid (construct and convergent validity, Churchill, 1979)?

Research Question Two: Are there any theoretical associations between specific personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour concepts and constructs?

Research Question Three: In the context of real business teams, what relationships exist between team members' personal values and their perceptions of: leadership 'by the team' behaviour, team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities?

Research Question Four: Are demographic differences (gender, four generations and ethnic culture – United Kingdom/New Zealand), reflected in specific team members' personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour?

Results from Factor Analyses and Cronbach's Alpha support the measurement qualities of the instruments, employed alone or in combination, for business team leadership research, albeit with recommendations for improvement in conceptual and construct clarity. New six factor models for both the TMLQ and the SVS are proposed, with reported increases in scale reliabilities when compared to the original measures. Such adjustments have facilitated and clarified the identification of theoretical associates between selected personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour concepts, constructs and measures for use in future assessments of their empirical linkages. In respect of relationships between team members' personal values and their perceptions of: leadership 'by the team' behaviour, team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities; correlation analysis indicates support for different effects of the degree of alignment on the two latter team outcome measures, dependent on the pairings of and gap between specific personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour construct perceptions. Subsequent regression analysis established the relative importance of particular types of alignment between personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour on team

outcome measures. This type of alignment, i.e. between values and team leadership behaviour, has import beyond organisational rhetoric concerning values alignment between leaders and followers. Finally, some demographic differences were found in scores on the personal values and leadership 'by the team' measures, using t-tests and ANOVA. Bearing in mind the study's limitations, the results have important ramifications for how business teams might uncover and then consider the alignment and non-alignment effects of different business team member personal values on perceptions of team functioning. In addition, findings indicate that any related team process and output variables included and assessed in team leadership or team interaction process models, may be influenced by the personal values that team members' hold. Some wider implications are drawn for future research concerning leadership 'by the team', business team functioning and any form of organisational evaluation that is based on behavioural perceptions focused through the lens of diverse personal values.

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Contents

Appendices

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1. Purpose, Aims and Scope of the Research

> Have they made thee ruler? be not lifted up: be among them as one of them. Have care of them, and so sit down, and when thou hast acquitted thyself of all thy charge, take thy place: That thou mayst rejoice for them, and receive a crown as an ornament of grace, and get the honour of the contribution.
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> *Ecclesiasticus 32: 1-3* (*The Holy Bible*, Douay-Rheims version, Baltimore: John Murphy, 1899)

This chapter introduces the core literature and provides an overview of the research from academic contribution, personal interest and business perspectives; together with the research approach - including the study focus, selected unit of analysis, generic modelling framework and research domain.

1.1 Introduction to the Literature and Research Contribution

Around the world and across sectors organisational values are expressed through vision statements. The stated aim is to align or re-align organisational culture with the business environment in which it operates thereby improving organisational performance, see for example the 'strategic alignment' notion of Chorn (1991). The Hay Group (1999) conducted a survey of the most admired companies (who do a better job of attracting and retaining talent) and some of their peers. When asked about their approach to leadership, a significant number confirmed the importance of aligning the behaviour of leaders with the values and culture of the organisation. However, in this sense 'aligned' values may be deleterious if an organisation's environment goalposts suddenly change (Denison, 1990), or they could produce 'strategic myopia' (Lorsch, 1986), by placing an emotional shield around the cognitive and intuitive processes of strategic thinking and business positioning, thereby limiting business responsiveness (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). To break through this dilemma and to support on-going adaptability, Bass and Avolio (1993) recommend a transformational culture based on 'transformational leadership'. In this

vein Kotter & Heskett's (1992: p.56) 'adaptive culture' perspective contains a view that, " holding on to an adaptive culture requires being both inflexible with regard to 'core adaptive' values and yet flexible with regard to most practises and 'other' values", although the identification and differential impact of 'core adaptive' and 'other' values does not seem to have been tested empirically. Hambrick & Mason (1984), in their 'Upper Echelon' theory, argue that strategic action is a reflection of the values and cognitive styles of top management. Along with Prahalad & Bettis (1986) they argue that a manager's world-view, built from his or her cognitive base and values, acts as a perceptual filter used to select strategic choices and subsequently becomes the dominant logic justifying the decisions made.

It appears then that leaders are obliged as part of their roles, to generate and express these organisational values, preferably with the input of 'followers'. Indeed, Drucker (1998) writes that in the knowledge worker age employees now have to be managed as associates and partners where all parties are equal. Leaders therefore have to persuade rather than direct and the management of people is becoming a marketing exercise beginning with the questions, " what does the other party want….what are its values? ". From a followers' national culture perspective, Hofstede (1980 a) demonstrated that in a culture where individualist values prevail the expectation of the leader would be that they exert direct pressure towards a goal. This is in contrast to collectivist values where reciprocal influence processes would be anticipated and valued. However, as potential partners in an organisation's values identification and adoption exercise, leaders and followers may adhere to very different personal values (Joynt & Morton, 1999). Organisational values contained within an enterprise's vision statement are usually described in business language terms, e.g. 'customer focussed' and are normally (although less commonly as more vision statements are produced, see Kabanoff & Holt, 1996) peculiar to the organisation that defined them. Personal values, in stark contrast to organisational values, seem to be less frequently talked about or acknowledged in organisational life, except as implicit connectors to the required organisational values specified in selection and development events (Hogan & Hogan 1996). On this very question Burgoyne (1989), in a critique of the management competency movement and the assessment-development process within which competencies are employed, called for new evaluation techniques that take

more account of the particular situations, values and beliefs that exist in an organisation. Personal values tend to describe an individual's preference for a particular type of behaviour and action (Posner & Schmidt, 1994), e.g. 'altruistic' and are components of values sets believed to be representative of people belonging to specific contexts, or in general. Indeed, this may account for some of the values commonality in organisational vision statements as personal values spill over into this domain. For an example of a common personal values set used in business for career exploration purposes see the 'Motives, Values and Preferences Indicator', Hogan & Hogan (1996) and 'Career Anchors' (Schein, 1990); in marketing the 'Rokeach Values Survey', Rokeach (1973); at the assumptions level of humankind see Schein's (1992) adaptation of Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) culture dimensions and Gibb-Dyer's (1985) culture assumptions taxonomy; for leaders in general, the leader beliefs typology of Hodgkinson (1983); and for a universal measure of values (Schwartz, 1994). Indeed, one product of this study could be the identification of overlap amongst some of the above and other authors' values classifications, that can then be used to inform values construct parsimony and thereby facilitate more incisive business research.

In terms of accomplishing the values assimilation task, in both the business and academic literature assumptions and confusion surrounds the leader's likely influence on the people, actions and entities that surround him/her. Some writers (Donaldson & Lorsch, 1983; Hiley, 1987; Hofstede, Neuijen et al., 1990; Koslowski et al., 1996; Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999; Posner, 1992; Kabanoff et al., 1995) suggest that a leader needs clearly defined and strongly held values that followers must share and be aligned to, if they are to navigate corporate change and turbulence together. Others (for example Denison, 1990; Lorsch, 1986) see this crusade for certainty and agreement as a set of blinkers flying in the face of diversity in peoples and business, thereby constraining the choice of adaptive responses; or as a function of an individuals stage of organisational socialisation, i.e. alignment important first, diversity required later (Pfeffer, 1985); perhaps requiring a balance of values types and flexibility within the leader (Quinn, 1988), or maybe inducing internal conflict in the same (Liedtka, 1989; whilst some suggest that the most functional strategy depends on the situation (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Quinn, 1988). On top of this, given

the likelihood of a possible clash of values inherent within organisations, (inter-personal differences in values held, including those within the leader-team member relationships and divergence between personally held values and those espoused by the organisation), much has been made in the recent business press and elsewhere, for example Zemke et al. (2000), about the mix of employee's personal values found in different generations and why leaders may want to work constructively with this diversity, if their leadership practices are to reap desired business performance outcomes. Contemporary approaches to examining leadership offer little in the way of clarification. For example, Burke (1986) in distinguishing between 'transformational leadership' (change oriented) and 'transactional leadership' (maintenance of the status quo) argues that the former leader type appreciates 'contrariness' follower behaviour whilst the latter type settles for 'conformity'. But Burke (1986) concludes that both types are required for organisational effectiveness. Kabanoff (1991a: p 433-434) highlighted this dilemma when he observed, "Leadership has a paradoxical or dualistic quality - it both glorifies inequality and the differences between the leader and the led, while at the same time it creates identification and cohesiveness between the leader and his or her followers".

Despite Burgoyne's (1989) wake up call, the selection and development of leaders has continued to concentrate heavily on the use of cognitive-behavioural competencies to provide criterion frameworks for defining effective leadership and team performance; although the Boyatzis (1982) and McClelland (1973) competency models do allow for the inclusion of values as part of 'Self-Concepts', sitting just below the conscious waterline in the latter authors 'Iceberg Model of Competencies'. More recently interest in values has potentially been augmented by the consideration of emotional intelligence in leaders (Goleman, 1998 and Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000 a) where tuning in to one's own and significant others personal sensitivities (which implicitly may include personal values) is deemed to be a vital component of effective leadership. Before its implicit inclusion in the construct of emotional intelligence very little attention had been paid to the direct impact that personal as opposed to organisational work values can have in the quest for organisation, leader and team effectiveness from either the leaders' or the followers' perspective. For example, in the 'Dimensions of Board Effectiveness' questionnaire by Dulewicz, Macmillan & Herbert (1995),

'values fit' is just one of 45 questions used for evaluation, even though values are mentioned in two out of seven key tasks of Directors (Dulewicz, 1999). Moreover, one core value 'integrity' came top, or second from top, of the required competency rankings for all directors (chairman, chief executive/managing director, executive director and non-executive director), in both UK domestic and international companies (Dulewicz and Gay, 1997). The study of team effectiveness shares a similar history with regard to the exclusion of personal values as a key factor, with the notable exception of Ghoshal & Bartlett (1995) and Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars (1995). Higgs (1996), in reviewing the literature on teams and team working, identified some 138 factors underpinning effective team performance that he grouped under the Hackman & Morris (1975) model. Of these only two are related to values, 'respect and value differences' and 'value systems', whilst there is no explicit mention of personal values in the Hackman & Morris (1975) classification.

To date the values research has focussed on establishing links between some nebulous multi-faceted concepts, i.e. organisation strategy (Schmidt & Posner, 1982; Schneider, 1987; Quinn, 1988; Burke & Litwin, 1989; Chorn, 1991; Gibson, 1995; Hamada, 1995; De Geus, 1997; Hermes & Kempen, 1998; London & Sessa, 1999); and organisational culture (Nadler & Tushman, 1990; Lave & Weniger, 1991; Schein, 1992; Hammer & Champy, 1993; Rowsell & Berry, 1993; Louis, 1983; Payne, 1991; Cartwright and Cooper, 1990, 1993; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Kabanoff et al., 1995; Bass, 1998 b; Liedtka, 1996; De Geus, 2001). Meanwhile, studies involving values in evaluations of leader effectiveness, with the (top) leader/s often selected as the focal point for analysis (Bass & Avolio, 1990 a; Lord & Maher, 1991; Schein, 1992; O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994; Drucker, 1998; Pratch & Jacobowitz, 1998; Dulewicz, 1999; Parry, 1999; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000 b; Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993); and team effectiveness (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1995; Ray & Bronstein, 1995; Hogan & Holland, 2000; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Schein, 1990, Kabanoff, 1991; Enz & Schwenk, 1989; Mullen & Cooper, 1994) have not produced any consistent findings. The various definitions and loci of values including global, national, societal, organisational, work, and personal have also muddled this enterprise, as demonstrated in the values matrix presented by Joynt & Morton (1999). For example, Hofstede

(1994) pointed out that national cultural values are important to leadership behaviour because leadership is a complement to sub-ordinateship and to be effective leaders need to be able to fulfil the expectations placed on them by followers, within a particular cultural context. Indeed the tendency of treating leadership as a culture-independent characteristic has been labelled by Lawrence (1994) as ethnocentrism and managerial universalism, based on an erroneous assumption that theories developed in one culture have global validity. Research has also discovered that personal values held by employees representing different demographics, for example generations - Cox & Parkinson (1999), gender - Marshall (1993) and national cultures – Brodbeck et al. (2000), may well differ from a leaders' personally held set and/or the list adopted by an organisation. Higgs (1995), suggested in relation to developing international managers' team-working, that equal attention should be given to the 'how' as well as the 'what' of team working. His 'how' framework includes, understanding cultural personal style differences, the implications of this variety for team functioning and creating a strategy for effectively managing this diversity. Some researches have, however, demonstrated that work values can influence personal and team functioning. For instance, Posner (1992) found that they enhanced people's attitudes towards their jobs, Sheridan (1992) saw them impact on the level of organisational commitment, Enz & Schwenk (1989) recorded a possible link between values congruency and operating unit performance and Ashkanasy & O'Connor (1997) found that leader-member exchange (LMX) quality was higher when leaders and followers shared particular values. Of course in practice, 'social influence' processes such as leadership, within which personal values may be influential phenomena, occur in teams and groups throughout any organisational or societal structure, Parry (1998, 1999) and Kotter (1988). This is so because we know from our own experience that work and particularly those who have direct influence over us at work (and even the absence of employment and employment relationships) are such dominant and consuming forces within our lives. Past research has made academics acutely aware of this. For example, Hogan, Curphy & Hogan (1994) note that organisational climate studies from the mid-1950's to the present routinely show that 60%-75% of employees in any organisation, irrespective of industry, sector, level or occupational group report that the worst and most stressful aspect of their job is their immediate boss. On a more positive note can such relationships, built upon personal

values, produce the kind of transformational force necessary for effective team leadership in a turbulent and chaotic business world? Burns, (1996) and Bass, (1998 a,b) argue that all team members, including the leader of the team, contribute towards transformational leadership, that includes the development of culture change capability. Moreover for practical business reasons Higgs (2002, p.5) noted, "As investors now look at an organisation's effectiveness in this (implementing organisational change) arena, there is a driving need for leadership behaviours which will result in effective change implementation". He refers to Conner (1999), who suggests that success may well require leadership behaviours that focus on building the organisation's capability, to constantly identify the need for and implementation of change. The construct of 'transformational leadership' clearly encompasses such behaviours, although how these may be transmitted within the team process to predict, prepare and enact change remains unclear.

In summary, there appears to be a continuing need to explore the nature of values transmission within business life and in particular a requirement to evaluate the part that personal values play in organisational leadership, team behaviour and its outcomes. The research contribution presented here intends to address previous authors concerns (spanning 30 years, 1972-2002), e.g. Braun, (1972), West & Slater, (1995), Higgs, (1999 a), and Hall, (2002) about the limited integrated empirical work within these connected bodies of knowledge. In past studies, a specific research limitation has been the enunciation and control of connected organisational leadership and team process levels of analysis, concepts and variables. For example, the Burke - Litwin model (1989) posits that the more volatile an organisation's environment the greater the need would be for transformational leadership, where the organisational culture is influenced by a number of factors including leadership, influence of the wider environment, individual needs and values, mission and vision and climate. Therefore, a main aim of the research is to construct a model that limits the scope of the impacting variables. This is achieved by grounding the debate and study in an area that truly matters for most employees, the nature of the interaction within real work teams and the effect that similarities and differences in personal values may have on perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes. After all, the inclusion of the term personal values in 'transformational leadership' research

indicates there is already a strong case for investigating their specific effects in this context, (Argyris, 1985; Bass, 1985, 1998 b; Mann & Sims, 1987; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Simpson & Beeby, 1993; Greenleaf, 1996; Bandura, 1991; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Avolio, 1999; Burns, 1996; Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung, 2001; Tesluck, Zaccaro, Marks & Mathieu, 1997; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; DeGroot, Kiker & Cross, 2000; Parry & Proctor, 2000; Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin, 2001). Almost thirty years ago Stogdill (1974) wondered how leader personality, values and behaviour interact with followers personality, values and behaviour? This question, which relates to the heart of this study, has been largely overlooked to date. Rosenbach & Taylor (1993) put forward a strong case for this particular line of enquiry. They suggest that to understand leadership one must understand its essential nature, i.e. the process of leaders and followers engaging in reciprocal influence to achieve a shared purpose. Leadership, they maintain, is a means to the empowerment of followers and to study leadership apart from the complex interactions leaders have with followers is to miss the most important aspect of leadership. The research reported here is thus positioned within the confines of direct relationships between 'nearby' leaders and their team members as described by Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2001), after Shamir (1995). Investigations here may throw some light on the importance of personal values in team working in general and for the type of teamwork construed by the 'transformational leadership' school (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1990 a,b,c), a concept extended to include a leadership 'by the team' construct called team 'transformational leadership' (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Given the above, the realm of leader-follower interaction as a component of team leadership should provide fertile territory for focused research concerning the influence of personal values in business team life.

To date, the related literature simultaneously takes us somewhere and nowhere. Somewhere, in the sense that public commentators and academics have devoted considerable energy through both anecdotal commentary and academic research in debating the values concept and it's application to organisational, personal and public life, with the perceived benefits of values 'alignment' as the main clarion call. Nowhere, in the sense that there is a dearth of empirical evidence that values per se

and in particular leader and follower personal values, either make a specific and tangible difference in some way or have particular and noticeable consequences (intentional and unintentional) for the functioning of organisations, teams and the people involved with them. One exception to this is a rare longitudinal study conducted by researchers at Shell lead by De Geus (1997). Researchers studied long-lived companies and identified a connection between values (expressed at the corporate level), identity and business longevity. According to De Geus (1997) a company has a collective sense of who does and does not belong and who is prepared to live with the company's set of values. In De Geus's mind values compatibility and consonance is a given, members must share the set of institutional values that rest at the core of the company's persona. However, given that these companies are becoming rare, present business environment conditions may require new approaches to uncovering and understanding these values connections within teams. Indeed the importance of effective teams throughout an organisation is growing as decision-making becomes more complex (Lorsch, 1989). A view is also emerging that for organisational change programmes to bear fruit a much stronger focus is required on employee behaviour change that has built in flexibility to respond to shifting organisational circumstances and working practices (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993 and Drucker, 1998). The question is, do particular personal values have the potential to either facilitate (because they are more transformational in nature) or hinder (because they value the status quo) this adaptability?

1.2 Personal Motivation for this research

As a practitioner in the business consultancy community who has lived and worked in two different countries (United Kingdom and New Zealand) I have become acutely aware of the very different world and work views held by people, as was Hofstede (1980 b, 1994). As an observer of everyday local and world events I am especially drawn to the impacts that similarity and difference have on sectors of society. Leader, employee and organisational identities and reputations also appear inextricably bound up in this ever-changing milieu (Brodbeck et al. 2000; Hogan, 2002). Below are two recent headline comments and analysis from the United Kingdom business press that caught my attention, reflecting public interest in values and their potential impact.

"A recent Industrial Society survey found that 82% of UK professionals would not work for an organisation whose values they did not believe in" (Levene, 2001).

"In this analysis, the US constellation of values – individualist, universalist (believing in the one right way), focused, venerating achievement, inner-directed (believing in the power of inner purpose), and short-termist – is just one of many alternatives", Caulkin (2001), making an observation from Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars latest book, 'Building Cross-Cultural Competence'

At the level of the nation state Quinn (2001) suggests that values can and should guide the choice of metrics (and the resulting resource investment decisions) instigated for tracking the successful implementation of a nations strategy, in this case measures of New Zealand quality of life, economic growth and protected environment. On a far more serious note, protests and disturbances at recent meetings of the World Trade Organisation and G8 members may have signalled fundamental disagreements based on different socio-economic values, the likely consequences of which were surfaced in advance through the writings of Sennett (1998), Gray (1998), Hertz (2001) and Rugman (2000). As demonstrated above this apparent variability in values and deviation from shared values has the potential to create considerable dissonance, potentially reducing cultural shaping effectiveness and perhaps the functioning of leaders with followers in teams, whole organisations and nation states. Indeed, Hofstede (1994) noted that the "collective programming" of the mind in a country through its unique cultural values (Hofstede, 1980 b) affects everyone, including presumably those at work.

Throughout my time as an adviser to chief executives and senior managers I have also become acutely aware of the cult of the individual organisational leader as witnessed by the recent outpouring of grievance associated with the notion of 'fat cat' salaries for directors. In parallel, I have worked with senior executives who have attempted to build other leaders and a leadership team as their first priority, in the sense that they see leadership as a collective responsibility. In my work with leadership teams and in senior executive selection I have noticed that personal values have a considerable impact on the assessment of organisational culture fit and the likely leadership

behaviour demonstrated by either a designated leader or a leadership team. Indeed Ray & Bronstein (1995) point out that the appropriateness of team-working as a means to improving organisations is to a large extent dependent on the culture of the organisation and it's readiness to assimilate the notion of team. Belief in the value of group effort and contribution was also identified by Holt (1987) as one of the major performance drivers for teams. As a coach and mentor to senior managers one of the commonest leadership issues presented relates to differences in the values held by individuals representing a variety of demographics, which seems to rear its head most noticeably during times of organisational change. After all, as Hogan & Holland (2000) note, values directly express our identity, the core of our unique psychology. Values reveal who we are, what we aspire to be, and what we can't abide at the deepest level of our personal consciousness. When people disagree with or challenge our values, they challenge our very identity and sense of self worth.

On a personal note, as a result of completing my DBA Competency Development Plan (CDP), I re-discovered that I do not fit well as a permanent feature in a strongly socialised and long tenured 'command and control' corporate structure. Feedback from colleagues supports my analysis. Interestingly enough, my results on 'Career Anchors – discovering your real values' (Schein, 1990), indicates a strong preference for work that allows influencing the organisation to embody my own values, combined with a life of specialisation, respect by the business of the need for a balanced work/life style and an inclination for independence and autonomy. One of my CDP targets was developing my knowledge transfer of the topic of leadership. Whilst pursuing this through tutoring on a senior executive leadership programme I came across the notion of transformational leadership and used these principles to finesse the design of leadership learning programmes. I subsequently discovered a measure, the Team Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ), Bass & Avolio (2001), which had never been used in business leadership consultancy or research, even though it offered considerable promise as a team leadership development tool and research instrument. The instrument's constructs captured my interest in collective team leadership within change contexts and also appeared to have relevance to the exploration of personal values difference effects amongst team members. Through my network of contacts with senior executives I had an ideal opportunity to

access sufficient team members to embark on my DBA research, with the intention of subsequently producing a leadership 'by the team' diagnostic and development tool that factors in the likely impact of team member personal values differences on perceptions of collective team leadership behaviour and team functioning.

1.3 The Nature of the Business Problem

As evidenced above, much has been written about the connections between organisation, leader and team effectiveness, for example the Burke-Litwin model (1989). Additionally, many authors have speculated on the possible effects of various manifestations of culture and values on our everyday functioning as workers and members of society (Schein, 1992; Kabanoff et al. 1995; Hogan & Holland, 2000). This rumination is conducted in a world that is recognisable only by the constant of change in working and living environments, the diversity of people we interact with and the goals we work towards in each of our personal, social and organisational arenas. The problem of pinning down the business effects flowing from this variability in culture and accompanying values is likely to be exacerbated as organisations and their members experience greater and more rapid change. An outcome of this is ever increasing cultural diversity at both individual, team, organisational and national levels through globalisation, acquisitions, mergers, restructures and the career movement of people around the world and across different patterns of employment relationships. Rousseau (1995) coined the term 'psychological contract' to describe the negotiation of employer-employee expectations that perhaps should include an acknowledgement of personal values differences.

The concepts personal values, leadership 'by the team' and specific team outcomes (such as team effectiveness/satisfaction), have received much individual attention, but empirical studies evaluating them as related phenomena are rare, particularly in business life, even though there are examples of theoretical propositions (Burke-Litwin, 1989). Indeed West (2000, p. 275) states, "…current approaches to understanding teams ignore fundamental human motivations (such as the need for control and the need to belong), and therefore provide inadequate explanations of the

emotional responses of people who work in teams". He concludes by highlighting the need to identify how basic psychological processes at individual and group levels, influence behaviour and team outcomes. Personal values are possibly key contenders. Teams are being increasingly seen as the foundation elements of organisational functioning, Katzenbach & Smith (1993). In relation to organisational effectiveness and top teams, Senge (1990) sees the distinctive competitive dimension of learning as a natural consequence of a team's shared vision. There is also a growing movement that views leadership as primarily a social influence process between leader and followers (e.g. Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994 and Parry, 1998). Bate (1994, p.242) meanwhile expresses the need to "depersonalise and decentre the leadership concept, so that we begin to perceive leadership as a co-operative or collective enterprise", whilst Ilgen, Major, Hollenbeck & Sego (1993) suggest that more attention should be paid to examining leadership processes at the team level. For example, in terms of team outcomes, George (1996) suggests that if all or most team members feel positive at work (the team has a 'high positive affective tone') then their cognitive flexibility will be amplified as a result of these social influence processes, leading to shared and flexible mental models, and perhaps greater creativity. In this regard, Stevens & Campion (1994) identify one critical social influence process as a team member's collaborative problem-solving skills, in turn dependent on the skill to communicate openly and supportively, thereby sending messages to other team members that are behaviour-oriented, congruent and validating. Moreover, West (2000) argues that if group processes are sufficiently integrated in terms of shared objectives, high levels of participation and leadership that enables innovation, then creativity and innovation implementation will occur.

The study described in this thesis utilises the thoughts of Bass & Stodgill (1981) and Schein (1992) who viewed organisational culture and leadership as a reciprocal process, with the former influencing leader behaviour, whilst leaders in return seek to shape culture to fit their own needs. Probably some of the most powerful and underplayed team culture levers are personal values (Burke & Litwin, 1989). After all Schwartz (1994, 1992) and Schwartz & Bilsky (1990, 1987) argue that personal values represent, in the form of conscious goals, responses to the needs of individuals, requisites of coordinated social interaction and requirements for the smooth

functioning and survival of groups. Along the same lines Hatch (1993) and Schein (1992) represent the nature of values creation as interactive between the element layers (moving through the unconscious to the expressed and visible and back again in a mutually reinforcing loop, as long as they are believed to be valid for success) and emphasise the centrality of the leader as the values architect and conduit. In real life a leader is of course usually held responsible (although often only implicitly) for ensuring that operating values (whether held by the organisation, individuals or groups) are accessed and made transparent for team members, are functional given the organisations purpose and goals, and lived up to once they have been made explicit. However, although the leader may occupy a central role in relation to any team's involvement in continuous organisational change, Liedtka (1996, 1989), speaking of strategy, argued that achieving on-going business adaptability requires the creation of a set of 'meta-capabilities'. 'Meta-capabilities' are construed as bundles of skills and knowledge that underlie the process of capability building. The argument put forward is that only by coupling these with a particular set of business-specific capabilities can all three conditions for competitive advantage (value creation, inimitability and adaptability) be satisfied. Furthermore, because these meta-capabilities are process driven they defy piecemeal implementation and cannot be grafted, one behaviour at a time, onto existing ways of thinking and behaving. Rather they rely on a larger context, or "communities of practice" (Lave & Weniger, 1991), in which core values and processes align in self-sustaining and mutually supportive ways. Participants within this community share understandings about what they are doing and what that means for their lives and their community. As a result they become united in both action and in the meaning that that action has, both for themselves and the collective. Agreement around the how of process and the why of purpose is the foundation of their shared meaning.

Organisational culture in this sense has been described by Payne (1991) as the pattern of all those arrangements, material or behavioural, which have been adopted by a society (corporation, group, team) as the traditional ways of solving the problems of it's members; culture includes all institutionalised ways and the implicit cultural beliefs, norms, values and premises which underlie and govern behaviour. Similarly, Kluckhohn (1951, p.86) using a consensus of anthropological definitions (reflected in

a remarkably similar conceptualisation by Schein, 1992) wrote, “Culture consists of patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinct achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values”. Management of meaning is then a continuous process whereby leaders within an organization, through words and deeds, communicate an "integrating ethos" (Selznick, 1957) in order to focus energy towards collective identity and joint purpose. The ethos so transmitted must embody the interests of numerous organisational sub-units, for it will be accepted only in so far as it reflects the multi-coloured "mosaic of organizational realities" (Morgan, 1986). However, despite these views, there appears to be limited progress in understanding the importance of values in leadership and organisational development activities. For example, in terms of the focus of leadership development institutions, values difference may impact directly on the evaluation of students on business courses, with faculty members rating more highly those participants whose values profiles were similar to their own, Hofstede (1978). This appears to be a one off instance of paying attention to developing personal values in leaders, a responsibility that business schools seem to ignore, certainly in New Zealand and Australia and perhaps elsewhere (Milton-Smith, 1997). Milton-Smith (1997) argues that one of the reasons for this is that although North Americans, Antipodeans and Europeans speak in general terms about ethical issues and values in public, they tend to avoid in-depth discussion possibly because they lack the skills of what he calls ‘personal micro-issues’ or expressing self (which could be related to national cultural differences in levels of ‘emotional intelligence’). Milton-Smith (1997) noted that a continuing cause for concern is the lack of values - related leadership evidenced through identifying and addressing complex ethical dilemmas, particularly in the areas of conflict of interest and disclosure. While several ethic centres and prominent individual ethicists have introduced innovative programs and given ethical issues greater prominence in the media, narrow vocationalism still takes precedence over personal values in the business and management curriculum. Despite the intensity of some media debate there is also evidence that lip service is being paid to the practical business application of notions of diversity. This seems curious for the borderless business order and shifting workforce demographics of the new

millennium. For example, in New Zealand an Equal Opportunities Trust (EOT) survey by Smith (2000) found that employers, closely followed by recruitment consultants, were the most likely to discriminate on the basis of gender, age difference, and ethnic culture. This perhaps would not matter to business, except the EOT November 1999 report cited a Standard and Poor study of 500 companies that found companies rated in the bottom 100 for equal opportunity had an average 'return of investment' of 8%, whilst for those in the top 100 it was 18%. The EOT maintains that diversity works for companies in two ways, "Diversity matters to employers for two reasons: it helps recruit talented employees; it attracts and retains customers". They also relay, with irony, that the 45 year old plus worker is being left to wither, whilst customer demand for service from this generation (who may share common personal values with them) is expected to grow because of the ageing population.

This neglect seems counter intuitive for corporations because as MacMillan (2001) reports, Charles Fombrun of New York University and Harris Interactive have created what they call a corporate "Reputation Quotient". This is being used as the main measurement alternative to Fortune-type rankings in the USA, Australia, South Africa and is soon to be introduced to Europe (in an 11 country business school collaborative project, including Henley Management College). Values probably underpin four of what could be seen as transformational attributes making up the quotient, namely "Workplace Environment", "Vision and Leadership", "Social Responsibility" and "Emotional Appeal", distinguished from the other two more transactional categories of "Products and Services" and "Financial Performance". Some thirty years before Drucker (1968, p.461) observed, "What is most important is that management realise that it must consider the impact of every business policy and business action on society. It has to consider whether the action is likely to promote the public good, to advance the basic beliefs of society, to contribute to its stability, strength and harmony." Kline (2001) in her book 'No Logo', has also put the spotlight on the global reputation of organisations, as represented via their brands and the values the brands are founded upon. And, of course, the use of personal values in consumer marketing and public opinion research has a long history (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988 and Rokeach, 1968 respectively). The latter business arena is still probably the most direct use of personally held values in attempts to predict people decisions and

actions. Linking the branding idea to leader personality Hogan (1983, 1991) believes that personality must be defined from the perspective of both the actor and the observer. From the perspective of the leader as actor, it can be defined according to Hogan & Holland (2000) in terms of 'identity', described as the perception we have of who we are, what we believe we are doing and what we stand for, with our values sitting at the core of this self-expression. From the perspective of the observer, (including one supposes the followers of leaders) personality can be defined in terms of 'reputation' (in a similar fashion to how stakeholders might evaluate a company as described above). The result, suggest Hogan & Holland (2000), is statements containing trait words describing what others perceive us doing (our reputation) together with our own version of why we do it (our identity based upon our personal values). A commentary on the social construction of traits theories (typified by Hogan, 1983) by Kline (1993), exemplified leadership as a 'social influence' process, the paradigm selected by Bass & Avolio (1990 b,c) for constructing their individual leader 'transformational leadership' Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The social-constructivist argument is that consistency of character is derived from social identity, by being a product of the endorsement by significant others, of the personal qualities that the individual perceives they are exhibiting. Similarly, for Hampson (1988) traits are seen as a social product of the reciprocal interaction of three personality components; the actor, the observer and the self-observer. Here traits are expressed not only through the behaviour of the actor, but also through the social meaning the observer and the actor assign to the act and to each other's reactions. Traits reflect the mutually negotiated construction of the meaning of acts within this dynamic social interaction. Hampson (1988), like Lord & Maher (1991), considers that a person's prior beliefs about the personality of another elicit belief-congruent behaviour. He goes on to note that in the role of actor, the person's behaviour is influenced by contextually relevant personal characteristics that include orthodox traits and social norms, although people may differ in their adherence to value systems such as the 'Protestant Work Ethic' and self-reliance, as noted by Furnham (1987).

Given the above, the realm of leader-follower interaction within teams should provide fertile territory for focused research concerning the influence of varied forms of team

member's personal values on their subsequent perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes. Teams are, after all, being increasingly positioned as the building blocks of organisations (West, 2000; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993; Margerison & McCann, 1985; Belbin, 1993), whilst team working represents a more effective approach than either independent or competitive working when dealing with complex problems or the management of change (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Within this change management context the business problem to be addressed is what association might there be between team members' personal values and their perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes. The results may have important ramifications for how teams might uncover and then jointly consider the impact of team member personal values on team functioning. In addition, evaluations of team outcomes by team members may be influenced by the personal values that team members hold. Some wider implications may also be drawn for any form of organisational evaluation that is based on behavioural perceptions, focused through the lens of diverse personal values.

1.4 The Research Approach

The research focus and unit of analysis in this study is individual team members working in organisations. The philosophical tradition underlying the research method is positivism. This position was selected because the leadership and values field of enquiry requires clear operationalisation of related concepts so that they can be measured, the necessity to reduce phenomena to their simplest elements and the ability to formulate hypotheses and then test them (Easterby-Smith et al., 1997, p. 27). However, in interpreting the variable relationships some room should be left for the researcher to try and understand what is happening within the totality of each situation. Therefore although the realm of leadership (when perceived as a social influence process) and personal values is in part phenomenological, i.e. socially constructed with a focus on meanings, this has led to some category confusion in the literature and reduced the applicability to business life. As Easterby-Smith et al. (1997, p.6) note, "management requires both thought and action……thus research methods need to incorporate within them the potential for taking action…".

At the whole of organisation level of analysis relationships between leadership and values have proved difficult to study empirically, e.g. Burke-Litwin (1989), and this has led to mixed opinions, persuasions and results. At the 'near' leader and team member level of analysis and with reference to team 'transformational leadership' behaviour, a focus on the more immediate leader-follower personal values factors interaction could make a significant contribution to this academic and business dialogue. The levels of analysis issue has been grappled with extensively in organisational climate and culture research, see for example, Dansereau & Markham (1987). Indeed, the level of analysis chosen for a study may even affect the choice of solution to the problem (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994). For example, a meta-analysis by DeGroot, Kiker & Cross (2000) indicated that charismatic leadership consistently applied by a leader to all members of a group is more effective at increasing group performance than individual performance (even though it improves both). Also Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin (2001), in answering the question about whether transformational leadership is more appropriately viewed in terms of individual-level analyses or multi-level analyses, found that both levels were involved. For potential measurement purposes these studies suggest that leader and team effectiveness can be viewed as a product of the same transformational force, although individual team members, including the leader, could hold different perceptions of the presence and subsequent effect of transformational leadership within the team, depending on the more unique dyadic relationships between the leader and each team member, as demonstrated by leader-member exchange quality effects (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). As already noted, personal values may also affect these perceptions.

Katzenbach (1998) points out that the definition of what constitutes a team is variable and almost always erroneously associated with an organisation's most senior group members. He argues that these groups are rarely teams in practice, because when the persons occupying these roles meet, they tend to concentrate on addressing and defending their individual business line performance goals. The most significant factor distinguishing a real team, he suggests, is energy and purpose derived from a common level of commitment among its members, rather than the leader alone. Furthermore these real teams are more likely to be found producing 'collective work

products' throughout other strata in the organisation. Indeed Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) argue that in leadership research a clear distinction should be made between the measurement of interactions with 'distant' as opposed to 'close/near by' leaders, following the findings of Shamir (1995). Tannenbaum et al. (1992), Shamir, House & Arthur (1993) and Katzenbach & Smith (1993) noted that high performing teams develop by, amongst other things, continuously building a sense of meaning and collective purpose through visioning, identifying with the teams' common goals and sacrificing self-interests for the good of the group. Higgs (1996) in his review of team definitions identified the following common elements; common purpose, interdependence, clarity of roles and expected contribution, satisfaction and enjoyment from working together, mutual and individual accountability for results, realisation of synergistic opportunities and empowerment. However, Koslowski et al. (1996) and Avolio, Jung, Murry & Sivasubramaniam (1996) suggest that such characteristics apply to both the relationships between an effective team leader and team members and the total leadership exhibited by the whole team, including the leader. Indeed, Allinson et al. (2001) note that most leadership theory is based on the assumption that relationships between leaders and their group members are similar enough to enable leader behaviour to be thought of as an 'average' style across the group as a whole. Similarly, Anderson & West (1998) elevated the construct of team climate to the group level of analysis by establishing that team members held shared perceptions of team climate. Belbin (1993) provides a link between the term team and group, when either is viewed in the context of the leadership 'social influence process' philosophy adopted in this research. He stressed the importance of reciprocity and interaction, by viewing a team as a group, in which there are players with a reciprocal part to play and who are dynamically engaged with one another. Everard & Morris (1988) and Schein (1992) also provide relevant team definitions for this type of research, with the former describing the nature and purpose of these collectives, whilst the latter emphasises the necessary depth of the relationships. For Everard & Morris (1988), the primary task of organisational management is forming groups of individuals, building them into effective working units or teams and getting these to work together effectively in pursuing the organisation's purpose and goals, with managers as the glue that holds them together. Schein (1992), in describing the coming together of individuals in organisational

teams, uses the term 'psychological group' which consists of any number of people who: (i) interact with one another; (ii) are psychologically aware of one another; and (iii) perceive themselves to be a group. Group psychosocial traits refer to shared understandings, unconscious group processes, group cognitive style and group emotional tone (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Burns (1978) views the fundamental process of transformational leadership as making conscious what lies unconscious among followers. Given that the awareness of personal values is often a sub-conscious phenomenon (McClelland, 1973) these views are especially pertinent to the exploration of team member personal values as they associate with leadership 'by the team' behaviour and subsequent team member assessment of team outcomes. In practical terms, Wenger & Snyder (2000) provided the definitions selected by team members to identify the nature of their work unit in the business population used in this research. These are, "Work Group" defined as: Purpose (to deliver product or service), Membership (employees reporting to the same leader), Common Interest (job requirements and work-team goals), and Duration (until next re-organisation or re-assignment); "Project Team": Purpose (to deliver product or accomplish specific task), Membership (assigned by leader), Common Interest (project goals & milestones), and Duration (length of project); and "Community of Practice": Purpose (to build and exchange knowledge), Membership (self selected), Common Interest (group's expertise), and Duration (as long as members remain interested). As a justification for selecting these categories for use in this study Phillips (1993), looking at international teams, identified four broadly similar types; task groups, working parties, process groups and problem-solving groups and proposed that their will also be differences in behaviours and effectiveness factors based on whether the team is a voluntary or imposed grouping.

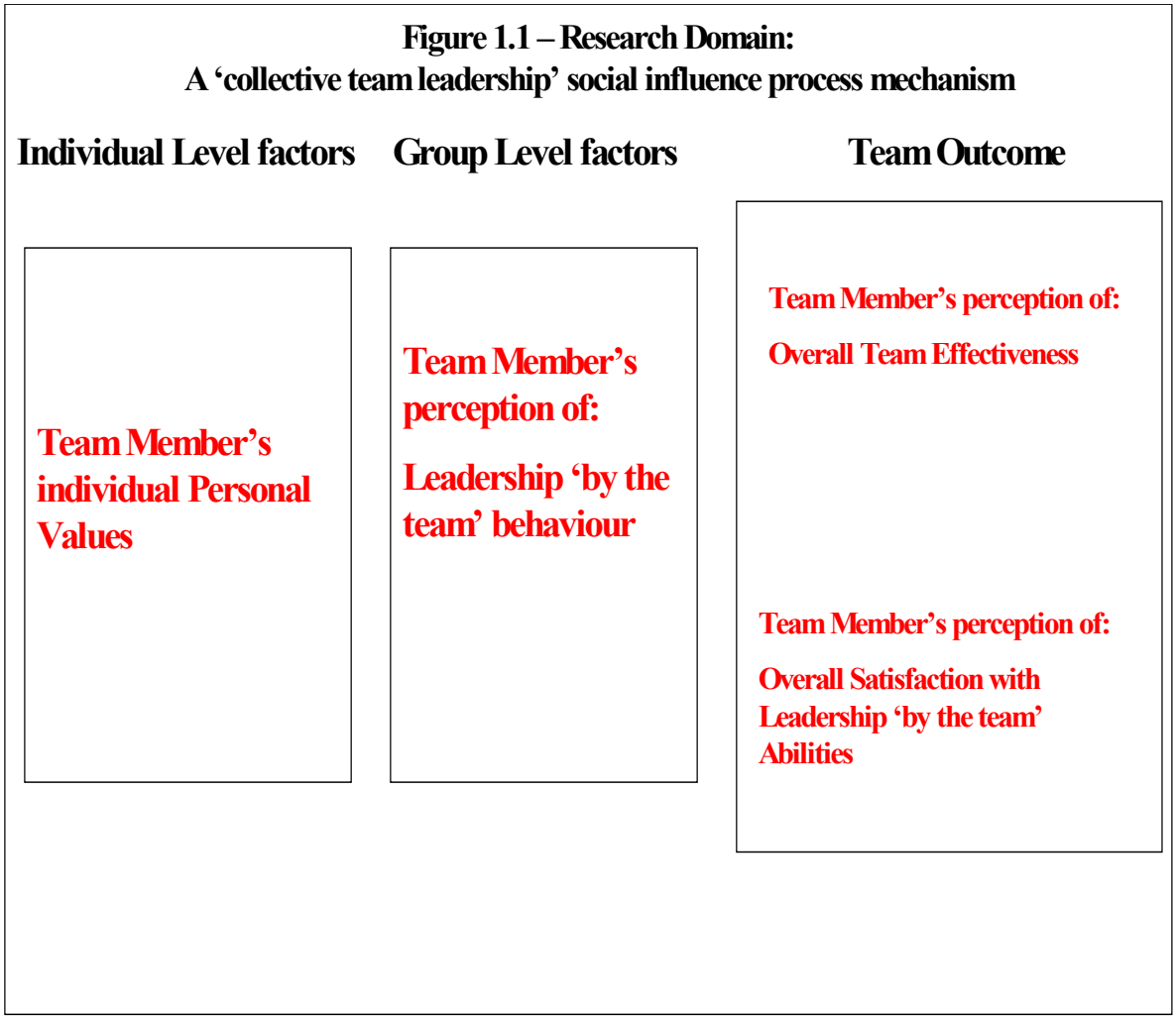
Thus, the focus on 'live' business teams (operating as 'Working Groups', Wenger & Snyder, 2000) and their team members (including the designated team leader) in the research reported here, helps to ensure that such organisational sub-unit effects related to leadership and personal values can be studied in some degree of isolation from the total organisational milieu (see, for example, Burke & Litwin's, 1992, 1989 model), thereby reducing the variables at play. Taking this down to the individual team member as the unit of analysis provides an even greater degree of containment,

allowing us to explore the particular connections between a given set of personal values and the personal perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes. In terms of the nature of the research enquiry explored here, this sits within the "Hackman-Morris Group Interaction Process Model" modelling framework, (Hackman & Morris, 1975), with personal values construed as key input variables associated with team behaviour. In this regard, any measures employed to investigate variable relationships must have sufficient scope and sensitivity in their scales to extract meaning from Hackman & Morris's, (1975): 'Individual Level Factors', 'Group Level Factors' and 'Team Output' Factors respectively; including for the former (although this is not a core feature of the research) the discovery of any similarities and/or differences in personal values emerging from the demographics of the sample, and any potential impact that these may have on the findings - see for example the values differences thought to be held by different generations (Cox & Parkinson, 1999). As West (2000, p. 278) notes, in relation to team innovation, researchers do not know what types of diversity under what circumstances stimulate this particular team outcome.

In their original research Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry (2001, p.32-33) recommended that "..the TMLQ survey be used with teams who have a longer history of interacting with each other, that have accumulated more work experience and perhaps a wider range of challenges, than associated with teams involved in the current research". Moreover, the same authors suggest that in order to develop a deeper understanding of what constitutes 'collective leadership', other constructs relevant to leadership 'by the team' (such as personal values?) should be used. So, for possibly the first time in a study using business team members, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and personal values constructs (and their respective components) are positioned as potential critical interacting variables in a 'collective team leadership' social influence process. The term 'social influence process' used here closely resembles a composite of three definitions from McLeod (1987): social – "of or characteristic of the behaviour and interaction of persons forming groups; influence – "an effect of one person or thing on another"; processes – "a series of actions which produce a change or development". More specifically for this research, the Research Domain outlined in Figure 1.1 (using the variable category labels of Hackman &

Morris, 1975), represents a view of a 'collective team leadership' social influence process mechanism, consisting of team members' personal values that respond to individual perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, whilst also interacting with that person's assessment of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. It is this theoretical perspective that informs the preliminary empirical exploration of the variable relationships included in this study.

Figure 1.1 – Research Domain:
A 'collective team leadership' social influence process mechanism



In support of this perspective, Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, & Jung (2000), significant authors from within the 'transformational leadership' school, suggest all models of team effectiveness use the systems' perspective of inputs – process – outputs to conceptualise the pattern of relationships among the variables of interest. However, their comprehensive listing of prior models does not include personal

values of team members (including the leader) as an input variable to team transformational leadership behaviour and team outcome evaluation. In this context, Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) add another twist to the 'aligned' versus 'diverse' culture debate covered earlier by stating that future change oriented work environments (which will require transformational leadership) need both integration and interdependence. The factors underpinning this integration and interdependence are not disclosed, although personal values could be important contributors. Also, their view that transformational leadership by the transformational leader transforms the values of those who are subjected to it (as part of a continuous adaptive response to change in the organisational environment) still requires further testing, certainly as it relates to the personal values of team members. Moreover, at the moment we do not know which, if any, specific personal values factors may be related to the emergence and observation of transformational or other forms of leadership behaviour, either in the individual leader or the team leadership collective. Thus, there remains considerable doubt about the precise nature and impact of personal values interactions and effects within organisational and team leadership interventions, even though well known business consultancies such as McKinsey (the 7-S framework) place values at the core of attempts to calibrate the processes of conducting organisational change and building corporate effectiveness. As already stated, for current and future studies of values this determinant problem demands research subject, construct and factor containment, together with the use of a restricted range of variables and established measures. The study by Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin (2001) that investigated the diversity of follower characteristics as a possible situational moderator for the effectiveness of transformational leadership makes a start in this direction, following House & Aditya's (1997) criticism that leadership researchers have failed to take advantage of contributions from other paradigms. As cited by Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin (2001), Algattan (1985) and Yukl (1994) both suggest subordinate motive patterns as moderators of effectiveness for participative and innovative leadership behaviours present in transformational leadership. The only moderators found by Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin (2001) were two follower motive patterns ('autonomy' and 'growth need strength'). Categorising these two factors as being similar to personal values indicates much promise in employing a paradigm from another discipline (as

suggested by House & Aditya, 1997), i.e. the 'terminal' and 'instrumental' personal values outlined by Rokeach (1973) for use in consumer behaviour, as extended by Schwartz & Bilsky (1990) for investigations of personal values within the realms of national cultures and society. In this sense, team members use their personal values as educated consumers of team leadership behaviour within their own working and social environment. The Research Domain presented in Figure 1.1 can be seen as an extension of the work by Ashkanasy &. O'Connor (1997), to include team member (including the leader) personal values interaction and it's association with team rather than dyadic forms of leadership. This may fill a significant gap in understanding the variables at play in team member assessments of team leadership outcomes.

To conclude, organisational and personal values appear intertwined in the establishment of identity, reputation and effective functioning, in the nation state, organisation, leader, working team and individual employee alike. Indeed, Hiley (1987) suggests that corporations are striving to shape corporate values in an attempt to align managers' personal values. Despite the limited academic investigations to date, public interest amplifies values as critical signals for positioning and navigating within a turbulent world. To date, the evidence shows that the impact assessment of personal values within these powerful individual and social arenas and in particular work teams, has been under-played and undervalued (Hofstede, 1978 and Milton-Smith, 1997). Where it has been studied, the researchers appear to be split on whether 'alignment' or 'diversity' is most functional to organisations and organisational units undergoing change. Containment and localisation of variables and the application of relevant measures may encourage more focussed research of practical value to business. That is, centre on studying the effects of personal values present within leader-team member collective behaviour interaction, utilising constructs sharing a paradigm, i.e. the theoretical associates that may exist between 'transformational' ('end' purpose focussed), as opposed to 'status quo' ('means' focussed) leadership behaviour and their respective 'transformational' and 'status quo' type personal values; using instruments designed for individual and team levels of analysis within the team process, that have been shown to have cross-cultural validity (Schwartz, 1992 and Bass, 1997 respectively). As an example of this approach, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) in developing a new transformational leadership

questionnaire (TLQ), with the leader as the unit of analysis, identified nine factors (including 'genuine concern for others' and ' empowers, develops potential'), manifested in two higher order factors labelled 'Internal-orientation' and 'External-orientation'. Such leadership behaviour factors could be respectively considered as representative of similarly coined values and personality orientations held by leaders. If team members who also held these values subsequently evaluated the effectiveness of the leader, then presumably if the leader demonstrated the behaviours, a higher rating would ensue. As McClelland (1987) notes, motives and values can influence the valence of one outcome over another and both are also associated with affect. For example, a team member who values autonomy is happy when the team culture encourages them to enact it and unhappy if it is discouraged, thus perhaps colouring their global judgements of team effectiveness. Schein (1992, p. 392) makes the following powerful observation about the leader as learner (and the learning of those with whom leaders interact) that resonates for leader - team member personal values and collective team leadership behaviour research.

" Learning and change cannot be imposed on people. Their involvement and participation are needed diagnosing what is going on, figuring out what to do and actually doing it. The more turbulent, ambiguous and out of control the world becomes, the more the learning process will have to be shared by all members of the social unit doing the learning…the essence of that learning process will be to give organisational culture its due. Can we as individual members of organisations and occupations, as managers, teachers, researchers, and sometimes, leaders recognise how deeply our own perceptions, thoughts and feelings are culturally determined? Ultimately, we cannot achieve the cultural humility required to live in a turbulently culturally diverse world unless we can see cultural assumptions within ourselves. In the end, cultural understanding and cultural learning start with self-insight".

Personal values research in business teams, enabling team members to understand the effects that their values have on the perception of their ability to function together, whilst in the midst of shifting organisational, social and personal sands, could bring practical applied meaning to Schein's (1992) theoretical sentiments.

1.5 Summary of Chapter 1

This chapter has described the core literature informing the study and explained where the focus for the research lies, given the limited empirical attention paid to specific personal values effects in business team life, debate about their likely influence (in particular the notion of values 'alignment'), issues relating to the current complexity of organisation and team interaction process models, and the generic modelling framework selected for exploring the variable relationships. The potential research and business contribution has been expressed, along with a Research Domain expressing possible associations between specific types of team member personal values, their perceptions of personal values related leadership 'by the team' behaviour and perceptions of two team outcomes: team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

The next chapter explores the potential significance of personal values in individual and collective team leadership behaviour in more detail, with the intention of drawing together the critical variable concepts and constructs. This literature subsequently combines with related modelling literature to inform the development of the Preliminary Research Model, Research Questions and the specification of the Initial Hypotheses.

The overall structure of the thesis is summarised below.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organised and presented as follows:

Chapter 2: A continuation of the literature review, highlighting the importance of personal values as influential phenomena in individual and collective team leadership.

Chapter 3: The final part of the literature review, evaluating the potential contribution of related leadership and team models, before selecting the Preliminary Research Model, Research Questions and Initial Hypotheses.

Chapter 4: The methodological approach to the research and the detailed research design.

Chapter 5: Results and Discussion for Research Questions One and Two, including reliability and factor analyses for the TMLQ and SVS measures and the proposed theoretical associates between them.

Chapter 6: The specification of the Final Research Model and Hypotheses for Testing, including Results and Discussion for Research Questions Three and Four and all Research Findings.

Chapter 7: Overall study conclusions and research contributions, including the implications for business and further research of this nature.

References

Appendices: The two research instruments are attached, together with additional statistical output used to support the data analysis. Individual responses to the two questionnaires are not provided, but are available on disc if required.

Chapter 2: Four Related Literature Themes converging on Personal Values as Influential Phenomena in Leadership 'of' and 'by the team'

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 introduced some of the core literature surrounding this study, for example (Hackman & Morris, 1975; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schwartz, 1992; Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997; Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung, 2001). In this Chapter, particular attention is paid to the central position of personal values in studies of organisational leadership. Personal values are demonstrably related to our general functioning as people and workers (Joynt & Morton, 1999). Their significance is shown, for example, by being included as one of the 'six areas of occupational life' indicators in Maslach & Leiter's (1997) 'Framework for Employee Burnout'. At this point it is worth clarifying what is meant by personal values. Baker and Jenkins (1993) summarised the position based of the findings of values topic authors. They grouped the various elements into 'preferences' (values are concerned with choices or alternatives), 'endurance' (values are enduring beliefs), 'guides' (values guide behaviour, conduct and action), 'centrality' (values as core end state desires) and 'abstractness' (values are ambiguous concepts). As Lichtenstein (2001) notes values can result from a priori reasoning or can be the product of contextual experience, such as family or work, or both. They can be strongly or weakly held. Personal values always carry a social connotation, he suggests, since they affect all our relationships. Although they differ from the societal values held by people at large, they are clearly derived from them. Organisations and other community groupings are mere aggregate forms of personal values and thus conceal a multitude of individual difference in the values held.

As for the wholeness and distinctiveness of the construct 'organisation', in studies of organisational climate, Joyce & Slocum, (1984), Jackofsky & Slocum (1998) and Gonzalez-Roma, Piero, Lloret and Zornoza (1999), support was evidenced for the

validity of collective climates as one type of aggregate climate, although Payne (1990) critiqued this view. Joyce and Slocum (1984) point out that in making assertions about culture formation one must also be concerned about the source of the data and the method of aggregation. For instance, Pettigrew (1990) amongst others, has argued that many sub-cultures and sub-unit climates might exist within the same organisation. Personal values, one assumes, are played out in whatever people association mechanisms exist in organisations, through both organisational culture and climate, however these may be explained and distinguished. Indeed Denison (1996) concluded that the two research bases were anyway, only differences in interpretation rather than differences in phenomena. As already discussed the micro-culture/climate at the centre of this research is the business team social influence process, with the interaction between team members as the focus for exploring the relationships between personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes.

In order to pinpoint the nexus for the research strategy, it is necessary to extract the major theoretical and empirical work coalescing around the importance of personal values in individual and collective forms of leadership.

Four related literature themes have relevance here:

2.2 Theme One: Strategic change leadership and Values

As far back as the 1970's, writers on the topic of strategic change leadership were concerned that parties to organisational life were not adequately factoring values issues in to their modus operandi. Braun (1972) expressed this concern through his belief that business leadership was not setting up strategies for the detection of social changes that could be used to inform long-term thinking. He suggested they should formulate business approaches that would enable adjustment to new social truths, socio-economic realities and social values if they were to maintain their competitive positions. Since then the potential impact of personal and organisational values on organisational vitality has become more commonly recognised. Schmidt & Posner (1982, p.12), for example, asserted that, "The direction and vitality of corporate

America and its managers cannot be fully understood without knowing more about the values and visions of the men and women who manage it". This historical perspective has been neatly captured and summarised by Dolan & Garcia (2002). They note a shift over time from an emphasis on 'Management by instruction' (based on hierarchies, procedures and controls), through 'Management by objectives' (MBO - using quality outputs and outcomes as motivational devices) to 'Management by values' (MBV). For them, true strategic leadership is at its most fundamental a dialogue about values, made more important because of the current need for: quality and customer orientation; greater professionalism, autonomy and responsibility in production and delivery; bosses who can evolve into transformational leaders (facilitators); and flatter and more agile organisational structures. They position their MBV framework as one that is useful for a continual re-design of corporate culture, by which collective purpose and commitment is generated for new projects that address future based business positioning. The biggest limitation of MBO, they maintain, is it makes the assumption that objectives make 'sense' to everyone, whereas this can only be realised if they are founded on shared values. Thus, values serve to endow action with sense and guiding principles, whilst objectives serve to translate action into results and rewards. Or, in other words, leadership remains geared to the transactional level unless it is endowed with shared values that forge transformational approaches. Moreover, they maintain that this differentiation between 'final' values and 'operating' values is vital for the definition of strategy. The former are essential for giving meaning and cohesion to the collective effort required to move the business towards its long-term position by determining the kind of business it wants to become, the reason for its existence, its fundamental dimensions, competitor differentiators and community interests; whilst the latter is concerned with the daily tactics, conduct and ways of working in order to get the job done. For them shared values are the 'glue' that allows these two elements of organisational life to work in concert, because they provide common guidelines to people making choices and decisions that affect operations against the background of strategy. One could also postulate that a leader's personal values influence the amount of adjustment a leader will be able to make within the transformational-transactional leadership continuum.

The on-going functionality of leaders, leadership, teams, followers and organisations expressed through organisation culture theory is well known. For example, in one of the most often quoted models of organisational culture, Burke & Litwin (1989) defined 'Leadership' as, "Executives behaving in a way that encourages others to take needed actions. We would include follower's perceptions of executive practices and values". 'Individual Needs and Values' are seen as, "The specific psychological factors that provide desire and worth for individual actions and thoughts". It is worth noting however that there is no mention of the specific personal values that may be underpinning either 'Leadership' or 'Management Practices' even though the link between these and 'Individual Needs and Values' (assumed to be those of organisational members who are not leaders or managers) is mediated by several other variables making up the model. In more strategic terms, Fiedler (1978) points out that organisational effectiveness is a function of the interaction between characteristics of the organisation and the external environment, and characteristics of the members of the organisation. As Kabanoff et al (1995) note all organisations need to solve a fundamental problem - how to maintain internal cohesion while producing economic outputs. They cite Polley (1987) who described this "task versus person" conflict as an enduring common thread in organisational behaviour research and as a fundamental source of tension within the "deep structure" of organisations (Gersick, 1991). The authors argue that a key source of tension lies in the competing distributive justice system principles embedded within the two sets of concerns. This results from the pressure to adopt organisational values reflecting equitable distribution of resources, for economic efficiency needs, whilst at the same time attempting (particularly in organisational change initiatives) to promote equal allocation of resources, based on values of cohesion and solidarity, to remain fair to everyone. The researchers claim that the different ways that organisations try to find a sustainable balance between these competing values shapes the overall values structures of managers, as discussed by Quinn (1988). Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983) produced the 'competing values' model for assessing organisational culture according to four categories, each containing their own values set. These are; 'Human Relations' and 'Open Systems' based on 'flexibility'; and 'Rational Goal' and 'Internal Process' based on 'control'. Quinn (1988) argued that in practice all four approaches coexist and should be balanced in their application by leaders of modern

organisations, with some values more dominant than others depending on the organisation's sector, stage of development and mandate.

In the quest for organisational effectiveness through values adherence, Nadler & Tushman (1990) proposed a typology of organisational change where 'Strategic' change occurs following a fundamental re-examination of the organisation's basic set of premises and values, whilst 'Incremental' change occurs within the boundaries of the current set. Nadler & Tushman's typology fits neatly alongside Bass's (1985) distinction between 'transformational' and 'transactional' leadership. For Bass the transactional leader accepts and uses the rituals, stories and role models belonging to the current organisational culture to communicate values, whereas the transformational leader invents, introduces and advances cultural forms by changing the "warp and weft of social reality". In doing so they produce a 'transformational culture' that is dynamic, flexible and adaptive to change, with significant attention paid to questioning prevailing ways of achieving organisational results. As to whether organisational culture actually makes a difference to organisational performance, Kotter & Heskett (1992) found a positive but weak correlation between the cultural strength of a firm and its financial performance. However, Denison (1990), in a longitudinal study of the relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness, found that cultures that were less strong at certain points in time went on to increase their effectiveness, whereas some strong cultures eventually led to performance deterioration. This fluidity of organisational culture was developed in Hatch's (1993) four elements 'model of cultural dynamics' (manifestation, realisation, symbolisation and interpretation) building on Schein's (1992) three 'levels of culture' (artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions). More recently, McClean & Johansen's (1997) review indicated that research on organisational culture was unable to establish clear links to business performance via leadership. Even so, this has not prevented authors producing models that include cultural systems and individual values as forces influencing organisations, Tichy & Ulrich (1983) and Burke & Litwin (1989) respectively. In practice, leaders are tasked with forming or re-forming an organisational culture thereby ensuring that appropriate values are expressed and demonstrated through teams, groups and individuals depending on the organisational context in which the leadership operates, see for

example Quinn's (1988) 'Competing values framework of leadership roles'. Leaders are also considered to be able to use and impart their own values to guide the formation of organisational culture. This assumes of course, in making the task easier for leaders, that the values they personally hold are congruent with their organisations and followers values, even if they were not party to defining the values for their business. In this vein Schein, (1992) suggests that cultures spring from three sources: the beliefs, values and assumptions of an organisation's founders, the learning experiences (or socialisation) of followers as the organisation evolves and the new beliefs, values and assumptions brought in by new members and leaders. Culture in this sense has been conceptualised as a complex web of norms, values, assumptions and beliefs, that are characteristic of a particular group, reinforced and perpetuated through socialisation, training, rewards, and sanctions (Lytle et al, 1995). In large and structurally complex organisations this at once points to the possibility of sub-cultures, underpinned by their own peculiar values, occurring in different parts and levels of the organisation, including multiple and distinct teams. Schein (1992) states that the creation and management of culture actually begins with the leader, who imposes their own values and assumptions on the group. Truly effective leadership is present, he maintains, when further environmental adaptations are required and the leader is able to identify these points of departure from the status quo, step out of the outmoded culture and role model the required adjustments. Related to this idea is Bass & Avolio's (1990 a) notion of a 'transformational' leader, one of whose purposes is developing followers into leaders. At the team level all team members, including the leader of the team, contribute towards transformational leadership, that includes the development of culture change capability, (Burns, 1996 and Bass, 1998 a,b). In fact Bass (1985) in distinguishing between 'transactional' and 'transformational' leaders uses very similar human assumption categories to Schein, in suggesting that 'transformational' leaders use deeper personal belief structures to advance new cultural forms (based on desired 'end' states), rather than accepting the current culture (with a focus on 'means') as represented by 'transactional' leaders.

Unfortunately, the rapid change in the business environment may be precluding the establishment of a distinctive organisational culture and values set based on leaders' and followers' values coalescence. According to De Geus (2001), the shelf life of

Fortune 500 companies is shrinking, down to under 40 years (which is less than the generational lifecycle of humans) and for small/medium sized businesses the current figure is 12.5 years, with the tenure of Chief Executives beginning to slip below five years. Only in rare cases then, are leaders in post long enough for the long-term consequences of their visions and values to be understood, although this should not prevent researchers looking at more immediate and localised consequences, in the context of organisational leaders and teams, such as concentrating on the impact of 'nearby' as opposed to 'distant' leaders (Shamir, 1995 and Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001). However, if this corporate and leadership life expectancy continues to reduce this could have implications for the mix of employee generations in companies and the embedding of organisational culture based on commonly held values and/or the active management of values diversity. No longer will whole generations work together over an extended period of time, thereby representing the family lifecycle with all it's value clashes and counterbalances. Perhaps generations of leaders and those led will need to surface and put to productive use one another's values similarities and differences, not by osmosis (they will be insufficient contact time for that), but by conscious countenance of and proactive interplay with one another's personal values. In fact, De Geus (2001) predicts that organisations that can continue to build a community of trust through cohesion, sense of identity and continuity will retain competitive advantage through the shared learning that will occur and the adaptive capability this will bring, particularly if leaders take responsibility for releasing each person's potentiality. One can see many reflections of the 'transformational leadership' construct (Bass & Avolio, 1990 a) in this commentary. Although De Geus (2001) also points out, in making this statement, that generational succession like this may require at least three generations of employees working alongside one another over a significant period of time. This may be unachievable in today's business and social climate, particularly when teams are often in a state of membership and focus flux.

Kabanoff et al (1995) report that current organisational values are also likely to influence the kinds of organisational change goals and means that are considered and discussed. In addition it is possible that organisations vary in the extent to which their values are universal (Trice & Beyer, 1993). This can influence the kinds of shared

values and themes to which change agents ('charismatic' leaders) will appeal to create a motivation for change among organisational members (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). Indeed, according to Hammer & Champy (1993), one of the fundamental causes of organisational re-design failures is neglecting the values and beliefs of workers. Altendorf (1986) also raised the issue of culture compatibility as a potential source of people problems and merger failure and such compatibility has also been linked to performance downturns in an acquired business (Cartwright and Cooper, 1990, 1993). However, as we have seen, organisational culture, influenced more by values, beliefs and assumptions, may take longer to build and for the effects to show (Schein, 1992), whereas climate, based more on behaviour, may have a more immediate and observable impact on groups and individuals, (Joyce & Slocum, 1984).

Rowsell & Berry (1993) state that the institutional leader is primarily an expert in the promotion and protection of values. For them, the effectiveness of an organization depends on a capacity to build and maintain an identity congruent with environmental realities. Organizational processes are shaped by their cultural context, they suggest, which provides a medium for patterns of shared meaning to emerge. The fashioning by the leaders of a value system that can confront and hold uncertainty (during times of change) will enable definition of an adaptive set of goals fitted to a shifting self-image, which can then be realised and supported by suitable technical procedures. Each working group, they maintain, develops its own subculture by adopting forms of language and modes of behaviour that identify it as different from other units and managing the boundaries between such diverse belief systems is crucial. The patterns of myth and symbol established by institutional leaders determine the uniqueness and continuity of the enterprise. The leadership role must address the definition and maintenance of systemic integrity - through boundaries and policy, together with the definition of processes through which the polyarchic forms might be held together. However, fashioning a unified value system is no simple task. Each working group develops its own sub-culture by adopting forms of language and modes of behaviour that identify it as different from other units. Managing the boundaries between such diverse belief systems is crucial if "cultural warfare" (Morgan, 1986) is to be avoided. These sentient groups, as they have been called (Miller & Rice, 1967), also cut across the boundaries of task groups creating networks of interest across the enterprise. The

articulation of these multifarious systems falls to the leaders of the institution. By creating a vision of, what the organization is and communicating it to members, individual interests can be related to the group purpose. This requires leaders to be sensitive to the needs and aspirations of followers, for they must be enabled to reframe the psychological contract between individuals and the enterprise in ways that harness loyalty and commitment, without what Roswell & Berry (1993) term "adult abuse". In promoting and protecting institutional identity, the actions of leaders must maintain congruence with the beliefs and values of members of the wider system. In the quest for 'systemic wisdom' Rowsell & Berry (1993) assert that social systems such as those located in organisations serve multiple conscious and unconscious purposes. They suggest leaders and the social systems they serve are interdependent in a complex and ambiguous social arena. The leadership phenomenon therefore should not be analysed as linear relations of cause and effect but seen as circular loops of mutuality, evolving patterns of relations that are mutually determining and determined. This is perhaps a good reason for selecting a mutual leader-team member measurement of leader-team member relation effects for use in empirical studies of teams in action, considering team as opposed to leader 'transformational leadership' behaviour as one of the critical features of team interaction. Indeed, three factors and exemplar sample items that make up the team 'transformational leadership' construct are indicative of forces that can prepare people for responding to change. They are 'Idealised/Inspirational' (members of my team envision exciting new possibilities), 'Intellectual Stimulation' (members of my team question the traditional ways of doing things) and 'Individualised Consideration' (members of my team provide useful advice for each other's development).

2.3 Theme Two: Leadership as it relates to Teams and the rise of Team 'transformational leadership' representing Leadership 'by the team'

A similar disjuncture to that found in the concept of organisational effectiveness (Kabanoff et al, 1995) surrounds the nature of leadership, as clearly represented by the different views of Bate (1994, p.242) and Hunt, (1991, p.195). Bate expresses the

need to "depersonalise and decentre the leadership concept, so that we begin to perceive leadership as a co-operative or collective enterprise", whilst Hunt, in contrast, says that especially in periods of change, organisations are best served by transformational/charismatic leaders who, "believe they can have a major impact on the organisation by empowering members to realise the leader's long range vision". The dualism in the makeup of leadership represented above seem to have coalesced in Bass & Avolio's (2001) measure of team 'transformational leadership' capability – the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ). After all, this development follows on from Bass & Stodgill's (1981) suggestion that organisational culture and leadership is a reciprocal process with the former influencing leader behaviour whilst leaders in return seek to shape culture to fit their own needs. In a similar vein to Dolan & Garcia (2002), Higgs (2002) outlines a leadership model also based on what is seen as a historical shift in the leadership paradigm. He postulates a model, within which sits the 'sense making' paradigm of Weick (1995), that has emerged; first because it is relevant to the complexity and change now faced by organisations, second it results from a change in the measure of leadership from more indirect influence on organisational effectiveness to the direct impact on followers, and third in terms of the 'long-line' of thought about what constitutes the essence of leadership, it moves the concern from the application of leadership (or management) tools to the power of emotional connections between the leader and those led. The outcome of this model is a framework for thinking about leadership that combines personality ('being yourself') and the skilful application of leadership behaviours. Even though the word 'values' does not appear as one of the model elements it seems likely given the definition of the elements, for example, 'Enable' – "acting on a belief in the talent and potential of individuals, and creating an environment in which these can be released", that personal values constitute a foundation medium through which leadership personality and behaviours are enacted. In fact one could argue that many of the elements, e.g. 'Authenticity' require the presence of a particular values set if they are to occur at all. Indeed Ray & Bronstein (1995) stress that if teams are to aid organisational performance then 'teamwork' itself must be a value that people hold. Similarly valuing the group was identified by Holt (1987) as one of the major performance drivers for teams. However Mullen & Cooper (1994) in a meta-analysis of some 40 team studies examining the relationship between cohesiveness and

effectiveness inferred that the directional flow of causality was from performance to cohesiveness rather than vice versa. As Higgs (1996) notes this may be because these interacting factors, of which cohesiveness is just one, are reliant on primary input and process factors relating to the purpose, goals and objectives already being in place. One could hypothesise that another interacting factor spanning both primary and second order factors may be shared understanding of the individual values at play, or in other words the valuing of diversity.

The roots of the construct 'transformational leadership' can be found in Fiedler's (1971) contingency theory of leader effectiveness. This states that one of the three factors impacting on effectiveness is the nature of the personal relationships between the leader and followers. Situational or contingency approaches to the organisational impacts of leader behaviours (Fiedler, 1967, Vroom & Yetton, 1974 and Yukl, 1989 b) became somewhat out of step with the rapid change characteristics of organisational life at the beginning of the 21st century. Hence 'New Leadership' paradigms emerged, including the two independent but complementary 'transformational and transactional' leadership dimensions identified by Bass & Avolio (1990 a,b) on the basis of research using their Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), see Bryman (1996) for a review. Two of the five characteristics of transformational leaders according to Bass (1998 a) are 'Individual Consideration' where leaders play close attention to the individual needs of all employees and are able to empathise with all employees as individuals, and 'Idealised Influence', the leader's ability to build a culture of trust and respect among followers (presumably also including attention to, empathy with and respect for their personal values). Rost (1993) described such leadership as being concerned with transformation in the motivations, values and beliefs of followers. Meta-analyses, by for example, Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (1996) have confirmed significant correlations of MLQ transformational components with positive effects on followers. The transactional-transformational extension of leadership contingency theory highlights the dynamic and interactive relationships of leaders and followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990 a). They suggested that transformational leaders engage the 'full' person in each of the followers with the purpose of raising their leadership capability. Further, a series of studies by Avolio & Bass (1988), Bass (1985) and Hater & Bass

(1988) indicates that one of the ways transformational leaders achieved their results was to stimulate their followers to view the world from new perspectives (presumably based on the leaders own perspective - read values, or on those set for the wider organisation which in his/her role as leader she needs to translate for and implement with the followers). The most effective transformational leaders promote the capacity for "self-leadership" (Manz & Sims, 1987), effective "self-regulation" (Bandura, 1991) and establish learning oriented cultures (Argyris, 1985), all of which are essential features of developing a change fitness and readiness team culture. Bass (1999) argues that to be truly transformational, leadership must be grounded in moral foundations. His four components of authentic transformational leadership, (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), are he says underpinned by; the moral character of the leaders and their concerns for self and others, the ethical values embedded in the leaders' vision, articulation, and programme (which followers can embrace or reject) and the morality of the processes of social ethical choices and action in which the leaders and followers engage and collectively pursue. The literature on transformational leadership he suggests is linked to the long-standing literature on virtue and moral character, as exemplified by Socratic and Confucian typologies and the major themes of the modern Western ethical agenda: liberty, utility, and distributive justice. Issues of transcendence, agency, trust, striving for congruence in values, cooperative action, power, persuasion, and corporate governance are paramount for establishing the strategic and moral foundations of authentic transformational leadership, he maintains.

Continuing with the theme of necessary conditions for transformational leadership, Pawar & Eastman's (1997) model using Mintzberg's (1979) typology of organisation structural forms identified two polar types of organisational contexts that are differentially receptive to transformational leadership. The organisational context most likely to enhance transformational leadership has an adaptation orientation, a boundary-spanning task system, an adhocracy, simple or network structure and a clan mode of governance. Least likely to display this leadership form is a context having an efficiency orientation, a technical core task system, a machine or professional bureaucracy or a divisional structure, and a market or bureaucratic mode of

governance. Simpson & Beeby (1993) in addressing public sector organisational culture change and the paucity of directly relevant literature informed by the experience of the UK public sector, contend that the psychology of the individual and the relationships within teams are the key aspects of transformational processes and culture change. Moreover transformational leaders, they argue, appreciate the importance of values and related behaviours that transform the contract between leaders and organisational members and sometimes use this awareness through 'encouraging the heart' (Kouzes & Posner, 1999). However, how leaders identify the values played out in this context and assess their combined force and overall importance in transformational terms seems to be an open question, although one consequence of the values match effect on this transformational relationship could be team 'transformational leadership'. Egri & Herman (2000) found a number of parallels between Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model of managerial roles and transformational-transactional leadership theory. For example in respect to transformational leadership behaviours, the inspirational and intellectual stimulation aspects appear to reflect Quinn's 'open systems' model's roles of innovator and broker, whilst the 'human-relations' roles of facilitator and mentor reflect the individualised consideration and support of others transformational components. However, they note Quinn's view that being a "master manager" required balancing the conflicting values present in the eight possible roles. This multi-faceted conceptualisation of leadership is consistent with research suggesting that effective leaders are able to function in both transformational and transactional mediums (Kuhnert & Russell,1990). Attending to the "transformation" in transformational leadership, Avolio (1999) emphasizes the central effect that this form of leadership can have on followers' values such as putting aside their self-concerns for the greater goals of the team. He also provided evidence that transformational behaviours "work" at the group level as well. The author argues that transformational leadership is not necessarily attached to a single person, but that elements of transformational leadership can be shared among team members. Avolio (1999) posed a challenge to transformational leadership researchers to address 21st century issues by extending the traditional leader-centric approach to autonomous or semi-autonomous teams following earlier thoughts (Avolio & Bass, 1995) that introduced the idea of examining leadership 'by' rather than 'of' the group. As mentioned previously, with

this in mind a recent development has been the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ). The authors suggest that teams develop shared expectations that guide behaviour related to roles, expectations, mission and vision. In concluding, they recommend that the TMLQ be used with teams who have a history of interacting with each other in a wide range of settings. They maintain that their strategy for measuring team leadership is consistent with recommendations by Tesluck, Zaccaro, Marks & Mathieu (1997) who suggested that group level phenomena can be assessed by having each individual rate the group on attributes defined at that level, with ratings averaged to reflect the group position. Along similar lines, Dunphy & Bryant (1996) after reviewing the literature on teams and identifying gaps, concluded that future research must include leadership within teams when attempting to model team effectiveness. After all highly effective teams are meant to have members who fully identify with the team's central purpose and values (Koslowski et al, 1996).
Avolio (1999) predicted a future emphasis of transformational leadership theory, where emphasis was placed on the development of transformational relationships, as current leadership research attends very little to such dynamics. The personal values held by the parties may be one important element of this particular relationship development, and the exploration of their association with team 'transformational leadership', a possible response to the call for a deeper understanding of what constitutes collective leadership (Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung, 2001).

2.4 Theme Three: The potential significance of Personal Values and their diversity as unexplored variables in the Team Leadership process

Smith et al. (1989) explain that in order to understand a given leadership style both general structure and specific expression must be examined. The point being that there may be certain underlying and universal structures that underpin leader - subordinate relationships, but variations in actual behaviour (presumably in both the leader and the follower) within that relationship may be necessary to connect effectively to the different cultural values present. So although general measures of leadership style may be correlated with criterion measures, they may only make sense

to the parties on the ground depending on a specific application of that style within its unique cultural setting. For example, taking Fleishman's (1953) consideration and initiating structure model, in 'individualist' cultures a supervisor may show consideration by encouraging autonomy, whereas in a 'collectivist' culture, providing a high rate of social interaction would work best. Perhaps more tellingly for this literature theme review, Kuchinke (1999) discovered that cultural values predicted leadership styles, but accounted for only a small part of the variance with lots of other intervening variables, including intra-national cultural differences, affecting the perception of leadership. Gibson (1995) listed the significant changes in organisational life that remain relevant today: increasing diversity of the workforce; a shift in working environments from local to international markets; increasing numbers of mergers and acquisitions among organisations from different countries; re-structuring across national boundaries; and emergence of information and telecommunication technologies, increasing and speeding up global communication traffic that, one could add, affects types, ways and means of conducting business. She suggests that each of these changes will have a profound impact on the psychology of individuals in organisations given that studies have tended to focus on intra-personal events, rather than on happenings between people, including for example, the influence of culture and societal roles on social behaviour within organisations. Likewise Ellis & Hall (2002), in considering the application of systems thinking as a key management tool assisting business to lift this fog, regard values as the missing link. They call for a "new unified science of values" formed by integrating systems thinking, human values and transformative leadership to enable organisations to sustain and thrive.

England (1967, p.54) defined a 'Personal Value System' as "a relatively permanent perceptual framework that shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behaviour. Values are similar to attitudes, but are more ingrained, permanent and stable in nature. (They are) closer to ideology or philosophy…..". Kenny (1994) defines values as principles or standards of an individual, group, organisation or society as a whole. They reflect an individual or collective judgement as to what is valuable or important in life and provide a yardstick against which personal, organisational and societal behaviour can be evaluated. He maintains that

organisational visions can be realised through the development and operation of a value base. Potentially this is one of the more relevant definitions for the proposed research because it links with Hogan and Holland's (2000) view of the inextricable relationship between a leader's personal values and the espoused and/or enacted vision of the organisation. In terms of the link to transformational leadership, the next two are equally appealing, because transformational leadership is said to concentrate on end states and to be at the heart of the leader-follower social influence process. The term 'value' has been defined by Rokeach (1973) as an enduring prescriptive or proscriptive belief that a specific end state of existence or specific mode of conduct is preferred to an opposite end state or mode of conduct for living one's life (particularly the values attached to life's major roles – marriage, parenting, work, leisure and daily consumptions). Rokeach's 'Rokeach Value Survey' or RVS (1968, 1973) is designed to measure two sets of values that may be equally important in the leader-follower relationship. One set is composed of 18 terminal values or desired end states of existence (e.g. a sense of accomplishment, inner harmony, equality and social recognition) and 18 instrumental values, or preferable modes of behaviour (e.g. ambitious, independent, broad-minded, imaginative). Schwartz (1994, p.21) meanwhile, defines values as "desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, serving as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity".

More attention has been paid to values when viewed as a psychological construct, rather than as important variables in team life. Hampson (1988), in addressing whether or not personal constructs (such as values) are stable over time, suggests those that are socially constructed, such as conformity, are open to modification because these aspects of personality are linked to our self-presentation of behaviour to others. The same may be true of other types of personality paradigms such as 'emotional intelligence'. Another way of looking at stability over time is from an intra-personal perspective. Pratch & Jacobowitz (1998) coined the term 'integrative capacity' and applied this notion to individual leadership effectiveness. Integrative capacity reflects integrative activity across levels and functions of personality, not just cognitive (integrative) complexity, but also affective, motivational, fantasy, and ultimately unconscious phenomena. Effective leaders possess personality structures capable of responding to static and changing circumstances in adaptively resourceful

ways. The authors note that this resourcefulness is conceptually linked to the structural construct 'active coping' (Shanan, 1990) as rooted in the ideas of Rapaport (1951), Rogers (1961) and other 'ego' and 'self' psychologists. These active coping strategies which operate consciously and unconsciously (and which mirror to a certain extent Schein's (1992) culture levels of values and beliefs/assumptions) are designed to seek an adaptive balance between external environmental demands, regulations, and constraints, on one hand, and psychological aspirations, needs and morals on the other hand. Active coping as opposed to passive coping (an inclination to respond automatically in a pre-determined way to demands) implies the potential to transcend these compulsions and to select (consciously or unconsciously) from among an array of possible responses the one that seems most constructive in maintaining the sought after balance between self, including one's values and beliefs, and environmental demands. In many cases the response is a novel one created for the unique situation that is encountered. Some individuals demonstrate active coping at the level of overt behaviour (on self-report measures) but reveal passive coping tendencies at the semi-conscious and unconscious levels (on semi-projective and projective measures) or vice versa. The effective leader displays active coping tendencies across all three levels of psychological functioning. The more similar the active coping tendencies on each level the more balanced the personality and the more stable the personality over time. The authors are of the view that less structured measuring instruments (such as projective tests) may be useful to expose more defended personality tendencies, such as values, that nevertheless influence the behaviour and effectiveness of a leader.

Following Schwartz (1992), Kabanoff et al (1995) make the distinction between a value structure containing values compatibility and conflict and a value hierarchy that is simply a priority based ordering. In constructing values profiles they defined individual values as either strong (frequently mentioned) or weak (infrequently mentioned), because, they maintain, the character of a values structure is determined by both. Dose (1997) suggests that values can be rated on two continua that are orthogonal to each other. They can be classified according to the degree to which they embody moral considerations versus merely preferences without moral implications, and the degree to which members of a given culture agree that a given value is important for everyone to hold, versus the degree to which it is personally

held. Her framework suggests a theoretical basis from which to distinguish between those values that will have a main effect and those that will have an interaction. For example because society may agree that consensual values are important generally everyone will be affected by their presence or absence, so in an organisation it is likely that respondents will respond favourably to an organisation that endorses these values (e.g. main effect for organisation). Personal values are more unique and hence the match (or interaction) becomes important, particularly if they are moral in nature.

In the public sector, Waddock & Post (1991) have stressed the importance of values in those private sector executives they term 'social entrepreneurs'. The social entrepreneur, they argue, generates followers' commitment to public good projects by framing it in terms of important social values, rather than in economic terms, which results in a sense of collective purpose amongst those involved. The vision created by these values is so powerful that it overcomes some of the project complexity and problems associated with collective action through commitment gained by tapping in to deep rooted personal and social values, (Etzioni, 1988). The authors note that such catalytic social entrepreneurs epitomise the 'transforming' leadership described by Burns (1978, p.20), which "occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality". Another characteristic of this collective purpose is that the goals or purposes were "end values" and not "modal values". According to Burns (1978) the chief monitors of transactional leadership are modal values or values of means such as honesty, responsibility, fairness, the honouring of commitments, without which this form of leadership would not work. Transformational leadership is more concerned with end-values such as justice, liberty and equality. This matches the personal values framework of Rokeach (1973), extended by Schwartz & Bilsky (1987). Badaracco (1998) suggests that a manager becomes a leader by taking time out for self-enquiry to surface and refocus on their core values and principles, often displayed through 'defining moments' when they must choose between right and right. In resolving these dilemmas, the leader asks which of the values represented in two equally acceptable choices are most significant in their life and in the communities they care about. For him, tracing the roots of our values means understanding their origins and evolution over time and is part of the discipline of building character.

Re-visiting the issue of organisational change, Posner & Schmidt (1994) see the personal values held by executives as a silent power for understanding interpersonal and organisational life. Because they are at the core of people's personality, values influence the choices they make, people they trust, the appeals they respond to, and the way they invest their time and energy. In turbulent times values give a sense of direction amid conflicting views and demands. Organisational life-cycle theory suggests that organisations need different types of leadership at different life cycle stages (Greiner, 1998). One could argue that perhaps leaders and teams also need different personal values systems. That is, the individual leader's or the teams' development life cycle, which includes personal values shifts over time, may enhance leadership effectiveness when it mirrors the organisational life cycle, and its values requirements of the day. In this vein, the perception of leaders as leaders and followers as followers, according to leadership categorisation theory (Lord & Maher, 1991), is affected by the implicit theories held by people, containing desired attributes or traits (and possibly values one could suggest), used to label others. These 'subconscious prototypes' (Cantor & Mischel, 1979) are used to classify and distinguish, for example, leaders from non-leaders and moral from amoral leaders. Lord & Maher (1991) assume that leader-follower relationships are more likely to be characterised by trust, motivation and high performance when the congruence between the implicit leadership theories of the parties involved is high, although once again, this has not been tested empirically.

Cross-cultural studies also indicate the importance of personal values. Tapsell (1998) reports preliminary (1997) findings from 35 countries (represented by 9500 managers in 606 organisations) taking part in the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness) study of cross-cultural leadership theory validity, by House et al (1999); indicating that 'values based' leadership was nearly universally endorsed. GLOBE defines leadership as 'the ability to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of organisations of which they are members'. Another global study set out to develop a Global Measurement of Personality (Schmit, Kihm & Robie, 2000). In doing so, the authors and contributors reviewed all the major personality inventories and core job

performance factors used in business. In reaching a global consensus on these, the only modification made was to the job performance model, where the work orientation factor was divided into two orientations, collective (dependence on others) and individual (independence from others), following Hofstede's (1980 b) identification of cultural values difference. This suggests that some values may be seen as universal or particular, when derived from individual differences in personality or cultural socialisation respectively. For example, Egri & Herman's (2000) interview and questionnaire data from 73 leaders of non-profit and for-profit environmental product and service organizations showed that these leaders' personal values were more eco-centric, open to change, and self-transcendent than those of managers in other types of organizations, even though they found very few differences in the leader personality characteristics or leadership skills. Furthermore non-profit environmentalist organisations were found to be far more receptive contexts for transformational leadership than their for-profit counterparts. As Egri & Herman (2000) observe, to the extent that non-profit organisations can be viewed as altruistically driven, rational in their decision making processes and motivated to improve society (Snow, 1992 and Westley, 1997), they are likely to be fertile ground for transformational leaders. Personal values held by a leader are certainly important for the leader-follower relationship. Subordinates' ratings of a manager's integrity have been shown to correlate above .50 with indices of team performance (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). Similarly Parry & Proctor (2000) assessed the statistical relationship between perceived leader integrity and transformational leadership using the 'Perceived Leader Integrity Scale' (PLIS) and the 'Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire' (MLQ). In a New Zealand national sample of 1354 managers, a moderate to strong positive relationship was found between perceived integrity and the observation of transformational leadership behaviours. A similar relationship was found between perceived integrity and developmental exchange leadership. In support of previous findings, perceived integrity was also found to correlate positively with leader and organisational effectiveness measures.

In terms of diversity in values patterns and in addition to market-related environmental changes, organisations are also faced with accommodating changes in societal values present in the people resources they need to compete (Moss-Kanter,

1983). Globalisation has led to an increased awareness of the complexity of interpersonal relationships when managing people across national cultures (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1995) together with a focus on leveraging this cultural diversity (Higgs, 1994). A particular aspect of organisational culture that is receiving considerable attention as a success factor in both national and international teams is 'valuing diversity' (Davison 1994; Phillips 1992; Ghoshal & Bartlett 1995). For instance, Jensen, White & Raghavendra (1990) examined the relationships between work-related values (using Hofstede's, 1982, Values Survey Module) and selected leadership contingencies, including gender, hierarchical position, and preferred and actual leadership style. Information was collected from 1079 managers in a long-term health care organisation. Results suggested that subordinates values varied according to gender, hierarchical position and perceived supervisors' leadership style. The value-gender and value-position relationships focussed on intra-personal values aspects, while the value-leadership style relationships accented the interpersonal values aspects. Their conclusion was that effective leadership style/behaviour is contingent upon specific situational factors. London & Sessa (1999) support the atomistic view of cultural awareness and therefore the identification of difference, by suggesting that it depends on the clarity of the 'cultural lens' through which culture and values are perceived. This lens has three components; the dominant culture of the organisation (which normally derives from the country or region of origin and includes demographics, economic conditions, values, norms, beliefs etc.), the sharpness of focus (how severe the gulf between the employees values set and the dominant organisational culture, represented by the leadership), and the contrast between the dominant organisational culture and level of global contact inherent in either the general business practices or roles. The literature reveals three main elements of demographic diversity in personal values: ethnic culture, generations and gender.

National culture related differences in values

House et al. (1995) maintain that values and beliefs distinguishing a given culture predict organisational practices and acceptable leadership in that culture. For example, the Dutch emphasise egalitarian leadership and words like leader and manager carry a

stigma, the Iranians want power and strength. Asian leaders, in contrast, are expected to be humble, modest and dignified, whilst Americans favour those that grant autonomy and delegate with confidence. Hofstede et al. (1990), rather confusingly, concludes from his research that national culture resides mainly in deeply held values, in contrast to organisational cultures that consist mainly of symbols, heroes and rituals recognised by and having meaning purely for the organisational members. In effect, this suggests that people leave behind their national cultural values when they go to work, a proposition not supported by Brodbeck et al (2000). At the level of team performance and with reference to national cultural difference cognisance and utilisation by leaders, Philips (1993), suggests that there is in fact little or no difference between the personal qualities of domestic and overseas business leaders except for a higher level of 'emotional maturity' to cope with, amongst other things, awareness of cultural difference, including their own. As evidence for this case, Jenner's (1982) study of Australian and American leaders' attitudes, values, beliefs and opinions over a 21 year time period demonstrated a striking similarity between the two nationalities. Triandis (1994) notes that although transmission of culture usually requires interaction (i.e. people must be geographically connected), this does not mean that people from different continents, for example Australia and North America, may not share (with perhaps other countries such as New Zealand), important elements of subjective cultures based on historical factors and events (e.g. common migration from Great Britain). Although, in the case of New Zealand, there may be a difference in 'pakeha' (those peoples of European origin) and Pacific Island immigrants (particularly Maori), split along Hofstede's (1980 b) 'individualist' and 'collectivist' cultural dimensions respectively. Brodbeck et al (2000) and Hermans & Kempen (1998) suggest that the potential durability of national cultures (divergence) and the practical implications born of more frequent and ever changing cultural and values contact zones (convergence), including participation in cross and multi cultural teams, adds more complexity to the intra and inter organisation values harmonisation and search for congruency debate. The problem, Brodbeck et al (2000) suggest, is exacerbated when one considers the chain of interaction within and between organisations from individual propensities, to group and team outlooks, through to system, structural and institutional requirements. They see a need for research insights that will assist the facilitation of leaders and managers in their understanding

and behaviour related to these cultural and values forces. However, Oliver (1999) posted results which suggest that even with the dramatic changes in the business environment between the 1960's and 1990's, the overall personal values structure of corporate managers, as measured by England's (1967) 'Personal Value System' has not changed, including the retention of a 'pragmatic' value orientation.

Posner & Schmidt (1994), in a survey of 1006 US federal government executives asking them to state the values that guided their actions, placed considerably more importance on the values of public service than such goals as reputation, leadership, morale and productivity. Moreover, offered the choice between two competing value systems, 'rugged individualism' and 'community and co-operation', executives have shifted when compared to their past colleagues (to an equal split in 1992 from a two to one in favour of individualism in 1982). A smaller shift in the same direction has also occurred with favouring home or personal life, as opposed to careers or work. They also suggest that public and private sector executives may well be experiencing the same values change phenomena. This thought is supported by Howard (1998), who in validating Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model, found that, excepting logical distinctions in their respective sectors regarding demands for external legitimacy as opposed to competitiveness, managers in public and private sector organisations share similar cognitive structures of cultural values. This seems appropriate given the move by private companies to embrace socially responsible and responsive strategies, and the public sectors structural changes invoking purchaser-provider splits and arms length forms of organisational governance. Howard (1998) calls for further research to confirm such generalisability. In presenting their future research directions, Brodbeck at al (2000) note that they have assumed a link between leadership (and follower) perception and behaviour that influences cross-cultural leadership, even though no direct empirical evidence has yet been presented to verify this linkage. Hermans & Kempen (1998) meanwhile conclude by imploring researchers to pay more attention to these contact zones of culture, the complexities of self and identity and the experience of uncertainty. Helgstrand & Stuhlmacher (1999) in a study that looked at follower prototypical evaluations of leaders, using Hofstede's (1980 b) framework for national culture classification purposes, found no support for the impact of cultural differences. In discussing these findings they suggest that their

sample participants were younger than those used by Hofstede (perhaps tapping a youth culture) and also young people may today be less culturally isolated per se. Thus, rather than tapping into a national culture the sample may be similar because of a shared stage of personal life development. To further understand the universal and culture specific nature of leadership, Helgstrand & Stuhlmacher (1999) recommend that future research should refine the definition of culture and the relationship with sub-culture (e.g. youth cultures, organisational cultures, ethnic cultures). In concluding, they cite the work of Van Lange, Otten, De Bruin & Joirman (1997), who suggested that social value orientations such as pro-social, individualistic and competitive orientations are formed and continuously shaped from early childhood through to old age. This notion of generational demographic influence is now discussed in more detail.

Generational related differences in values

Pfeffer (1985) suggests that organisational demographics can significantly affect an organisation's functioning. The idea is that generational cohorts starting in the company at the same time have high communication, leading to cohesion and subsequent power plays, because of similarities of age, education and values. The assertion is that demographic heterogeneity can inhibit group cohesion and be conducive to turnover, although homogeneity also has a performance and motivation downside, after time has elapsed, because of sameness leading to staleness. To mitigate this effect O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen (1994) assert that mastery of effective behaviours for managers in the global economy could be brought about by the use of cultural guides, such as cultural translators and colleagues from different backgrounds, surfacing cultural differences and creating new ways of working that are not culture bound and that reject our way/your way thinking. Joynt & Morton (1999), based on earlier work by Cox & Parkinson (1999) with acknowledgement to Robbins (1989), constructed the following framework to highlight how generational differences may play their part in the management of diversity.

Table 2.1 – Generational Differences in Values (Joynt & Morton, 1999)

Category	Entered Workforce	Approximate age now	Individual work values	Organisational work values
Protestant work ethic	1945-59	55-65	Hard work, conservative, loyalty to organisation	Command, control, efficiency, compliance, dehumanisation
Existentialism	1960-79	40-54	Quality of life, non-conforming, seeks autonomy, loyalty to self	Team work, quality, respect for individual, involvement
Pragmatism	1980-89	30-39	Success, achievement, ambition, hard work, loyalty to career	Efficiency, cost reduction
Generation X	1990's	Under 30	Lifestyle, self-development, loyalty to peers	Empowerment, organisational learning, employability

Kupperschmidt (2000) maintains that economic and political predictors, religious educators, marketing and business leaders all extol the importance of becoming students of generational differences, in order to understand and use differences as strengths and to avert a generational war. These leaders she suggests understand that employees from different generations have different value systems and work demands, they react and respond differently to common life events. Most of us she explains are unable to place our own generation within the context of time, thus we take our differences to work and unwittingly, assuming that others (co-workers and managers) are the same as us. She goes on to predict that managers and co-workers lack of understanding of each other's generational differences will lead to tension increases and a job satisfaction and productivity decrease. Therefore, managers and co-workers must adopt a generational perspective, that is, become more sensitive to and understanding of generational differences. Kouzes & Posner (1999) likewise decry the lack of attention to the soul and spirit in modern day organizations and recommend leadership strategies to 'encourage the heart' by setting clear standards,

based upon values that are generationally sensitive, inspirational, and bring out the best in each employee. Bower & Fidler (1994) suggest the challenge for a company Board is to create an environment that helps each generation find and use a style of leadership that is both congruent with its own values and effective in rallying the contributions of others. Using Plato's paradigm for statesmanship in the Statesman, i.e. the "weaving" of temperate and courageous properties, Klein (1988) provides the contemporary business ethics theorist with help in determining certain problems and solutions with regard to business leadership. The history of US business values, it is suggested, manifests the destructive, and particularly unethical, effects of deviating from this paradigm. US business character from the colonial period to the Great Depression of the 1930s shows the moral difficulties of overemphasizing courageous qualities, whilst post-depression "organization man" values in business manifest the moral difficulties of overemphasizing the temperate qualities. However, there remain opposing views on the effect of demographics on leader- follower interaction. For example Vecchio (1993) found that employees who were older than their manager reported better relations with the manager and evaluated her/him more favourably. On the other hand Smith & Harrington (1994) suggested that the relationship between younger managers and older subordinates is problematic because of aged based beliefs and stereotypes. In Leader Member Exchange (LMX) studies, whereas Green, Anderson & Shivers (1996) found gender differences between the leader and subordinate reduced LMX quality, other researchers e.g. Liden et al. (1993) reported no significant effect. Lorence (1987) utilised cross-sectional and panel data from 1972-73 and 1977 US Quality of Employment surveys, to assess three possible explanations for age differences in work involvement. The cohort explanation argues that particular socialisation experiences occurring during the formative years of a group of individuals born at the same time result in distinctive work values. A second explanation holds that work values change over time because such orientations depend more on immediate working environment conditions and rewards. A third explanation suggests that individual's subjective involvements in work (and life) roles may change over time due to ageing processes commonly affecting all individuals. He found that the differences in cohort (generational) and job characteristics determine differences in psychological involvement with a specific job, while overall commitment to the labour force may be more influenced by generalised ageing

processes. Furthermore, the effects of age on the work role seem to vary by gender and by occupation. Mitchell (1996) tested out businesses hope that they would not need to change current senior-oriented marketing strategies because 'baby boomers' will age in to their parents' values and/or the youth oriented formula of the past will continue to work for ageing boomers. She found, using the US General Social Survey (1974-1994), that boomers are likely to be more conservative than their parents on some issues (adultery and premarital sex) and more liberal on others (the division of labour between men and women at work and in the home, civil rights for black Americans). However, in relative terms, boomers by themselves are twice as conservative at the end of this time span and confidence in leaders of the nation's major companies has declined among Americans of all ages. Her conclusion is that boomers have questioned, considered and sometimes changed their minds about the validity of their parents' views.

On a more anecdotal and projection note, Tapscott (1998) claims that his researching of what he terms the 'Net Generation' (children who in 1999 will be between the ages of 2 and 22) reveals significant shifts in values to curiosity, adaptability, entrepreneurialism, self-reliance, self-belief, global orientation, focus and determination to succeed. This he claims will, when combined with their comfort with ever more powerful technology tools, create a new cultural dynamic within organisations and make management concepts such as teamwork, collaboration, knowledge sharing, organisational learning and networked structures easier to implement. At another generational interface, Walker-Smith (2000) claims that Baby Boomer and Gen X employee values are converging around career (the adoption of the free-agent working life) and linked to this, work life balance. Wolfe (1998) thinks that millions of Americans have suddenly acquired a passion for spirituality. The reason, he supposes, is that maturing baby boomers (some 40 million of them, whom happen to occupy the epicentre of the 'Psychological Centre of Gravity' (PCG), which is the adult median age plus or minus 5 years), in addressing mid-life concerns, have embraced a shift to kinder and gentler cultural values. He suggests that this spirituality influence on the population at large is pronounced because this age group tend to occupy the positions of influence in society, particularly as regards setting popular culture and values. And because the PCG will move upwards (to 50 years of

age in 15 years) these values will (or should) force changes (from a youth culture driven strategy) in business practices like product design, marketing and service, if organisations are to capture sufficient market share for survival and growth. He concludes by calling for more research into the values held by those at the PCG, the evolution of values (using developmental psychology to assist) and how these factors might affect consumer and business behaviour. The final demographic category considered, is male-female difference.

Gender related differences in values

Marshall (1993) suggests that gender reveals differences in values. "Feminine" values include interdependence, co-operation, receptivity and being; whereas "Masculine" values incorporate such items as independence, control and competition.
Indeed, Rosner (1990) puts this down to the proposition that until the 1960's men and women received very different signals about what was expected of them, reflected in their own subsequent expectations. Women as wives, mothers, community volunteers, teachers and nurses were assumed to derive satisfaction and self-worth from providing personal service to others whilst men were reinforced to be competitive, strong and decisive. Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) feels that management constructs such as empowerment are, like many other values, gendered concepts; and the results from most studies of men and women leadership styles, for example Ferrario (1994), remain equivocal. The empowerment trend she notes fits neatly with the view that the most effective transformational leaders promote the capacity for self-leadership (Mann & Sims, 1987). In investigating UK public service female and male constructs of leadership qualities, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) found that women's descriptors more closely resembled transformational leadership content, whilst men's views were generally aligned with transactional leadership. Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) also cites the work of Cullen (1994) who argued that another management construct, Maslow's (1954) 'self-actualisation', fell into the same category because it epitomised the American middle-class value system of the time, through its emphasis on individual autonomy and accomplishment together with self-fulfilment. More recent feminist theory, she maintains, invariably talks about the self-in-relation to others. Rowe and Snizek (1995) analysing work value preferences data obtained from 12

national samples contained in the General Social Survey over the period 1973-1990 from 7,436 full-time male and female workers representing all occupational classifications and major industry groupings, found no consistent support for general differences between men and women's work values. Instead, the results suggest that regardless of gender, one's preference for a given work value depends in large part on age, education and occupational prestige. However, other researchers have found that the importance attached to various values is influenced by age and gender (Beutel and Marini, 1995).

To sum up the potential consequences of demographic differences in personal values, Kupperschmidt (2000) sets a major task for today's managers to bring diverse employees together in ways that provide fair and equitable opportunities for each individual to contribute their best and to achieve their personal goals in alignment with organizational goals. They must create an environment in which employees are generational informants and resources for each other. 'Generationally savvy' managers place their personal values and attitudes within a generational perspective, in order to unearth their preconceived ideas and stereotypes. Some authors (Kuhnert & Russell, 1990) have gone as far as to suggest that certain critical personality differences in leaders may actually result in the formation of either transformational or transactional leadership styles; and that these differences may reflect different stages or levels of maturity in terms of personal development and goal orientation, suggesting an intra-personal generational issue factor at play.

2.5 Theme Four: Social identity within teams and Team Member (including the leader) 'alignment' variables & processes

In considering the team process as a micro-culture, Hamada (1995) challenged the assertion that the search for any unitary perspective on culture adds meaning; maintaining that cultural assumptions are neither static nor good predictors of behaviour, but represent a continuing process of culture creation in both corporate and national environments. Along similar lines, Hermans & Kempen (1998) list three forces that work against any classificatory approach. They are: cultural connections leading to hybridisation; the emergence of a heterogeneous global system; and

increasing cultural complexity. Better, they assert, to forget collective units of cultural type as the unit of analysis and concentrate on the contact zones of cultures, the complexities of identity and the contribution of change and uncertainty. One such micro-culture contact zone is the leader – team member interaction within teams. However, as a counterpoint to the divergence proposition, Gerstner & Day (1994) and Brodbeck et al (2000) found reliable differences of leadership behaviour along cultural dimensions similar to Hofstede's (1980 b) cultural dimensions of 'Power Distance', 'Uncertainty Avoidance' and 'Individualism'. Hofstede maintained that this explained why USA managers find it difficult to collaborate wholeheartedly in the industrial democracy processes of Sweden, Germany and the Netherlands where the 'Power Distance' norm of followers is lower. Indeed, when Hofstede & Bond (1984) also looked at western and eastern societies, they responded to the results by adding a further cultural dimension called 'Long-Term Orientation'. Beyer (1981), in her exhaustive review of the personal and corporate values literature, asserts that organisations use ideologies and values to legitimate their activities and to justify their decisions to members and the environment. People behave in accordance with their ideologies and values, and also in accordance with the ideologies and values of powerful superiors. However, the mechanics and effects of the values interaction between leaders and their immediate team members remain unexplored. Kabanoff et al (1995) conclude their paper by suggesting that research into organisational values has a number of shortcomings, including an absence of theory, resulting in: an inability to deal with higher-level values concepts, such as value structures, that may be key to understanding differences in social groups and systems values (Schwartz, 1992); uncertainty about how and why different organisational value patterns develop in different contexts (Trice & Beyer, 1993); and although there is a perennial interest in whether values influence performance this is met by a shortage of longitudinal data on values from a sufficiently large sample (Siehl & Martin, 1990). Nonetheless, Erez & Earley (1993) suggest that cultural values shape cognitive schemas, or sets of shared meaning among individuals. Their model uses this idea to display the integration of cultural factors, managerial and motivational practices and the self, in order to explicate employees' behaviours across cultures. The model (which is very similar to London and Sessa's, 1999, 'cultural lens' notion) suggests that information concerning the immediate leadership practices people encounter is processed in the

light of cultural values and then judged in terms of the potential contribution that the action has for the persons' sense of self-worth (which may be partly based on the values they hold uppermost). Louis (1983) calls culture a cognitive frame of reference and a pattern of behaviour, transmitted to members of a group from previous generations of the group. Culture is said to operate on two contextual levels, the sociological and the psychological. The sociological defines the systems of belief that identify a social group, while the psychological context describes the individual's endless search for meaning. Louis goes on to depict this endless negotiation of meaning as the navigation of an experiential landscape by which one controls one's course or position. In a collective context, it is the leaders who can assume the navigational role of guiding themselves and others across the organization's experiential landscape. From another perspective, Sennett (1998) in his book 'The Corrosion of Character', observes that such social bonds as relying on other people takes time to develop. Yet the short time frames of modern institutions limits this development. He refers to the sociologist Granovetter (1973) who says that modern institutions are marked by "the strength of weak ties", meaning that fleeting forms of association are perhaps now more useful to people than long-term connections and strong ties like loyalty have ceased to become compelling. Sennett suggests these weak ties are now embodied in teamwork, where the team constantly shifts its form and focus to respond to changing organisational circumstances and desired outputs. For Sennett, as with De Geus (1997) strong ties depend on long association and, at the personal level, the willingness to make a commitment to others. Sennett quotes the advice of Kotter (1995) in advising the young to work on the outside rather than on the inside of organisations, which is similar to Handy (1995) advising his children to look for customers interested in using their skills, rather than seeking a job. For Sennett (1998, p.25) this means, "detachment and superficial cooperativeness are better armour for dealing with current realities than behaviour based on values of loyalty and service".

Both Hatch (1993) and Schein (1992) represent the nature of values creation as interactive between the element layers (moving through the unconscious to the expressed and visible and back again in a mutually reinforcing loop, as long as they are believed to be valid for success) and emphasise the centrality of the leader as the

values architect and conduit. The leader is also made responsible for ensuring that operating values (whether held by individuals or groups) are accessed and made transparent for organisational members, are functional given the organisations purpose and goals and lived up to once they have been made explicit. However, neither approach directly addresses the nature of the leader - organisational member values interaction as it affects the performance of the organisation in whole or part, although both authors maintain that leader actions taken to make the organisation adapt to new circumstances and targeted on manifest behaviour, are more likely to succeed than attempts to challenge underlying values and beliefs. If these values and beliefs cannot be changed this begs the question, what might be their on-going impact? Allinson et al. (2001) note that most leadership theory is based on the assumption that relationships between leaders and their group members are similar enough to enable leader behaviour to be thought of as an 'average' style across the group as a whole (Schreiesheim & Kerr, 1977). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975), on the other hand, prefers to look at pairings of the leader with each and every group member, following results that indicated different group members continued to see their leader in a different light and that this was reflected in the varying quality of the leader-member interactions in the same group. Development of 'in-groups' and 'out-groups' with the leader also occurred and remained fixed over time. Allinson et al. (2001) also report a meta-analysis of LMX by Gerstner & Day, (1997) searching for factors affecting the quality of the leader-member exchanges which included the demographic characteristics of leader and team member (Green, Anderson & Shivers, 1996). Deluga (1998) referring to Byrne's (1971) 'similarity-attraction' theory points out that there has been surprisingly little research into leader-member similarity effects, although two studies (Epitropaki & Martin, 1999) and Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997) found an association of LMX quality with demographic characteristics and values respectively. Tsui & O'Reilly (1989) coined the term 'relational demography' to describe the differences in characteristics between manager and subordinate. Allinson et al's (2001) study, involving 142 manager-subordinate pairs, failed to support Byrne's idea and suggested on the contrary that incongruence may be seen as beneficial to the relationships, using the 'opposite attracts' maxim.

Liedtka (1996) positions the 'ethic of care' as the fundamental value system required to foster communities of interest, as may be found in teams. Such a community would contain the following values: respect for each individuals unique capacity to grow; each members responsibility to help others to develop their abilities; an obligation to practice honest dialogue with each other; and an agreement to subordinate short-term self-interest for the benefits of full participation in the life of the community. Liedtka (1989) concludes that, identification of such organisations that evidence these conditions; and an assessment of their values, capabilities and practices would be a logical next step for research. These community principles sound very similar to some of the team culture conditions that 'transformational' leaders are tasked with creating, although this may not be possible in organisations whose values mimic those of the marketplace. In this latter mode, an individuals combined capabilities and values become means to an end, i.e. more 'transactional' rather than an end in their own right, i.e. more 'transformational'. It may be better under such circumstances to see authoritarian and profit-driven management as ethically superior to the pretence of collective involvement through transformational leadership (Keeley, 1995). However, the exact nature of the interaction of these variables, the causal relationships and the part that personal values play is less clear, including the extent to which individual perceptions can be aggregated to represent a group or team unit of analysis. In response to this methodological issue and in relation to teams in general, Furnham et al. (1993) highlight the need for more empirical research on teams and organisational effectiveness, given that the difficulty in measuring salient, ecologically valid and reliable team dependent outcome variables have led to a paucity of studies attempting to systematically test team role theories in the context of real teams in organisations. Despite these difficulties, Hogg & Terry (2000) have remarked on a renewed but different interest by social psychologists in group processes and identity during the past ten years. They note that the emphasis has changed to ponder on how the self is defined by group membership and how social cognitive processes associated with group membership based self-definition, produce characteristically 'groupy' behaviour. This self-categorisation theory, itself an extension of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), sees the transformation of self as the process underlying group phenomena and in-group prototypical behaviour, manifested for example in shared norms, emotional

contagion, mutual influence and cohesion. Prototypes embody all attributes that characterise the group including beliefs, attitudes, feelings and behaviours and are constructed, maintained and modified depending on the social interactive context. Moreover, they outline how the social attraction analysis of cohesion has relevance for recent organisational research on relational demography (e.g. Riordan & Shore, 1997). They relate that relational demography theorists propose that people in organisations or work units compare their own demographic characteristics (e.g. ethnicity, gender) with other group members, and if perceived similarity exists, this enhances group process. In this sense, as group membership becomes more salient, the 'leader' merely embodies the aspirations, attitudes and behaviours of the group without having to exercise leadership, because followers automatically comply through self-categorisation. Thus the leader gains influence through strong mutual bonds, without resorting to power that might harm followers. Lau & Murnighan (1998) also pick up on the implications of demographic diversity and introduce a new concept called 'group faultlines', which divide group members on the basis of one or more attributes such as demographic characteristics or personal values, and which can have adverse effects on group functioning, or possess the potential for enhanced creativity. They note that definitions of diversity or heterogeneity generate the same hypotheses, notably that demographic diversity decreases social contacts and therefore reduces social integration. At minimum and maximum diversity fault-lines are either absent or unlikely because with the latter the opportunity for sub-groups becomes fragmented, whilst with the former cohesiveness rules. Therefore, fault-lines become most likely in groups of moderate diversity, whilst the presence of a limited variety of attributes creates the greatest chance of alignment and of complete bifurcation of a group, that is, a single strong fault-line. The strength of 'group fault-lines', they argue, depends on three compositional factors: the number of individual attributes apparent to group members, their alignment, and as a consequence the number of potentially homogeneous sub-groups. As more attributes are, or become highly correlated, the strength of the fault-line increases as a result of a reduced number and increased homogeneity of resulting sub-groups, whereas fault-lines are weakest when attributes are not aligned and therefore multiple sub-groups can form. They also note that although sub-groups may form at any time in a group's history, demographic sub-groups are more likely to form at the beginning of the group

development process. As group members spend more time together, attributes such as personality and other personal difference dimensions may become key determinants of a group's fault-line structure. They conclude by suggesting that the combined study of group diversity and the basis of fault-lines should provide new insights into how group composition affects group developmental processes, which in turn may be key predictors of group outcomes. One such model is the "Actualising Social and Personal Identity Resources" to enhance organisational outcomes; 'ASPIRe', (Haslam et al., 2003). The model is informed by work which suggests that an organisation's social capital is partly determined by the employees' identity resources, made up of personal identity (internalised self-definition) and social identity (awareness of group belonging predicated on common cognition). The model proposes that appropriate identification and mobilisation of these work related identity resources is a necessary component of intra-group, inter-group and organisational success. Through this process, group members perceive similarities between their previously idiosyncratic perceptions, motivations, values and goals. This theme is developed through the literature in the next chapter, by taking these conceptual domains and reviewing models that may convert the ideas into an empirical testing process.

2.6 Summary of Chapter 2

The summary below illustrates the nexus of the four related literature themes described above, all converging on personal values as influential phenomena in leadership 'of' and 'by the team'.

Theme One: Strategic change leadership and values

Personal values interaction is an influential team culture dynamic for leading and effecting change

e.g. Dolan & Garcia (2002), Hammer & Champy (1993), Schein (1992), Nadler & Tushman (1990), Burke & Litwin (1989)

Theme Two: Leadership 'of' and 'by the team'

Personal values are key factors influencing the team 'transformational' leadership behaviour required for continuous team 'sense making'

e.g. Higgs (2002), Bass & Avolio (2001), Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2001), Parry (1998), Katzenbach (1998), Kouzes & Posner (1990)

Theme Three: Values diversity in team life

Personal values variation has implications for team leadership behaviour, functioning and effectiveness

e.g. Brodbeck et al (2000), Kuppershmidt (2000), Joynt & Morton (1999), Gibson (1995), Alimo-Metcalfe (1995), Schwartz (1992), Etzioni (1988), Hofstede (1980 a,b)

Theme Four: Social identity and alignment within teams

Personal values are potential team identity and alignment characteristics within the team member interaction process

e.g. Hogg & Terry (2000), Hogan & Holland (2000), Lau & Murnighan (1998), Ashkanasy & O'Connor (1997), Erez & Earley (1993), Louis (1983), Dansereau, Graen & Haga (1975)

This re-emergence of interest in personal values as social aspects of organisational life and their possible contribution to organisational and team outcomes (in line with research paradigms central to Mayo's, 1933 & 1949 – Human Relations school), serves as a timely counterbalance to organisational research that relies on an economic analysis (Pfeffer, 1997). The former paradigm was used to inform the research strategy described in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Related Research Modelling Literature, Development of the Preliminary Research Model and Initial Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction to the Final Part of the Literature Review

Chapters 1 and 2 concentrated on reviewing global theory and concepts relating personal values, leadership behaviour and team functioning/outcomes (Hackman & Morris, 1975; Burke & Litwin, 1989; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schwartz, 1992; Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997; Brodbeck et al., 2000; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung, 2001; Bass & Avolio, 2001; Dolan & Garcia, 2002;). This literature has attempted to re-establish the potential significance of personal values in business team leadership. Morgan (1979) distinguished between three levels of research paradigms. These are: the 'philosophical level' – reflecting basic beliefs about the world; the 'social level' – providing guidelines about how the researcher might construe the domain to be studied and conduct their endeavour; and the 'technical level' – involving specifying the methods and techniques adopted to investigate the research conjecture. Whilst the prior chapters have taken us some way along this path, it is necessary to convert the 'social level' to the 'technical level' through the lens of a research model. Chapter 3 reviews some models related to the research topic in order to pinpoint the exact model that will be used to test out the theory.

In a recent comment on the "leadership mystique", Kets de Vries (1994, p.73) observed: "As far as leadership studies go, it seems that more and more has been studied about less and less, to end up ironically with a group of researchers studying everything about nothing." As Kanungo & Mendonca (1996, p.11) note, " At the conceptual level, there is the difficulty of developing integrative and reasonably comprehensive frameworks to understand the leadership phenomenon. At the empirical level, the ambiguity of research findings has led some to even question the usefulness of research endeavours in the leadership area." The aim of this study is to

provide fresh insights into the connections between personal values and leadership behaviour within a team process. Indeed Simpson & Beeby (1993, p. 2) contend that, "the psychology of the individual and the relationships within teams are the key aspects of transformational processes and culture change". Before outlining the research models that may be appropriate for conducting this study, it is important to review the origins and structure of related leadership models.

3.2 Modes of Leadership Behaviour

Kanungo & Mendonca (1996) identified three modal orientations in leadership paradigms from the leadership literature, concerning either an appointed leader in a formal group or a group member in an informal group, summarised under: 'Leader Role Behaviour', 'Contingencies of Leadership Effectiveness' and 'Leader-Follower Influence Process'. They note for instance that Yukl (1989 b) identified two major leadership roles, a consideration or people orientation (also known as the social role), and an initiating structure or task orientation, (also known as the task role). The first role reflects social-emotional leadership: "The degree to which a leader's behaviour towards group members is characterised by mutual trust, development of good relations, sensitivity to the feelings of group members, and openness to their suggestions", (Andriessen & Drenth, 1984, p.489). The second role reflects task-oriented leadership: "The degree to which a leader is bent on defining and structuring the various tasks and roles of group members in order to attain group results", (Andriessen & Drenth, 1984, p.489). The contingency approach (e.g. Vroom & Yetton, 1973) meanwhile, explores the effects of autocratic, consultative and participative leadership behaviour on the effectiveness of a leader in achieving group objectives, whether these might be solely people oriented or task oriented. Using a continuum of such styles, the models identified which style would be most appropriate to the situation, bearing in mind both tasks and followers. The situational leadership behaviour paradigm, as exemplified by an elaboration of the path-goal theory of leadership (House & Mitchell, 1974) was developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates. According to House & Dessler (1974, p. 13): "…..leader behaviour will be viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behaviour as

either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction". House & Mitchell (1974) suggest that intervening variables in path-goal theory explain how a leader's behaviour affects subordinate satisfaction and effort. Such situational variables also influence subordinate preferences for a particular pattern of leadership behaviour and motivation is based on both the probability of an outcome ('expectancy') and its desirability ('valence'). Their model and a similar situational leadership model type (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977) are outlined and critiqued in more detail later. The path-goal model has particular relevance to this study because the two situational moderator variables listed by House & Mitchell (1974) are, 'characteristics of task and environment' and 'characteristics of subordinates', although the specific effects of particular components of subordinate characteristics on subordinate effort and satisfaction are not hypothesised. The four leadership behaviours described by the authors, whose impact on subordinate effort and satisfaction is moderated by the situational variables are, 'Supportive Leadership' – considering the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their welfare; 'Directive Leadership' – setting expectations, giving guidance using rules and procedures, work scheduling and co-ordination; 'Participative Leadership' – consulting with subordinates and taking their opinions and suggestions into account; and 'Achievement-oriented Leadership' – setting challenging goals, seeking performance improvements, emphasising performance excellence and showing confidence that subordinates will reach high standards. Finally, the leader-follower social influence process paradigm (e.g. Avolio & Bass, 1988) examines the psychological mechanisms that explain the linkage between the leader's role behaviour and the followers' compliance and commitment to achieving group objectives. Bass (1985) has promulgated the notion of transformational leadership as a principal factor in this process. Transformational leaders present to the followers the vision and its high ideals and values and encourage and help followers to incorporate these. The resulting internalisation by the followers of the leader's ideals and values is the basis for followers' enhanced commitment, efforts and actions toward the realisation of the vision. Although transformational leaders also engaged in transactional or 'maintenance of what is' type behaviours, the characteristics of behaviours that were primarily responsible for transformational follower behaviour are engendering faith in and trust of the leader; consideration of or sensitivity to followers' needs; and a

statement of the vision in a manner that causes followers to reassess their priorities and activities. However, inadequate attention has been given to the study of followers' behaviour within these paradigms. As Hollander & Offerman (1990, p.182) point out, "Although the study of leadership has always presumed the existence of followers, their roles were viewed as essentially passive". Thus there is a need for follower centred approaches to leadership research, or better still research that views leadership as a collective shared experience, including both leader and followers (see Greenleaf's, 1970, notion of the servant leader). For instance, Shamir, House & Arthur (1993) postulate that transformational leaders influence through implicating the self-concept of followers. They increase the intrinsic value of efforts and goals by linking them to important aspects of followers' self-concepts. Personal values are critical components of these self-concepts (Hogan & Holland, 2000). Taking "power" as an example of a personal value and drawing on McClelland's (1975) work on socialised and personalised power, transformational leaders who are high in self-serving activity inhibition may become "socialised leaders" expressing their need for power through socially constructive behaviour and it might only be through this behaviour that the transformational influence process is able to take effect. Other leaders, low in self-serving activity inhibition, become "personalised" leaders who express and satisfy their need for power through personally dominant and authoritarian behaviour which negates the transformational influence process. And personal values may differ depending on culture. As Kanungo & Mendonca (1996) point out, followers are more likely to attribute leadership when they perceive leadership behaviour to be culturally appropriate and in congruence with their own cultural values. Thus, in a traditional organisational or national culture that subscribes to conservative values and modes of behaviour among its members and the use of conventional means to achieve organisational objectives, leaders who engage in excessive unconventional behaviour may be viewed more as deviants than transformational leaders. Even so, the same authors regard transformational leadership as the bedrock of ethical leadership behaviour, more effective and more enduring, because in reflecting the leader's altruistic values and orientation, it promotes the dignity of the human person. They produced (p.73) the following table to contrast the transactional with the transformational leadership influence process.

Along similar lines, a more recent classification of transformational leadership, referenced to values, is provided by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003, p.73).

Table 3.1 – Kanungo & Mendonca's (1996) contrast between the transactional and transformational leadership influence process, showing Sashkin & Sashkin's (2003) insertion.

Leadership Influence Process	***Transactional Leadership***	***Transformational Leadership***	***Sashkin & Sashkin – Transformational Leadership***
Strategies	Control	Empowerment	Interdependent
Leader objective in terms of behavioural outcomes	Emphasis on compliance behaviour	Changing followers' core attitudes, beliefs and values	Interdependent action
Underlying psychological mechanism	Social exchange of valued resources	Increasing self-efficacy and self-determination	Interdependent action guided by internalised shared values
Power base	Coercive, legal, reward	Expert and referent	Empowered leaders and followers are guided by a shared vision
Attitude change process and effects	Compliance, which under excessive control, often leads to demolishing followers' self-worth and to their functioning as programmed robots	Identification and internalisation leading to followers' self-growth and to their functioning as autonomous persons	Empowered followers as partners
Moral implication	Unethical	Ethical	

Kanungo & Mendonca (1996) argue that it is the charismatic leader's self-transformation that triggers the transformational influence process. This transcends their need for achievement and has a spiritual component. They cite Roland (1988, p.6), who asserts that there are three types of "overarching or super-ordinate organisations of the self: the familial self, the individualised self, and the spiritual

self". Each individual, it is proposed, has the potential to develop self-identity along each of these dimensions of human experience. The individualised self is characterised by an emphasis on competitive "I-ness", inner separateness and autonomous functioning (the predominant mode of North American societies). The familial self is demonstrated through "symbiosis-reciprocity", involving a collectivist "We-ness" orientation, emotional intimacy with in-group members and interdependence (most witnessed in Eastern societies). The spiritual self is also found in the latter societies. This is manifested through a realisation of the inner virtues and strength or the ideals that the self tries to attain. They note that the individualised and familial selves are similar to the individualism-collectivism constructs suggested by Hofstede (1980 b) and Triandis (1988). McClelland's (1975) research on managerial motivation revealed three underlying needs: power, achievement and affiliation. Although a dominant need for power is desirable in executives, McClelland & Burnham (1976) suggest that their effectiveness also depends on how this need finds expression. People with a high need for power, tend to either have a "personalised power concern" or a "socialised power concern", with the latter more likely to result in effective leadership. Executives expressing the former have little inhibition or self-control, tend to be hedonistic and exercise power impulsively. They may provide assistance or advice, but in a way that demonstrates personal superiority and the weakness or dependence of subordinates. Those with socialised power concern are more emotionally mature, exercise power more for the benefit of others, accumulate fewer material possessions, have a longer-range view and are more willing to take advice from experts. However, at the heart of this process the assumptions remain that followers will either respect a leader who shares their values or they will absorb the leader's values if they are party to a transformational leadership influence process, regardless of the specific nature of values differences. Neither assumption reflects the specific and enduring nature of personal values held by individuals, whether they are leaders or followers. In particular, we do not know the make up of transformational as opposed to transactional personal values that organisational team members (combination of leader and followers) might hold and how these might influence team member perceptions of the team transformational leadership process. Bass (1985) states that transactional leaders tend to accept the prevailing culture (maintenance of the status quo), whilst transformational leaders tend to change culture. For Bass, this

includes who rules and by what means; the work group norms; as well as ultimate beliefs about religion, ideology, morality, ethics, space, time and human nature; thoughts shared by Schein (1992) and Gibb-Dyer (1985), whose taxonomy proposes five categories of cultural assumptions: the nature of relationships; human nature; the nature of 'truth'; the environment; universalism or particularism.

Presuming that all team members are part of team culture shaping through living out, or wishing to live out their personal values albeit actively or passively to varying degrees, then individual team members will at the very least have a first hand view of whether a more 'status quo' or 'transformational' culture is being translated into representative team leadership behaviour, that is aligned to their personal values. In this regard, Payne (1991) asserts that a feature of a strong culture is the consonance between the explicit and implicit cultures, with implicit culture representing the set of cultural beliefs, values and norms that underlie the observed behaviour, i.e. the explicit culture. Whilst Vaill's (1989) view of culture is that it represents a "Unique Common Psychology". That is, it is bounded - creating identity, and shared - producing 'subtle likeness' between individuals. It exists deep within the psyche with fundamental similarities in thinking, feeling, perceiving and valuing. Hence, any attempt to investigate the influence of personal values in organisational leadership 'by the team' activity must provide some empirical means to bring out and classify who holds what kind of values. As Schein (1992) suggests, in his three level model of organisational culture, values spring from subconscious assumptions and ultimately lead to enacted beliefs. Indeed, Burke & Litwin's (1989) view of the distinction between leadership and management assumes that there is some point in an organisation's hierarchy at which 'executive values and practices' become a particular cluster of specific behaviours, whilst Kotter (1988) argues that such a conceptual distinction is hard to preserve with leadership required at all levels in an organisation. For Schein, values and beliefs often reflect the philosophy or ideology of an organisation. Schein notes that not all values will become accepted as beliefs, but his reasoning is that sub-cultures within the organisation (as may be found in teams), may hang on to their own values, regardless of those held in the wider organisation. Smith et al. (1989) make the point that there may be certain universal underlying structures to the way a leader's behaviour is interpreted that are general to the leader-subordinate

relationships. Thus, while general measures of these underlying structures might be correlated with criterion measures they may only make sense according to the specific information in a specific setting. They suggest that researchers of leadership have tended to use weak generic measures to improve the chances of making generalisable results. As already ascertained, a key underlying structure is personal values. Hence the need to be clear both in their measurement and the hypotheses generated to investigate the relationships they might have with other variables in the leadership 'by the team' process and its outcomes.

3.3 Personal Values as Leadership 'by the team' process and outcome Input Variables

Hogan & Hogan (1996) point out that definitions of needs, values and interests overlap although they can be differentiated according to how tangible they are for social action, with interests at the top of this hierarchy. Together with Schein (1992), values are positioned as more abstract notions, but both authors believe values provide useful explanations of behaviour that are accessible through observation and measurement. The term 'value' has been defined by Rokeach (1973) as an enduring prescriptive or proscriptive belief that a specific end state of existence or specific mode of conduct is preferred to an opposite end state or mode of conduct for living one's life (particularly the values attached to life's major roles – marriage, parenting, work, leisure and daily consumptions). Within these contexts Schwartz (1994, p.21) sees values as motivators for goal seeking behaviour in that, "(1) they serve the interests of some social entity, (2) they can motivate action giving it direction and emotional intensity, (3) they function as standards for judging and justifying action, and (4) they are acquired both through socialization to dominant group values and through the unique learning experiences of individuals." Schwartz (1994, p.21) defines values as "desirable transsituational goals, varying in importance, serving as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity". England (1967, p.54) defined a 'Personal Value System' as, "a relatively permanent perceptual framework that shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behaviour. Values are similar to attitudes, but are more ingrained, permanent and stable in nature. (They are)

closer to ideology or philosophy…..". Indeed, in business life, Kenny (1994) maintains that organisational visions can be realised through the development and operation of a value base.

The contents of some well known related personal values classifications are described below. Yukl (1989 a) suggests that one of the most widely used measures of values in managerial research is the Gordon (1976) Survey of Interpersonal Values (SIV), labelled as follows: 'support', 'conformity', 'recognition', 'independence', 'benevolence' and 'leadership'. Hambrick & Brandon's (1988) 'Executive Value Dimensions' (EDV) framework has six dimensions; 'Collectivism' (to value the wholeness of humankind and of social systems; regard and respect for people), 'Duty' (to value the integrity of reciprocal relationships; obligation and loyalty), 'Rationality' (to value fact-based, emotion-free decisions and actions, 'Novelty' (to value change, the new and different), 'Materialism' (to value wealth and pleasing possessions) and 'Power' (to value control of situations and people). These were used to hypothesise specific, dimension associated, organisational actions and attributes. Rokeach's 'Rokeach Value Survey' or RVS (1968, 1973) is designed to measure two sets of values that may be especially important in the leader-follower relationship. The set is composed of 18 'terminal' values or desired end states of existence (e.g. a sense of accomplishment, inner harmony, equality and social recognition) and 18 'instrumental values', or preferable modes of behaviour (e.g. ambitious, independent, broad-minded, imaginative). However, Schwartz (1994) questioned this split in to two lists, noting that Rokeach (1973) recognised that people can treat any terminal value as instrumental to another, whilst all instrumental values may be conceptualised as terminal. Moreover, a factor analysis of the combined lists (Rokeach, 1973) provided little support for the distinction. The Motives, Values and Preferences Indicator or MVPI, (Hogan and Hogan, 1996) employs 10 factors: 'Aesthetic' (associated with an interest in art, literature, music, the humanities and a lifestyle guided by questions of culture, good taste, and attractive surroundings), 'Affiliation' (associated with a desire for and enjoyment of social interaction), 'Altruistic' (concern about the welfare of others, especially the less fortunate, a desire to help them, and in some way, contribute to the development of a better society), 'Commercial' (an interest in business and business-related matters such as accounting, marketing, management,

and finances), 'Hedonistic' (an orientation toward fun, pleasure, and enjoyment), 'Power' (associated with a desire for success, accomplishment, status, competition, and control), 'Recognition' (reflects responsiveness to attention, approval, praise, a need to be recognized, and an appreciation for the role of recognition in human motivation), 'Scientific' (associated with a desire for knowledge, an enthusiasm for new and advanced technologies, and a curiosity about how things work), 'Security' (reflects a desire for certainty, predictability, order, and control in one's life), and 'Tradition' (describes one's dedication to ritual, history, spirituality, and old-fashioned virtues). Following a principle components analysis of the MVPI, these scales were found to be represented by four higher-order factors, conceptualised as follows: 'Recognition, Power and Hedonistic' – wanting to be influential, make a difference, be recognised for getting things done ('Achievement' factor), 'Altruistic, Affiliation and Tradition' – wanting to help, serve, and participate in worthy activities ('Social Service' factor); 'Commercial and Security' – wanting financial success and occupational security ('Security' factor) and 'Aesthetic and Scientific – wanting to analyse, design and make things pleasing and interpretable' ('Creativity' factor). The authors also established some observer description correlates of these four factors based on data sets, including managers descriptions of subordinates and vice versa, and peer ratings of managers. Managers who valued 'Achievement' highest were seen as hard working, visionary and productive but somewhat self-centred. Managers who valued 'Social Service' were thought to be trustworthy, sympathetic and sensible but not very visionary or strategic. Managers who valued 'Security' were liked by their supervisors (who saw them as holding the line), but not by their subordinates, (who suggested that they did not sufficiently engage them or their customers). Finally, managers who valued 'Creativity' were viewed as up to date, encouraging of their staff's development and variety seeking for themselves and their subordinates. Hogan & Holland (2000) also speculate that leaders' values may be attributable to strategy preferences, for example leaders who have 'Achievement' values may develop long-term strategies to outperform the competition, those with 'Social Service' values could be more inclined to focus on socially desirable outcomes like helping the disadvantaged, 'Security' holders concentrate on short-term gains and/or create businesses, whilst 'Creativity' types create organisations to emphasise their uniqueness and devotion to innovation, style and dazzle.

The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS), Schwartz (1994) differs from other typologies, by considering the conflicts and compatibilities likely to arise when people pursue these values structures simultaneously, as may occur in an organisational team. Schwartz (1994) extrapolated ten motivationally distinct types of values, from what he sees as the universal need of societies, groups and individuals to understand and communicate necessities that underpin and guide human existence. These are: 'Power', 'Achievement', 'Hedonism', 'Stimulation', 'Self-direction', 'Universalism', 'Benevolence', 'Tradition', 'Conformity' and 'Security'. For example, 'Conformity' emerged from the prerequisite of smooth interaction and group survival, which prescribes that individuals restrain impulses and inhibit actions that might hurt others. Detailed derivations are available in Schwartz & Bilsky, (1987, 1990), and Schwartz (1992). Schwartz categorised these values into two higher-order bipolar dimensions: 'Openness to change' (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism) - 'Conservation' (conformity, security, tradition) and 'Self-enhancement' (achievement, power, hedonism) - 'Self-transcendence' (benevolence, universalism). These constructs: 'Openness to change' - 'Conservation' and 'Self-enhancement' - 'Self-transcendence', also provide a conceptual link to the transformational and transactional leadership behaviour paradigms, as indicated in Table 3.2 below. Indeed, Schwartz (1994) maintains that his conceptualisation differs from others because it considers value systems as an interdependent coherent structure with conflicts and compatibilities amongst the value types. For example, the pursuit of achievement values may conflict with the pursuit of benevolence values, i.e. seeking personal success for oneself (a transactional type personal value), is likely to obstruct actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of others who need one's help (a transformational type personal value). Unlike personality measures (e.g. the Californian Personality Inventory), that ask about a person's typical response in different social situations, inventories such as the SVS and MVPI aim to discover preferences, or how people would like to be. Thus, they tap a person's self-concept through desired end state values. As a critical source of satisfaction, direction and motivation, values guide the involvement choices we make in our working environment. Indeed, as cited by Hogan and Hogan (1996), both Holland (1985) and Schneider (1987) suggest that taxonomies of work environments based on worker characteristics may predict work outcomes better than task taxonomies. Hogan & Hogan (1996) conclude that we know very little about the links between leader effectiveness and personality, when personality is defined from the inside (i.e. via values). Table 3.2 below contrasts Schwartz's (1994) personal values factors and constructs with related values or needs categories (held by individuals generally or representative of national culture). Proposed connections to transformational and transactional leadership type values are also made.

Table 3.2 – A comparison between Schwartz's (1994) values factors and other authors' values and needs categories ***Original Factors (Schwartz, 1994)***	***Original Constructs (Schwartz, 1994)***	***Hambrick & Brandon (1988) - factors***	***Hogan & Hogan (1996) - constructs***	***Gordon (1976) - factors***	***Hofstede's national "individualism – collectivism" differences (1980) & McClelland & Burnham's (1975) "personalised – socialised power concern"***	**Transactional - Transformational leadership type values?**
Tradition (Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide.) **Conformity** (Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others.) **Security** (Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.)	Conservation	'Duty' (to value the integrity of reciprocal relationships; obligation and loyalty)		Conformity		Transactional
Power (Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.)	Self-Enhancement	'Power' (to value control of situations and people)	'Achievement' (Recognition, Power and Hedonistic) – wanting to be influential, make a difference, be recognised for getting things done	Leadership Recognition	Hofstede's "Individualism" McClelland & Burnham – "personalised power concern"	Transactional
Achievement (Personal success through	Bridges Self-Enhancement & ***Openness to Change***				McClelland & Burnham – "socialised power concern"	**Transformational**

demonstrating competence according to social standards.) **Hedonism** (Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.)		'Materialism' (to value wealth and pleasing possessions)				Transactional
Self- Direction (Independent thought and action - choosing, creating, exploring.)	***Openness to Change***	'Rationality' (to value fact-based, emotion-free decisions and actions)		Independence		**Transformational**
Stimulation (Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.)	***Openness to Change***	'Novelty' (to value change, the new and different)				**Transformational**
Benevolence (Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact.)	***Self-Transcendence***		'Social Service' (Altruistic, Affiliation and Tradition) – wanting to help, serve, and participate in worthy activities	Support Benevolence	Hofstede's "Collectivism"	**Transformational**
Universalism (Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.)	***Self-Transcendence***	'Collectivism' (to value the wholeness of human kind and of social systems)			Hofstede's "Collectivism"	**Transformational**

As can be seen from Table 3.2 above, the SVS offers the most comprehensive coverage of the personal values paradigm. Table 3.3 below summarises the proposed conceptual associations between the SVS hypothesised bi-polar constructs and modes of leadership behaviour, including transformational-transactional leadership behaviour and personal goals measures. The Openness to Change-Conservation dimension opposes values emphasizing own independent thought and action and favouring change (self-direction and stimulation), to those emphasizing submissive self-restriction, preservation of traditional practices and protection of stability (security, conformity, and tradition). The Self-Enhancement - Self-Transcendence dimension opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare (universalism and benevolence), to those emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others (power and achievement). Hedonism is related both to Openness to Change and Self-Enhancement.

Table 3.3 – Conceptual associations between SVS bi-polar constructs and modes of leadership behaviour ***SVS bi-polar Constructs (Schwartz, 1994)***	Modes of leadership behaviour (1) Yukl, (1989)	Modes of leadership behaviour (2) Andriessen & Drenth, (1984)	Modes of leadership behaviour (3) House & Mitchell (1974)	Transformational Leadership Behaviour (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996) & ***Bass (1985)***	Transactional Leadership Behaviour (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996) & ***Kan (2002)***	Personal Goals (1) Wicker, Lambert, Richardson & Kahler (reported by Hogan & Holland, 2000)	Personal Goals (2) Pervin (reported by Hogan & Holland, 2000)
Openness to Change			Achievement Leadership & Participative Leadership	Increasing self-efficacy and self-determination & ***one of the most important ways that transformational leaders achieved their results was to stimulate their followers to view the world from new perspectives***			
Conservation					Emphasis on compliance behaviour & ***'Management by Exception' (active) – monitoring to avoid mistakes while maintaining the status quo or 'Laissez Faire'- distinguished by the***		Reduce Tension-Conflict Threat

					avoidance of leadership per se		
Self-Transcendence	a consideration or people orientation (also known as the social role)	"The degree to which a leader's behaviour towards group members is characterised by mutual trust, development of good relations, sensitivity to the feelings of group members, and openness to their suggestions"	Supportive Leadership	Empowerment & ***such leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees and employees are motivated to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group***		Interpersonal Concern	Affection-Support
Self-Enhancement	an initiating structure or task orientation, (also known as the task role)	"The degree to which a leader is bent on defining and structuring the various tasks and roles of group members in order to attain group results"	Directive Leadership		Control & ***Leadership stressing the provision/withholding of an exchange or transaction in return for followers meeting agreed upon objectives***	Competitive Ambition	Aggression Power

In conclusion, there appears to be some evidence for a theoretical association between specific types of personal values and leadership behaviour constructs. In broad terms, this is reflected in a possible conceptual relationship between 'transformational' type values and transformational leadership behaviour (i.e. people and future focussed values and behaviour) and also between 'status quo' type values and transactional leadership behaviour (i.e. present and task focussed values and behaviour). As Baker & Jenkins (1993, p. 2) note, "The value concept is often used to identify unknown or underlying variables in individual actions. It is this ostensible uncovering of the cognitive path between personal values and behaviour which gives values research its significance to management researchers". Moreover, Hambrick & Brandon (1988), in the context of a general model of executive values and action, suggest that values first of all influence the perception of stimuli and thereby shape information gathering, and secondly values guide behaviour in order to uphold established terminal values. This is the essence of investigating the influence of values 'alignment', i.e. the alignment of personal values with the perception of behaviour that reflects these values. The cognitive and perceptual path between team member's personal values and their perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and related team outcomes is the primary focus of this study. However, before a Preliminary Research Model is outlined it is necessary to place this research within a continuum of related performance interaction process models, ranging from a global organisation theory (Burke & Litwin, 1989 – amended by Cannon, 2000), through a widely used group process model (Hackman & Morris, 1975) and onto a specific team climate concept, containing transformational type values related constructs, at team and individual units of analysis (West, 1990 and Burch et al., 2002, Burch & Anderson, 2003) respectively.

3.4 Organisation, Group and Team; Values related Interaction Process and Performance Models

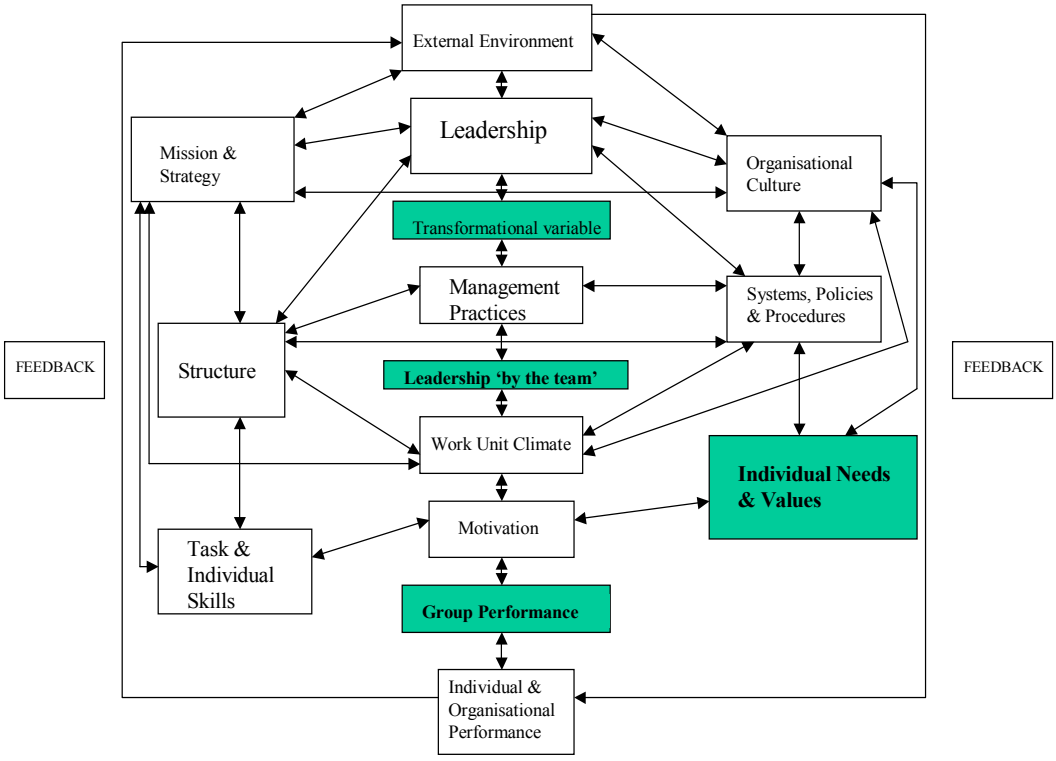
Throughout preceding chapters, attention has been drawn to reducing the complexity of testable research models and variable relationships, if empirical studies are to add value to theory. Higgs (1997) cites Schein (1985) and Hackman (1990) who respectively summarised this challenge when observing: " We cannot understand the psychological dynamics if we only look at the individual's motivations, or only to organisational conditions and practices. The two interact in a complex fashion requiring us to develop theories and research approaches which can deal with systems and

interdependent phenomena." And, "Influences on group effectiveness do not come in separate, easily distinguishable packages…. To try to sort out the effects of each possible determinant of team effectiveness can lead to the conclusion that no single factor has a very powerful effect – a conclusion reached by more than one reviewer of the group performance literature." As previously discussed, the heritage of values related empirical, as opposed to theoretical, team process studies is not well established and evidence of the inclusion of personal values as input variables in testable models is practically non-existent. As Higgs (1997) notes, Interaction Process Model research is emerging as a general means of dealing with the complexity of teams and team member interactions. On a cautionary note Barrett-Lennard (1975) suggested that in this sense the term process grows from the nature of the leader and team members, and their individual and combined behaviour. Whilst Hackman & Morris (1975) raised the difficulties in understanding relationships between interaction and effectiveness, one of their answers was to suggest the inclusion of explicit quantitative assessment of how group interaction impacts on group performance. However, in terms of the conceptual extension laid in the research reported here, their modelling does not consider how this group interaction might affect the group member's ***perception*** of their own group performance, rather than group performance per se; or, more critically, how personal values might act as an 'alignment' lens, perhaps unconsciously affecting how the group interaction observations are assessed, in terms of their impact on perceived group performance. As Barrett-Lennard (1975) states: "Simple linear models of cause and effect seem not to be plausibly applicable to the process itself and still less to its effects."

In order to trace the heritage of personal values related team interaction and team performance process modelling, a start can be made with Burke & Litwin (1989). This model is a classic example of a complex theory containing twelve concepts, each of which is extremely difficult to operationalise into construct and variable relationships that can be tested empirically. Although Burke & Litwin (1989, p.5) argue that they are presenting a model, "that will serve both as a guide for diagnosis and planned organisational change", and one which moves from the level of description to predict behaviour and the consequences of behaviour on performance, it is difficult to ascertain how this aim will be met. However, the inclusion in the model (see Figure 3.1) of 'Individual Needs and Values', defined as "the specific psychological factors that provide desire and worth for individual actions and thoughts", is pertinent to the current study. Even more so because they make a distinction between culture and climate that is directly relevant to the transformational-transactional leadership school, and the need to focus on teams as opposed to

organisation as the unit of analysis. Thus, Burke & Litwin (1989, p.16) define climate as, "the collective current impressions, expectations and feelings that members of local work units have that in turn affect their relations with their boss, with one another and with other units." As Cannon (2000) observes, here climate is considered a transactional variable in that it is subject to short-term influences, whereas culture is viewed as relatively enduring and a more difficult to change transformational variable. In his review of the literature surrounding the model Cannon (2000) notes that the terms 'leadership' and 'management practices' tend to be used interchangeably and it is not always clear whether the unit of analysis is the organisation or the work group. He therefore recommends a fusion of the two variables into a single transformational variable, in order that the relationship between this redefined variable and work unit climate can be more robustly tested, as one significant element of the whole model. This is reflected in the adaptation of the model and the author's positioning of the study reported here, laid out in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: The Burke-Litwin Model (1989) with Cannon's (2000) proposed amendment ('Transformational variable') and this author's research focus (highlighted in bold)



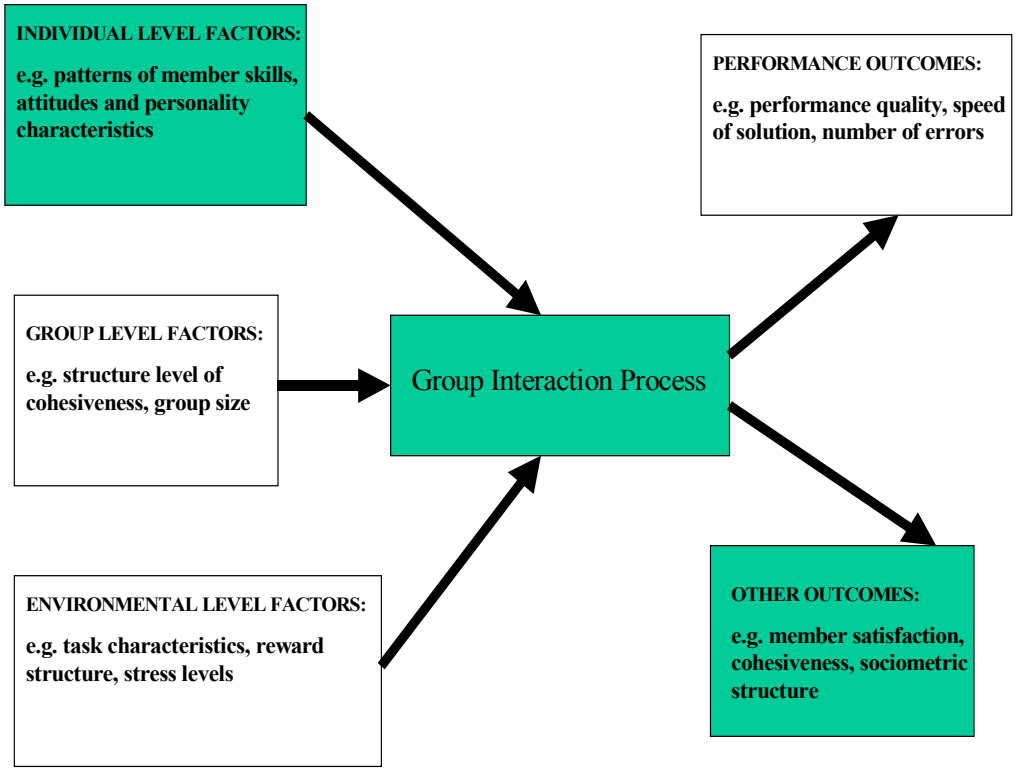
Although the above model locates this research within a wider theoretical context, it offers little in the way of variable construct and variable relationships clarification, at the local work unit level of analysis. Whilst Cannon's (2000) insertion of the transformational variable introduces a fusion of

transformational and transactional leadership behaviour, this study's author has added leadership 'by the team' as a specific work group unit of analysis and connecting variable, which connects the transformational variable, leading on to group performance, via work unit climate and motivation; the importance of which has already been mentioned in other sections of the literature review. Even so, in order to establish a more confined theoretical territory for this study's Preliminary Research Model, that also attempts to establish the particular place of individual personal values, the next model takes us into the heart of group interaction variables and effects.

As Higgs (1997) records, Hackman & Morris (1975) suggested that the group interaction process was key to understanding group effectiveness.

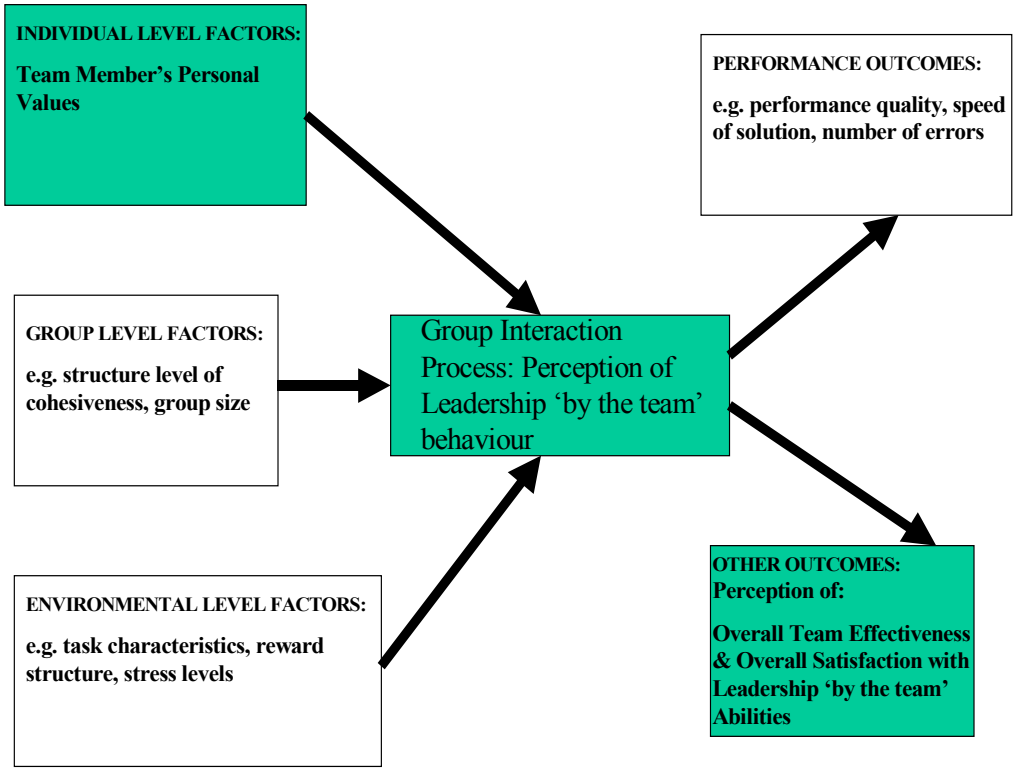
However, the primary concern of this study is to identify and measure elements of the interaction process that may contribute to local work unit (i.e. team) member's perception of team effectiveness, notably team member's personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour. Indeed, Higgs (1999 b) noted that Hackman & Morris (1975) proposed that the interaction processes act as mediator variables, and that the variance in effectiveness may be better explained by looking at the combined input and process factors in relation to the outcome variables. In their conclusions, Hackman & Morris (1975) also suggest that it may be necessary to settle for a number of smaller theories within the general theory of small group effectiveness. Before we look at the implications of this proposal for the Preliminary Research Model, it is worth illustrating the Hackman & Morris (1975) model in full – see Figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3.2 - Hackman & Morris (1975) Interaction Process Model



Adapting the above model, to include this research author's Research Domain, leads to the model illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 - Hackman & Morris (1975) Interaction Process Model – adapted for this author's research focus

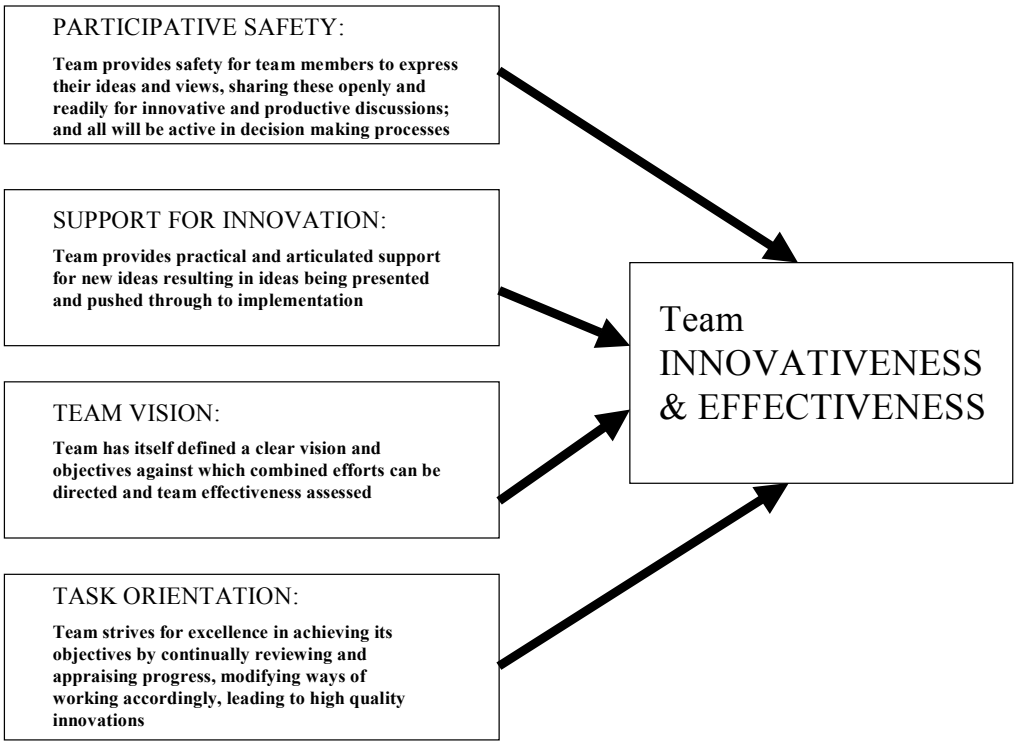


In developing their model, Hackman & Morris (1975) identified two reasons that they believed exaggerated the difficulty associated with evaluating the mediating functions of group processes. These were: 'Research Settings' - the use of laboratory based experimental designs with ad hoc groups does not allow real group formation to develop; and an associated issue, 'Cultural Norms' - group members need time together to explore each other's ways of operating. Both of these problems are eliminated in this study because of the subject population characteristics, i.e. real teams, with most team members having been together for over 6 months, working on real team tasks. The latter issue is especially pertinent to the inclusion of personal values as the input variable in the Preliminary Research Model, team member perceptions of the leadership 'by the team' behaviour as the group interaction process, with team member perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities as the chosen team outcome variables. Higgs (1997) offers an extensive review of the empirical application of interaction process research that reveals an absence of these factors. To explore this further, and in heeding Hackman & Morris's (1975) recommendation to examine specific parts of the global model as indicated above, the 'Team Climate' model (West, 1990; Burch et al., 2002; and Burch & Anderson, 2003) fuses elements of

the adapted Burke & Litwin (1989) model ('Work Unit Climate', 'Motivation' and 'Group Performance'), centres on real work teams and then using the proposed team climate framework, speculates on the impact of individual team member's related personality traits on the team interaction process (after, Hackman & Morris, 1975). As Burch & Anderson (2003) note, team climate is related to organisational climate at a lower level of analysis. It is concerned with the ways in which team members work together and the team dynamics that exist.

West (1990) proposes four climate factors, each contributing to team innovativeness and effectiveness. His model is re-produced in Figure 3.4 below.

Figure 3.4 - West's (1990) 'Team Climate' Model (definitions provided by Burch & Anderson, 2003)



Although not stated, implicit in this model is the notion of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, thus bringing in the transformational variable proposed by Cannon (2000). Indeed, West's (1996) notion of 'reflexivity', an essential ingredient of group process effectiveness, bears a close resemblance to the transformational and transactional paradigms within a team member driven leadership process. West (1996, p.559) defines 'reflexivity' as, "the extent to which group members overtly reflect upon the group's objectives, strategies and processes, and adapt them to current or

anticipated…..circumstances." West (1996) views 'reflexivity' as existing in two dimensions, task and social, thus also reflecting the two modes of leadership behaviour summarised by Yukl (1989 a), on the basis of previous work by Hersey & Blanchard (1993, 1977) and Fleishman (1953). Thus, indications of reflective task processes include reflection on: group objectives (are they appropriate, clear, valued and are members committed to them?); and group processes (how are decisions made, how much support is there for innovation, how will members interact?). Meanwhile, the social dimension of group life can be evidenced by reflection on activities like: social support (how much mutual support do members provide for each other's development?); and member development (do members provide support for one another's development, are members encouraged to learn from each other's experiences?). The proposition that 'reflexivity' predicts group effectiveness is supported by studies of problem-solving groups, that found increased effectiveness amongst groups who reflected on how to go about tackling the task (West & Anderson, 1995). However, unlike Burke & Litwin's (1989) model, West's (1990) team climate model shares with Hackman & Morris (1975) the same omission of personal values as a possible individual team member difference variable. As a partial and related response to this gap, Burch & Anderson (2003) move to the individual team member as the unit of analysis by suggesting that an effective 'team player' might be expected to possess certain personality traits that would relate to these four aspects of team climate. They report a study by Burch et al. (2002) that examined the relationship between an individual's preferred team-working style (or team climate preference), across each of the four climate scales and the Five-Factor Model of Personality (FFM – McCrae & Costa, 1989): Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. In relation to preference for 'Participative Safety', individuals matched when they possessed a more approachable and friendly interpersonal style, were more outgoing and sociable and held a genuine concern for others. For 'Support for Innovation', the match was people open to experience, with an active imagination, intellectual curiosity and an enjoyment of exploring ideas. Whilst the 'Task Orientation' factor related to those with a sense of purpose and a strong will, the 'Team Vision' preference was revealed in individuals who were motivated to seek objectives, goals and results. As re-iterated in values definitions throughout previous chapters, individual preferences are of course closely related to differing personal values as guides for behaviour and action. In practical business value terms, Burch & Anderson (2003) argue that if one can assess team climate variables and provide feedback to the team and individual team members then this may lead to more effective team functioning. Consequently, they argue the need for interventions that promote this approach has never been greater. As West (1990, p.330) observes, "By developing a more sophisticated

understanding of the processes and outcomes of innovation, based on viewing innovation as a social process, we may begin to better understand how organisations can evolve to meet the needs of the people who work within them as well as the communities they serve." Thus, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team climate, when combined to reflect a social influence process, may offer new insights into the nature of team interaction and behaviour from a team member personal values perspective. As Payne (1971) observed, climate is a molar concept, reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviours and feelings of the members of a social system that can be operationally measured through the perceptions of system members.

3.5 Summary of Literature Review

Preceding chapters have indicated that team member personal values may be influential in team process and its outcomes, particularly when considering collective leadership behaviour. Unfortunately, models that portray such processes either do not include personal values as significant variables, or when they do, it remains unclear how the variable relationships may interact. The notion of values 'alignment' seems most prevalent in the literature, although once again this has not been operationalised in a manner suitable for empirical testing within this context. Issues connecting these paradigms have been highlighted by previous authors concerns and suggestions for further research spanning thirty years (1972 to 2002), examples of which are provided in Table 3.4.

3.6 The Need for Further Research

The following table illustrates the variety of calls for studies that factor in values related phenomena.

Table 3.4 - A summary table of the need for further research in related fields of enquiry

Author	**Need**
Braun (1972)	Business leadership is not setting up strategies for the detection of social changes that could be used to inform long-term thinking. They should formulate approaches that would enable adjustment to new social truths, socio-economic realities and social values if they are to maintain their competitive positions.
Van Fleet & Al-Tuhaih (1979)	Contradictory results from studies of the impact of culture on leadership may have resulted from semantic confusion over definitions of leadership and culture, lack of a theoretical framework, and the failure to include intermediate and situational variables.
Posner (1992)	Question of person-organisation values fit is affected by reliance on cross-sectional samples such that it cannot be determined whether various individual and/or organisational characteristics have contaminated the relationship effects found. What causes people to align their values with those of the organisation (or institutionalised representatives of the organisations' values i.e. leaders) still warrants further investigation.
Furnham et al. (1993)	Difficulty in measuring team dependent outcome variables has lead to a paucity of studies involving real organisational teams.
Kabanoff et al. (1995)	A number of shortcomings exist in organisational change research including an absence of theory resulting in an inability to deal with higher-level values concepts such as values structures.
Yammarino & Dubinsky (1994)	Despite the emphasis on situational approaches, the transformational leadership paradigm has not yet been subjected to a rigorous investigation of possible moderators of the effectiveness of transformational leaders.

West & Slater (1995)	In organisationally based research, team performance and related factors are not adequately described.
Dunphy & Bryant (1996)	Future research must include leadership within teams when attempting to model team effectiveness.
House & Aditya (1997)	Leadership researchers have failed to take advantage of contributions from other paradigms.
Milton-Smith (1997)	Business school programmes appear to ignore the development of a leader's personal values.
Deluga (1998)	There exists surprisingly little research into leader - (team) member similarity effects.
Hermans & Kempen (1998)	More attention should be paid to contact zones of culture, the complexities of self and identity and the experience of uncertainty.
Wolfe (1998)	Called for more research in to the values held by those at the mid-life Psychological Centre of Gravity (PCG), the evolution of values (using developmental psychology to assist) and how these factors affect consumer and business behaviour.
Avolio (1999)	Posed a challenge to transformational leadership researchers to address 21st century issues by extending the traditional leader-centric approach to autonomous or semi-autonomous teams following earlier thoughts (Avolio & Bass, 1995) that introduced the idea of examining leadership 'by' the group rather than 'of' the group by a single individual.

Higgs (1999)	The vast literature on groups and teams has often failed to produce clear and consistent relationships based on simple models (Hackman, 1990; West, 1994). This failing has led to discussion of the complexity involved in group and team dynamics (Schein, 1985; Furnham, 1992). Further research could usefully explore the impact of different process variables and thus help us to build a more comprehensive picture of the dynamics of effective team performance.
Helgstrand & Stuhlmacher (1999)	Future research should refine the definition of culture and the relationship with sub-culture (e.g. youth cultures, organisational cultures, ethnic cultures).
Brodbeck et al (2000)	Research insights are required that will assist the facilitation of leaders and managers in their understanding and behaviour related to cultural and values forces.
Hogg & Terry (2000)	The challenge for the future is to integrate new social identity mechanisms into theories of organisational behaviour. The important role that identifications with the workgroup, organisation and profession, as well as those that emanate from people's socio-demographic background may play in organisational behaviour has yet to be fully articulated. We suggest that identity-related constructs and processes have the potential to aid such understanding. Combined with multi-level approaches to organisational research, the use of both individual level and group level constructs in models of organisational phenomena could mark the beginning of a new phase of research in organisational behaviour.

Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio & Jung (2000)	Future research needs to examine how groups that described themselves as more transformational built trust, identification and commitment to their tasks. We believe that by identifying the models shared by group members we will also gain more insight into the identification processes in teams, and their effects on subsequent performance.
Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung (2001)	We must develop a deeper understanding of what constitutes 'collective' leadership.
Hall (2002)	Chaos and complexity theory is about recognising patterns in the seemingly unexplainable (Gleick, 1987), and using these patterns to gain greater understanding. Values measurement is about understanding and recognising patterns of human and organisational behaviour. In other words values (and values measurement) can help one to understand some of the seemingly chaotic behaviour that goes on in organisations (experiencing significant change).
Lord & Brown (2004)	"We maintain that articulating the connections between leaders and subordinates' self-concepts will provide leadership researchers with a platform to move beyond the study of leader behaviour to the study of leadership" (Page 7) Hypothesis 5.5 (Page 212) "Leader behaviour has its greatest effect when it activates coherent patterns of values"

3.7 Research Questions

In light of the concerns by other authors enunciated above and the scale of the literature surrounding business teams and their members regarding leadership and values issues, strict limitations on the scope of this study are necessary, if meaningful results are to be forthcoming. There is a particular need to ensure that the concepts and constructs employed are valid and reliable. In addition, it is critical that the assessment of the impact of the 'alignment' notion on team outcomes can be facilitated by identifying theoretical associates between types of personal values and types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour. The research questions and the order in which they are investigated are therefore seen as being:

Research Question One: Based on the subject population sample and original research, are the selected personal values, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcome measures reliable and valid (construct and convergent validity, Churchill, 1979)?

This is the first time the measures have been used with a real business population. Hence factor analyses and comparative composite scale reliabilities may clarify the respective measurement properties of the two main research instruments when employed in business team research (Schwartz, 1994; Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., Sivasubramaniam, N. and Murry, W. D., 2001). Comparisons with other authors' values categorisation, e.g. Hambrick & Brandon (1988); Hogan & Hogan (1996), may help clarify the personal values research domain.

Research Question Two: Are there any theoretical associations between specific personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour concepts and constructs?

> Schwartz's (1994, p. 24) theoretical model of relations among motivational types of values, higher order value types, and bi-polar dimensions (adapted from Schwartz, 1992) indicates potential conceptual relationships between specific dimensions of personal values and team 'transformational leadership' behaviours. The study will therefore investigate if there is any empirical evidence to support such an association.

Research Question Three: In the context of real business teams, what relationships exist between team members' personal values and their perceptions of: leadership 'by the team' behaviour, team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities?

The initial research hypotheses are outlined in the next section. This investigation provides an additional and specific empirical test of selected variable relationships listed in the Hackman & Morris (1975) team process model. As a research contribution, its novelty rests on assessing the relationships between team member personal values as an 'Input' variable, team member perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour as the 'Process' variable, and team member perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities as the two 'Outcome' variables. This is a direct response to the hypothesis raised by Lord & Brown (2004, p. 212).

Research Question Four: Are demographic differences (gender, four generations and ethnic culture – United Kingdom/New Zealand), reflected in specific team members' personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour?

The literature indicates that differences in team member personal values should be found across generations (Joynt & Morton, 1999), whilst the picture for gender is currently equivocal (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995) and United Kingdom/New Zealand ethnic culture affects have not previously been explored for personal values differences (except indirectly, through Hofstede's, 1983 dimensions of national culture). As for differences in perceptions of team leadership behaviour the analysis is purely exploratory, given this is the first known use of the team 'transformational leadership' behaviour measure in a cross-cultural business population sample. However, one might hypothesise that if collective team leadership behaviour is perceived through the lens of personal values, then demographic differences in personal values may also influence perceptions of such behaviour.

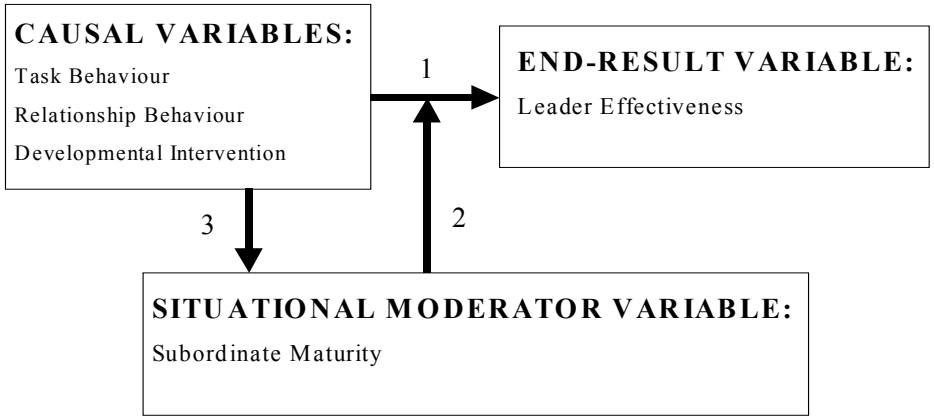
3.8 Preliminary Research Model and Initial Hypotheses

Having summarised the current state of research related to the phenomena under investigation, it is necessary to prescribe a Preliminary Research Model and associated Initial Hypotheses for Research Questions Three and Four. The Final Research Model and Hypotheses for testing will be produced following analysis of the results from Research Questions One and Two. Only then will it be possible to identify hypotheses aimed at exposing the impact of specific forms of alignment between types of personal values and types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour on perceptions of selective team outcomes.

Bowers & Seashore (1966) were the first to extend the investigation of leadership behaviour by suggesting that most leadership functions can be carried out by subordinates as well as managers. For them, group effectiveness will depend more on the overall quality of leadership provided by a whole work unit, rather than who actually performs the leadership functions. This does not downgrade the role of the designated leader, "There are both common sense and theoretical reasons for believing that a formally acknowledged leader through his supervisory leadership behaviour sets the pattern of the mutual leadership which subordinates supply each other." (Bowers & Seashore, 1966, p.249). Until very recently, Bowers and Seashore were the only researchers to develop a questionnaire to describe peer leadership behaviour as well as leadership by the appointed manager. The questionnaire has scales measuring two task-oriented behaviours (goal emphasis, work facilitation) and two relationship-oriented behaviours (supportive leadership, interaction facilitation). In a review of results from 21 organisations, Bowers (1975), found ample evidence that leadership behaviour (by leaders and peers) was related to subordinate satisfaction and group processes, but the pattern of results varied, depending upon the type of industry and the authority level of the manager. This is just one example of attempting to determine how leadership behaviour influences outcomes from situation to situation. As Yukl (1989 a) notes aspects of the situation that enhance or nullify the effects of leadership behaviour are called 'situational moderator variables'. "A situational theory is more complete if it includes intervening variables to explain why the effect of behaviour on outcomes varies across situations." (Yukl, 1989 a, p.98). Situational theories of leader effectiveness are concerned with the moderating influence of situational variables on the relationship between leader behaviour and outcomes or between leader traits and outcomes. These theories assume that different situations require different patterns of behaviour or traits to be effective. Bryman & Cramer (2001) make the distinction between 'intervening' and 'moderator'

variables in this context. An intervening variable is one that is both a product of the independent variable and a cause of the dependent variable, whereas a moderator variable differentially affects the relationship between the independent and dependent variable according to changes in its sample categories and/or scores. As Schein (1992) notes, observable overt behaviour is always determined both by the perceptions, thoughts and feelings that are present and by the situational contingencies arising from the external environment. Situational theories of effective leadership behaviour, for example Hersey & Blanchard's (1969, 1977, 1982) "situational leadership theory" (see Figure 3.5 below), reflect the focus on task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviour, currently mirrored in the transformational-transactional leadership behaviour paradigm. The individual perceptions, thoughts and feelings are accessed and measured via different types of personally held values – the ultimate source of action (Schein, 1992). These differ from 'espoused values', or what people say they value (Argyris & Schon, 1978) and represent 'theories in use', the implicit assumptions that actually guide behaviour, that tell group members how to perceive, think about and feel about things (Argyris & Schon, 1974). As such they are likely to directly influence group member's perception of group leadership behaviour, effectiveness and satisfaction.

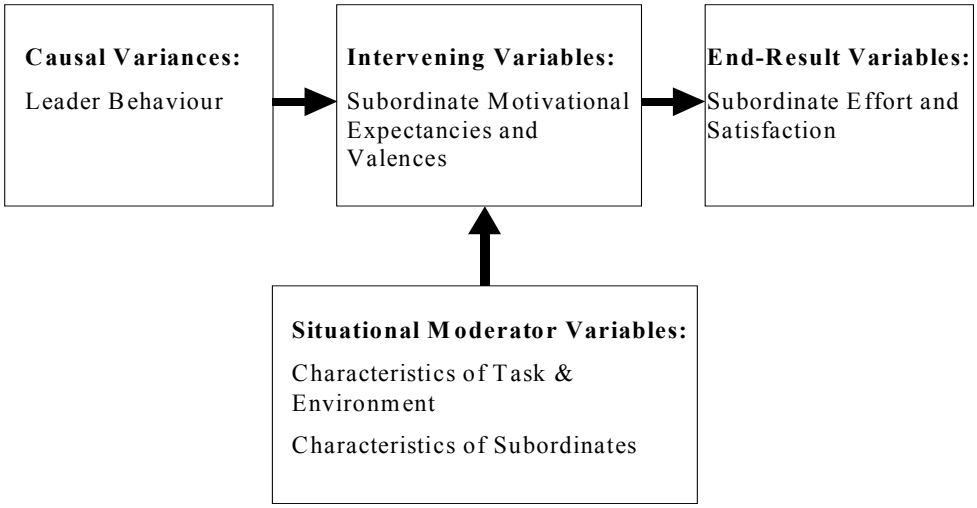
Figure 3.5 - Causal Relationships in Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) Situational Leadership Theory, reported in Yukl (1981 p.143)



As Yukl (1989 a) notes, there has been very little empirical testing of Hersey & Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory. Studies by Blank, Weitzel & Green, (1986) and Hambleton & Gumpert, (1982) revealed only partial support for the model. Yukl (1989 a) suggests that there is no coherent, explicit rationale for the hypothesised relationships between leader behaviour and

effectiveness in different situations, no explicit intervening variables and many important situational variables that are pertinent to the determination of task and relations leadership behaviour are missing. Another situational leadership model is derived from the Path-Goal theory of leadership, already discussed, provided by House & Mitchell (1974) and inserted below.

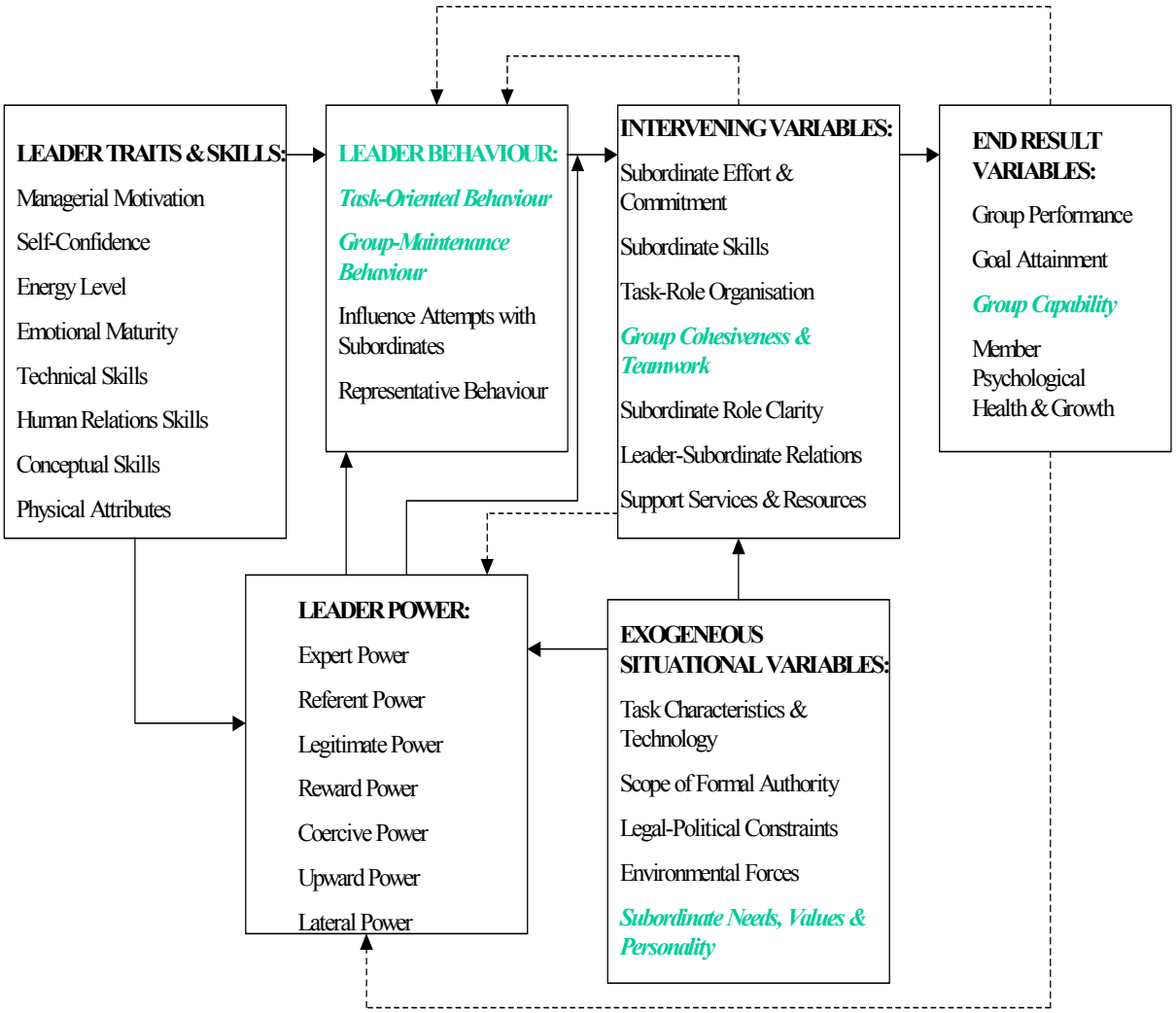
Figure 3.6 – Causal Relationships in Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (House & Mitchell, 1974)



Once again, the forms of leadership behaviour used as the causal variances, 'Supportive', 'Directive', 'Participative' and 'Achievement-oriented', mirror elements of the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm. In this instance, there is cognisance of subordinate effort and satisfaction as end-result variables; and the situational moderator variables determine both the potential for increased subordinate motivation and the manner in which the leader must act to improve motivation. And, of course, one could insert personal values as a key subordinate characteristic. Shifting the leadership behaviour to represent leadership 'by the team' behaviour as previously suggested in alternative models, offers the closest view yet of the variables and relationships considered in this authors Research Domain, outlined in Chapter 1. Unfortunately, as Osborn (1974) observes, the manner in which different situational variables interact has not been specified and it is not clear whether different aspects of the situation have a different moderating influence. Even so, the model is more parsimonious than other models reviewed in this study and it also recognises the motivational elements of team member characteristics that may affect effort and satisfaction. Yukl's (1981) own attempt to clarify this with the model presented in Figure 3.7, still

leaves much confusion, unless one specifies relationships for hypothesis testing based on known theoretical linkages. The variables related to the study conducted here have been highlighted in bold italic.

Figure 3.7 - Yukl's (1981, p. 270) Integrating Framework for Research on Leadership Effectiveness

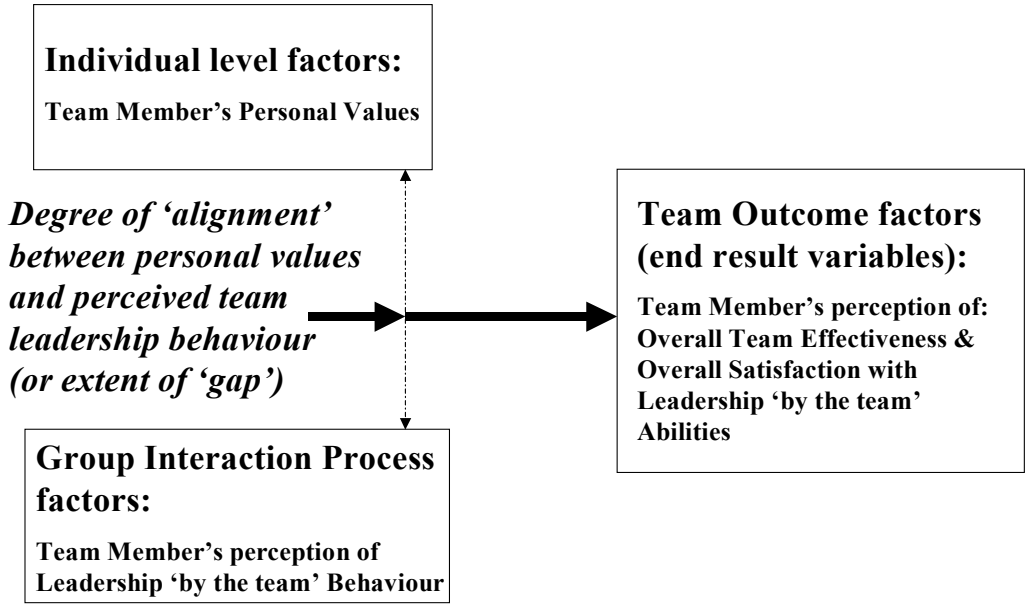


Indeed, Yukl (1989 a, p.119) himself, argues that, "In order to support a situational theory, the pattern of results in a study must be consistent with the propositions of the theory. If the theory postulates a causal chain of sequential effects from leadership behaviour to intervening variable to outcomes, the results must be consistent with this explanation. Unfortunately, most of the situational theories are stated so ambiguously that it is difficult to derive specific, testable propositions. Most of the research provides only an indirect or partial test of the situational

theories. In general, the research suffers from lack of accurate measures and reliance on weak research designs that do not permit strong inferences about direction of causality (Korman & Tanofsky, 1975; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977)."

The literature has revealed strong leanings towards values 'alignment' as a key factor in organisational and team success (e.g. Chorn, 1991 and House & Mitchell, 1974). Unfortunately, there appear to be no empirical models or results that locate the source and type of this proposed impact within the team process context. Within organisational and team process models numerous causal connections are drawn, indicating the role that values might play in relation to other variables of interest, in predicting organisational and team effectiveness/satisfaction. The values literature already discussed indicates that the most promising role for personal values is their association with perceptions of behaviour (Baker & Jenkins, 1993) and their relationship to motivation (Schwartz, 1994), which in turn may be associated with perceptions of effectiveness and satisfaction (House & Dessler, 1974). Therefore, the Preliminary Research Model proposed in this study has relationships between personal values, perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes, as its central concern; using Hackman & Morris's (1979) team process modelling framework and House & Mitchell's (1974) situational leadership model as key reference points. The research conjecture posits that it will be the 'alignment' between the strength of team members' specific personal values held (team 'Input' factors) and their perception of the strength of the presence of associated values related leadership 'by the team' behaviour (team 'Process' factors); that will impact on their perception of overall team effectiveness and overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities (team 'Output' factors). As noted by Yukl (1989 a), House & Mitchell (1974) borrowed their model's intervening variables from a motivation theory called 'expectancy theory' (Georgopolous, Mahoney & Jones, 1957; Vroom, 1964). Yukl (1989 a, p.99) explains that, "There are different versions of expectancy theory, but they all explain work motivation in terms of a rational process in which a person decides how much effort to devote to the job at a given point in time". He continues (p. 100), "In general, if subordinates believe that valued outcomes can be attained only by making a serious effort and they believe such an effort will succeed, then they will make the effort. The effect of a leader's behaviour is primarily to modify these perceptions and beliefs". The Preliminary Research Model, based on the work of Hackman & Morris (1979) and House & Mitchell (1974), is illustrated in Figure 3.8 below, followed by a description of the central underlying theoretical proposition, the operationalisation of this proposition and an enumeration of the Initial Hypotheses.

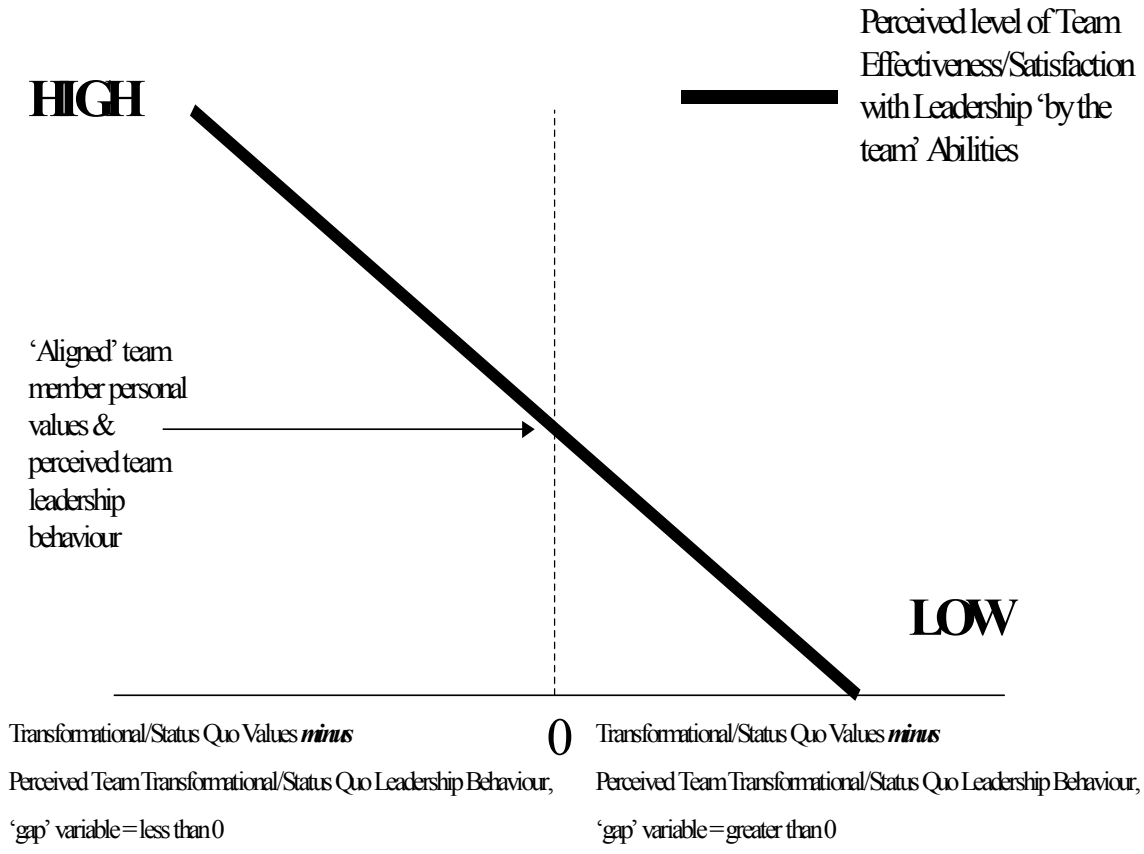
Figure 3.8 - Preliminary Research Model



A recent study by Tjosvold et al. (2003) revealed support for values impacting on team effectiveness through team relationships. The approach taken here is also consistent with the emerging understanding that values have their impact through team member interaction (Morris et al., 1998). Taking the ideas from Path-Goal and 'expectancy' theory and using the Preliminary Research Model above, whose production has been guided by the Hackman & Morris (1979) modelling framework; the theoretical proposition is that as the alignment between team members' personal values and their perception of leadership 'by the team' behaviour strengthens, they will ***expect*** the latter to continue to remain in line with the former, thereby maintaining their motivation for the team interaction, and resulting in a positive assessment of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. In order to operationalise this proposition and evaluate the effects of 'alignment', it is necessary to produce a 'gap' variable that can be correlated with each team outcome variable. The logic behind this statistic is explained in Figure 3.9. Essentially, it is postulated that alignment between a team member's personal values strength (for either transformational or status quo types of values) and their perception of the strength of the presence of team leadership behaviour (which respectively mirrors either transformational or status quo types of values), will lead to a perception of high team effectiveness and high satisfaction with leadership

'by the team' abilities. As the gap between a team member's personal values strength (for either transformational or status quo types of values) and their perception of the presence of team leadership behaviour (which respectively mirrors either transformational or status quo types of values) grows, such that there is more of the behaviour than is required by the strength of the values, then the subsequent perception of each of the two team outcome measures will be heightened. However, if there is less team behaviour present than is required by the personal values strength, then the same measures will be suppressed. The correlation effect will be reversed if team member's transformational type personal values are strong and the status quo type leadership behaviour present is perceived as not strong. In this case, as the gap becomes larger, i.e. the presence of status quo leadership type behaviour is perceived to be less (a situation considered to be positive by those holding transformational type values), this will be associated with perceptions of high team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. Figure 3.9 explains how the gap variable operationalises the notion of 'alignment'. This approach is consistent with the methodology employed in the work on Leader Member Exchange Quality by Ashkanasy & O'Connor, (1997). Congruence (alignment) scores are calculated by taking the absolute difference between personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour scores on each construct associate domain. In doing so it is necessary to ensure that the raw scores used in calculating gaps are uncorrelated, because if they are, their reliability will be affected. As can be seen from the correlation matrix in Appendix VI, the low correlations between personal values and team leadership behaviour variables indicate this was not an issue in this study.

Figure 3.9 – Explanation of 'gap' variable ('alignment') effects on perceived level of team effectiveness & satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities



The Preliminary Research Model and the literature described previously (Argyris & Schon, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974; House & Dessler, 1974; Hackman & Morris, 1979; Baker & Jenkins, 1993; Morris et al., 1998; Tjosvold et al., 2003; Lord & Brown, 2004) leads to the following Initial Hypotheses.

Initial Hypothesis One:

Team members who hold 'transformational' type values will perceive the enactment or otherwise of these values in associated 'transformational' type leadership 'by the team' behaviour. If such

personal values and perceived leadership 'by the team' behaviour is aligned, then they are more likely to rate team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities highly. If, however there is a gap between their personal values and perceived associated leadership 'by the team' behaviour, then increases in this gap will be associated with lower ratings.

Initial Hypothesis Two:

Team members who hold 'status quo' type values will perceive the enactment or otherwise of these values in associated 'status quo' type leadership 'by the team' behaviour. If such personal values and perceived leadership 'by the team' behaviour is aligned, then they are more likely to rate team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities highly. If, however there is a gap between their personal values and perceived associated leadership 'by the team' behaviour, then increases in this gap will be associated with lower ratings.

Initial Hypothesis Three:

Increases in the gap between the strength of team members 'transformational' type personal values and their perception of the strength of the presence of 'status quo' type leadership behaviour, will be associated with increases in their perception of overall team effectiveness and overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities, (because in this situation as the 'status quo' leadership 'by the team' behaviour score approaches zero, this will be considered to be a positive position for team members holding strong 'transformational' type personal values).

More specific Hypotheses for Testing were formulated after Research Questions One and Two were addressed and their findings reported. These hypotheses and the Final Research Model are outlined in Chapter 6.

3.9 Research Limitations and Constraints

The focus on organisational team member's personal values and perceptions of team leadership behaviour, whilst providing new insights called for by Higgs (1999 b) in building a more comprehensive picture of the dynamics of effective team performance, has a number of research limitations.

First, in assessing the impact of these variables on the team process, in particular team member perceptions of team effectiveness, one cannot ignore that other variables may be contributing to the latter team outcome, as demonstrated by Hackman & Morris (1975). Higgs (1996), in a review of the literature surfaced four potentially contaminating factors affecting team performance that may need to be controlled for (or recognised for their potential contribution to the variance and therefore become a research limitation), namely; team type, task type, skill, competency and style mix of members and goals, objectives and purpose. Such uncontrolled variables may reduce the explanatory power of the research model in this study. Second, because all three variable assessments (personal values, perceptions of team leadership behaviour and perceptions of total team leadership capability) were measured using team member self-report scales there is a risk that findings can be attributed to common-method variance. To test for this bias all items for all the variables of interest were examined to see if they could be explained by one single factor (Harman, 1976). However, Fisher & Katz (2000) maintain that whereas prior research treats social-desirability bias (SDB) as measure contamination, significant associations between measures of SDB and values self-report are in fact evidence of measure validity. The degree to which values self-reports are influenced by SDB also reflects the relative importance of values within a culture. Values that are most important have the greatest self-presentational implications and therefore should be more affected by SDB. It is generally accepted that a group effectiveness measure can be accessed by means of a perception questionnaire completed by group members (Critchley & Casey, 1984; Higgs & Rowland, 1992; Wright & Fowler, 1986). In using these it is important that problems of interpretation and response bias are properly addressed (Hendrick & Clark, 1990). One way around this, as employed in this study, is to use established and tested questionnaires (Whyte & Whyte 1984). In terms of the subject population, the sample was opportunistic (reliant on the author's business contacts) and time limited. These constraints lead to a research design that is correlational and cross-sectional. As a result causal inferences that may emanate from the study are to be treated with caution (Lehman, 1991; Graziano & Raulin, 1989). Also, while cross-sectional studies are more open to results generalisation (Wright & Fowler, 1986) the relatively small number of organisations employing the team members, the differing position of the teams in the organisation structure and the organisational sectors represented, may all impact on the findings in general and the personal values measure validity assessment in particular.

3.10 Summary of Chapter 3

Theory indicates that personal values are positioned as important variables in leadership behaviour research and in particular personal values may be associated with the types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour described by the transformational-transactional leadership school. As Baker & Jenkins (1993, p.2) observe, "The value concept is often used to identify unknown or underlying variables in individual actions. It is this ostensible uncovering of the cognitive path between personal values and behaviour which gives values research its significance to management researchers." Furthermore, Hambrick & Brandon (1988) consider that values influence the perception of stimuli. Thus, the aim of the Preliminary Research Model postulated above, is to identify the nature of the various 'alignment' linkages between a team member's differing personal values and their perceptions of specific forms of leadership 'by the team' behaviour; and to consider the impact these may have on subsequent perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. This model responds to previous author's recommendations for analysing multi-variable relationships. This is achieved by: de-coupling single and robust concepts, constructs and variables from the vast literature in these topic fields; choosing an appropriate unit of analysis (the team member); using related group interaction process and situational leadership theory/models to identify opportunities for model parsimony; and utilising potential theoretical associates between specific forms of personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour, in order to conduct meaningful empirical testing of the impact of the values 'alignment' notion in real business team process. Although meta-analyses by Gasper (1992), Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (1996), and Patterson, Fuller, Kester & Stringer (1995) have confirmed significant correlations of individual leader transformational behaviour components with effectiveness, with satisfaction and with the extra effort perceived by followers (Bass, 1998 b); there appear to be no reported studies using follower personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour components as possible determinants of such outcomes. This study aims to fill this research gap.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology, Research Design and the Framework for Data Analysis

In this chapter the research philosophy and approach is outlined, together with detail of the research design and accompanying research tools/techniques for data gathering and analysis.

4.1 Research Philosophy and Approach

Roberts, Hulin & Rousseau (1978) offer a useful framework to ascertain the philosophical positioning of the nature of the research enquiry, see Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 – Four Paradigms used in the Study of Organisations (Roberts, Hulin & Rousseau, 1978)

	Industrial-Organisational	**Human Factors**	**Social Psychological**	**Sociological**
UNIT OF ANALYSIS	**INDIVIDUALS**	**TASKS**	**GROUPS & INDIVIDUALS IN GROUPS**	**GROUPS & ORGANISATIONS**
Independent Variables	Personal characteristics such as age, sex and personality; perceptions of work environment; behaviours such as absenteeism and performance; attitudes such as satisfaction and involvement.	Operator skills, physical states and mental conditions; equipment complexity; characteristics of information received by operator; attributes of work setting.	Individual attitudes, perceptions, attributes and behaviours; group morale, composition and roles.	Group variables such as sex ratio, roles and structure; organisational variables such as size, structure, technology and environmental factors.
Dependent Variables	Attitudes such as satisfaction, behaviour such as absenteeism, turnover and performance, and self-reported psychological states such as motivation.	Performance efficiency averaged across individuals.	Individual attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.	Individual variables aggregated to group and organisational levels such as quit or accident rates; group and organisational level variables such as effectiveness, profitability and structure.
Focus of Measurement	Attitudes, attributes and perceptions generally assessed at individual level; individual behaviours	Task characteristics assessed through observation; individual skills measured through task	Behaviour, perceptions and attitudes analysed at individual level and aggregated to describe group responses and	Organisational and group variables derived from archival data, interviews with managers and aggregation of individual

	measured through observation and company records.	performance; performance measured by averaging across individuals performing the same task.	characteristics.	variables.
Boundaries between Areas Studied and Areas Omitted	Study of individual responses and perceptions of the work setting separated from objective characteristics of the organisation.	Study of task characteristics and individual skills separated from individual differences in motivation and perceptions and from organisational characteristics.	Study of individual and group variables separated from task and organisational characteristics.	Study of organisational and group variables separated from individual responses except when individual variables are aggregated.
Role of Individual	Individual-level variables are used to predict and explain individual responses.	An individual's skills are considered relevant to task performance, but psychological factors such as motivation are not.	Individual characteristics are combined to describe group processes; individual behaviours and attitudes result from group processes.	No individual differences in responses are considered, although individual characteristics may be combined to describe group or organisational composition.
Role of Task	Individual perceptions of tasks assessed	Task characteristics studied as important determinants of performance efficiency.	Not specifically studied.	Studied only as related to the technology of works and groups.
Role of Group	Perceptions of group characteristics assessed.	Studied only when independent tasks performed by a group of people are examined.	Groups studied as important determinants of individual behaviours and attitudes and group morale and performance.	Group processes studied as basis of organisational structure.
Role of Organisation	Organisational characteristics as perceived by individuals, such as climate and objective characteristics, such as size or level are studied.	Only features directly related to the production process, such as technology are studied.	Organisations are not specifically studied, since no reference is made to organisational context of groups.	Organisations are viewed as entities, composed of groups that respond to internal and external processes in ways predicted by organisational characteristics.

Clearly, selecting the team member as the unit of analysis (individuals in groups), the type of independent variables (individual attributes, i.e. personal values and individual perceptions of group behaviour, i.e. leadership 'by the team') and dependent variables (individual perceptions of group outcomes, i.e. team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities) employed;

and the focus of measurement in this study, place the research in the "social psychological" domain. As the above authors note (p. 37), " The paradigm underlying the study of individual responses in groups is based on the premise that a group is qualitatively different from its individual members. This premise implies that a person's responses cannot be studied adequately without reference to the social groups to which that person responds. Research and theory assume that people respond differently in groups than when alone because of differences in stimuli experienced."…. "Studies of group processes focus only on a few independent variables as they influence individual responses". Indeed, even the nature of leadership as construed in this study, that is, leadership as a social influence process, raised to the highest possible level of this conceptualisation, i.e. leadership 'by the team', also falls within this paradigm. The nature of the organisational research questions, hypotheses and forms of data analysis employed in this study can be categorised using a typology by Schein, (1992, p.29), see Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 - Categories of Research on Organisations (Schein, 1992)

Level of Researcher Involvement	**Low to Medium (Quantitative)**	**High (Qualitative)**
Level of Subject Involvement		
Minimal	Demographics; measurement of distal variables	Ethnography; participant observation; content analysis of stories, myths, rituals, symbols, other artefacts.
Partial	Experimentation; questionnaires, ratings, objective tests, scales	Projective tests; assessment centres; interviews
Maximal	Total quality tools such as statistical control quality; action research	Clinical research; action research; organisational development

All the research questions fall into the low to medium researcher involvement (quantitative)-partial subject involvement (questionnaires) overlap. Thus, whilst the epistemological origin of values research is phenomenological in nature, in that values are subjective mental constructs rather than hard objective facts (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991), this has been transposed into a positivist paradigm by the use of quantifiable values constructs presumed to be universal (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990). Leadership behaviour research meanwhile, began life in two camps. The positivist camp represented by the Ohio State Leadership Studies, e.g. Fleishman (1953), produced

questionnaires for subordinates to use in describing the behaviour of the leader and this has remained the predominant paradigm, even though the reliance on such methods has limitations (Yukl, 1989 a). A second major programme of research conducted by the University of Michigan, e.g. Katz & Kahn (1952), used field studies to identify relationships among leader behaviour, group processes and measures of group performance, although most products of this work and other research approaches, e.g. Flanagan's (1951) Critical Incident Technique, were subsequently converted into constructs and variables for measurement through questionnaires. More recently Grounded Theory, e.g. Parry (1998), has emerged as a social constructivist method of understanding leadership as a social influence process, i.e. the researcher/s produce theory that has emerged from and is grounded in the data.

The most critical influence on selecting a positivist approach to this study was that the instruments selected for measuring personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour, whilst offering significant promise of a theoretical association through the organisational behaviour literature, had not previously been combined or validated in studies of real business teams. Indeed, each instrument's author called for studies of this kind, whilst Yukl (1989 a, p.212), in a commentary on the transformational-transactional leadership constructs, stated that although differences in leadership behaviours and processes undoubtedly exist, "…..the nature of these differences should be determined by empirical research, not predetermined by theoretical definitions that make unnecessary assumptions and bias subsequent research". On a questionnaire construction quality note, both questionnaires employed in this study fall within the 'Exemplary' or 'Extensive' rating criteria categories for evaluating attitude measures, as specified by Bearden & Netemeyer (1999) in the Handbook of Marketing Scales. In selecting this research methodology I have also been influenced by the following considerations. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991) point out that because managers and staff are busy people they are unlikely to become engaged in research unless they can see some direct benefit from their involvement. Also research methods need to incorporate the potential for business research subjects to turn the results into action. The offer of producing reports for team members on their personal values results and their team's transformational leadership behaviour brings immediate utility from their participation. In terms of the research strategy there are also considerable limitations placed on a part-time DBA student, including all those factors listed by Remenyi et al (1998, p. 45): research question, costs or budget available to the researcher, time available and target date for completion and skills of the researcher,

consequently data collection and analysis should be as efficient and effective as possible. Both measures employed in this study used on-line questionnaire completion via the web.

Having selected this route Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991) point out the following necessary underlying assumptions:

'Independence': the observer is independent of what is being observed.

Paradoxically, for a phenomenological construct like personal values, to undertake research on this topic invariably leads to some self-reflection on one's own personal values. All the more reason for rejecting qualitative research techniques, where it would be difficult to separate out the values based perceptions of the researcher from what was being perceived, observed or discussed by research subjects.

So what is essential here is:

'Value-freedom': the choice of what to study, and how to study it, will be determined by objective criteria rather than by human beliefs and interests.

'Causality': the aim of the social sciences will be to identify causal explanations and fundamental laws that explain regularities in human social behaviour.
'Hypothetico-deductive': science proceeds through a process of hypothesising fundamental laws and then deducing what kinds of observations will demonstrate the truth or falsity of these hypotheses.

'Operationalisation': concepts are operationalised in a way that enables facts to be measured quantifiably.

'Reductionism': problems as a whole are better understood if they are reduced into the simplest possible elements.

'Generalisation': in order to be able to generalise about regularities in human and social behaviour it is necessary to select samples of sufficient size.

Finally, ‘ Cross-sectional analysis’: such regularities can most easily be identified by making comparisons of variations across samples.

In making the choice of research methodology, Wright & Fowler (1986) suggest identifying from the related literature which methodologies have traditionally been used. In the area of values and leadership when considered separately, this has invariably been positivist. In order to consider relationships between these two constructs at the individual team member unit of analysis, within the context of team process and outcomes, a correlational format is required. As Wright & Fowler (1986) note, psychological studies involving personality factors commonly employ such research frameworks. In reviewing the literature presented here, there is a recurring theme of the need to simplify the constructs prior to hypothesis testing and limit the variable relationships explored. Remenyi et al. (1998) suggest that such a reductionist approach leads to the simplification of complicating factors, although it also has the potential for omitting interesting ones and lacks the facility to establish causal relationships, particularly in leadership behaviour studies (Yukl, 1989 a) that use self-report measures (Spector, 1994). Wright & Fowler (1986) suggest that limitations on drawing causal inference from correlational studies may be reduced if it is possible to: provide evidence of time precedence (for X to cause Y, X must logically precede Y); identify theory and/or empirical support for a possible relationship between the variables; and provide assurance that associations are non-spurious (i.e. no additional variable/s confound/s the impact of X on Y), unless of course such variables can be built into the relationship modelling, a priori. Having identified potential variable relationships from the theory, inferences from subsequent data analysis are facilitated by creating hypotheses. As Easterby-Smith et al. (1991, p.36) comment, “The main practical advantage of the ‘hypothesis testing’ approach is that there is initial clarity about what is to be investigated, and hence information can be collected speedily and efficiently. Clarity of method means that it is easier for another researcher to replicate the study, and hence any claims arising from the research can be subjected to public scrutiny”. This becomes especially important in a newly developing area and may also overcome some of the limitations and risks associated with employing self-report measures to collect data for all the variables concerned (Schmitt, 1994). The use of multivariate analysis is also of considerable value here. “Any researcher who examines only two variable relationships and avoids multivariate analysis is ignoring powerful tools that can provide potentially useful information”, (Hair et al., 1998, p.4). And especially multiple regression, which is “…the appropriate method of analysis when the research problem involves a single metric

dependent variable presumed to be related to two or more metric independent variables." (Hair et al., 1998, p.14).

In summary, the research approach adopted in this study follows the tradition of values and leadership behaviour studies, in being positivist, employing a correlational research design using a multivariate research technique that can accommodate the analysis of multi-item variables. This enables clear, theory based constructs, measures, variable relationships and hypotheses to be generated for pragmatic and robust data gathering and statistical testing. Empirical research limitations and constraints are mitigated where possible, but also recognised as potential effects on consequent theoretical and business application inferences, drawn from the results analysis.

4.2 Research Design and Key Research Steps

The preceding section highlighted issues related to the research philosophy and approach. What follows is a description of the research design including the selection of the sample, the research steps, operationalisation of the personal values and leadership behaviour 'by the team' constructs, and the nature of the team outcome measures. Furnham (1992) provides a notable reflection on the research problems associated with any study involving members of teams. He listed these as: difficulties in measuring team outcome variables, discovering how individual difference factors lead to team outcome differences, and the shortage of psychometrically valid measures of how people behave in teams. All three issues have been attended to in this study, although has already stated the assessment of the team outcomes was made by the team members themselves and not by an independent source. Indeed, the other issues are central concerns of the Preliminary Research Model outlined earlier, which itself is a response to the complex, partly unfathomable, nature of earlier team process and outcome models. Churchill (1979) and Bearden & Netemeyer (1999) also stress the importance of methodological rigour, in particular the psychometric quality of the measurement instruments. Higgs (1997) cites Jacoby (1978), who asks what use is it if robust statistical techniques show results, when the data measures were invalid at the outset? Assessment of the construct validity of the two measures used in this study was an essential first step in the research design and critical to generating the Final Research Model and Hypotheses for Testing.

One final consideration involves the type of data used in the study, that is, team member's self-report. Whilst Hackman (1990) proposes a combination of hard and soft data to assess team outcomes, Nathan & Alexander (1988) report a meta-analytic study of the assessment of the impact of personality factors, where correlations were generally higher for subjective than objective criteria. This result is perhaps not surprising, because as Schmitt (1994, p.393) suggests, "I do not believe anyone would argue with the use of self-report measures when the theory or construct involved is attitudinal or perceptual, but when the reason for the use of self-report measures is one of convenience only, most investigators begin to view their use critically and to evaluate the degree to which some form of method bias might constitute an alternative explanation of the investigator's results." The independent variables in this study clearly relate to attitude and perception, as does one of the team outcome measures, satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. However, the second team outcome measure, team effectiveness, is problematic on two grounds. First, it is highly likely that team effectiveness will be affected by any number of other independent variables (Hackman & Morris, 1975) and common method variance is a real possibility when self-report measures are used as indicators of the objective job environment (Spector, 1992). Unfortunately, for this study, no such latter measures were available for use with the population sample, which is discussed below, and the issue may not be as debilitating as previously thought. Crampton & Wagner's (1994) meta-analysis of the average correlation inflation produced by common method variance when personality and criterion were measured amounted to only 0.04.

Selection of the Sample

A cross-sectional design, collecting data via questionnaires at a single point in time and across different sample subsets, was used because of its ability to economically provide a breadth of data from organisations to which the author had access. Practical considerations have therefore predominated over design purity. Because of this, the results cannot provide much certainty about the causal connections among variables. As Spector (1994, p.389) asserts, "To determine cause and effect, a design is needed that assesses variables over time. The strongest design is an experiment in which the independent variable is assessed or manipulated before the dependent variable is measured. When true experiments are not feasible, quasi-experiments or longitudinal observational studies are better able to address causal research questions than a cross-sectional design." However, several constraints on data capture and theoretical considerations dictated the latter design. Respondents were spread throughout the world from a range of teams and organisations,

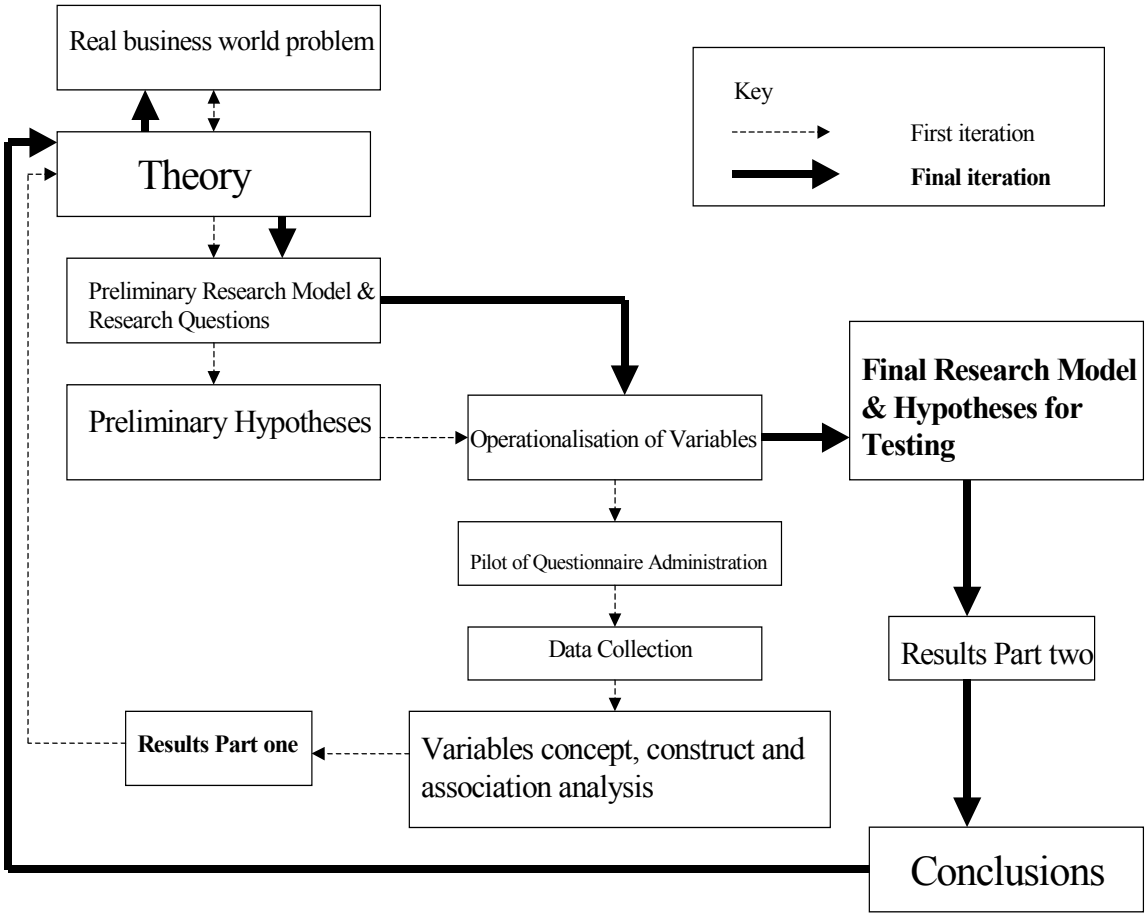
predominately from the New Zealand and the United Kingdom public sector, individual team members completed the questionnaires via the Henley Management College website and current, real-time, parallel, self-reported perceptions of their personal values, team leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes were essential features of the Research Model. Based on the related demography and values literature, attempts were made to balance the representation in the sample of men and women, three different generations, and United Kingdom – New Zealand ethnic culture origin. Invariably, as Higgs (1997) cites, the opportunistic nature of the sample, whilst creating some potential benefits (Whyte & Whyte, 1984) places "extra- scientific" constraints Forcese & Richer (1993) on the data collection (e.g. organisational team members need a degree of interest in the topic if they are to take part) and therefore these factors limit the generalisability of the results (Hair et al., 1998). However, given this appears to be the first real business study employing this specific research model and constructs, the impact of the specific sample is, in itself, a potential contribution to the original theory represented. Thus, the nature of the phenomena and the research hypotheses being investigated was not appropriate for either an experimental or longitudinal design and any potential demographic differences previously highlighted by the literature were captured for data analysis. A final consideration concerns the use of multivariate analysis and multiple regression within the research design, which necessitates a minimum number of between three and five subject (team member) observations per variable (Hair et al., 1998). Based on the Final Research Model outlined later there are six input factors (different types of personal values) and six process factors (different types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour), giving rise to 36 interaction factors and a minimum sample size of 180. The final sample of 191 team members falls above this recommended lower limit.

Key Research Steps

As Remenyi et al. (1998, p.67) observe, "The research problem areas will usually first manifest themselves as general research considerations which will need to be reduced to a formal set of specific and detailed research questions." This iterative process is especially evident in the research steps, the operationalisation of the variables and the framework for data analysis. Iteration was a core feature of the research design because neither the main variable measures, nor the theoretical association between them, had been investigated before with a sample of real business team members.

The key research steps are illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 - Research Steps flowchart



Each research step, together with its purpose and outcome, is described in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 – Research Steps (purpose and outcome)

STEP	PURPOSE & OUTCOME
Real world business problem & theory	Establish that personal values were important phenomenon in organisational team life.
Preliminary research model, questions and hypotheses	Identify a possible link between personal values theory and leadership behaviour 'by the team' theory. Identify an appropriate but preliminary research model.

Operationalisation of variables	Identify concepts and established construct measures for personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour.
Pilot of questionnaire administration	Use a business team to pilot the instructions and web technology (TELEFORM) for completing the established questionnaires – see Appendix II (TMLQ) and III (SVS)
Data collection	Establish personal contact with a range of managers, outlining the nature of the research and outcomes of participation. Questionnaires completed via the Henley Management College website.
Variables concept, construct and theoretical association analysis reported in results part one	Conduct factor analysis to establish construct reliability and validity for each measure (based on this particular population sample). Clarify concepts and potential theoretical associates between types of personal values and types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour constructs.
Iterative loop back to theory, research model, questions, hypotheses and operationalisation of variables	Specify final research model and hypothesised variable relationships for testing.
Results part two, conclusions and inferences drawn for theory and real world business problem	Summarise research contributions, limitations and suggested follow on study.

4.3 Operationalisation of the Concepts and Constructs

Prior to data collection, appropriate concept definitions and construct measures are required. Concepts are attempts to describe and categorise ideas and observations about common elements in the world into discrete forms using constructs (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). Wright & Fowler (1986) explain that operationalisation is an attempt to define a theoretical construct by isolating empirical indicators. Hypothetical constructs are generally unobservable in their generic form and cannot be assessed directly without developing valid and reliable measures. What is happening here is the translation of concepts and constructs into variables, i.e. attributes on which relevant research objects differ (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). These variables and their associated indicators can then be combined into measuring instruments, such as questionnaires, to quantify the presence of the construct in the specific real world settings under investigation.

All key concept and variable definitions, measures and associated references contained within the study and the Preliminary Research Model are operationalised and summarised in Table 4.4 below. The concepts cover the following terminology: leader, leadership, team, team member/s, subject demographics (generation/s, gender, and ethnic cultural identity). The key variables are those represented in the Preliminary Research Model, outlined in Figure 3.8.

Table 4.4 – Operationalisation of concepts and variables

Key Concepts & Variables	**Definition/s, measures and associated references**
Terms: **Leader**	'Nearby' leader, one who "is in regular contact with the staff whom they manage" (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2000).
Leadership	Leadership is a 'social influence' process (Parry, 1998) and "is about transformation…..in the motivations, values and beliefs of followers" (Rost, 1993).

Team	Katzenbach (1998) points out in distinguishing 'real' teams from 'top' teams that the most significant factor is energy and purpose derived from a common level of commitment among its members, rather than the leader alone. These real teams are more likely to be found producing 'collective work products' throughout other strata in the organisation. Wenger and Schneider (2000) draw the following distinctions for work collectives: 'Community of Practice' - Purpose: To build and exchange knowledge Membership: Self-selected Common Interest: Groups expertise Duration: Indefinite, as long as the members remain interested 'Work Group' - Purpose: To deliver product or service Membership: Employees reporting to the same manager Common Interest: Job requirements and work-team goals Duration: Until next re-organisation or re-assignment 'Project Team' - Purpose: To accomplish specific task Membership: Assigned by manager Common Interest: Project Goals and milestones Duration: Length of project **The definition of 'team' in this research is the same as 'Work Group'.** Avolio et al (1996) found that the reliability for one scale of the TMLQ improved dramatically, coming in line with the other scales, after team members had worked together for 3 months. As a result Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry and Jung, (2001) recommend this as a minimum period for team effectiveness research of this nature.
Team member/s	Someone belonging to the team (including the leader) as indicated above.
Subject Demographics: 1. **Generation/s**	The three people diversity categories are explained below. Kupperschmidt (2000) defined a 'generation' as an identifiable group (cohort) that shares birth years, age, location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages (times). Times, birth years, historical shifts in society wide attitudes; in addition to social, economic and public policy and major local/global events are shared by cohorts.

‘Generational characteristics’ comprise worldview, values, and attitudes shared by or descriptive of cohorts (often referred to as peer or generational personality). ‘Generational perspective’ is knowledge, recognition, and appreciation of other people’s times and generational characteristics (values, attitudes and behaviours).

Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) defined ‘generations’ as follows.

The ‘Veterans’, (born between 1922 and 1943), who view WW 2 and the Great Depression as the formative events on their lives.

The ‘Baby Boomers’ (1943-1960), who grew up in an era of extreme optimism, rapid change and general prosperity.

‘Generation Xers’ (1960-80) whose formative years have been marked by disappointments, disasters and diminished expectations of the post-Vietnam era.

‘Generation Nexters’ (1980-2000) who are comfortable with a high tech, fast paced lifestyle and seem to be more respectful of tradition and more optimistic about the future than the two preceding generations.

Joynt & Morton (1999) based on earlier work by Cox & Parkinson (1999) with acknowledgement to Robbins (1989), constructed the following table to highlight how generational differences in values may play their part in the management of diversity.

Below are the selected categories for this study.

Category	Entered Workforce	Age now	Individual work values	Organisational work values	
Protestant work ethic	1945-59	55-65	Hard work, conservative, loyalty to organisation	Command, control, efficiency, compliance, dehumanisation	
Existentialism	1960-79	40-54	Quality of life, non-conforming, seeks autonomy, loyalty to self	Team work, quality, respect for individual, involvement	
Pragmatism	1980-89	30-39	Success, achievement, ambition, hard work, loyalty to career	Efficiency, cost reduction	
Generation X	1990’s	Under 30	Lifestyle, self-development, loyalty to peers	Empowerment, organisational learning, employability	

2. **Gender**	**Male and female.** In investigating UK public service female and male constructs of leadership qualities, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) found that women's descriptors more closely resembled transformational leadership content whilst men's views were generally aligned with transactional leadership.
3. **Ethnic cultural identity**	Hofstede (1994) noted that the "collective programming" of the mind in a country through its unique cultural values (Hofstede, 1980) affects everyone. National and intra-national cultural identity will be determined after further consultation with New Zealand demographers (the main location of the subjects) based on Parry and Proctor's (2000) New Zealand Leadership Survey ethnic group categories.
Key Variables: Personal Values	Posner and Schmidt (1994) describe values as a "a silent power for understanding interpersonal and organisational life. Because they are at the core of people's personality, values influence the choices they make, people they trust, the appeals they respond to, and the way they invest their time and energy. In turbulent times values give a sense of direction amid conflicting views and demands". Lichtenstein (2001) notes that values can result from a priori reasoning or can be the product of contextual experience, such as family or work, or both. They can be strongly or weakly held. Personal values, he suggests, always carry a social connotation since they affect all our relationships. Although they differ from the societal values held by people at large, they are clearly derived from them. Organisations and other community groupings are mere aggregate forms of personal values and thus conceal a multitude of individual difference in the values held. **Measured using the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (Schwartz, 1994) – see Appendix III.** The SVS is a 57 item – 9 point Likert scale questionnaire. Schwartz (1994) extrapolated ten motivationally distinct types of values from what he sees as the universal need of societies, groups and individuals to understand and communicate necessities that underpin and guide human existence. The SVS differs from other typologies by considering the conflicts and compatibilities likely to arise when people pursue these values structures simultaneously, as may occur in an organisational team.

Transformational and transactional ('Status Quo') leadership 'by the team' behaviour	At the team level all team members, including the leader of the team, contribute towards transformational leadership, that includes the development of culture change capability, (Burns, 1996 and Bass, 1998). Avolio and Bass (1988), Bass (1985) and Hater and Bass (1988) maintain that one of the most important ways that transformational leaders achieved their results was to stimulate their followers to view the world from new perspectives. Bass's (1985) distinction between 'transformational' and 'transactional' leadership is significant here. For Bass, the transactional leader accepts and uses the rituals, stories and role models belonging to the current organisational culture to communicate values, whereas the transformational leader invents, introduces and advances cultural forms by changing the "warp and weft of social reality". In doing so they produce a 'transformational culture' that is dynamic, flexible and adaptive to change, with significant attention paid to questioning prevailing ways of achieving organisational results. In this context Payne (1991) defined organisational culture as "the pattern of all those arrangements, material or behavioural, which have been adopted by a society (corporation, group, team) as the traditional ways of solving the problems of it's members; culture includes all institutionalised ways and the implicit cultural beliefs, norms, values and premises which underlie and govern behaviour". Louis (1983) calls culture a "cognitive frame of reference and a pattern of behaviour" transmitted to members of a group from previous generations of the group. Culture is said to operate on two contextual levels, the sociological and the psychological. The sociological defines the systems of belief that identify a social group, while the psychological context describes the individual's endless search for meaning. Louis goes on to depict this endless negotiation of meaning as the "navigation of an experiential landscape by which one controls one's course or position." **Measured using the Team Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ) – see Appendix II.** (Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry and Jung, 2001). This is a 50 item - 5 point Likert scale, leadership 'by the team' behaviour survey instrument whose early validation reveals support for a five - factor model measuring the collective leadership behaviour of a team. This includes three team transformational leadership factors, 'Intellectual Stimulation', 'Inspiring Leadership', and Individualised Consideration/Contingent Reward'.

Team Outcomes	Burke-Litwin (1989) defined 'Leadership' as, "Executives behaving in a way that encourages others to take needed actions. We would include follower's perceptions of executive practices and values"; 'Individual Needs and Values' as, "The specific psychological factors that provide desire and worth for individual actions and thoughts"; and 'Individual and Organisational Performance' reads, "The outcomes or results, as well as indicators of effort and achievement, for example, productivity, customer, or self-satisfaction, profit and quality". **Overall Team Effectiveness and Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities, each measured by a single item - 5 point Likert scale – see Appendix II.**

However, before these particular variable measurement instruments are used to investigate the variable relationships described in the Final Research Model, it is necessary to establish their inherent measurement properties as found in the business population sample partaking in this study. Previous use of the TMLQ and SVS has not included such a selective audience, although the authors of both questionnaires have asked that organisational and context specific populations be investigated in pursuance of additional empirical findings demonstrating the reliability and construct validity of the measures (Avolio, et al 2001 and Schwartz, 1992 respectively). The intention is to explore, in detail, the measurement properties of both instruments and their construct relations, before they are deployed for specific hypothesis testing in the final Research Model.

To achieve this, demographic comparisons between the business population sample and original research populations are reported, followed by a detailed description of the nature and composition of the two scales.

Research Subjects

Table 4.5 presents demographic comparisons between the business population sample used in this study and the original research populations for the TMLQ and SVS.

Table 4.5 – Demographic comparisons between this study's business population sample and the original research population samples

Demographics	***Subjects***	***Sample Size***	***Work Group profile***	***Age profile***	***Gender profile***	***Ethnic profile***
Study						
TMLQ original study Bass & Avolio (2001) Sample 1	Business-major undergraduate students	186	Randomly assigned to 37 groups of 4-5 people on projects operating over 4 months	Mean age of 20 years	Subjects – 54% female Groups – mixed gender	Not reported
Bass & Avolio (2001) Sample 2	Organisational Behaviour undergraduates	169	Randomly assigned to 42 groups of 4-5 people on projects operating over 4 months	Mean age of 21 years	Subjects – 48% female Groups – mixed gender	Not reported
SVS original study Schwartz (1994)	97 samples in total: 41 samples of school teachers, 42 samples of mixed-majors university students, 12 occupationally heterogeneous samples of adults and 2 samples of adolescents	25,863	Not applicable	Not reported	Not reported	Subjects represented 44 countries from every continent
Sample for this study	Organisational team members from 23 teams – 80% operating in the Public Sector	191	88% operating in "work groups" (Wenger & Snyder, 2000) of varying size. 96% of the teams had been together for at least 6 months. 66% were engaged with some degree of strategy work.	Birth year 'generational' profiles: 36.4% born between 1934-59 32.6%, 1960-69 31%, 1970 or after	Subjects – equal split male/female Teams – mixed gender. 46% equally mixed, 25% majority male, 27% majority female, 2% either all male or all female	54% New Zealand 22% British

Summary of sample population comparisons

Demographic differences between the original research and business population samples are significant in several respects. First 88% of the latter were operating in real 'work groups' (Wenger & Snyder, 2000) with real assignments (66% incorporating some element of strategy work). Second 96% of these 23 teams had been together for longer than 6 months. Schein (1992) intimated that leaders and followers required prolonged exposure to one another for culture shaping to occur. Gender balances for the subjects and teams in the TMLQ populations are roughly the same, being almost equal for each. The most noteworthy demographics for subsequent data analysis, particularly in respect of personal values, are that 54% of the business population subjects classify themselves as being part of a New Zealand ethnic grouping, 80% operate in the Public Sector, and birth year 'generational' profiles are evenly distributed.

Data screening summary for measures used with the business population sample

The data screening analysis for the measures can be found in Appendix I.

Summary of data screening for the TMLQ & two Team Outcome measures

The data examination process or "investment in multivariate insurance" (Hair et al, 1998) has revealed a 'normal' data set reasonably free from potential multivariate analysis problems. A case could be made however for the exclusion of subject 189 who demonstrated an extreme response style for the TMLQ (although this was not repeated for either the two team output measures or the SVS). Questionnaire Item 6 "set high standards" is most susceptible to extreme values. Also whilst the Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) could be described as 'meritorious' (above 0.70) for the TMLQ scale, the same test for the two Team Output measures indicates a 'miserable' (although just acceptable, 0.50) result (Hair et al, 1998).

Summary of data screening for the SVS

As with the TMLQ and the two Team Output measures the SVS data examination process has revealed a 'normal' data set reasonably free from potential multivariate analysis problems. A case

could be made however for the exclusion of subject 166 who demonstrated an extreme response style (although this was not repeated for either the two team output measures or the TMLQ). Questionnaire Item 28 "True Friendship" is most susceptible to extreme values. The same Questionnaire Item, with Items 10 "Meaning in Life" and Item 42 "Healthy" were skewed (high means). Item 6 "A Spiritual Life" passed the normality test with slightly more chance of error. The Measure of Sampling Adequacy is 'meritorious' (above 0.70) for the SVS scale.

As a result of the above data screening, all cases and original items were retained for comparative factor analysis.

Measures

The nature and composition of the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ), (Bass & Avolio, 2001).

This scale was chosen for use with this particular business population because it is the only up to date leadership behaviour 'by the team' measure currently available. It reveals an individual team member's perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour present in the immediate team environment, whilst also capturing through two separate single item measures, the same person's perception of two collective team leadership outcomes – 'Overall Team Effectiveness' and 'Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities'. More importantly, the TMLQ was selected because it derives from related constructs such as 'transformational leadership', which reflect the theoretical underpinning of the Preliminary Research Model, particularly the association with organisational culture models that portray values driven processes for leading and managing organisational change (e.g. Schein, 1992), i.e. perceptions of the team outcome impact of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, may be partly determined and influenced by team members' personal values.

It is worth stressing that the TMLQ measure is currently unique in it's exploration of leadership 'by the team' behaviour. The TMLQ is a direct development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1990a), which is more widely used in the evaluation of an individual leader's 'transformational leadership', as contrasted with 'transactional leadership'. No

such generic label exists for the TMLQ. For reasons of parsimony and to reflect it's origins, the TMLQ concept will be referred to initially as 'Team Transformational Leadership' behaviour and its antithesis, 'Team Status Quo Leadership' behaviour. The derivation of the former, encompasses key words extracted from definitions used within the topic field, as listed below:

- At the team level all team members, including the leader of the team, contribute towards transformational leadership, that includes the development of culture change capability, (Burns, 1996 and Bass, 1998 a,b).

- Unified values may be deleterious if an organisation's environment goalposts suddenly change (Denison, 1990)***, or they could produce 'strategic myopia'*** (Lorsch, 1986)***, by placing an emotional shield around the cognitive and intuitive processes of strategic thinking and business positioning, thereby limiting business responsiveness*** (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). ***To break through this dilemma and to introduce adaptability,*** Bass and Avolio (1993) ***recommend a 'transformational culture' based on 'transformational leadership'.***

- One of the most important ways that transformational leaders achieved their results was to stimulate their followers to view the world from new perspectives, Avolio and Bass (1988), Bass (1985) and Hater and Bass (1988).

- The transactional leader accepts and uses the rituals, stories and role models belonging to the current organisational culture to communicate values, whereas the transformational leader invents, introduces and advances cultural forms by changing the warp and weft of social reality. In doing so they produce a 'transformational culture' that is dynamic, flexible and adaptive to change, with significant attention paid to questioning prevailing ways of achieving organisational results, Bass (1985).

- Bass and Stodgill (1981) ***suggest that organisational culture and leadership is a reciprocal process with the former influencing leader behaviour whilst leaders in return seek to shape culture to fit their own needs.*** Bass (1985) ***progressed to conceive the concept of 'transformational' leadership where such leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees and employees are motivated to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group.***

- The most effective transformational leaders promote the capacity for "self-leadership" (Manz & Sims, 1987)***, effective "self-regulation"*** (Bandura, 1991) ***and establish learning oriented cultures*** (Argyris, 1985)***, all of which are essential features of a change functionality culture.***

- Bass (1999) ***argues that to be truly transformational, leadership must be grounded in moral foundations. The four components of authentic transformational leadership, (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), are he says underpinned by; the moral character of the leaders and their concerns for self and others, the ethical values embedded in the leaders' vision, articulation, and programme (which followers can embrace or reject) and the morality of the processes of social ethical choices and action in which the leaders and followers engage and collectively pursue.***

As noted above, the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ), Bass & Avolio (2001) is an extension and replication of the MLQ; the questionnaire items having been transposed to indicate that it is the total team's leadership and not just the designated team leader's leadership that is under scrutiny (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001); Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry & Jung, 2001); which itself has been validated in well over two hundred studies using samples from across the world (see Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1990 a,b,c and 1994;). A recent MLQ study, Kan (2002), reported the following reliabilities for a New Zealand Health Sector sample (196 respondents assessing twenty nurse leaders). Scale alphas were 'Idealised Attributes' (.68), 'Idealised Behaviours' (.67), 'Inspirational Motivation' (.83), 'Intellectual Stimulation' (.58), 'Individualised Consideration' (.46), 'Contingent Reward' (.61), 'Management by Exception-Active' (.71), 'Management by Exception-Passive' (.71), and 'Laissez-faire' (.80). The aim of the TMLQ instrument is to extend the original leadership model to tap team as opposed to individual team leader leadership behaviour. This is in line with the views that leadership is not exclusively or predominately related to organisational level or role and in a change context is (or should be) widely distributed (Conner, 1999; Higgs & Rowland, 2000). Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2001) cite Bryman (1996) who demonstrated that the USA research on transformational leadership invariably involved the top managers in organisations, even though Bass (1998 b) maintains that, since a related leadership construct 'charisma' is a product of interpersonal relationships, it is likely to occur in leader-follower relationships throughout an organisation.

The TMLQ then, is a leadership 'by the team' survey instrument developed to reliably and validly tap the notion of 'shared' transformational leadership. Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry (2001) define shared leadership as the aggregate leadership behaviour exhibited and evaluated by all members of the team. This they note is consistent with the recommendations by Tesluck, Zaccaro, Marks & Mathieu (1997) who suggested that group level phenomena can be assessed by having each individual rate the group on attributes defined at that level, taking the average rating to reflect the group position. They cite African humanistic theories of group behaviour (for example, Christie, Lessem & Mbugi, 1993) as indicative of the development of this 'vital force' in high performing teams, in parallel with Bandura's (1986) concept of team member 'collective efficacy'. Their idea is that as teams develop over time a shared set of expectations can become the model that guides the team behaviour in terms of roles, expectations, mission and vision. This they note reflects Avolio's (1999) view that a transformational leadership culture emerges from team member relationships based on higher order values and trust. The TMLQ questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2001) comprises a Likert scale containing 48 items and, in addition, two single item Team Outcome measures - Questions 49 & 50 (see Appendix II). Bass (1997) demonstrated (using the MLQ) that the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm is equally valid across and within organisational and national boundaries. And the TMLQ measure appears to replicate the factor structure of the MLQ in a valid and reliable way (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001). Studies of the MLQ, Carless (1998) and Den Hartog et al. (1997), show that the sub-scales of the MLQ (Form-5X) are highly inter-correlated, with a high proportion of the variance of the sub-scales explicable by a higher-order construct, offering little justification for the interpretation of the individual subscale scores. TMLQ construct validity analysis by Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, (2001) using two university undergraduate samples reveals a six higher-order factor model as a reliable measure of the collective leadership behaviour of a team – see the population sample demographics in Table 4.5. The author's report, that within this model, data reduction supported the existence of three team transformational leadership factors, (Idealised Attributes/Behaviour called 'Idealised Influence' combined with Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration) that are inter-correlated, supporting the authors' view that these scales can be interpreted as representing one higher-order factor, namely team 'transformational leadership'. Furthermore, they note that these findings are nearly identical to those reported by Avolio, Bass & Jung (1996) using the MLQ, whilst comprehensive validation and cross-validation

studies of the same survey instrument (Avolio, Jung, Murry & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) concluded that the six factor model was the best fit for rating individual leaders.

Table 4.6 describes the original constructs and associated higher-order factors for the TMLQ in greater detail. Please note that higher-order factor definitions have been produced by the author of this research, using an amalgam of key words from the questionnaire items covering the team transformational leadership constructs. The original authors, (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001) only offered labels without providing specific factor definitions. This clarification of meaning was also required to hypothesise theoretical associations with the SVS constructs and factors – see Table 4.6 and Figure 4.2. Status quo leadership is hypothesised as a collective theoretical associate concept to represent the opposite of transformational leadership, prior to factor analysis. These two types were used to postulate paired personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour associates, as the 'alignment' variables in the Final Research Model.

Table 4.6 - TMLQ constructs, definitions (where available), higher-order factors & item numbers derived from the original research (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001) **and hypothesised theoretical associations with SVS constructs**

Constructs (10 in total)	***6 higher-order factors***	***Questionnaire Item numbers***	***SVS construct association?***
Idealised Attributes "Team behaviour that demonstrates confidence and pride in, plus respect for, team member's talent and competence."	***Team transformational leadership (Factor 1)***	***2 12 22 32 42***	***Self-transcendence*** (acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare)
Idealised Behaviour "Team behaviour that shows conviction for, trust in and commitment to the teams' purpose, mission, values and beliefs."	***Team transformational leadership (Factor 1)***	***4 14 24 34 44***	***Self-transcendence***
Inspirational Motivation "Team behaviour that creates new possibilities for the future and shows optimism and enthusiasm about team members' on-going contributions."	***Team transformational leadership (Factor 1)***	***6 16 26 36 46***	***Openness to Change*** (own independent thought and action & favouring change)

Intellectual Stimulation "Team behaviour that questions prevailing ways of doing things and seeks broad and new perspectives on the nature of a problem."	***Team transformational leadership*** ***(Factor 2)***	***8*** ***18*** ***28*** ***38*** ***47***	***Openness to Change***
Individualised Consideration "Team behaviour that considers each member's needs, interests and capabilities with a view to raising their ability and potential."	***Team transformational leadership*** ***(Factor 3)***	***10*** ***20*** ***30*** ***40*** ***48***	***Self-transcendence***
Contingent Reward	***Team transactional (constructive) leadership*** ***(Factor 4)***	***7*** ***15*** ***25*** ***35*** ***45***	***Conservation*** (emphasising submissive self-restriction, preservation of traditional practices & protection of stability)
Mgt. by Exception (Active)	***Team Status Quo leadership (Factor 5)***	***5*** ***13*** ***23*** ***33*** ***43***	***Conservation***
Mgt. by Exception (Passive)	***Team Status Quo leadership*** ***(Factor 6)***	***3*** ***11*** ***21*** ***31*** ***41***	***?***
Laissez-faire	***Team Status Quo leadership*** ***(Factor 6)***	***1*** ***9*** ***19*** ***29*** ***39***	***?***
Extra Effort	***Stand-alone?***	***17*** ***27*** ***37***	***Self-transcendence***

The nature and composition ofthe Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (Schwartz, 1994).

The SVS was selected from a menu of values surveys primarily because of its hypothesised conceptual association with the TMLQ, thus providing the possibility of assessing 'alignment' and also its multi-nation validation as a 'universal' values categorisation. Schwartz (1994, p. 21) sees values as motivators for goal seeking behaviour in that, "(1) they serve the interests of some social entity, (2) they can motivate action giving it direction and emotional intensity, (3) they function as standards for judging and justifying action, and (4) they are acquired both through socialization to dominant group values and through the unique learning experiences of individuals." Schwartz (1994, p.21) defines values as "desirable transsituational goals, varying in importance, serving as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity". Unlike personality measures that ask about a person's typical response in different social situations, inventories such as the SVS aim to discover preferences or how people would like to be. Thus, they tap a person's self-concept through desired end state values. As a critical source of satisfaction, direction and motivation, values guide the involvement choices we make in our working environment. The SVS was selected as the instrument of choice following a study showing good fit to the ideal value structure across 44 countries (Schwartz, 1994), including the presence of four higher-order constructs within two dimensions, in over 90% of the 97 samples. The Schwartz Value Survey or SVS (1994) is a 57 item Likert scale questionnaire (see Appendix III). The SVS differs from other typologies by considering the conflicts and compatibilities likely to arise when people pursue these values structures simultaneously, as may occur in an organisational team. Schwartz categorised these values into two higher-order bipolar dimensions: 'Openness to change' (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism) - 'Conservation' (conformity, security, tradition) and 'Self-enhancement' (achievement, power, hedonism) - 'Self-transcendence' (benevolence, universalism). These constructs: 'Openness to change' - 'Conservation' and 'Self-enhancement' - 'Self-transcendence', also provide a clear conceptual link to the transformational and status quo leadership paradigms as demonstrated in Table 4.6 above and Figure 4.2 below.

Schwartz (1994) extrapolated ten motivationally distinct types of values from what he sees as the universal need of societies, groups and individuals to understand and communicate necessities that underpin and guide human existence. These are presented in Table 4.7. For example 'Conformity' emerged from the prerequisite of smooth interaction and group survival, which prescribes that

individuals restrain impulses and inhibit actions that might hurt others. Detailed derivations are available in Schwartz & Bilsky, (1987, 1990), and Schwartz (1992).

Table 4.7 – Ten Motivational Types of Values including higher-order constructs and associated questionnaire items, Schwartz (1994)

Definition	Exemplary values	Construct	Sources (see notes after table)	Questionnaire Item numbers NB items *2, 6, 7, 10, 14, 19, 21, 23, 28, 42, 48 were not included in the original typology – but added later by Schwartz*
Power: Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.	Social power, authority, wealth	***Self-Enhancement***	Interaction Group	***3*** ***12*** ***27*** ***46***
Achievement: Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.	Successful, capable, ambitious	***Self-Enhancement***	Interaction Group	***34*** ***39*** ***43*** ***55***

Hedonism: Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.	Pleasure, enjoying life	***Openness to Change***	Organism	***4*** ***50*** ***57***
Stimulation: Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.	Daring, varied, exciting life	***Openness to Change***	Organism	***9*** ***25*** ***37*** ***5***
Self-direction: Independent thought and action - choosing, creating, exploring.	Creativity, curious, freedom	***Openness to Change***	Organism Interaction	***16*** ***31*** ***41*** ***53***
Universalism: Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.	Broadminded, social justice, equality, protecting the environment	***Self-Transcendence***	Group* Organism	***1*** ***17*** ***24*** ***26*** ***29*** ***30*** ***35*** ***38***
Benevolence: Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact.	Helpful, honest, forgiving	***Self-Transcendence***	Organism Interaction Group	***33*** ***45*** ***49*** ***52*** ***54***

Tradition: Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide.	Humble, devout, accepting my portion in life	***Conservation***	Group	***18*** ***32*** ***36*** ***44*** ***51***
Conformity: Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others.	Politeness, obedient, honouring parents and elders	***Conservation***	Interaction Group	***11*** ***20*** ***40*** ***47***
Security: Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.	National security social order, clean	***Conservation***	Organism Interaction Group	***8*** ***13*** ***15*** ***22*** ***56***

Notes.

Organism: universal needs of individuals as biological organisms,

Interaction: universal requisites of coordinated social interaction,

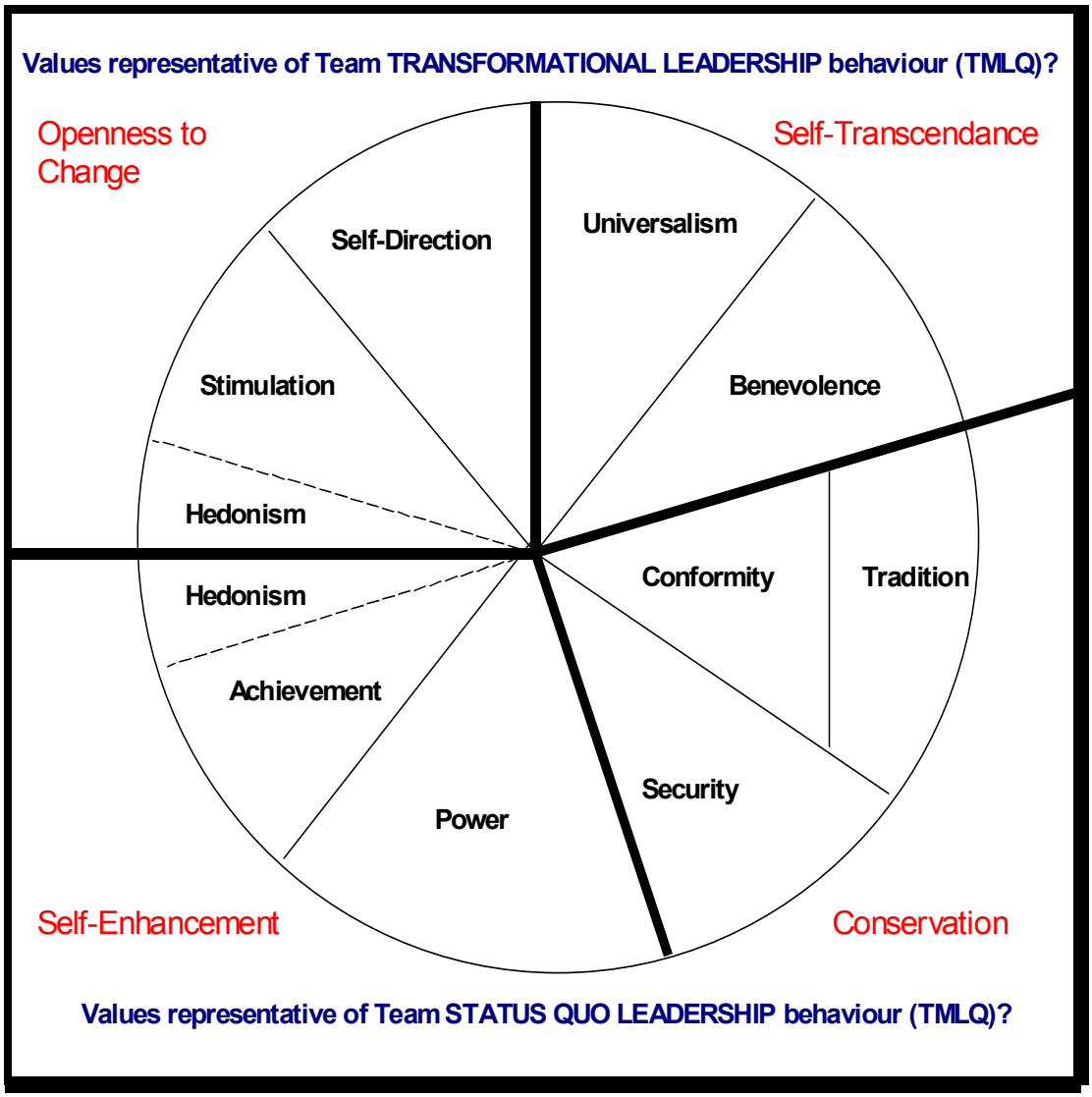
Group: universal requirements for smooth functioning and survival of groups.

*Emerges when people come into contact with those outside the extended primary group, recognize inter-group interdependence and become aware of the scarcity of natural resources.

Schwartz (1994) maintains that his conceptualisation differs from others because it considers value systems as an interdependent coherent structure with conflicts and compatibilities amongst the value types. For example, the pursuit of achievement values may conflict with the pursuit of benevolence values, i.e. seeking personal success for oneself is likely to obstruct actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of others who need one's help. Thus, in terms of the Preliminary Research Model presented here, particular values may either be supportive of or counter-productive for perceptions of team transformational and status quo leadership behaviour. The total pattern of

Schwartz's proposed values relationships is shown in Figure 4.2. Competing value systems emanate in opposing directions from the centre; compatible types are in close proximity going around the circle.

Figure 4.2 - SVS Constructs and Value Types, including the hypothesised association with the TMLQ concept



Schwartz (1994, p24-25) explains this theoretical model of relations among ten motivational types of values, higher order value types, and bipolar value dimensions (adapted, with permission, from Schwartz, 1992), as follows. "Although the theory discriminates among value types, it postulates that, at a more basic level, values form a continuum of related motivations. It is this continuum that gives rise to the circular structure. The nature of the continuum is clarified by

noting the shared motivational emphases of adjacent value types. The shared emphases are as follows: (a) power and achievement - both emphasize social superiority and esteem; (b) achievement and hedonism - both focus on self-centred satisfaction; (c) hedonism and stimulation - both entail a desire for affectively pleasant arousal; (d) stimulation and self-direction - both involve intrinsic interest in novelty and mastery; (e) self-direction and universalism - both express reliance upon one's own judgment and comfort with the diversity of existence; (f) universalism and benevolence - both are concerned with a enhancement of others and transcendence of selfish interests; (g) benevolence and conformity - both call for normative behaviour that promotes close relationships; (h) benevolence and tradition - both promote devotion to one's in-group; (i) conformity and tradition - both entail subordination of self in favour of socially imposed expectations; (j) tradition and security - both stress preserving existing social arrangements that give certainty to life; (k) conformity and security - both emphasize protection of order and harmony in relations; (1) security and power - both stress avoiding or overcoming the threat of uncertainties by controlling relationships and resources. The location of tradition outside of conformity, discussed in Schwartz (1992), implies that these two value types share a single motivational goal - subordination of self in favour of socially imposed expectations. The partitioning of single values into value types (Figure 4.2) represents conceptually convenient decisions about where one fuzzy set ends and another begins in the circular structure. The motivational differences between value types are continuous rather than discrete, with more overlap in meaning near the boundaries of adjacent value types. Consequently, in empirical studies, values from adjacent types may intermix rather than emerge in clearly distinct regions. In contrast, values and value types that express opposing motivations should be discriminated clearly from one another. The oppositions between competing value types can be summarized by viewing values as organized in two bipolar dimensions. As shown in Figure 4.2, one dimension contrasts higher order Openness to Change and Conservation value types. This dimension opposes values emphasizing own independent thought and action and favouring change (self-direction and stimulation) to those emphasizing submissive self-restriction, preservation of traditional practices, and protection of stability (security, conformity, and tradition). The second dimension contrasts higher order Self-Enhancement and Self-Transcendence value types. This dimension opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare (universalism and benevolence) to those emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others power and achievement). Hedonism is related both to Openness to Change and Self-Enhancement."

Having explored the exact nature of the operationalised variables, the next section explains how the exploration of the relationships between them will be conducted.

4.4 Framework for Data Analysis

The core purpose of this research is to examine the interrelationships between team members' personal values, their perception of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and perception of two team outcomes (overall team effectiveness and overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities). These are interrelations previously referred to in a generic sense in team process models, e.g. Hackman & Morris (1975), but not scrutinised using the specific concepts, constructs and variables used in this study. Higgs (1997), cites Graziano & Raulin (1989) in explaining the characteristics that all models share; including a convenient, manageable, and compact representation of the larger, complex and mostly unknown reality; albeit that they are often incomplete and tentative. The model specification in this research aims to reduce the interaction complexity of the variables being considered, whilst seeking to identify personal values effects that may add value to the team process literature.

Previous sections of this Chapter have positioned the overall research design as positivist, i.e. incorporates hypothesis testing, a correlational design, and cross-sectional study employing multivariate analysis techniques. The sequencing of the data analysis and the two stage reporting of results is determined by the use of original established concepts, constructs and measures with a new research subject population sample data set, i.e. real team members in business. The sequencing logic is described in Table 4.8, together with the link between each stage and the relevant Research Questions previously outlined.

Table 4.8 – Key Data Analysis stages

STAGES	LOGIC	METHOD of ANALYSIS
RESULTS & DISCUSSION - PART 1 (Research Question One) Data from personal values and leadership behaviour 'by the team' questionnaires (which includes the two single item team outcome measures) screened for normality.	The data examination process or "investment in multivariate insurance" (Hair et al, 1998) should reveal a 'normal' data set reasonably free from potential multivariate analysis problems.	***Missing Data*** Replaced by means, after establishing randomness (Hair et al. 1998) ***Skewness*** (values falling within or outside the range –1 to +1) ***Case Outliers*** (identified using 'boxplots')

		Item Outliers (identified using 'boxplots') ***Tests of Normality*** – Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistic & Bartlett's Test of Sphericity & Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
Factor Analysis of 'clean' data to establish 'construct' validity ("what construct, trait, or concept underlies a person's performance or score on a measure", Churchill (1979 p.70). As part of establishing construct validity determine, "the extent to which the measure correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing", or 'convergent' validity, Churchill (1979 p.70).	Original concepts required some definition clarification and constructs had not previously been tested in a business team population.	***Principal Components with Varimax rotation*** - Questionnaire items with a factor loading of less than 0.40 were excluded, (recommended cut off is 0.30, Hair et al, 1998).
Establish scale reliability.	Together with factor analysis, necessary in order to identify robust constructs subsequently used within the final research model.	***Cronbach Alphas*** calculated for all scales – preferably they should be greater than 0.70, Nunally (1978).
Identify the presence or otherwise of higher order factors.	Model parsimony is a desirable characteristic of research models subjected to multivariate analysis (Hair et al, 1998).	***Confirmatory Factor Analysis*** using AMOS 4.1. Searching for a high AGFI and a non-significant chi-square statistic (Hair et al, 1998) in order to confirm predicted higher order construct models.
Identify theoretical associates between personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour constructs, in order to create 'alignment' variables. (Research Question Two)	The central research conjecture is that the 'alignment' (or lack of it) between team members' specific personal values and perceptions of different types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, will be associated with team members' perceptions of two different team outcome measures. Schwartz (1994) theoretical model indicates possible associations between specific types of personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour.	**Theoretical associates were used to generate the final Hypotheses for Testing.**
RESULTS & DISCUSSION - PART 2 (Research Question Three) Testing the hypotheses.	In order to assess the 'alignment' between specific personal values and leadership 'by the team' constructs, a 'gap' variable was established for each paired theoretical associate (type of personal values and type of leadership 'by the team' behaviour). This equated to the personal values score (strength of personal value held) minus the perception of leadership 'by the team'	***Pearson Correlations and significance levels*** were calculated using SPSS 10.1, for the relationship between each paired theoretical associate 'alignment' variable (grouped under specific hypotheses, generated on the basis of Schwartz's, 1994 theoretical

	behaviour score (strength of perception that such behaviour was present in the team). Gap scores (increases in the gap between each paired theoretical associate) were then correlated independently with each of the two, team outcome measures. Thus, the relationship between the level of 'alignment' (extent of the gap, i.e. high gap represents low alignment, low gap represents high alignment) and each of the two team outcome measures could be explored. What would be the correlation (positive or negative) between increases in the gap (less alignment) and changes in the score on each of the two team outcome measures?	model) and each of the two team output measures. Factor scores were used in all calculations (Hair et al. 1998).
Specific 'alignments' may account for different amounts of variance, in each of the two team outcome measures.	Some types of 'alignment' may have a differential impact on the perception of different team outcomes. This may provide additional insights into the nature of team processes.	***Regression analysis*** To detect changes in adjusted R square – 'adjusted' selected because measure scales differ (Hair et al, 1998), using the SPSS 'enter' method (to eliminate variables displaying multi-collinearity effects, Norusis, 1994) and subsequent 'stepwise' method (variables entered in descending order of correlation size, Bryman & Cramer, 2001). The respective impact of each variable in the regression equations was identified by examining their standardised betas, thus eliminating problems associated with differences in units of measurement (Hair et al, 1998). Variables were selected on the basis of the degree of the correlation between each paired associate's alignment and each of the two team outcome measures. Only significant correlations above 0.40 were used in the regression equation (indicating, at minimum, a 'modest' correlation (Cohen & Halliday, 1982).
Assessing for any significant demographic differences in scores on specific questionnaire items in the measures of	Any differences found may place some limitations on the findings in this study and have implications for further research.	***t tests for two unrelated demographic categories and a one-way ANOVA for three***

personal values, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and each of the two team outcome measures. (Research Question Four)		***unrelated demographic categories.***

4.5Summary of Chapter 4

This chapter has enunciated the methodology, research subject population, data screening measures and construct operationalisation, employed to explore the variable relationships outlined in the Research Questions, Preliminary Research Model and Initial Hypotheses, already detailed in Chapter 3. The overall philosophy for the Research Design lies within the social-psychology domain. The approach is iterative in the sense that construct reliability and validity within this research subject population is an essential first step for determining the robustness of hypothesised theoretical associates between key variables. The research is to be conducted within a positivist paradigm employing a correlational and cross-sectional design.

Chapter 5: Results and Discussion for Research Questions One and Two

5.1 Introduction

The results chapters of this thesis follow the sequence outlined in the Framework for Data Analysis described in Chapter 4. The subject sample comparisons (original theory and this study) and data screening results have already been provided in Chapter 4. Demographic comparisons and data cleanliness/normality were important from the outset because the construct validity and reliability of the individual input (SVS) and team process (TMLQ) variables and measures within this research subject population, i.e. team members working in real business teams, had not previously been explored. All the data was normal and hence useable for multivariate analysis.

Factor analysis and reliability results for the TMLQ, Team Outcome measures and SVS are the next stage of data analysis. This addresses Research Question Two.

5.2 Factor Analysis for the TMLQ and Reliability results for the TMLQ and Team Outcome measures

Reliability

Cronbach's Alpha results for the TMLQ constructs in the original study and this research subject population sample are compared in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 – Reliability comparisons for the TMLQ original and this research population

Reliability comparisons	**Original Study** (n = 355, 40 item questionnaire)	**This research** (n = 191, 48 item questionnaire)
Overall scale alpha	.70 (mean for six sub-scales across two studies)	.90
Individual scale alphas:	Mean across two studies	From a single study
Idealised 'Influence' (Attributes/Behaviours)/Inspirational Motivation	.84	.92
Intellectual Stimulation	.75	.86
Individualised Consideration	.73	.83
Contingent Reward	.72	.79
Management-by-Exception (Active)	.52	.71
Management-by-Exception (Passive)/Laissez-faire	.64	.84
Extra Effort	Not given	.85

Questions 49 and 50 of the TMLQ were single item team outcome measures, 'Overall Team Effectiveness' and 'Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities', respectively. Descriptive statistics for the two single item Team Output measures are given in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 – Descriptive statistics for the Team Outcome Measures

Descriptive Statistics	Mean (max = 4)	Standard Deviation	Inter-correlation	Combined Alpha (0.78)
Overall Team Effectiveness	2.20	.84	.65	
Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities	2.42	1.06		

Discussion

All Alphas for the six TMLQ sub-scales (40 items in total) reported from the original study were improved upon, indicating that the reliability of the measure has increased when employing the 48 item scale within this study's business team member population. Reliability coefficients for all these sub-scales and the scale incorporating the two team output measures are well above the generally agreed upon .60 lower limit for Cronbach's alpha in exploratory research (Hair et al, 1998). There is a high degree of inter-correlation between the two Team Output measures (.65), but these are retained as discrete dependent variables so that differential impacts of the independent 'alignment' variables can be explored.

Factor Analysis

Given this was the first time the measurement properties of the TMLQ had been scrutinised using a business team population sample, an exploratory factor analysis (Gorsuch, 1983) was conducted. Missing data was replaced with means. A rotated component matrix, using SPSS 'VARIMAX', converged in 23 iterations to reveal a six factor structure. The full Rotated Component matrix is attached as Appendix IV. Only loadings greater than 0.40 were considered for retention (Hair et al. 1998). When items loaded onto more than one factor, either the highest loading was selected or individual item meanings were inspected for construct relevance and comprehensiveness, before being eliminated or allocated accordingly. In general terms factors were determined according to Ford, MacCallum & Tait's (1986) multiple criteria: eigenvalue > 1, scree plot, high factor loading and theoretical rationale. Total variance explained with the six factor rotated solution is 56%.

Table 5.3 - Proposed TMLQ six-factor solution with new construct labels

Proposed Factors (as per the matrix in Appendix IV) & Item numbers (listed in Questionnaire order)	Items & New Construct Labels Cronbach's alpha for each new scale is shown in brackets.	Factor Loading (rounded to two decimal points)
Factor 1:	**"Team Working" (.91)**	
10	listen attentively to each other's concerns.	0.53
15	work out agreements about what's expected from each other.	0.59
17	motivate each other to do more than they thought they could do.	0.59
20	focus on developing each other's strengths.	0.72
25	provide each other with assistance in exchange for each member's effort.	0.58
30	spend time teaching and coaching each other.	0.75
32	behave in ways that build respect for one another.	0.65

34	talk about how trusting each other can help overcome their difficulties.	0.55
35	specify for each other what are expected levels of performance.	0.58
37	encourage each other to do more than they expected they could do.	0.65
42	display confidence in each other.	0.60
48	provide useful advice for each other's development.	0.72
Factor 2:	**"Team Inertia" (.87)**	
3	allow performance to fall below minimum standards before trying to make improvements.	0.69
9	avoid addressing problems.	0.60
11	delay taking actions until problems become serious.	0.81
19	fail to follow-up requests for assistance.	0.68
29	avoid making decisions.	0.62
31	wait until things have gone wrong before taking action.	0.75
39	delay responding to urgent requests.	0.57
Factor 3:	**"Team Vision" (.88)**	
24	clarify the central purpose underlying our actions.	0.55
26	talk optimistically about the future	0.75
27	heighten our motivation to succeed.	0.58
36	talk enthusiastically about our work	0.55
44	emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0.68
46	articulate a compelling vision of the future.	0.73
Factor 4:	**"Team Monitoring" (.77)**	
5	focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	0.68
13	closely monitor each other's performance for errors.	0.75
21	tell each other what they've done wrong rather than what they've done right.	0.63
33	track each other's mistakes.	0.75
43	direct attention toward failure to meet standards.	0.64
Factor 5:	**"Team Purpose" (.70)**	
4	emphasise the importance of being committed to our beliefs.	0.64
6	set high standards.	0.56
14	display conviction in their core ideals, beliefs and values.	0.68
Factor 6:	**"Team Innovation" (.85)**	
8	emphasise the value of questioning each other's strategy for solving problems.	0.42
18	encourage each other to rethink ideas which had never been questioned before.	0.55
22	display extraordinary talent and competence.	0.48
28	question the traditional way of doing things.	0.58
47	look at problems from many different angles.	0.45

Table 5.4 below maps the TMLQ constructs and factors from the original research onto the business population sample, using the majority of the loaded questionnaire items.

Table 5.4 – TMLQ construct and factor map (this study's business population and the original research)

TMLQ - Proposed New Factors	**Team Working**	**Team Inertia**	**Team Vision**	**Team Monitoring**	**Team Purpose**	**Team Innovation**
Original Factors	*Idealised Attributes*	Laissez-faire	*Inspirational Motivation*	*Management by Exception (active)*	*Idealised Behaviour*	*Intellectual Stimulation*
	Individual Consideration	*Management by Exception (passive)*				
	Contingent Reward (transactional)					
	Extra Effort					
Original Constructs	Team Transformational Leadership (TTFL)	Team Status Quo Leadership (TSQL)	TTFL	TSQL	TTFL	TTFL

Discussion

When comparing these results to Table 4.6 there appears to be no evidence supporting a discrete construct called team transactional leadership, i.e. three of the five original items load onto 'Team Working'. The original construct Team Transformational Leadership (TTFL) appears to account for four of the new factors, whilst the remaining two fall within the Team Status Quo Leadership (TSQL) category. This result suggests the presence of two higher-order factors – TTFL and TSQL. The new factor and construct labels are also offered as being a more appropriate capture of the item meanings and more relevant descriptors for application in the business world. Cronbach's Alphas for the new sub-scales are equal to or exceed the recommended lower limit of 0.70, (Nunally, 1978).

5.3 Factor Analysis and Reliability results for the SVS

Reliability

Cronbach's Alpha results for the SVS original study, a business population and this research population sample are compared in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5 - Reliability comparisons for the SVS original study, a business population and this research population

Reliability comparisons	Original Study (Schwartz, 1992) – results from four heterogeneous adult working samples in four countries (sample size not reported, questionnaire items, n = 56)	Environmental organisation leaders (Egri & Herman, 2000) - 73 leaders of 38 for-profit green business organisations and 33 non-profit environmentalist organisations in Canada & the US (between June 1995 & September 1996).	**This research** - (n = 159 complete subject data sets, 57 item questionnaire)
Overall scale alpha	Australia (.67) Holland (.68) Israel (.71) Japan (.60) All reliabilities in all samples (>.45)	Using individual scale scores they constructed two higher-order dimensional continua of openness to change (.73)/conservatism (.77) & self-enhancement (.79)/self-transcendence (.84)	.94
Individual scale alphas:	Not reported		
Achievement		.77	.71
Benevolence		.77	.76
Conformity		.70	.77
Hedonism		.79	.74
Power		.77	.76
Security		.64	.68
Self-Direction		.70	.72
Stimulation		.74	.75
Tradition		.46	.63
Universalism		.80	.80

Discussion

Overall alpha from the original study and alphas for five of the ten SVS sub-scales (56 items in total) reported from the Egri & Herman (2000) research were improved upon (Conformity, Security, Self-Direction, Stimulation & Tradition), indicating that the reliability of the measure has

increased for these sub-scales when employing the scale (57 items) within this business team population. However, one sub-scale "Universalism" has remained at the same level, whilst four (Achievement, Benevolence, Hedonism and Power) have decreased. Reliability coefficients for all these sub-scales, using the business population, are still above the generally agreed upon .60 lower limit for Cronbach's alpha in exploratory research (Hair et al, 1998).

Factor Analysis

Once again, given this was the first time the measurement properties of the SVS had been scrutinised using a business team population sample, an exploratory factor analysis (Gorsuch, 1983) was conducted. Missing data excluded cases 'listwise', leaving 159 subjects for the analysis. A freely rotated component matrix using SPSS 'VARIMAX' converged in 16 iterations to reveal 14 factors. Clearer factor structures (less frequent low loadings of items) emerged for an imposed ten-factor solution. This was an attempt to match the original ten value types proposed by Schwartz (1994). However, the results demonstrated neither factor similarity nor conceptual clarity, except for the construct 'Power'. The clearest factor structure emerged from a six-factor (24 iteration) and four-factor (7 iteration) imposed solution (supported by scree plot viewing). The latter was used to ascertain if there was any support for Schwartz's 1994 theoretical model of relations among higher order value types and hence support for the hypothesised association between the SVS and TMLQ constructs – see Table 4.6 and Figure 4.2, whilst the former was employed to see if there was any match with the six executive value dimensions reported by Hambrick & Brandon (1988) and other values typologies (see Table 5.7). Table 5.6 details the six factor-item solution, whilst Appendix V indicates how the six factor-item solution groups into four factors. The full Rotated Component Matrices for each solution are attached as Appendix V. Only loadings greater than 0.40, were considered for retention (Hair et al. 1998). When items loaded onto more than one factor, either the highest loading was selected or individual item meanings were inspected for construct relevance and comprehensiveness, before being eliminated or allocated accordingly. In general terms factors were determined according to Ford, MacCallum & Tait's (1986) multiple criteria: eigenvalue > 1, scree plot, high factor loading and theoretical rationale. Total variance explained with the six factor rotated solution is 50%.

Table 5.6 - Proposed SVS six-factor solution with new construct labels

Factors (as per the matrix in Appendix 2) & Item numbers (listed in Questionnaire order)	**Items & proposed Construct Labels** Cronbach's alpha for each new scale is shown in brackets.	**Factor Loading** (rounded to two decimal points)
Factor 1:	**"Conservatism" (.84)**	
18	RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)	0.61
20	SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)	0.62
36	HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)	0.62
40	HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)	0.58
44	ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)	0.57
47	OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)	0.70
49	HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)	0.57
52	RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)	0.51
54	FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)	0.52
56	CLEAN (neat, tidy)	0.59
Factor 2:	**"Citizenship" (.81)**	
1	EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)	0.50
8	SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)	0.59
11	POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)	0.50
13	NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)	0.62
17	A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)	0.70
22	FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)	0.54
30	SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)	0.56
42	HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)	0.52
Factor 3:	**"Resourceful" (.81)**	
5	FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)	0.42
16	CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)	0.49
26	WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)	0.55
31	INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	0.71
32	MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling and action)	0.47
35	BROAD-MINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)	0.44
41	CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)	0.49
43	CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)	0.64
48	INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)	0.62
55	SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)	0.55
Factor 4:	**"Status Seeking" (.83)**	
3	SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)	0.70
4	PLEASURE (gratification of desires)	0.60
12	WEALTH (material possessions, money)	0.69
23	SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)	0.52
27	AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)	0.69
34	AMBITIOUS (hard working, aspiring)	0.43
39	INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)	0.48
46	PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (preserving my "face")	0.67
57	SELF INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)	0.50
Factor 5:	**"Outer Focused" (.82)**	
9	AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)	0.54

24	UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)	0.61
25	A VARIED LIFE (life filled with challenge, novelty and change)	0.61
29	A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)	0.52
37	DARING (seeking adventure, risk)	0.55
38	PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)	0.70
53	CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)	0.55
Factor 6:	**"Inner Focused" (.72)**	
2	INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)	
6	A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual, not material matters)	0.67
10	MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)	0.62
19	MATURE LOVE (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy)	0.45
51	DEVOUT (holding to religious faith and belief)	0.56

Discussion

The six factor-item solution from Table 5.6 closely approximates as four factors from Appendix V, using two higher-order factors, according to the following grouping of items: "Outer Focused" and "Resourceful" (Component 1) & "Inner Focused" and "Conservatism" (Component 3), whilst "Status Seeking" (Component 4) and "Citizenship" (Component 2) remain as discrete factors. The factor grouping suggests the presence of two higher order factors.

Table 5.7 below maps the factors and constructs from the original research onto the business team population sample factors and constructs (using, where relevant, the majority of the original items); and any related values measure constructs and factors from the literature sources listed.

Table 5.7 - SVS construct and factor map (this study's business population, original research and related constructs)

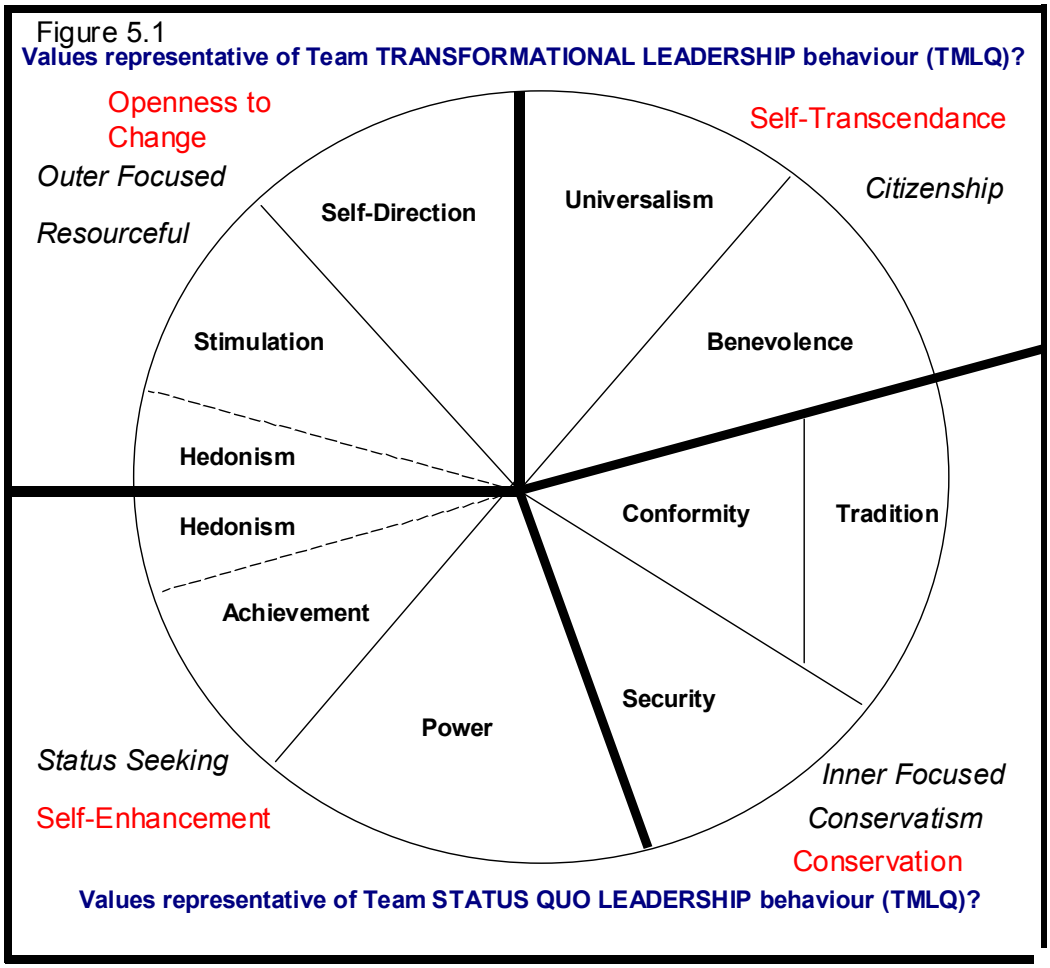
SVS – Proposed New Factors	***Original Factors (Schwartz, 1994)***	***Original Constructs (Schwartz, 1994)***	***Hambrick & Brandon (1988) - factors***	***Hogan & Hogan (1996) - constructs***	***Gordon (1976) - factors***
Conservatism	Tradition Conformity	Conservation	'Duty' (to value the integrity of reciprocal relationships; obligation and loyalty)		Conformity
Inner Focused	**New Factor**	**Appears to group as per Conservation**			

Status Seeking	Power Contains elements of Achievement Hedonism	Self-Enhancement Openness to Change	'Power' (to value control of situations and people) 'Materialism' (to value wealth and pleasing possessions)	'Achievement' (Recognition, Power and Hedonistic) – wanting to be influential, make a difference, be recognised for getting things done	Leadership Recognition
Resourceful	Self Direction Contains elements of Achievement	Openness to Change Self-Enhancement	'Rationality' (to value fact-based, emotion-free decisions and actions)		Independence
Outer Focused	Stimulation	**Appears to group as per Openness to Change**	'Novelty' (to value change, the new and different)		
Citizenship	**New Factor**	**Unclear, although based on the match to other author's types could be either Conservation or Self-Transcendence**	'Collectivism' (to value the wholeness of human kind and of social systems)	'Social Service' (Altruistic, Affiliation and Tradition); help, serve, and participate in worthy activities	Support Benevolence

Discussion

Analysis of the above reveals no support in either factor solution for any of Schwartz's (1994) original SVS scales as discrete factors emerging from this study's business team population. All Alphas for the newly proposed factor scales exceed those reported by Schwartz (1992) and Egri & Herman (2000), except for 'Universalism' in the latter study. Cronbach's Alphas for the new sub-scales exceed the recommended lower limit of 0.70, (Nunally, 1978). However, closer inspection of the factor and construct groupings shows some commonality with Schwartz's (1994) theoretical model – see Figure 4.2. Most notably 'Conformity' and 'Tradition' cluster together under the first proposed new higher order factor Conservatism, along similar lines to their positioning under

'Conservation' in Schwartz's model. Likewise, 'Power', 'Achievement' and elements of 'Hedonism', collected under 'Self-Enhancement' in the latter, group under Status Seeking in the revised factor structure. A second proposed higher order factor combining Resourceful and Outer Focused mirrors the proximity of 'Self-Direction and 'Stimulation' under 'Openness to Change'. The location and components for Schwartz's 'Self-Transcendence' construct is less clear, although the values literature reported indicates that Citizenship may sit here. Finally, Inner-Focused seems to coalesce with Conservatism possibly forming a newly defined higher order factor and thus connecting with 'Conservation'. The potential two higher-order factors discovered here also give some credence to the bi-polar dimensions proposed by Schwartz (1994), also supported by scale reliabilities reported by Egri & Herman (2000); they are, Openness to Change (Outer-Focused & Resourceful) /Conservation (Inner-Focused & Conservatism) and Self-enhancement (Status Seeking)/Self-Transcendence (possibly Citizenship).



To illustrate the above, Figure 5.1 above plots the proposed new six-factor model (factors in italics) onto Schwartz's (1994) theoretical model. Comparisons with other author's values schema indicate a degree of overlap, particularly with Hambrick and Brandon's (1988) Executive Values Dimensions, whilst the Status Seeking factor has the highest communality. However, the new six-factor model appears more comprehensive in nature, whilst also providing parsimony, and includes Inner-Focused as a unique offering. In voicing the above interpretation it must be recognised that this is the first occasion in which the SVS has been subjected to a factor analysis. Schwartz (1992) used the Guttman-Lingoes Smallest Space Analysis (SSA) (Guttman, 1968) to produce his structure of values. In brief, this technique represents values as points in multidimensional space, such that the points reflect empirical relations among values as measured by correlations between their importance ratings (using a Pearson inter-correlation matrix). These were then further interpreted using a 'configurational verification' approach (Davison, 1983) to place the points in distinct regions of space relative to one another (as per Figure 4.2). Crucially, when no distinct region emerged for a value type, its values were intermixed with those of a type postulated to be adjacent. Furthermore, respondents to his survey were dropped before the analyses took place if they used the response 'of supreme importance' more than 21 times, or used any other response more than 35 times. No such rule was applied to the business team population sample used in this study.

5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the proposed TMLQ and SVS higher order constructs

In an attempt to provide even greater model parsimony a series of CFA's were performed on both the transformational and status quo types of personal values and leadership behaviour, where either the exploratory factor analysis or theory reported earlier indicated the likelihood of additional factor reduction.

CFA One

Inspection of the item meanings comprising Team Vision and Team Purpose transformational type leadership 'by the team' behaviour factors, suggested a logical connection and possibly a higher order factor, Team Strategy.

Results

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	Higher Order Factor supported – YES/NO
82.689	27	0.000	0.057	0.902	0.837	0.541	NO

Inspection of the chi-square (non-significant) and AGFI statistic (Hair et al., 1998), indicates that the predicted model of constructs and items does not support the presence of a higher-order factor.

CFA Two

Results from CFA's of the MLQ (measuring individual leader transformational leadership behaviour) had demonstrated a higher order factor, Transformational Leadership Behaviour, accounting for all first level factors of a transformational type (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001).

This idea was also evident in the exploratory factor analysis reported earlier and is therefore repeated here for the team transformational leadership behaviour measure TMLQ, i.e. Transformational Leadership 'by the team' Behaviour comprising: Team Working, Team Innovation, Team Vision and Team Purpose.

Results

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	Higher Order Factor supported – YES/NO
927.253	301	0.000	0.165	0.711	0.663	0.610	NO

Inspection of the chi-square (non-significant) and AGFI statistic (Hair et al., 1998), indicates that the predicted model of constructs and items does not support the presence of a higher-order factor.

CFA Three

Inspection of the results from the factor analysis indicates the possibility of a higher order factor, Team Status Quo Leadership Behaviour, comprising Team Monitoring and Team Inertia. Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry (2001) generated a three correlated factor model from previous studies on the MLQ, comprising transformational, transactional and non-leadership (or laissez faire). Although the exploratory factor analysis has not revealed support for the construct transactional leadership in its original form, Team Monitoring and Team Inertia conceptualisations, appear to be similar to transactional and non-leadership respectively. As Kan (2002) notes, a leader monitoring to avoid mistakes while maintaining the status quo represents active transactional behaviour, whilst Laissez-Faire exemplifies behaviour that avoids leadership.

Results

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	Higher Order Factor supported – YES/NO
294.615	54	0.000	0.155	0.752	0.641	0.520	NO

Inspection of the chi-square (non-significant) and AGFI statistic (Hair et al., 1998), indicates that the predicted model of constructs and items does not support the presence of a higher-order factor.

CFA Four

Inspection of Schwartz's (1994) bi-polar theoretical model and the theoretical association postulated by the author of this research (see Figure 5.1), suggests that a higher order factor, Transformational Personal Values, may represent Resourceful and Outer Focussed.

Results

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	Higher Order Factor supported – YES/NO
353.889	119	0.000	0.176	0.808	0.753	0.629	NO

Inspection of the chi-square (non-significant) and AGFI statistic (Hair et al., 1998), indicates that the predicted model of constructs and items does not support the presence of a higher-order factor.

CFA Five

Inspection of Schwartz's (1994) bi-polar theoretical model and the theoretical association postulated by the author of this research (see Figure 5.1), suggests that a higher order factor, Status Quo Personal Values, may represent Conservatism and Inner Focussed.

Results

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	Higher Order Factor supported – YES/NO
225.202	77	0.000	0.265	0.839	0.780	0.615	NO

Inspection of the chi-square (non-significant) and AGFI statistic (Hair et al., 1998), indicates that the predicted model of constructs and items does not support the presence of a higher-order factor.

Discussion

None of the CFA's support the presence of higher order factors, therefore single factors of proposed transformational and status quo type personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour were retained for positing theoretical 'alignment' associates and subsequent analysis. Evidence from two studies of the TMLQ (Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, 2001) supported the validity of a six-factor model of leadership 'by the team' behaviour. The six factors included three transformational leadership styles (Idealised/Inspirational; Intellectual Stimulation; Individualised Consideration), one transactional contingent reward/exchange style, a corrective or active management-by-exception style and a combination of the passive corrective/laissez-faire style. The factor analyses reported in this research, using a real business team population, support a similar leadership 'by the team' behaviour factor structure, with one additional transformational construct making four in total: Factor One: Team Working (similar to a combination of Idealised Attributes/Inspirational Motivation and Individualised Consideration), Factor Two: Team Vision,

Factor Three: Team Purpose (Factors Two and Three considered together, similar to Idealised Behaviours), and Factor Four: Team Innovation (similar to Intellectual Stimulation); together with Factor Five: Team Monitoring (similar to a corrective or active management-by-exception transactional style) and Factor Six: Team Inertia (similar to a laissez-faire style). A study of the factor structure of the MLQ by Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman (1997) revealed a similar three type solution, i.e. transformational, transactional and non-leadership. Considerable overlap also exists between the newly proposed Factors One, Two, Four and Five and West's (1990) four team climate factors (each contributing to Team Innovativeness and Effectiveness). Thus, Team Working is similar to 'Participative Safety', likewise, Team Vision with 'Team Vision', Team Innovation with 'Support for Innovation', and Team Monitoring with 'Task Orientation'. This provides some consistent evidence for the possibility of generic leadership 'by the team' behaviours influencing the perception of team outcomes.

5.5 Theoretical Associates between the TMLQ and SVS constructs

The data reduction and factor/construct mapping has produced factor definitions and item groupings for the TMLQ (6 factors comprising 38 items) and SVS (6 factors comprising 48 items) measures that have increased validity and reliability when compared to original theory, using this business team member research subject population sample. This enables more substantive hypothesised relations between leadership 'by the team' behaviour and personal values types, as outlined in Table 5.8. The table indicates that team members with particular personal values sets (as described by the SVS factors) may be searching for the presence of specific types of team leadership 'by the team' behaviour (as described by the TMLQ factors) in their working environment. In essence, the suggested theoretical association is that team members who hold outward facing, proactive, future oriented, change and improvement, i.e. Transformational type values, are expected to look for the presence of Team Transformational Leadership Behaviour, and will evaluate the strength of the alignment between these facets when assessing team outcomes. On the other hand, team members who hold conservative and reflective, i.e. Status Quo type values, will be more inclined to look for Team Status Quo Leadership Behaviour that concentrates on maintenance activities in the here and now, before conducting the same assessment. In a universal sense, Kluckhohn & Stroutbeck (1961) assert that Western culture is oriented toward the mastery of nature, holds an active and optimistic view of man as perfectible, views society as built on individualistic competitive relationships, and

has an optimistic future orientation built on a notion of progress. However, England (1975) found that managers in different countries tended to be either pragmatic, seeking validation in their own experience (USA), or moralistic, seeking validation in a general philosophy, moral system or tradition (European).

The proposed theoretical associates described below address Research Question Two.

Table 5.8 – Potential theoretical associates between a team member's personal values and that person's perception of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, using Schwartz's (1994) theoretical model and the alignment between the TMLQ and SVS item meanings from the factor analyses

TMLQ Factor: Team Transformational Leadership (TTFL) type behaviour Team Status Quo Leadership (TSQL) type behaviour	Team Purpose (TTFL)	Team Vision (TTFL)	Team Transformation (TTFL)	Team Innovation (TTFL)	Team Monitoring (TSQL)	Team Inertia (TSQL)
SVS Factor: Transformational Value (TV) type Status Quo Value (SQV) type						
Outer Focused (TV)	X	**X**	**X**			
Resourceful (TV)	X	X	**X**	**X**		
Citizenship (TV)			**X**			
Status Seeking (SQV)					**X**	
Conservatism (SQV)					**X**	**X**
Inner Focused (SQV)					**X**	**X**

These hypothesised theoretical associates will now be used to inform the Final Research Model and Hypotheses for Testing. Based on Table 5.8 above, poor alignment (increases in the gap) between scores for all the paired associates - TV and TTFL types, and between SQV and TSQL types, are

predicted to lead to low scores on the team outcome measures (initial Hypotheses One and Two respectively). Within Hypothesis One, the gap between the scores on 'Resourceful' and TTFL measures are predicted to display the strongest negative correlation with the team outcome measures. Increases in the gap between TV and TSQL type scores will lead to a positive correlation (initial Hypothesis Three). The Final Research Model, hypothesised variable relationships, and Hypotheses for Testing can now be determined.

5.6 Summary of Chapter 5

This Chapter has demonstrated the importance of data reliability and exploratory factor analysis prior to the testing of research hypotheses, especially when established measures are either being used with different population samples and/or statistical techniques (Hair et al, 1998). Indeed, the predominance of New Zealand Public Sector subjects in the study may have influenced the personal values factors that emerged. The results have established increased reliability for the TMLQ and SVS scales (all at levels exceeding the raised bar for reliability estimates recommended by Nunally, 1978, i.e. 0.70), for replication in additional business populations, whilst the respective constructs theoretical juxtaposition for team leadership process research, tested within a Final Research Model, has been justified. With respect to the TMLQ some confidence can be gained by what appears to be a strengthening of the leadership 'by the team' behaviour factor and measurement properties, whilst substantial elements of the original factor and construct structure are retained, albeit now phrased in everyday business language. For the SVS, considerable scale clarity has been gained when parallels are drawn with prior values research, including the emergence of factors new to Schwartz's (1994) originals, whilst seemingly in line with those provided by other authors.

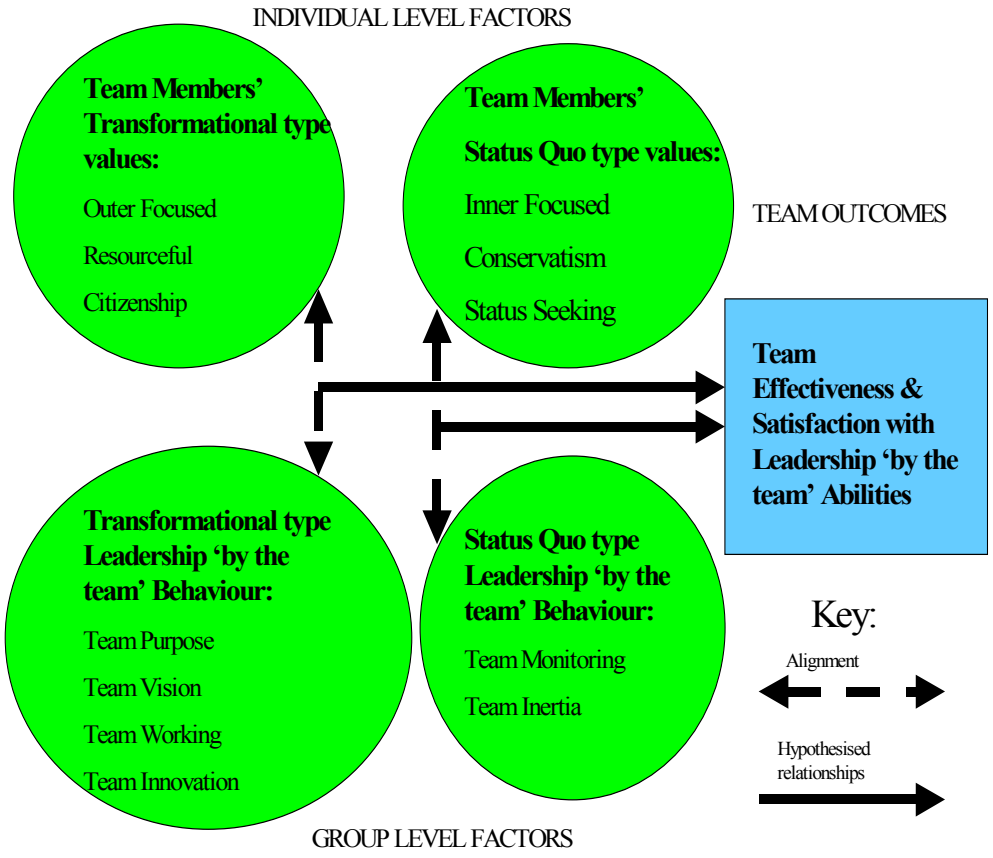
Chapter 6: Description of the Final Research Model, Hypothesised Relationships for Testing, Results for Research Questions Three and Four and Overall Findings

Following an exposition of the likely theoretical associates between types of personal values and types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, described in the previous
Chapter, the Final Research Model can now be constructed. This is presented as Figure 6.1 below.

6.1 Description of the Final Research Model

Figure 6.1 indicates the grouping of different alignment types (transformational type personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour; status quo type personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour), under the Hackman & Morris (1979) team interaction process factor headings, and the hypothesised relationships with the team outcome variables, the latter treated as separate measures for the purposes of analysis. In Hackman & Morris (1979) modelling terms, the idea is that personal values (individual input factor) alignment with perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour (group level 'process' factor) will impact on perceptions of team outcomes (team output factors). In House & Mitchell (1974) path-goal language, the underlying theoretical proposition is that alignment between team members' personal values and perceptions of related types of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, eases the path to the goal of positive team outcome perceptions.

Figure 6.1 – Final Research Model (see overleaf)



6.2 Hypothesised Relationships for Testing and Research Question Three Results

Flowing from the **three Initial Hypotheses,** the alignment associates were converted into a gap variable (see Chapter Three) and then correlated with each of the two Team Outcome measures: Team Effectiveness and Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities. No specific hypotheses were generated for differential effects on these two outcomes, as this part of the model was exploratory in nature, although the new personal value construct 'Resourceful' was expected to contribute most impact. The hypotheses and the results of the correlation analyses are presented below.

Derived from Initial Hypotheses One and Two: Hypothesis for all transformational/status quo type values and transformational/status quo leadership 'by the team' behaviour type associates.

Hypothesis One (A) for Testing:

Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of personal values held and the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, are associated with decreases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Hypothesis One (B) for Testing:

Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and the strength of personal values held (i.e. there is more of the leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived than is required by the strength of the personal values), are associated with increases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

The 'gap' measure equals the degree of alignment between team members' personal values and their perceptions of team leadership behaviour, (n = 191). Note, that for all correlations, when the calculation is team members' perception of team leadership behaviour ***minus*** team members' personal values (all Hypotheses B's), the correlation sign merely reverses. An example is given for the first correlation in the each of the tables.

Table 6.1 – Hypothesis One Correlation Results

Transformational Type personal values held *minus* perception of Transformational Type leadership 'by the team' behaviours	**Correlation with perception of overall team effectiveness** **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)	**Correlation with perception of overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities** **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)
Citizenship minus Team Working (Hypothesis One 'A')	-.397**	-.355**
Team Working minus Citizenship (Hypothesis One 'B')	.397**	.355**
Citizenship minus Team Vision	-.387**	-.344**
Citizenship minus Team Purpose	-.293**	-.286**
Citizenship minus Team Innovation	-.369**	-.353**
Resourceful minus Team Working	-.514**	-.460**
Resourceful minus Team Vision	-.387**	-.344**

Resourceful minus Team Purpose	-.354**	-.343**
Resourceful minus Team Innovation	-.495**	-.472**
Outer Focussed minus Team Working	-.375**	-.401**
Outer Focussed minus Team Vision	-.373**	-.399**
Outer Focussed minus Team Purpose	-.263**	-.320**
Outer Focussed minus Team Innovation	-.359**	-.410**
Status Quo Type personal values held *minus* perception of Status Quo Type leadership 'by the team' behaviours		
Conservatism minus Team Monitoring	.069	.058
Conservatism minus Team Inertia	.244**	.255**
Inner Focused minus Team Monitoring	.142	.102
Inner Focused minus Team Inertia	.276**	.254**
Status Seeking minus Team Monitoring	.152*	.130
Status Seeking minus Team Inertia	.301**	.303**

Derived from initial Hypothesis Three: Hypothesis for all transformational type values and status quo leadership 'by the team' behaviour type associates.

Hypothesis Two (A) for Testing:

Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of personal values held and the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, are associated with increases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Hypothesis Two (B) for Testing:

Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and the strength of personal values held (i.e. there is more of the leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived than is required by the strength of the personal values), are associated with decreases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Table 6.2 – Hypothesis Two Correlation Results

	Correlation with perception of overall team effectiveness **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)	**Correlation with perception of overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities** **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)
Considering Team Monitoring as a Status Quo Type leadership 'by the team' behaviour		
Citizenship minus Team Monitoring (Hypothesis Two 'A')	.178*	.161*
Team Monitoring minus Citizenship (Hypothesis Two 'B')	-.178*	-.161*
Resourceful minus Team Monitoring	.155*	.140
Outer Focussed minus Team Monitoring	.153*	.068
Considering Team Inertia as a Status Quo Type leadership 'by the team' behaviour		
Citizenship minus Team Inertia	.331**	.337**
Resourceful minus Team Inertia	.342**	.353**
Outer Focussed minus Team Inertia	.297**	.242**

Although the personal values had been split along the lines hypothesised, i.e. some are of a transformational type and some are of a status quo type, this was a theoretical proposition only. Therefore, consideration was given to all personal values being transformational in this particular research subject population sample context. Thus all personal values classified as status quo types were repositioned as transformational types and were viewed as theoretical associates with transformational type leadership behaviour. The hypothesis is the same as that postulated in Hypothesis One for Testing and the results are presented below.

Hypothesis Three (A) for Testing:
Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of personal values held and the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, are associated with decreases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Hypothesis Three (B) for Testing:
Increases in the gap (the lower the alignment) between the strength of the perception of the presence of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and the strength of personal values held (i.e. there is more of the leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived than is required by the strength of the personal values), are associated with increases in the strength of the perception of overall team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

Table 6.3 – Hypothesis Three Correlation Results

Considering Status Seeking as a Transformational Type personal value	**Correlation with perception of overall team effectiveness** **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)	**Correlation with perception of overall satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities** **Pearson Correlation** ** significant at 0.01 level (two tailed) * significant at 0.05 level (two tailed)
Status Seeking minus Team Working (Hypothesis Three 'A')	-.403**	-.367**

Team Working minus Status Seeking (Hypothesis Three 'B')	.403**	.367**
Status Seeking minus Team Vision	-.395**	-.358**
Status Seeking minus Team Purpose	-.274**	-.272**
Status Seeking minus Team Innovation	-.379**	-.368**
Considering Conservatism as a Transformational Type personal value		
Conservatism minus Team Working	-.467**	-.423**
Conservatism minus Team Vision	-.458**	-.413**
Conservatism minus Team Purpose	-.357**	-.345**
Conservatism minus Team Innovation	-.436**	-.416**
Considering Inner Focussed as a Transformational Type personal value		
Inner Focussed minus Team Working	-.292**	-.287**
Inner Focussed minus Team Vision	-.282**	-.277**
Inner Focussed minus Team Purpose	-.191**	-.213**
Inner Focussed minus Team Innovation	-.260*	-.276**

Before discussing the results, correlations that were above 0.40 and therefore classified 'modest' at a minimum (Cohen & Halliday, 1982) were itemised as follows. These were then entered into subsequent regression equations.

Table 6.4 – Correlations with the Team Outcome measures > 0.40

Team Effectiveness	**Significant correlations (highest first)**
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working	-.514
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation	-.495
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Working	-.467
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision	-.458
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Innovation	-.436
Team Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities	
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation	-.472
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working	-.460
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Working	-.423
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Innovation	-.416
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision	-.413

Regression analysis

In order to estimate the relative variance contributions of the highest correlated alignments to the association with the team outcome measures (see Table 6.4 above), regression equations were constructed and analysed for the dependent variables; Team Effectiveness and Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities. These results are given in Tables 6.5 to 6.8.

Results for Team Effectiveness are reported first in Tables 6.5 and 6.6, followed by those for Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities in Tables 6.7 and 6.8.

Dependent Variable – Overall Team Effectiveness

Variables entered – as per Table 6.4 above
SPSS Method – Enter
** significant at 0.01

Table 6.5 – Regression Analysis for Overall Team Effectiveness (SPSS enter method)

Predictors	Adjusted R squared – All predictors combined	Standardised Coefficients - Beta
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working	.314 **	-.322
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation		-.074
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision		-.232
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Innovation		-.046

Note: Conservatism ***minus*** Team Working eliminated due to high multi-collinearity.

Dependent Variable – Overall Team Effectiveness

Variables entered (in order of Beta size) – Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working, Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision, Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation, Conservatism ***minus*** Team Innovation
SPSS Method – Stepwise
** significant at 0.01

Table 6.6 - Regression Analysis for Overall Team Effectiveness (SPSS stepwise method)

Predictors	Adjusted R squared	Standardised Coefficients - Beta	F (change in R squared)
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working	.260 **	-.384	67.782**
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision	.319** (combined with above)	-.281	45.508**

Note: Remaining variables excluded.

Dependent Variable – Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' abilities

Variables entered – as above
SPSS Method – Enter
** significant at 0.01

Table 6.7 - Regression Analysis for Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities (SPSS enter method)

Predictors	Adjusted R squared – All predictors combined	Standardised Coefficients - Beta
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working	.259 **	-.118
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation		-.246
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision		-.133
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Working		-.117

Note: Conservatism ***minus*** Team Innovation eliminated due to high multi-collinearity.

Dependent Variable – Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' abilities

Variables entered (in order of Beta size) – Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation, Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision, Resourceful ***minus*** Team Working, Conservatism ***minus*** Team Vision
SPSS Method – Stepwise
** significant at 0.01

Table 6.8 - Regression Analysis for Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities (SPSS stepwise method)

Predictors	Adjusted R squared	Standardised Coefficients - Beta	F (change in R squared)
Resourceful ***minus*** Team Innovation	.218 **	-.348	54.043**
Conservatism ***minus*** Team Working	.263** (combined with above)	-.253	34.927**

Note: Remaining variables excluded.

Discussion

Analysis of the results relating to the examination of Research Question Three and the related Hypotheses for Testing reveals the following.

Hypothesis One

All alignment associate relationships for transformational type values and transformational type leadership 'by the team' behaviour indicate a negative relationship with perceptions of team outcomes, as the gap between them increases. A positive relationship exists, if there is more transformational type leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived, than the strength of transformational type values held. Therefore, provisional support is evidenced for Hypothesis One (A and B), when considering transformational type alignment associates. The relationship (correlations) is stronger for Team Effectiveness when the associates are Citizenship and Resourceful, whilst the Outer Focused associates reveal a stronger relationship with Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities. As predicted by this author's theorised associates (see Table 5.8), Resourceful appears to show the highest overall impact and provides the highest and second highest single impact through its association with Team Working and Team Innovation, respectively. Inspection of the items making up the factor Resourceful indicate the possibility of motivational values elements that may underpin striving for team working and team effectiveness (e.g. capable, wisdom, intelligent, successful); and team working and team innovation (e.g. freedom, creativity, broad-minded), in a general sense. However, this suggestion remains tentative

given that the correlation only provides approximately 25% of the explained variance for these alignment associates. Interestingly, the relationship with Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities reverses and slightly reduces the relative impact of the Resourceful-Team Working and Resourceful-Team Innovation alignment associates, with the latter now in front of the former. Perhaps, in this research subject population, the perception of satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities depends more on the climate for innovation (West, 1990) than team working. Further evidence of support for the differential effect of Resourceful-Team Working and Resourceful-Team Innovation alignment on the relationship with the team outcome measures is found in the results from the regression analysis. The Resourceful-Team Working alignment associate accounted for 26% of the variance in the assessment of team effectiveness, whilst the Resourceful-Team Innovation alignment associate accounted for 22% of the variance in the assessment of satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities.

All alignment associate relationships for status quo type values and status quo type leadership 'by the team' behaviour indicate a positive relationship with perceptions of team outcomes, as the gap between them increases. A negative relationship exists, if there is more status quo type leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived, than the strength of status quo type values held. Therefore, there is no support for Hypothesis One (A and B), when considering status quo type alignment associates. Investigation of the results indicates weak correlations with both team outcome measures in the opposite direction to that predicted for the Team Monitoring alignment associates; and stronger correlations with both team outcome measures in the opposite direction to that predicted for the Team Inertia alignment associates. These results suggest that Team Monitoring alignment associates are marginal in their impact on the team outcome perceptions, i.e. team monitoring is perceived as a slightly negative leadership 'by the team' behaviour. Team Inertia, on the other hand, has a stronger negative effect. Results indicate that the hypothesised categorisation of Conservatism, Inner Focused and Status Seeking as status quo personal values may be incorrect for this research subject population sample. There is some limited independent support for the suggestion that Conservatism and Status Seeking may be perceived as transformational type personal values within a predominately Public Sector workforce, recently subjected to social entrepreneur type interventions. In a general sense, Waddock & Post (1991) stressed that the social entrepreneur generates follower commitment to public good projects by framing them in terms of important social values, rather than in economic terms, whilst Egri & Herman (2000) observe that

non-profit organisations can be viewed as altruistically driven and motivated to improve society. Once again, inspection of the items (e.g. helpful, self-discipline, responsible, obedient, respect for tradition) raises the possibility that such values may fit this view, whilst Status Seeking might be viewed as an entrepreneurial personal value, when attached to a social cause. Further evidence of support for the differential effect of Conservatism (when considered as a transformational type personal value) with transformational type leadership 'by the team' behaviours (Team Vision and Team Working) alignments, on the relationship with the team outcome measures is found in the results from the regression analysis. The Conservatism-Team Vision alignment associate accounted for an increase of 6% of the total variance in the assessment of team effectiveness (i.e. the second and final significant model predictor), whilst the Conservatism-Team Working alignment associate accounted for an increase of 4% of the variance in the assessment of satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities (once again, the second and final significant model predictor). What might be witnessed here is the presence of a public service ethos (vision and way of working) impacting on perceptions of the specified team outcomes. However, these ideas remain speculative without additional studies of this kind, whilst the role of Inner Focused remains unclear and warrants further investigation beyond this research. Based on these results Hypothesis Three was generated.

Hypothesis Two

All alignment associate relationships for transformational type values and status quo type leadership 'by the team' behaviour indicate a positive relationship with perceptions of team outcomes, as the gap between them increases. A negative relationship exists, if there is more status quo type leadership 'by the team' behaviour perceived, than the strength of transformational type values held. Therefore, there is support for Hypothesis Two (A and B), when considering these alignment associates.

Inspection of the results indicates an overall weaker effect for Team Monitoring alignment associates than for Team Inertia associates, with the former indicating a stronger relationship with team effectiveness and the latter a stronger relationship with satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. Explanation of this result may rest with Bass's (1985) idea that the most effective leadership includes elements of both transformational and transactional behaviour. Therefore, even though the Team Monitoring perception is considered adverse for those holding transformational values, it may be tolerated at the margin because it is seen as necessary for effective team

functioning. Team Inertia (non-leadership behaviour), on the other hand, appears to be universally perceived as having a negative effect on team outcomes and this perception becomes stronger as the team member's transformational values grow in strength. Once again, this can only be a tentative interpretation and requires more studies with different business team populations. Even so, this may provide additional indirect support for the newly proposed leadership 'by the team' factor structure revealed in this research.

Hypothesis Three

When considering all types of personal values as of the transformational type, as proposed after considering the results from Hypothesis One, Hypothesis Three (A and B) is supported by the findings. Relationships between the alignment associates and team outcome perceptions are stronger for team effectiveness, except for the Inner-Focused results, which are mixed. The latter results may also be suggesting the presence of a public service ethos, although this remains speculative without further investigation. Finally, once all personal values were treated as transformational types, regression analysis reveals the that combination of the relative alignment associate contributions, listed in order of their Betas; Resourceful-Team Working, Conservatism-Team Vision, Resourceful-Team Innovation and Conservatism-Team Innovation, accounted for 31% of the variance in the Team Effectiveness scores; whilst, Resourceful-Team Innovation, Conservatism-Team Vision, Resourceful-Team Working, and Conservatism-Team Working, accounted for 26% of the variance in the Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities scores.

6.3 Research Question Four Results

The literature has indicated the possibility that demographic differences in personal values exist for differences in generations (Joynt & Morton, 1999) and ethnic culture (House et al.,1995), whilst the picture for gender remains equivocal (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). Investigation of differences in perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour types, within and across the demographics, are purely exploratory. No significant differences were found on any demographics for scores relating to Overall Team Effectiveness and Overall Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities.

Table 6.9 - Significant differences in the scores on Personal Values across all three demographic categories

Factors (as per the matrix in Appendix V) & Item numbers (listed in Questionnaire order)	**Items & proposed Construct Labels** Cronbach's alpha for each new scale is shown in brackets.	**Gender Difference** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) < .05, n = 187 – 95 males & 94 females) **HBM** = mean is Higher for male **HBF** = mean is Higher for female t – test for Equality of Means	**Generation Difference** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) <.05, n = 184) **PW =** mean is highest PWH or lowest PWL for Protestant Work Ethic (1934 to 1944 – n = 5) **E** = mean is highest EH or lowest EL for Existentialist (1945 to 1959 – n = 62) **P** = mean is highest PH or lowest PL for Pragmatism (1960 to 1969 – n = 60) **X** = mean is highest XH or lowest XL for Generation X (1970 or > - n = 57)	**Ethnic Culture** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) <.05, n = 141) **UK** = mean is higher for UK (n = 42) **NZ** = Higher for New Zealanders (n = 37) **NZEP** = Higher for New Zealand European/Pakeha (n = 62) t – tests for Equality of Means (UK & NZ, UK & NZEP, NZ & NZEP)
Factor 1:	**"Conservatism" (.84)**			
18	RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)			**UK higher than NZ (.001)**
20	SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)			
36	HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)	**HBM (.011)**		
40	HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)			
44	ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)			
47	OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)			
49	HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)			**UK higher than NZ (.026)**
52	RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)			
54	FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)		**EH (.030)**	
56	CLEAN (neat, tidy)			
Factor 2:	**"Citizenship" (.81)**			
1	EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)			
8	SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)		**EH (.037)**	
11	POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)			
13	NATIONAL SECURITY			

	(protection of my nation from enemies)			
17	A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)	**HBF (.023)**		**UK higher than NZEP (.030)** **UK higher than NZ (.043)**
22	FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)		**XL (.015)**	
30	SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)	**HBF (.004)**		**UK higher than NZ (.050)**
42	HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)			
Factor 3:	**"Resourceful" (.81)**			
5	FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)			
16	CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)	**HBM (.024)**		
26	WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)			
31	INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)			
32	MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling and action)	**HBM (.016)**		
35	BROAD-MINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)			
41	CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)			
43	CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)			**NZEP higher than UK (.041)**
48	INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)			
55	SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)			
Factor 4:	**"Status Seeking" (.83)**			
3	SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)			
4	PLEASURE (gratification of desires)		**XH (.000)**	
12	WEALTH (material possessions, money)		**XH (.020)**	
23	SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)			
27	AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)	**HBM (.034)**		
34	AMBITIOUS (hard working, aspiring)			
39	INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)	**HBM (.008)**		**NZEP higher than UK (.019)** **NZEP higher than NZ (.011)**
46	PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (preserving my "face")			
57	SELF INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)			
Factor 5:	**"Outer Focused" (.82)**			
9	AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)	**HBM (.004)**		
24	UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)			
25	A VARIED LIFE (life filled with challenge,			**NZEP higher than UK (.005)**

	novelty and change)			
29	A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)			
37	DARING (seeking adventure, risk)	**HBM (.000)**		
38	PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)			
53	CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)			
Factor 6:	**"Inner Focused" (.72)**			
6	A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual, not material matters)			**UK higher than NZEP (.033)** **UK higher than NZ (.010)**
10	MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)			
19	MATURE LOVE (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy)			
51	DEVOUT (holding to religious faith and belief)			

Table 6.10 - Significant differences in the scores on Leadership 'by the team' Behaviour across all three demographic categories

Proposed Factors (as per the matrix in Appendix IV) & Item numbers (listed in Questionnaire order)	Items & New Construct Labels Cronbach's alpha for each new scale is shown in brackets.	**Gender Difference** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) < .05, n = 187 – 95 males & 94 females) **HBM** = mean is Higher for male **HBF** = mean is Higher for female t – test for Equality of Means	**Generation Difference** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) <.05, n = 184) **PW =** mean is highest PWH or lowest PWL for Protestant Work Ethic (1934 to 1944 – n = 5) **E** = mean is highest EH or lowest EL for Existentialist (1945 to 1959 – n = 62) **P** = mean is highest PH or lowest PL for Pragmatism (1960 to 1969 – n = 60) **X** = mean is highest XH or lowest XL for Generation X (1970 or > - n = 57) ANOVA	**Ethnic Culture** (only significant differences reported (two-tailed) <.05, n = 141) **UK** = mean is higher for UK (n = 42) **NZ** = Higher for New Zealanders (n = 37) **NZEP** = Higher for New Zealand European/Pakeha (n = 62) t – tests for Equality of Means (UK & NZ, UK & NZEP, NZ & NZEP)
Factor 1:	**"Teamworking" (.91)**			
10	listen attentively to each other's concerns.			**UK higher than NZEP (.028)**

				UK higher than NZ (.029)
15	work out agreements about what's expected from each other.			
17	motivate each other to do more than they thought they could do.			
20	focus on developing each other's strengths.			
25	provide each other with assistance in exchange for each member's effort.			
30	spend time teaching and coaching each other.			
32	behave in ways that build respect for one another.			
34	talk about how trusting each other can help overcome their difficulties.			**UK higher than NZ (.046)**
35	specify for each other what are expected levels of performance.			
37	encourage each other to do more than they expected they could do.			
42	display confidence in each other.			
48	provide useful advice for each other's development.			
Factor 2:	**"Team Inertia" (.87)**			
3	allow performance to fall below minimum standards before trying to make improvements.			
9	avoid addressing problems.			
11	delay taking actions until problems become serious.			
19	fail to follow-up requests for assistance.			
29	avoid making decisions.			
31	wait until things have gone wrong before taking action.			
39	delay responding to urgent requests.			
Factor 3:	**"Team Vision" (.88)**			
24	clarify the central purpose underlying our actions.	**HBM (.037)**		
26	talk optimistically about the future.			
27	heighten our motivation to succeed.		**XL (.015)**	
36	talk enthusiastically about our work.		**XL (.041)**	
44	emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission.			
46	articulate a compelling vision of the future.			
Factor 4:	**"Team Monitoring" (.77)**			
5	focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and	**HBM (.001)**		

	deviations from standards.			
13	closely monitor each other's performance for errors.			
21	tell each other what they've done wrong rather than what they've done right.			**NZEP higher than UK (.020)** **NZ higher than UK (.009)**
33	track each other's mistakes.			
43	direct attention toward failure to meet standards.	**HBM (.006)**		
Factor 5:	**"Team Purpose" (.70)**			
4	emphasise the importance of being committed to our beliefs.			**UK higher than NZEP (.023)** **UK higher than NZ (.007)**
6	set high standards.			
14	display conviction in their core ideals, beliefs and values.		**EH (.023)**	**UK higher than NZEP (.002)** **UK higher than NZ (.010)**
Factor 6:	**"Team Innovation" (.85)**			
8	emphasise the value of questioning each other's strategy for solving problems.			
18	encourage each other to rethink ideas which had never been questioned before.			
22	display extraordinary talent and competence.			
28	question the traditional way of doing things.		**PH (.031)**	
47	look at problems from many different angles.			

For ease of analysis, the significant differences for each demographic are extracted and reproduced in Table 6.11 and Table 6.12

Table 6.11 – Demographic differences for Personal Values

Personal Values	Gender	Generation	Ethnic Culture
Factor 1: CONSERVATISM RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)			**UK higher than NZ (.001)**
HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)	**HBM (.011)**		
HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)			**UK higher than NZ (.026)**
FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)		**EH (.030)**	
Factor 2: CITIZENSHIP SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)		**EH (.037)**	
A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)	**HBF (.023)**		**UK higher than NZEP (.030)**

			UK higher than NZ (.043)
FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)		**XL (.015)**	
SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)	**HBF (.004)**		**UK higher than NZ (.050)**
Factor 3: RESOURCEFUL CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)	**HBM (.024)**		
MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling and action)	**HBM (.016)**		
CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)			**NZEP higher than UK (.041)**
Factor 4: STATUS SEEKING PLEASURE (gratification of desires)		**XH (.000)**	
WEALTH (material possessions, money)		**XH (.020)**	
AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)	**HBM (.034)**		
INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)	**HBM (.008)**		**NZEP higher than UK (.019)** **NZEP higher than NZ (.011)**
Factor 5: OUTER FOCUSED AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)	**HBM (.004)**		
A VARIED LIFE (life filled with challenge, novelty and change)			**NZEP higher than UK (.005)**
DARING (seeking adventure, risk)	**HBM (.000)**		
Factor 6: INNER FOCUSED A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual, not material matters)			**UK higher than NZEP (.033)** **UK higher than NZ (.010)**

Table 6.12 – Demographic differences for Leadership 'by the team' Behaviour

Leadership 'by the team' behaviour	Gender	Generation	Ethnic Culture
Factor 1: TEAMWORKING listen attentively to each other's concerns.			**UK higher than NZEP (.028)** **UK higher than NZ (.029)**
talk about how trusting each other can help overcome their difficulties.			**UK higher than NZ (.046)**
Factor 3: TEAM VISION clarify the central purpose underlying our actions.	**HBM (.037)**		
heighten our motivation to succeed.		**XL (.015)**	
talk enthusiastically about our work.		**XL (.041)**	
Factor 4: TEAM MONITORING focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations	**HBM (.001)**		

from standards.			
tell each other what they've done wrong rather than what they've done right.			**NZEP higher than UK (.020)** **NZ higher than UK (.009)**
direct attention toward failure to meet standards.	**HBM (.006)**		
Factor 5: **TEAM PURPOSE** emphasise the importance of being committed to our beliefs.			**UK higher than NZEP (.023)** **UK higher than NZ (.007)**
display conviction in their core ideals, beliefs and values.		**EH (.023)**	**UK higher than NZEP (.002)** **UK higher than NZ (.010)**
Factor 6: **TEAM INNOVATION** question the traditional way of doing things.		**PH (.031)**	

Discussion

In terms of the extent of the total number of items affected by significant demographic difference, the breakdown is as follows: Personal Values (40%), Leadership 'by the team' Behaviours (29%). This breaks down further into Personal Values (Gender – 19%; Generations – 10%; Ethnic Culture – 17%) and Leadership 'by the team' Behaviours (Gender – 8%; Generations –11%; Ethnic Culture – 13%). Note that some items are affected by more than one demographic. No items were affected by all three demographics. The most pronounced effects are therefore with gender on personal values and ethnic culture on leadership 'by the team' behaviours. In terms of ethnic culture, differences also emerged within connected ethnic cultures (New Zealand European/Pakeha and New Zealanders), in line with the seminal work in this area summarised by Webster (2001). The differences associated with the UK and the New Zealand populations run counter to the notion that connections between migrant populations may lead to cultural similarity (Triandis, 1994). Indeed, there is evidence from the results that these two cultures may be developing their own unique cultural facets, perhaps suggesting that Hofstede's (1994) grouping of the UK and New Zealand on his national culture dimensions, Small power distance-High individualism, Weak uncertainty avoidance-Masculine and Small power distance- Weak uncertainty avoidance (Village Market), may warrant an up to date look at comparative business populations using Schwartz's (1994) dimensions, revised in the research reported here. Some support for differences in gender and generations exists, sufficient to warrant further exploration in research of this nature. For the latter, some similarities exist for Joynt & Morton's (1999) values classification, e.g. the lifestyle and pleasure link for Generation X. In terms of a structure of values (Schwartz, 1994), the results

indicate that although his categorisation might be universally valid, significant differences in strength may exist for different demographic populations. The differences relating to leadership 'by the team' behaviours may be worthy of additional insights from other business team populations.

Having discussed results relating to each of the four research questions in some detail, a summary of the findings is progressed below.

6.4 Overall Findings for all Research Questions

This study has explored the 'alignment' relationships between team members' personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and their association with specified team outcomes, using the general modelling framework provided by Hackman & Morris (1975). As Higgs (1997) observes, Hackman & Morris (1975) attempted to explore variable relationships through both reviews of previous research and their own experimental study. In summary, evidence was found for process-performance, input-process, input-outcome, and process-outcome relationships; but not for the input-process-performance relationship. As outlined earlier, although there has been a proliferation of models aiming to shed light on the latter overall relationship within teams these have been unsuccessful, primarily because of absence of parsimony in the selection of variables (Smith et al, 1994). The research reported here offers particular parsimony related to the input-process components by identifying personal values (input) and leadership 'by the team' behaviour (process) variable alignment associates and then converting these into a single 'gap' variable, for subsequent correlations with team outcome measures (team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities). After the adapted Path-Goal theory of House & Mitchell (1974), the alignment variable is viewed as a situational leadership variable, subsequently impacting on perceptions of team outcomes. As alignment between team members' personal values and perceived leadership 'by the team' behaviour increases/decreases the team member is motivated to perceive either positive or negative evaluations of the team capability environment to which they belong. The results from this study support the presence of a specific personal values related input-process-performance relationship and situational leadership variable effect, not previously demonstrated empirically.

As Guzzo (1987) notes attempts at reviewing the literature on the topic of values involve considering a spectrum ranging from the traditional narrative approach, prone to Type I errors

(inferences drawn from relationships that do not exist) to meta-analytical studies more prone to Type II errors (failure to detect relationships because of low levels of correlation). A summary of the results for each Research Question is now provided, bearing in mind the limitations of a positivist, correlational and cross-sectional study.

Research Question One

As the literature has indicated (Yukl, 1989; West, 1994; West & Slater, 1995; Higgs, 1996; Lord & Brown, 2004), most research relating to team process and its outcomes is beset by construct definition and variable relationship association difficulties. The factor and reliability analysis results for the individual input and team process variables employed here, revealed the presence of more robust measures, when compared to the original research, although there was also evidence to support both original author's construct dimensions (Schwartz, 1994; Bass & Avolio, 2001). Thus both construct and convergent validity for the new measures was supported (Churchill, 1979). This facilitated the investigation of Research Question Two.

Research Question Two

Results from Research Question One allowed theoretical associates to be generated for constructing meaningful and theory based alignment measures (Table 5.8), which could then be inserted into the Final Research Model. Together with Research Question One, this exercise also allowed for the comparison of constructs and models related to values and leadership, outlined in Tables 3.2 and 3.3 respectively. The matrix in Table 5.8 was used to select specific variable relationship parameters, providing parsimony for the Final Research Model.

Research Question Three

The results indicate that the Final Research Model and accompanying hypotheses support the relative impact that team member's transformational type personal values alignment with their perceptions of transformational type leadership 'by the team' behaviours has on perceptions of Team Effectiveness and Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' Abilities. It seems that within this particular business team subject population and Research Model, all the personal values were acting as transformational types, to a greater or lesser degree. However, there was support for the

postulated specification of status quo type leadership 'by the team' behaviours. Specific alignment associates stood out as more powerful predictors and there was also some differential effect on each of the team outcome measures. As model predictors, alignment associates that displayed at a minimum 'modest' correlations (Cohen & Halliday, 1982) with the team outcome measures, contributed from between a quarter and a third of the total variance in Team Outcome measures. This suggests that further investigation of these interacting team process phenomena is worth attempting. These differences suggest that personal values have the potential to interfere with effective team member exchanges, and support calls for more attention to be paid to the role of co-worker processes in general (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and particularly in studies of leadership (Lord & Brown, 2004).

Research Question Four

Some significant demographic differences were found on specific questionnaire items for both the personal values (SVS) and leadership 'by the team' (TMLQ) measures. The former effects were more pronounced and diversity of responses based on gender, generations and ethnic culture need to be considered further in the context of team research, particularly if it is cross-cultural.

Given the above, using appropriate literature sources, research contributions and implications are developed in the next chapter. This chapter also includes a commentary on the strengths and limitations of the study, together with business implications and potential for future research.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Implications

> No man is the Lord of any thing…..Til he communicates his parts to others. Nor does he of himself know them for aught, Til he behold them formed in th'applause.
>
> *Shakespeare, Troilus and Cressida*

7.1 Introduction

The re-emergence of values in organisational behaviour research has been amply demonstrated by the literature (Dolan & Garcia, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 2001; Brodbeck et al., 2000; Hogg & Terry, 2000) and empirical findings discussed in this thesis. The premise explored, that values alignment impacts on organisational functioning in its broadest sense and team functioning in particular, centred on much anecdote, some theory, but limited empirical evidence, for example Howard, (1990), Burke-Litwin (1989) and Ashkanasy & O'Connor, (1997) respectively. Related theory, variable modelling and variable relationship testing regimes have produced few studies indicating the precise effects of values in team contexts (Hackman & Morris, 1975). The shortage of research is partly explainable by confusion surrounding the appropriate unit of analysis and the mass of concepts, constructs and factors connected to the leadership-values domain (Van Fleet & Al-Tuhaih, 1979; Furnham, 1993; Higgs, 1999). There is general support for the idea that personal values act as perceptual filters in interpretations of others leadership actions (London & Sessa, 1999), although once again this effect has not been subjected to scrutiny within real business teams. Group psychosocial traits (such as personal values) refer to shared understandings, unconscious group processes, group cognitive style and group emotional tone (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). In addition, a significant amount of literature links values and transformational leadership constructs (e.g.Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin, 2001), some of which may be theoretically associated as similar types, where leadership 'by the team' is concerned.

After all, Burns (1978) views the fundamental process of transformational leadership as making conscious what lies unconscious among followers, whilst Dunphy & Bryant (1996), after reviewing the literature on teams and identifying gaps, concluded that future research must include leadership

within teams when attempting to model team effectiveness. Some models are also relevant to this context. In particular, the group interaction modelling framework of Hackman & Morris (1975) provides a clear structure for assessing the relationships between individual inputs (personal values), team process (leadership 'by the team' behaviour) and team outcomes (team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities). House & Mitchell's (1974) situational leadership model also suggests the likely presence of team process variables impacting on such team outcomes, whilst West's (1990) Team Climate Model indicates the potential influence of team behaviour on the same. Unfortunately, none of these models consider "personal values-perceived team behaviour" alignment, as an important variable in team member's evaluation of aspects of the team's functioning. As McClelland (1987) notes, motives and values can influence the valence of one outcome over another and both are also associated with affect. Meanwhile, Burke & Litwin (1989) define 'Individual Needs and Values' as, "The specific psychological factors that provide desire and worth for individual actions and thoughts"; whilst Posner & Schmidt (1994) explain that personal values describe a person's preference for a particular type of behaviour and action. This form of exploration represents the originality of this study and resulted in four research questions that were raised to investigate this specific business team phenomenon.

7.2 The Management Problem and Research Questions

In essence the management problem addressed relates to:

What precise impact, if any, will attempts to align personal values have on team functioning?

Lave & Weniger's (1991) 'communities of practice' notion is apt in this team research setting. They suggest that core values and processes align in self-sustaining and mutually supportive ways. Participants within this community share understandings about what they are doing and what that means for their lives and their community. As a result they become united in both action and in the meaning that that action has, both for themselves and the collective. In general terms, the evidence from this study suggests that specific forms of team member "personal values-leadership 'by the team' behaviour" alignment are differentially associated with changes in the perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities. This finding and others are now summarised under each Research Question and then developed further under the headings of Research Contribution and Business Implications.

Research Question One: Based on the subject population sample and original research, are the selected personal values, leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcome measures reliable and valid (construct and convergent validity, Churchill, 1979)?

Comparative reliability and factor analyses results and construct comparisons with similar concepts indicate that the first two measures, SVS and TMLQ, now provide for even more robust application in business population research and practice. Some reservations exist for the team outcome measures in terms of their sampling adequacy, although item selection was based on theoretical relations with both personal values and team process impacts (Bass (1998 b); Gasper (1992); Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (1996); Patterson, Fuller, Kester & Stringer (1995); Schein (1992); and most importantly Hackman & Morris (1975). This study has produced empirical support within a business population for Schwartz's (1994) bi-polar theory of values dimensions and a three-dimension model of leadership 'by the team' behaviour (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), similar to the studies by Avolio, Jung, Sivasubramaniam & Murry, (2001), thus supporting the new measures construct and convergent validity (Churchill, 1979).

Research Question Two: Are there any theoretical associations between specific personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour concepts and constructs?

In terms of the relative impact of transformational type alignment associates on perceptions of team outcomes, the result is affirmative. However, in this business population, status quo type alignment associates were not supported by the presence of status quo personal values, although status quo type leadership behaviour was evident.

Research Question Three: In the context of real business teams, what relationships exist between team members' personal values and their perceptions of: leadership 'by the team' behaviour, team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities?

This was the main research question and was attended to in the results discussion and overall findings above. The implications are expanded on below.

Research Question Four: Are demographic differences (gender, four generations and ethnic culture – United Kingdom/New Zealand), reflected in specific team members' personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour?

In investigating UK public service female and male constructs of leadership qualities, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) found that women's descriptors more closely resembled transformational leadership content whilst men's views were generally aligned with transactional leadership. There is some tentative evidence from this research that personal values are also distributed along similar lines. Significant differences were also discovered on several individual items from the personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour measures across generations and ethnic culture, all of which warrant further investigation.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

Hampson (1988) views traits as a social product of the reciprocal interaction of three personality components: the actor, the observer and the self-observer; and reviews evidence that a person's prior beliefs about the personality of another elicits belief-congruent behaviour. In the role of actor (i.e. team member), the person's behaviour is influenced by contextually relevant personal characteristics. These include orthodox traits, and social knowledge in the form of stable cognitive experiences (i.e. leadership 'by the team' behaviour), and social norms. People differ in their adherence to value systems such as belief in the importance of hard work, self-reliance and conservative values (Furnham, 1987), (i.e. the personal values differences discovered in this research). As Kline (1993) notes, research on the observer (i.e. the team member perceiving the team process and outcomes) indicates that the personality language of descriptive trait concepts are often fuzzy and tend to regress to a higher order level, in line with the Big Five traits. Trait constructs related to the self (i.e. team members' reflection on their own personal values) include the extent of self-monitoring and private and public self-consciousness. Thus scales that may induce social desirability (i.e. the scales used in this study) may measure two distinct qualities, self-deception and impression management. The former provides an optimistic appraisal of the self, which may promote adjustment, whereas the latter reflects conscious attempts to conform to social norms. All the perceptions involved in this study may therefore depend on the accuracy of self and other awareness (Fletcher, 1982), although, except for the team outcome measures, the participants would have been unaware of the construct content.

Other limitations are connected to the use of retrospective behaviour description questionnaires in general, as succinctly summarised by Yukl (1989 a). These are:

- Error caused by the use of ambiguous items that can be interpreted in different ways by different respondents.

In this study, a limitation was the limited time available for conducting a full pilot of the questionnaires across a range of participants, as opposed to only considering conducting this and the administration technology with one team. Thus, although there was considerable research supporting the validity and reliability of the measures, for this subject population these scale construction qualities were assessed after, rather than before, the questionnaires were completed.

- Use of a fixed response format that, requires respondents to think back over a period and indicate how often or how much leadership behaviour was evident, and may also be prone to response bias. For example, some respondents may answer items in much the same way despite real differences in the leadership behaviour, because the respondent is favourably disposed to the leadership in question, responses are distorted by stereotypes and implicit theories about what behaviours occur together, or desirable behaviour is attributed to leaders who are perceived to be effective, even though the behaviour was not actually observed.

Some of these issues apply to the research reported here. Their potential impact is possibly higher for the team outcome scales, being two single-item measures, perhaps without sufficient sensitivity to a range of responses. In some respects, because the hypotheses related to the favourable/unfavourable impact of personal values alignment with perceptions of team behaviour, the study was an examination of team members' implicit theories (based on their personal values) and therefore offers valuable insights into these evaluation phenomena.

- Research on the effects of leadership behaviour, where the recipients of the behaviour complete the questionnaires and the resulting behaviour scores are then correlated with criterion measures, obtained from the same respondents at the same point in time. This is the perennial issue of common-method variance. When a significant correlation is found,

there is no way to determine the causality. For example, a meta-analysis of some 40 team studies examining the relationship between team cohesiveness and team effectiveness (Mullen & Cooper, 1994), inferred that the directional flow of causality was from effectiveness to cohesiveness, rather than vice versa based on a logical assumption that behaviour leads to outcomes.

The test for common method variance recommended by (Harman, 1976) did not support the presence of a single factor explaining all variables, indicating this was not an issue for this research. Obtaining an independent assessment of team effectiveness would not have been appropriate to this Research Model because the perceptual effects were vital to the theory being tested. However, the satisfaction measure may be susceptible to the 'attribution hypothesis' causality issue referred to above. Yukl's (1989 a) idea that a third variable may be affecting both the team process and the team outcome measures in leadership studies of this nature, was of course central to the inclusion of the alignment variable in this study; although even with the inclusion of combined alignment variables as predictors, between 69% (for team effectiveness) and 74% (for satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities) of the variance remains unaccounted for. Although causal relations cannot be established, Rowsell & Berry (1993) suggest that the leadership phenomenon should not be analysed as linear relations of cause and effect, but seen as circular loops of mutuality, evolving patterns of relations that are mutually determining and determined.

One final limitation surrounds the level of analysis employed. The complexity of the Burke-Litwin (1989) model illustrates the difficulty in establishing relationships between leadership and values at the organisation level of analysis. As Schnake & Dumler (2003) observe, organisational behaviour studies have tended to focus on either a macro or a micro perspective, and have rarely simultaneously considered more than one level of analysis and/or measurement. Although transformational leadership has been shown to operate at both the individual and team levels of analysis (Wofford, Whittington & Goodwin (2001), the TMLQ instrument essentially focuses on collecting observations of leadership 'by the team' behaviour. Thus, although the Research Model places relationships between the individual team member's personal values and their perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour/effectiveness/satisfaction at the core of the research hypotheses (Lord & Brown's, 2004 - 'Moving Down' approach), restricting the data analysis to the individual unit of analysis, across various group data sets, may be obscuring cross-person, within groups, ('Moving Across') personal values-leadership team behaviour dynamics that are aggregate and

unique to each team. As Schnake & Dumler (2003) note, context may alter relationships observed between variables measured and analysed at only the individual level of analysis. Consequently, the results obtained may also be reflecting a more global ('Moving Up') representation of particular values-leadership relations, such as those found in cultural variations in the way leadership is defined by perceivers in general (Den Hartog et al., 1999). In addition the strength of personal values held may also be affected by social identity, i.e. team level mechanisms (Hogg & Terry, 2000). In such multi-level cases, Klein & Kozlowski (2000) recommend that when the group level construct (i.e. TMLQ) is based upon shared properties (e.g. shared perceptions, affect or behaviour) the data used to capture these phenomena should match the origin, namely the individual level. This 'mixed-determinant' model (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000), which describe relationships between predictors at multiple levels (i.e. paired personal values-perceived leadership 'by the team' behaviour construct associates) and a single level outcome (i.e. perceptions of team effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership 'by the team' abilities) was the approach adopted here.

Whilst remaining cognisant of the above limitations, it is suggested that the research offers some notable strengths outlined below.

7.4 Research Contributions

This study has added several contributions to the theory of personal values related leadership within teams.

First and foremost the study is a significant response to the clarion call for empirical work of this nature spanning thirty years (e.g. Stogdill, 1974). Secondly, an attempt was made to forge theoretical associates between values and leadership constructs, in order to reduce and focus the variable relationships, referred to in well respected models (Burke & Litwin, 1974) but difficult to test empirically (Yukl, 1989). Third, it is proposed that the study provided a novel and manageable approach to the investigation of values alignment in organisational behaviour research in general and in leadership and team process theory in particular, by providing a specific application of the Hackman & Morris (1975) and House & Mitchell (1974) models. Fourth, the measures employed have now been validated (construct and convergent validity -Churchill, 1979) for use with real business team populations, which includes the first ever factor analyses of the Schwartz (SVS) (1994) universal structure of values and the Bass & Avlio, (2001) leadership 'by the team'

behaviour (TMLQ) measures with business teams. Fifth, the literature review has brought together some collective works on personal values, leadership behaviour and team functioning. Finally, the research and business implications are of practical benefit to academia and business consultants alike. These contributions and implications are now outlined in more detail.

The finding that transformational type values do not appear to have an opposite status quo type values set may be partly explained by Kerlinger (1967), who described a situation where two values may seem to be at the opposite ends of a continuum, but are really at distant ends of two relatively orthogonal (i.e. minimally negatively correlated) continua. The two value sets, or referents, are not opposites as might be presumed but nor are they equally cogent, or criterial, for the same people. It could be that the reasons some people emphasise output and productivity values, for example, are different from the reasons others emphasise values for teamwork and collaboration. Thus, the postulated status quo type personal values may not be relevant in a team context dominated by public service working environments, but may become more critical as a values category in others. The discovery of dominant personal values and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour alignment associates, is in line with the results of a study by Matsui et al., (1978) at the individual leader unit of analysis. Using Gordon's (1976) 'Survey of Interpersonal Values', positive correlations were evident with specific Fleishman (1953) 'Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire' scales. In particular, 'Consideration' was correlated positively with 'Benevolence' value scores, but 'Structure' correlated negatively with 'Independence' value scores. Dose (1997) suggests that values can be rated on two continua that are orthogonal to each other. They can be classified according to the degree to which they embody moral considerations versus merely preferences without moral implications, and the degree to which members of a given culture agree that a given value is important for everyone to hold, versus the degree to which it is personally held. Her framework suggests a theoretical basis from which to distinguish between those values that will have a main effect and those that will have an interaction. For example because society may agree that consensual values are important generally everyone will be affected by their presence or absence, so in an organisation it is likely that respondents will respond favourably to an organisation that endorses these values (e.g. main effect for organisation). The prominence of the 'Conservatism' personal value in this study may reflect such an effect. Oliver (1999) posted results which suggest that even with the dramatic changes in the business environment between the 1960's and 1990's, the overall personal values structure of corporate managers, as measured by England's (1967) 'Personal Value System' has not changed, including the retention of a 'pragmatic' value

orientation. The dominant effect of the 'Resourceful' personal value in this research may be indicative of this general orientation.

McClean & Johansen's (1997) review indicated that research on organisational culture was unable to establish clear links to business performance via leadership. Results from this study, considering behaviour related personal values as key components of culture, certainly suggest that perceptions of business team performance may be affected, even if this performance has not been verified by independent adjudication. Erez & Earley's (1993) model, which is very similar to London and Sessa's (1999) 'cultural lens' notion, suggests that information concerning the immediate leadership practices people encounter is processed in the light of cultural values and then judged in terms of the potential contribution that the action has for the persons' sense of self-worth (which may be partly based on the values they hold uppermost). The results offer partial support for this model, if one considers that assessment of self-worth may be reflected in the evaluation of the team to which they belong.

7.5 Business Implications

Payne (1991) asserts that a feature of a strong culture is the consonance between the explicit and implicit cultures, with implicit culture representing the set of cultural beliefs, values and norms that underlie the observed behaviour (the explicit culture). This study has shown that the alignment between these two facets within a team culture has a degree of influence on the perception of the effectiveness of such team culture. The role for those imbibed with leadership is to make explicit the implicit culture, so that team members can begin to understand the pattern and strength of one another's transformational values and how these might be either facilitating or blocking values congruent responses to organisational culture change. In another sense, this enables team members to decide whether or not they want to commit to new ingredients in their psychological contract, within the team in particular and maybe the organisation as a whole. As Vaill (1989) suggests, a culture exists to the extent that patterns of meaning and understanding, anchored in core values, are shared by members of an organisation and used by them as a guide to interpretation and action. The differential influence of transformational values in this study surfaces in relation to the forms of leadership 'by the team' behaviour, perceived by team members. Polley (1987) speculated that the task versus person values conflict was an enduring feature of organisational life. The results reported here suggest that values act as lens in interpreting leadership 'by the team' behaviour as

they relate to perceptions of team leadership capability. In particular, transformational leadership 'by the team' behaviour appears to be interpreted through this values lens in a generally positive fashion (with behaviour focussed on the people aspects of team behaviour), whilst the more task related leadership 'by the team' behaviour is tolerated but not universally seen as positive, with non-leadership perceived to be the most detrimental. As far as developing a positive perception on team life is concerned, attempts should be made to encourage and utilise the transformational values in association with transformational leadership 'by the team' behaviour, with task focus team behaviour viewed as a necessary evil and non-leadership avoided at all costs. As West & Altink (1996) point out, these factors do not occur simply because teams are put together. The degree of task and social reflexivity required to develop, maintain and enhance these norms of behaviour will only bear fruit if teams are trained and developed in how to recognise and utilise these behaviours. Using personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour diagnostics in combination may speed up this learning. Indeed, Shamir et al., (1993) suggest that a key aspect of leading large-scale change is making followers aware of their deeply held values and raising consciousness that other members of the group share or do not share those values.

In terms of business consultancy practice, the clear lesson is that the interpretation of leadership behaviour diagnostics in leader and team assessment/development interventions will need to be treated with caution. The study has shown that using employee self-reports of team effectiveness and satisfaction may well be influenced by the alignment between their personal values and perception of the team behaviour they are engaged in. This distortion is not currently allowed for in the instruments used in this context. A New Zealand Equal Opportunities Trust (EOT) survey by Smith (2000) found that employers, closely followed by recruitment consultants were the most likely to discriminate on the basis of gender, age difference, and ethnic culture. This perhaps would not matter to business, except the EOT November 1999 report cited a Standard and Poor study of 500 companies that found companies rated in the bottom 100 for equal opportunity had an average 'return of investment' of 8%, whilst for those in the top 100 it was 18%. The EOT maintains that diversity works for companies in two ways, "Diversity matters to employers for two reasons: it helps recruit talented employees; it attracts and retains customers". The diversity of personal values found in this research suggests that there is a need to recognise and act on this business concern. Finally, and most crucially, given the relative stability of the personal values constructs, business executives might best use their energy in changing their leadership behaviour to align with personal values, rather than relying on espoused values to make this happen by organisational osmosis.

7.6 Potential for Future Research

Neck & Millman (1994) have suggested that spiritual based values, as found in the 'Inner Focused' personal value factor reported here, might enhance teamwork. Indications from this research suggest that such a personal value may be worth building into business team research. The research subject business team sample was predominately working in the public service, although approximately 20% were operating in the private sector. Excepting logical distinctions in their respective sectors regarding demands for external legitimacy, as opposed to competitiveness, employees of public and private firms appear to share similar cognitive structures of values when using the SVS. Subsequent research confirming such generalisability would be helpful, especially given the emergence of 'Conservatism' as a dominant value factor in this study. Lord & Maher (1991) assume that leader-follower relationships are more likely to be characterised by trust, motivation and high performance when the congruence between the implicit leadership theories of the parties involved is high, although once again, this has not been tested empirically. Now that a relationship has been demonstrated for team member personal values and perceptions of leadership behaviour and team functioning, follow up studies could usefully explore the impact of leader-follower personal values alignment on team performance. The "Actualising Social and Personal Identity Resources" to enhance organisational outcomes model, termed 'ASPIRe' (Haslam et al., 2003) is informed by work which suggests that an organisation's social capital is partly determined by the employees' identity resources, made up of personal identity (internalised self-definition) and social identity (awareness of group belonging predicated on common cognition). The model proposes that appropriate identification and mobilisation of these work related identity resources is a necessary component of intra-group, inter-group and organisational success. The results from the alignment between these two identity characteristics when viewed as personal values (personal identity) and leadership 'by the team' behaviour (social identity) studied here, indicate much promise for this model in investigating team process effectiveness. In general terms, replication of this study with different business population samples and the use of a cross-level research methodology (Schnake & Dumler, 2003) and WABA data analysis (Dansereau, Alutto & Yammarino, 1984) - comparing within-group correlations with between-group correlations, and thereby offsetting levels of analysis issues - would confirm the generalisability of the measures, the model and the findings. Of particular theoretical interest might be the differential impact of the alignment associates, Resourceful-Team Working on Team Effectiveness and Resourceful-Team

Innovation on Satisfaction with Leadership 'by the team' abilities, and the implications this has for West's (1990) Team Climate model.

7.7 Overall Contribution and Concluding Remarks

This study has made three significant contributions to business theory and practice:

- The research has provided the first reported factor analyses of the TMLQ and SVS instruments with a real business team population, resulting in more robust measures for application in business research and organisational interventions.

- Theoretical relations between the constructs of personal values and leadership 'by the team' behaviour have been empirically tested, thus providing useable research 'alignment' variables for future team leadership model building.

- Such 'alignments' have been demonstrated to have a marked influence in business team social influence process, thereby offering specific support for component parts of often quoted team leadership and interaction process models.

In terms of wider research implications, the refined Research Model has important implications for work motivation theory. Work motivation can generally be defined as 'a set of energetic forces that originates both within and beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration' (Pinder, 1998: 11). Need theories (e.g. McClelland, 1961), which focus on the role of psychological needs or values in motivation, still have relevance for the business research community. Indeed, the evidence suggesting the most significant impact in the Research Model of the personal value 'Resourceful', when one inspects the items comprising it, is in line with the import of McClelland's (1961) notion of the 'Need for Achievement' motive and McCrae & Costa's (1989) 'Conscientiousness' trait, i.e. the latter contains the sub-scales of Competence, Order, Dutifulness, Achievement Striving, Self-Discipline and Deliberation. Along similar lines, Ashkanasy & O'Connor (1997) reported a stronger relationship between Schwartz & Bilsky's (1987) 'Achievement' value and high-quality leader-member exchange, when compared to other personal values. So the pervasiveness of personal values as influential phenomena in business team social influence process appears to be supported.

As Maio (2002, p.299) notes, "What makes values so special? Perhaps they carry import precisely because they are truistic. In other words, the significance of values is attributable to the strong social consensus supporting them. As a result of this consensus, values become empowered by a strong sense of emotional conviction. This emotional conviction may be primarily responsible for the impact of values on a variety of psychological phenomena, making it vital that research continues to explore this issue". Thus, a worthwhile literature meta-analysis could usefully identify the theoretical and empirical strands between values, motives and personality traits, possibly representing universal dimensions of human expression. This may address a concern in science known as the 'jangle fallacy' (Kelley, 1927), where near identical constructs are often given different names and talked about as if they are distinct.

Commenting on the state of our knowledge of leadership in 1959, Bennis (p. 259-260) wrote: "Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioural sciences. Always, it seems the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity." Although a start has been made in synthesising theories of transformational leadership (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003), within this research domain it is hoped that the research reported here has reduced some of the confusion inherent in complex leadership and team process and performance models, by exploring the relationships between team members' personal values, and perceptions of leadership 'by the team' behaviour and team outcomes. This study has offered some conceptual and construct traction, whilst simplifying and highlighting the impact of personal values as influential phenomena in real, ever changing, business team leadership life.

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Appendices

Appendix I – Data Screening Analysis for the measures: TMLQ, Team Outcome and SVS.

Data Screening Tools	***Missing Data***	***Skewness***	***Case Outliers*** (using 'boxplots')	***Item Outliers*** (using 'boxplots')	***Tests of Normality*** – Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistic & Bartlett's Test of Sphericity & Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
Measure					
TMLQ	Demonstrates 'randomness', (Hair et al, 1998 p.57-58). Values missing equals 0.36% of total.	All items fall within the range (1 to +1) indicating a normal distribution (Hair et al, 1998 p.38).	*Case 189 (responsible for 12 outliers), 43 (10), 169 (10), 171 (10), 190 (9), 67 (8), 32 (7)*	Item 6(9)	All items sig. @ .000 .926
Team Outcomes	No missing data	As above	Cases 44 & 185	None	All items sig. @ .000 .5
SVS	Demonstrates 'randomness', (Hair et al, p.57-58). Values missing equals 0.69% of total.	All items except 10, 28 & 42 (> -1, high means – negatively skewed) fall within the range –1 to +1 indicating a normal distribution (Hair et al, p.38).	Case 166 (responsible for 11 outliers), 14(9), 76(7)	Items 28(10), 36(8), 37(8), 10(8), 14(8), 21(7), 2(7)	All items sig. @ .000, except Item 6 significant @ .001 for the first test .834

Appendix II (TMLQ Questionnaire) and Appendix III (SVS Questionnaire) – see overleaf.

Appendix IV – TMLQ Rotated Component Matrix (indicating proposed new item-factor groupings in **bold italic)**

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
LEAD30	***.749***								
LEAD20	***.722***								
LEAD48	***.721***								
LEAD32	***.649***	.311		-.308					
LEAD37	***.645***					.338			
LEAD42	***.596***	.315							
LEAD15	***.592***				.365				
LEAD17	***.589***				.329	.405			
LEAD35	***.582***			.305					
LEAD25	***.578***								
LEAD34	***.546***		.511						
LEAD10	***.526***	.412							
LEAD38	.468	.344	.407			***.342***			
LEAD45	***.393***	.335	.353					.303	
LEAD40	***.380***	.371							
LEAD11		***-.811***							
LEAD31		***-.752***							
LEAD3		***-.687***							
LEAD19	-.317	***-.684***							
LEAD29		***-.615***							.319
LEAD9		***-.605***					-.417		
LEAD39		***-.574***				-.389			
LEAD7	***.338***	.501							
LEAD26			***.753***						
LEAD46			***.728***						
LEAD44			***.684***						
LEAD27	***.422***		.577			.321			
LEAD36	***.411***		.554						
LEAD24	.414		***.553***						
LEAD33				***.745***					
LEAD13				***.745***					
LEAD5				***.684***					
LEAD43				***.642***				.398	
LEAD21				***.634***					
LEAD14					***.678***				
LEAD4			.402		***.641***				
LEAD6	.300				***.559***				
LEAD2	***.460***				.474				
LEAD16			***.423***		.447	.371			
LEAD28			.403			***.578***			
LEAD18	.471					***.554***			
LEAD22			.328			***.483***			
LEAD47	.364	.382	.337			***.454***			
LEAD8	.404					***.423***	.309		
LEAD1							-.788		
LEAD23		***-.315***						.784	
LEAD12	***.445***				.357				.490
LEAD41				***.386***			-.381		.402

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix V – SVS Rotated Component Matrix for proposed six-factor solution (indicating proposed new item-factor groupings in **bold italic)**

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
VAL47	***.696***					
VAL20	***.622***					.324
VAL36	***.620***					
VAL18	***.611***					
VAL56	***.588***					
VAL40	***.584***					.388
VAL49	***.571***				.452	
VAL44	***.567***					
VAL54	***.522***					
VAL52	***.508***	.456				
VAL33	***.461***					
VAL17		***.698***				
VAL13	.323	***.622***				
VAL8		***.591***				
VAL30		***.555***			.354	
VAL22		***.539***				
VAL42		***.524***		.332		
VAL11	.457	***.502***				
VAL1		***.496***			.307	
VAL45	.313	***.454***	.339	-.310		
VAL50		***.443***		.391	.344	
VAL21		***.374***				
VAL7		***.332***				
VAL31			***.708***			
VAL43			***.638***			
VAL48			***.621***			
VAL55			***.552***	.376		
VAL26			***.550***		.328	
VAL16			***.491***			
VAL41			***.486***			.437
VAL32	.457		***.468***			
VAL35			***.438***		.417	
VAL5		.364	***.422***			
VAL14		.311	***.414***			.392
VAL28	.317	.312	***.350***			
VAL3				***.701***		
VAL27				***.691***		
VAL12				***.688***		
VAL46				***.667***		
VAL4				***.598***		
VAL23				***.518***		
VAL57		.304		***.498***	.373	
VAL39				***.483***	.360	
VAL34	.382		.388	***.425***		
VAL15				***.304***		
VAL38					***.695***	
VAL25					***.613***	
VAL24					***.610***	.384
VAL53			.465		***.551***	
VAL37				.469	***.546***	
VAL9				.401	***.536***	

VAL29				***.524***
VAL6	.302			***.669***
VAL10				***.620***
VAL51	.457			***.560***
VAL19		.318		***.450***
VAL2			.326	***.339***

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotated Component Matrix for proposed four-factor solution (indicating proposed new item-factor groupings in **bold italic)**

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
VAL53	***.699***			
VAL25	***.658***			
VAL26	***.649***			
VAL24	***.628***			
VAL16	***.614***			
VAL41	***.608***			
VAL29	***.564***			
VAL38	***.560***		.305	
VAL55	***.555***			.391
VAL37	***.526***			.393
VAL31	***.517***			
VAL48	***.507***			
VAL35	***.490***			
VAL39	***.489***			.432
VAL2	***.461***		.303	
VAL14	***.458***		.309	
VAL43	***.457***			
VAL9	***.449***			.367
VAL5	***.426***		.346	
VAL19	***.339***		.310	
VAL51		***.694***		
VAL40		***.687***		
VAL20		***.682***		
VAL18		***.653***		
VAL47		***.631***		
VAL6	.325	***.567***		
VAL36		***.563***		
VAL49	.374	***.528***	.369	
VAL54	.306	***.491***		
VAL44		***.488***		
VAL56		***.482***	.369	
VAL10	.445	***.458***		
VAL33		***.359***	.345	
VAL32		***.327***		
VAL17			***.695***	
VAL13		.306	***.626***	
VAL30	.316		***.600***	
VAL8			***.598***	
VAL11		.486	***.543***	
VAL45			***.543***	
VAL52		.399	***.532***	
VAL22			***.527***	
VAL1			***.516***	

VAL42			***.497***	.386
VAL21			***.392***	
VAL28	.327		***.389***	
VAL7			***.344***	
VAL46				***.708***
VAL12				***.683***
VAL3				***.651***
VAL27				***.649***
VAL4				***.616***
VAL23				***.573***
VAL57				***.515***
VAL34	.407	.387		***.443***
VAL50			.426	***.439***
VAL15			.304	***.307***

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix VI – Correlation Matrix (see overleaf)