2013

Intrinsic conflict between management and leadership

Dean Walton McCall

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

INTRINSIC CONFLICT BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Dean Walton McCall

May, 2013

Leo Mallette, Ed.D. - Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Dean Walton McCall

under the guidance of a faculty committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Leo A. Mallette, Ed.D., Chairperson

Farzin Madjidi, Ed.D.

Robert Clark, Ph.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Page

LIST OF TABLES

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Page

DEDICATION

To my wife Leonor McCall-Rodriguez:

Leonor, your inspiration, example, and support are incredible,

as are your intellect, insights, and can-do attitude.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this dissertation has been a most edifying experience. Part of that learning has been enhanced by dissertation committee chairman Dr. Leo Mallette, who has been steadfast and vigilant in his support of this effort, including provision of a significant amount of useful, straight feedback. It has also been consistently refreshing to have feedback quickly, before I could forget what I was thinking. Leo, it is an understatement to say that I feel very fortunate to have you as my chair.

Committee member Dr. Farzin Madjidi has been key to my understanding of leadership throughout my time in the EDOL program, and has been a good friend who looked out for me. Farzin, you have had a lot to do with the direction I took for the choice of dissertation subjects – your enthusiasm was evidence that I was onto something good. When I had a major setback early in the program, you encouraged me in my determination to stay on track. You made a difference.

Committee member Dr. Robert (Bob) Clark has been a mentor of mine in leadership skills and knowledge for 14 years. Bob, you helped nurture my interests, and provided a good sounding board when I was challenged – several times. You have always been eager to help, and have genuinely helped. You are my model for the practitioner that truly understands what's going on.

Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership Program director Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez established the approach to learning early in the program and made it clear that learning, not grades, was the focus. June, you were my first contact from the EDOL program and gave me what was probably the shortest, most concise entrance interview

I've ever had. It was also my first taste of a wonderful wit and attitude, which set the tone for the cohort. You always made things interesting.

Special thanks to Dr. J.L. Fortson, who inspired my writing and offered valuable encouragement. J.L., I always got a positive boost and a jolt of energy from your feedback. The guidance you provided in drafting my first dissertation chapters, for which I am truly grateful, is embodied in this document.

I enlisted several participants for the study, all of whom are practitioners in leadership and management. They were all enthusiastic about the study and were very supportive throughout, even after a three-month delay in late 2012. I got the data I was hoping for, and learned a lot from them in the process. To all of you: Thanks! I couldn't have asked for better.

There are three members of my cohort in particular that I want to acknowledge: Christy Ritchie, Kristen Huyck, and Mike Wocjechowski. You three have been the highlight of the program for me, good and steady classmates that also "get it". I looked forward to each week of class, as you made it fun, and kept me in the company of people who were highly driven to learn. I am amazed at what we did together, and what you are doing with your lives since we've moved on.

Many thanks to Kevin Minds, Maggi Phillips, and George Pomonik, who recommended me for the EDOL program. Maggi, you also recommended the program to me, when you were my professor in the FEMBA program, and provided plenty of guidance when I was in your class that piqued my interests in Organizational Leadership. George, you've always had a great perspective on leadership, and gave it to me straight when we worked together. At those times when I asked myself if I was accurately seeing what was transpiring, you validated the reality, filled in a lot of gaps, and helped me learn from the experience. Kevin, I have learned so much from you in the past 17 years. You are the quintessential practitioner of leadership, a no-bones visionary who knows what needs to happen and gets it done, regardless of obstacles. You're in charge!

Thanks to Mom and Dad for giving me a solid set of values, especially the one where I can accomplish anything I want to, if I try hard enough. Case in point: getting this doctorate. Mom Bee, what an example you set as a grandmother, as a true friend but also as the first in the family with a doctorate – earned in the 1930's, no less. It was from you that I learned that barriers are only what you allow them to be. Bill, Trish, John, I couldn't ask for better, more supportive siblings. Can we spend some more time together when this gets done?

Infinite thanks to Leonor, Sammi, and Chris for your encouragement and cheering me on. It was fun with all of us in college at the same time, and incentivizing. We all set the example for each other. Having a high level of genuine support at home was key to my success. Thanks for letting me take over the living room for so many nights and weekends.

Lest it be forgotten, finally I must acknowledge the two "helpers" I had that spent more time with me during this doctoral adventure than anyone. Jade and Puddin', you kept me company and gave me someone to talk to when I was trying to figure things out. All you asked in return was to provide you a lap, and feed you. I'd have you walk with me at graduation, but I don't think they make caps and gowns small enough.

VITA

Education

Ed.D. 2013 Pepperdine University, Malibu California

Doctoral Dissertation: *Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership*

MBA 2008 Pepperdine University, Malibu California

MSEE 1991 University of Southern California

BSEE 1988 George Mason University

Employment

2012 to present: Principal Systems Engineer, Ball Aerospace and Technical Corp.

1988 to 2012: Systems Engineering Manager, Boeing Satellite Systems

Listings and Affiliations

Eta Kappa Nu

Beta Sigma Gamma

ABSTRACT

Organizational conflict manifests in misalignment of individuals and groups, and is often discussed in terms of the effect that leadership and management have on the state of affairs. It is built-in for any organization, yet its root causes are not fully understood. It is not uncommon to characterize leadership/management conflicts in terms of the style or personality type of the individuals involved; however, conflicting leadership and management objectives that are not style or personality dependent may also be a significant factor. If conflict is actually disagreement about the role-driven management objectives and leadership objectives at hand, rather than being based on style and personality, knowing how objectives-driven conflict manifests would be valuable to an organization for identifying the root cause of the conflict.

The researcher posited that a portion of organizational conflicts may be predestined by way of conflicting objectives that are intrinsic to management and leadership, and defined a perspective that utilized the historical bases for leadership and management to illuminate the possibilities. A Delphi study was conducted, which iteratively utilized a diverse group of industry experts to explore the roles, objectives, and actions of leaders and managers from a practitioner perspective. Although the study found that organizations can be in conflict due to conflicting management objectives and leadership objectives, the interchange of ideas during the study led to the conclusion that the nature of the objectives is largely conditional or subjective rather than predestined, and therefore the conflicts are also conditional or subjective.

Chapter One: Overview

Organizational conflict is reflected in misalignment of individuals and groups, and is often discussed in terms of the effect that leadership and management have on the state of affairs. In any organization, conflict is built in (Charan, 2001). It is not uncommon to characterize leadership/management conflicts in terms of style or personality type, and indeed much of the literature focuses on those aspects as if they were the core problem (Argyris, 1973; Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Katz, 1974; Ready, 1964; Watson, 1983; Young & Dulewicz, 2008). But what if the conflicts were actually built in to the relationships by way of conflicting *objectives*? For example, Scudder, Patterson, and Mitchell (2012) assert that perceived conflict may actually be disagreement about how to address an issue, rather than conflict based on style and personality. Would it be valuable to an organization to understand that a portion of their leadership/management problems are not personality and style driven, nor organizationally-dependent?

Not all conflict is bad – relationship conflict, triggered by personalities, is detrimental to an organization while moderate task conflict, triggered by disagreement over substantive issues, can be beneficial (Acar, 2002; Friedman, Tidd, Currall, & Tsai, 2000; Nickerson, 2009). In the context of the Forming-Storming-Norming-Performing construct, conflict is a natural part of the storming stage (Stogdill, 1967). Unfortunately, differences in objective opinion can be easily misinterpreted as a personal affront (Friedman et al., 2000). Knowing and recognizing the differences between people-driven and role-driven conflict could do three things: (a) relieve pressure due to perceived working relationship issues, (b) focus the organization on addressing the right problem, and (c) improve the quality of solutions. Basic scientific advances have been known to solve practical problems (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Knowing and recognizing the differences would serve to channel energies away from ancillary personality issues and toward objectives-driven root cause when appropriate for the issues at hand.

Addressing leadership/management conflict requires that the concepts of *leadership* and *management* be understood. Many assertions have been made in the literature as to the difference between leadership and management. The prevailing premise, found collectively in the literature, is that leadership is about driving change, and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo (Kotterman, 2006). Young and Dulewicz (2008) differentiate key aspects of leadership and management by saying that (a) leadership sets a direction while management plans and budgets; (b) leadership aligns people while management organizes and staffs; (c) leadership motivates people while management controls and solves problems; and (d) leadership masters the context, while management controls the environment. Maccoby and Scudder (2011) assert that “Leaders lead change” (p. 51). Kouzes and Posner (2007) say that “The work of leaders is change” (p. 164). These perspectives are not universally validated.

The facets of leadership and management that overlap, and more importantly are in conflict, are not well understood. The definition of leadership and its dimensions are unclear (Pfeffer, 1977). The difference between management and leadership entails the overlap of characteristics between the two, the parts of each that are exclusive of the other but complementary, and the parts of each that are in conflict with the other. If research taxonomy were to exist, a blending of related concepts and an increase in precision would be possible (Karmel, 1978). Taxonomy would enable studies that more clearly differentiate leadership and management objectives, and provide coherent inputs to analysis that addresses specific conflicts between those objectives. As such, taxonomy would aid in the development of an ontology related to such conflicts.

This chapter introduces the context of uncertainty in the definitions of leadership and management, and their relationship, and illuminates the need for ontology, taxonomy, and nomenclature. Leadership and management objectives, especially lack of clarity thereof, are used to suggest that an open door exists for conflict between them. An understanding of leadership and management origins and subsequent developmental history is suggested as an approach to improving understanding of the current state of relevant leadership and management objectives. A small subset of characteristics of leadership and management objectives found in the literature is provided so as to imply the possibly that they drive intrinsic conflict.

Definitions of leadership and management are provided, compared, and contrasted. *Manager* and *leader* and certain of their characteristics are also defined. The concepts of conflict and dysfunction are defined in the context of this study. Assumptions surface regarding inevitable conflict, legitimacy of definitions concerning leadership and management, and the purposes of management and leadership. The limitations of this study are briefly discussed. The chapter concludes with an outline of the structure of this dissertation.

Background

The understanding and concepts of management and leadership within both academia and the workplace are diverse (Kotterman, 2006). With the terms *management* and *leadership* both having multiple semantic uses, it begins to shed light on the lack of clarity in their definitions. To help offset this uncertainty, Table 1 shows each entity as reflected in their process differences. Permission to use the table is shown in Appendix A.

Table 1 shows that management is oriented mostly toward things: plans, budgets, processes, staffs, employees, results. Conversely, the table shows that leadership is oriented toward human aspects: vision, passion, organization, teams, emotions, employees, humans. Thus, in this context it is reasonable to assert that in general, management addresses *people and things*, but leadership addresses only *people*. This is in line with Toor and Ofori (2008), who associate management with authority and leadership with influence.

Table 1

Comparison of Management and Leadership Processes

Process	Management	Leadership
Vision Establishment	• Plans and Budgets • Develops process steps and sets timelines • Displays impersonal attitude about the vision and goals	• Sets the direction and develops the vision • Develops strategic plans to achieve the vision • Displays very passionate attitude about the vision and goals
Human Development and Networking	• Organizes and staffs • Maintains structure • Delegates responsibility • Delegates authority • Implements the vision • Establishes policy and procedures to implement vision • Displays low emotion • Limits employee choices	• Aligns organization • Communicates the vision, mission, and direction • Influences creation of coalitions, teams, and partnerships that understand and accept the vision • Displays driven, high emotion • Increases choices

(continued)

Process	Management	Leadership
Vision Execution	• Controls processes • Identifies problems • Solves problems • Monitors results • Takes low-risk approach to problem solving	• Motivates and inspires • Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change • Satisfies basic human needs • Takes high-risk approach to problem solving
Vision Outcome	• Manages vision order and predictability • Provides expected results consistently to leadership and other stakeholders	• Promotes useful and dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labor relations

Note. Reprinted from “Leadership versus Management: What’s the Difference?” 2006, by J. Kotterman, *Journal for Quality & Participation, 29*(2), 13-17. Copyright 2006 by the American Society for Quality. Reprinted with permission from *Journal for Quality and Participation ©2006* American Society for Quality. No further distribution allowed without permission.

Carse (1986) distinguished two types of people on the basis of their relationship with boundaries – whether they worked within their boundaries, or whether they changed the boundaries. The latter group focused on changing convention and removing barriers, whereas the former group played within a fixed structure (Heine, 2008).

There is some variability in the information above; therefore it is difficult to define either leadership or management in terms of tasks and duties. Considering this, it may be more appropriate to focus on objectives. Kotter’s (1990) definition is pertinent, where leadership is about change and management is about getting complexity under control.

The concept that leadership is about driving change, and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo, implies that there is a tangible conflict. Julius, Baldridge, and Pfeffer (1999) state that change elicits conflict from those who have a vested interest in the status quo. Maccoby and Scudder (2011) say that change challenges the foundation of an organization, and therefore the activities and source of income for the employees. There is also a school of thought that change can be controlled, therefore the concepts of management and leadership not only co-exist but are the same thing (Gill, 2003). This may be due to confusion between improving and refining something stable – the status quo – versus destabilizing and changing that something.

What doesn't often surface in the literature is the need to do both, concurrently, in a given situation. Trying to conform to norms of management, while at the same time changing outcomes through leadership, is a potential source of confusion and conflict. This not only applies to separate leaders and managers, when an individual is both a leader and a manager there exists the potential to be at war with oneself (Covey, 2003). Assuming that leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo (Bennis, 1989a; Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 1977), this implies that not only are management and leadership in conflict, managers and leaders are as well. This study sought to validate that assumption, or conversely, to realign it, which necessitates a reliable framework with a standard meaning.

Complications arise when a term has more than one meaning (Simpson, 2003). Standardized definitions and associated language would be helpful in identifying barriers to communication between experts in a domain (Hagen, Wu, & Stiles, 2010), in this case in the context of leadership and management. Little research has surfaced that measures real differences between leadership and management, and the definition of leadership and of management is not consistently articulated. As of this writing, no tangible consensus has been evident. It is possible that a unified leadership concept is actually a collection of concepts (Karmel, 1978). Part of this lack of unity is due to the lack of taxonomy and the resultant conflicts in empirically-derived conclusions (Kotterman, 2006).

Groves (2004) defines taxonomy as classification, the rationale for the classification, and the methodology for classification. Taxonomy is the naming of species for the purpose of differentiating them according to select attributes (Cole, 1984), and according to their natural relationships (Simpson, 2003). In the classical sense, the classifications are hierarchical and non-overlapping (Groves, 2004). A nomenclature is a systematic, objective classification of names according to the rules of the taxonomy (Simpson, 2003). According to Simpson, “If taxonomy is the ‘how,’ then nomenclature is the ‘what’” (p. 18). Ontology is a complement to nomenclature and taxonomy, in that it (a) provides the conceptual framework for the terms used, by theorizing the properties of and relationships between the entities of concern; and (b) transcends the actual language used, e.g., English or French. Many researchers use ontologies to examine factual knowledge about the domain under study, in the context of the body of knowledge (Chandrasekaran, Josephson, & Benjamins, 1999).

If a manager is trying to establish structure and develop predictable outcomes while a leader is concurrently trying to re-align the organization and make dramatic changes, the scene is set regarding contention for resources, confused execution of strategy, and the appearance that the manager and leader have different and competing agendas. Sorting out the characteristics and nuances of such leader and manager dysfunction should benefit from a stable taxonomy and ontology. Decomposing such a scenario to determine the root cause of the resulting conflict should benefit from universally understood terminology and use thereof. Taxonomy would aid in sorting and classifying the intent and actions of leaders and managers, and bring to light the contrasts and sometimes diametrically opposed objectives. The nuances of terms such as *authority* and *influence* can be explored in a way that defines the boundaries between them, how much of their meaning is shared, and how the semantics of their use can either lead to clarity or confusion.

Conflict may also originate in different uses of a common term. Words such as *change* have different definitions depending on whether the perspective of a manager is used rather than that of a leader. To a manager, change is something to contain; to a leader, change is something used to drive competitiveness. The term *change* would be a common term used in the organizational domain, and ontology would be used to define the semantics of use of the term. Chapter Two in this dissertation explores other differing uses of common terms, with the differences being time-dependent in many cases.

The value of understanding the semantics is illustrated by examining conflict in terms of whether its root cause is people-driven or objectives-driven. In a people-driven scenario, conflict can manifest in attributions such as asserting that manager Joe is resisting change because he wants to control things. In an objective-driven scenario, assertions that Joe’s interference with change is being used to accomplish the organization’s XYZ objective, is an entirely different manifestation. In both cases the perception is negative, but the intents differ. Extrapolating this to the broader organizational domain, ontology would provide a structured approach to sorting out the manifestations of conflict associated with many common terms.

To reach a better definition of the ontology of leadership/management conflict, this study was used to examine the roles of leaders and managers, their objectives, and the tasks associated with meeting those objectives. A Delphi study was used, in which practitioners of leadership and or management, along with followers and subordinates were queried as to common practices and perceived terminology of management and leadership. The study started with broad questions about roles, objectives, and tasks, and used an iterative method to reach a concise theory that characterizes conflict between leaders and managers.

The Delphi study was preceded by examining the histories of leadership and management individually, and collectively, via the literature. The histories are important in that they set the context for leadership and management in terms of their individual purpose and practice. Additionally, the histories address the inter-relationship between the two concepts in the context of how the purpose of one may have influenced that of the other over time. By examining the literature, the roles, objectives and relevant tasks for management and leadership come to light by way of the eras in which they were used, and the circumstances therein.

Problem Statement

Implicit in this discussion is that the objectives of leadership and management can, in certain situations, run counter to each other. The problem was that an explicit view of the objectives of leadership and management, based on empirical evidence, seemed to be missing. There appeared to be a lack of taxonomy and absence of ontology, which provided a challenge to defining what *management* and *leadership* are, and left it to subjective arguments as to where the vectors of leadership and management objectives may be misaligned.

Statement of Purpose

Quite a bit of work needs to be done to get to the point where the concept of leadership/management conflict is legitimized. The plausibility of the conflict needs to be demonstrated – is there really a conflict?

One way of clarifying the difference between leadership and management is to understand their origins, how those origins evolved to the state of affairs exigent today, and how they interrelated over time according to the environmental influences of the day. By understanding the confluence, conflict can be better characterized and the resulting information used for issue diagnosis.

Lincoln and Guba (1986) describe a formative evaluation as providing "descriptive and judgmental information, leading to refinement, improvement, alterations, and or modification in the evaluand" (p. 550). The evaluand for this study was conflict between leadership and management in the context of their respective objectives, and the purpose of the study was to develop a formative evaluation of the conflict that leads to a better understanding thereof. The audiences for the evaluation include stakeholders who may see value in the evaluand. In this research, conflict was generally defined as states of intent that are out of alignment with respect to the methodologies used to realize organizational goals. In the process of developing this understanding, common nomenclature and threads of potential taxonomy were sought such that a reasonable framework for conflict can eventually be defined.

Research Questions

This research centered on management objectives and leadership objectives. Assuming that leadership objectives and management objectives are potentially countervailing and may lead to conflict, it would be helpful to know how conflict manifests. There may be definable attributes that help illustrate the components of objective-driven conflict, and enable execution of root cause analysis used in troubleshooting organizational problems. The following questions were pursued:

- Do countervailing objectives potentially lead to conflict?
- What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives?
- What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives?

Should the answers to these questions indeed point to intrinsic conflict between leadership and management, there may be a way to define an evaluation methodology for troubleshooting leadership and management issues specific to a given institution.

Significance of Studying Intrinsic Conflict

"When conflict is under control, all kinds of great things are possible" (Scudder et al., 2012, p. 99).

The literature shows that there is a difference between leadership and management (Kotterman, 2006). There are different schools of thought as to whether the two overlap (Kotterman, 2006; Young & Dulewicz, 2008;) or are distinct (Marker, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Zaleznik, 1977), or whether one is a subset of the other (Doh, 2003). These schools of thought are depicted in Figure 1. As of this writing the literature at least hints that the two are in direct conflict at times (Kotterman, 2006; Stanley, 2006). Appendix B provides a fictional scenario that illustrates how the objectives of a leader and of a manager can put the two people at odds with each other, and illuminates the distinction between people-driven and role-driven conflict. Understanding the characteristics of the two types of conflict should be useful in the *determination of probable causes* step of root cause analysis.

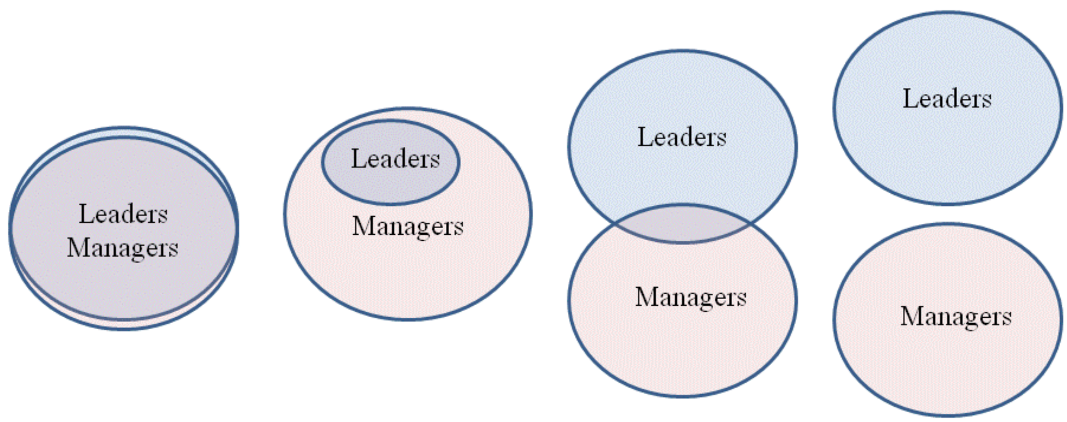


Figure 1. Degrees of manager/leader overlap.

The results of applied research are useful in developing theory (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Much work needs to be done to get to the point where the concept of conflict between leadership and management objectives is legitimized. The plausibility needs to be demonstrated – is there really a conflict? If there is, how does it manifest? Is there a way to differentiate between people-driven and objective-driven conflict? What are the components of objective-driven conflict? Is there a methodology to get to the root cause, and how is it executed?

Key Definitions

Bureaucracy. "For Weber, bureaucracy was a descriptive term — not an epithet — for characterizing what we now call formal, large-scale organizations" (Bennis, 1961, p. 27). Merriam-Webster online defines bureaucracy as "a system of administration marked by officialism, red tape, and proliferation" ("Bureaucracy," n.d., para. 1). Gill

(2003) says that "Bureaucracy is a well-documented hindrance to developing a learning culture" (p. 314).

Conflict. This definition concerns "our original focus, the conflict between man and the organization" (Bennis, 1961, p. 28). Change elicits conflict from those who have a vested interest in the status quo (Julius et al., 1999). "Conflict arises whenever interests collide" (Morgan, 2006, p. 163). Merriam-Webster defines conflict as "mental struggle resulting from incompatible or opposing needs, drives, wishes, or external or internal demands" ("Conflict," n.d., para. 1).

Dysfunction. Merriam-Webster defines dysfunction as "abnormal or unhealthy interpersonal behavior or interaction within a group" ("Dysfunction," n.d., para. 1).

Evaluand. An object of evaluation (Williams & Graham, 2010).

Leader. Leaders are tolerant of chaos and insufficient structure, and are more prone to take time to fully understand the significance of issues (Zaleznik, 1977). The New Oxford American Dictionary defines a leader as "the person who leads or commands a group, organization, or country" (Leader, n.d.b, para. 1), and Merriam-Webster defines a leader as "a person who leads" (Leader, n.d.a, para. 1). A leader is defined by Marker (2010) as someone who "gets others to want what he/she wants" and who "utilizes a totally different set of skills including persuasion, communication, shared vision, values, logic and even, at times, emotion" (p. 32). A leader needs to have emotional intelligence, and be able to operate in the midst of ambiguity and change (Weathersby, 1999). A leader establishes organizational direction (Kotterman, 2006).

Leadership. According to the New Oxford American Dictionary, *leadership* is defined as "the action of leading a group of people or an organization", or "the state or position of being a leader", or "the leaders of an organization (Leadership, n.d.b, para. 1). Merriam-Webster (Leadership, n.d.a, para. 1) defines it as "the office or position of a leader" or "capacity to lead" or "the act or an instance of leading" or "leaders", i.e., a plurality. The definition appears to be dependent on semantics and context. It is among the world's oldest musings and considerations (Kotterman, 2006). Marker (2010) says that leadership is about minimizing the amount of supervision required. According to Weathersby (1999) leadership is about conceiving a common vision, motivating people to align their self-interest with that of the organization, and persuading. Bennis (1961) asserts that "leadership is the fulcrum on which the demands of the individual and the demands of the organization are balanced" (p. 150). Per Bowers and Seashore (1966), "leadership is organizationally useful behavior by one member of an organizational family toward another member or members of that same organizational family" (p. 240).

What is lacking in these definitions is an idea of how a leader applies skills, traits, and personality to accomplish something specific. It is at that juncture that leadership becomes somewhat amorphous, and ultimately lacks any one unified model (Karmel, 1978; Toor & Ofori, 2008). Furthermore, the assumptions, hypotheses, and theoretical approaches are widely varying (Hill, 1969). Definition and measurement of leadership are ambiguous (Pfeffer, 1977). There are no clear conclusions, nor are there direction vectors pointing to convergence (Karmel, 1978).

Management. *Management* is relatively new compared to leadership, and driven by the need to regulate and structure authority with large, complex organizations (Kotterman, 2006). It is defined in the New Oxford American Dictionary as "the process of dealing with or controlling things or people" and or "the people managing a company"

(Management, n.d.b, para. 1). Merriam-Webster defines it as “the act or art of managing” and or “the collective body of those who manage or direct and enterprise” (Management, n.d.a, para. 1). Thus, the definition is dependent on semantics and context to get the intended meaning – whether management is a process or a group. Marker (2010) says that management is about daily task-by-task oversight. Weathersby (1999) asserts that management concerns the allocation of scarce resources according to objectives, setting priorities, achieving results, and controlling.

Manager. *A manager* is necessary to introduce and maintain order and consistency into the work place, stabilize work, organize resources, solve problems, and reduce chaos. This concept is relatively new compared to the concept of a leader (Kotterman, 2006). The word is derived from the Italian *meneggiare*, meaning handling things (especially horses), and the French *menager*: careful use (Toor & Ofori, 2008). The New Oxford American Dictionary defines a manager as “a person responsible for controlling or administering an organization or group” (Manager, n.d.b, para. 1), and Merriam-Webster defines it as “one that manages; a person” (Manager, n.d.a, para. 1). A good manager is defined by Marker (2010) as someone who “gets others to do what he/she wants them to do” and one who “relies on position, power and authority” (p. 32). Managers prefer process, control, stability, and quick problem solving (Zaleznik, 1977).

Key Assumptions

This dissertation assumes that conflict is almost inevitable in any organization, and some of it emanates from the management and leadership ranks, specifically as one relates to the other.

The preliminary dissertation assumed that management is about keeping the status quo, while leadership is about driving change. This was perhaps at the heart of the study, in that tampering with the status quo elicits opposition (Julius et al., 1999). Change can be nonlinear and paradoxical (Heine, 2008), and can defy logic.

This dissertation assumes that the U.S. was likely to have the lead in developing the constructs of leadership and management during the 20th century.

This dissertation assumes that in the cases where the U.S. did not have the lead in developing these constructs, that fact did not have an appreciable effect on the outcome. The exception to this is the period preceding the Industrial Revolution, which is also assumed not to have a significant impact.

Limitations of the Study

The limitation of this study is the nature of defining management and leadership in terms of *explicit* conflict. While the literature alludes to this aspect, an established and coherent thread does not yet appear to exist in what has been examined as of this writing. Indeed, the purpose of this study was to start integrating the allusions to conflict in hopes of developing a plausible explicit construct worthy of further definition and development.

Myriad definitions of both leadership and management showed that there was no universal understanding. Establishing an initial framework requires definitions and constructs that have not been fully validated. For the purposes of this study, existing definitions were treated as legitimate so as to provide continuity with existing literature and discourse. This did not interfere with the outcome, however, since establishing a framework provided context to the definitions and constructs, thus helping to further define them and add directly to the body of knowledge.

This dissertation includes a historical perspective on the evolution of leadership and management, which is intended to establish a context for the study of intrinsic conflict between leadership and management objectives. Use of historical events shows how leadership and management applications have intertwined and influenced each other over time, and implies a modicum of influence of historical events over leadership and management literature published during certain time periods. However, historical events of and by themselves do not necessarily define leadership and management in an academic context. History has its limitations, among them that a true historical method is hard to come by. In general, history addresses phenomena that are no longer observable, and we are left with an accounting of actual events that are nonetheless flavored by the perspective of the narrator. What are ostensibly historical accounts are full of verdictives, which assert truthfulness of the narrative accounts without actually proving any facts (Domanska, 2008). The discursive account in this dissertation does not purport, then, to represent any *truths* about management and leadership, only to report on findings that when threaded together may start to paint a coherent picture of understanding *over time*.

The Delphi approach that was used in this study engaged a small group of *experts*. The definition of *expert* is wide-ranging and was carefully considered. Care was taken to avoid conflict of interest and familiarity with the researcher (Baker, Lovell, & Harris, 2006). There is a trade regarding sample sizes, in that larger samples are more likely to provide statistically significant answers, yet too large of a sample size can drive the study away from the concept and purpose of the Delphi, toward a probabilistic analysis rather than a meaningful discussion (Linstone & Turoff, 2002). The small sample of experts in the study limits the ability to extrapolate the results to a larger community.

The risks of using a Delphi necessitates that the researcher successfully tailor the method to optimize its match to the problem, including cognizance of the subjective nature of interaction of the experts and researcher, an awareness of the value of consensus when lack thereof can be significantly informative, and vigilance to validity in light of the highly tailorable nature of the Delphi method. A single researcher means that significant bias can be introduced into the study, whether knowingly or unknowingly (Vernon, 2009).

Parts of this study used written correspondence to gather data, which are relatively devoid of intonation and velocity of speech, and body language. Mehrabian (1981) asserts that the absence of these factors can result in missed or misinterpreted meanings. Differences in language and logic due to cultural diversity are also potential risks (Linstone & Turoff, 2002).

Summary

Chapter One introduced the context of uncertainty in the definitions of leadership and management, and how they relate – or don't. This was further discussed in terms of leadership and management objectives and how those objectives are not entirely clear, thus providing an open door for conflict between them. An approach to improving understanding of the current state of leadership and management objectives was suggested in terms of understanding their origins and subsequent developmental history. A few basic characteristics of leadership and management objectives were provided, and it was suggested that these objectives might be driving intrinsic conflict.

Definitions of leadership and management were provided, compared, and contrasted. Manager and leader were also defined, including briefly touching on their personalities and traits. The concepts of conflict and dysfunction were also defined in the context of this study. Assumptions were acknowledged regarding inevitable conflict, definitional legitimacy concerning leadership and management, and the purposes of management and leadership with respect to the status quo versus change. The limitations of historical study were briefly discussed and set the context for this study. The use of a Delphi study approach was identified.

Chapter Two shows the results of a literature search that spans the time period of the early philosophers up through 2012. Throughout the chapter there is a collection of philosophies and theories from management and leadership literature, along with accounts of historical events that occurred relatively concurrently with the release of the literature. Such an approach suggests how historical events may have influenced literature content, and how literature content may have influenced historical events. By the end of Chapter Two, the reader should have a grasp of the evolution of both leadership and management in both theory and application up until 2012.

Chapter Three explains that a Delphi study will be conducted, why Delphi was chosen, and what the details are with respect to how the study will be conducted. Chapter Four highlights pertinent data found using the methodology described in Chapter Three. Chapter Five selectively draws on the results of Chapter Four to illustrate the similarities, complementarities, and differences between leadership and management, with special emphasis on objectives. By the end of Chapter Five, the reader should have a clear picture of the framework of management and leadership in the context of their respective objectives, and how the combination of those frameworks provides the potential for organizational conflict.

Quite a bit of work needs to be done to get to the point where the concept of leadership/management is legitimized. The plausibility of the conflict needs to be demonstrated – is there really a conflict? If there is, how does it manifest? Is there a way to differentiate between people-driven and objective-driven conflict? What are the components of objective-driven conflict? Is there a methodology to get to the root cause, and how is it executed? This dissertation serves to illuminate the inherent nature of management/leadership conflict, in the context of countervailing objectives.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

Introduction

Chapter One introduced the context of uncertainty in the definitions of leadership and management, and discussed their relationships in terms of potentially unclear leadership and management objectives, thus providing insight to conflict between the objectives. Understanding of the origins and subsequent developmental history of leadership and management was suggested as an approach to improving understanding of the current state of leadership and management objectives. A sample of basic characteristics of leadership and management objectives were provided, and it was suggested that in certain circumstances these objectives may drive intrinsic conflict.

Definitions of leadership and management were provided, compared, and contrasted. Manager and leader were also defined, including a brief discussion on the purpose in assessing their personalities and traits. The concepts of conflict and dysfunction in the context of this study were also defined. Assumptions were acknowledged regarding inevitable conflict, definitional legitimacy concerning leadership and management, and the purposes of management and leadership with respect to the status quo versus change. The limitations of studying a phenomenon based on historical accounts were briefly discussed and set the context for this study. The chapter concluded with an outline of the structure of this dissertation.

Figure 2 provides a view of the sequence of Chapter Two subjects. Chapter Two introduces the potential convergence and divergence of the definitions of leadership and management, leaders and managers, and provides brief examples of characteristics for leaders and managers. The question of conflict between leadership and management is posed. This is followed by a detailed accounting of the origins of leadership, starting from ancient times, and a detailed historical account of the origins of management starting with the onset of the industrial revolution. The codification of processes and development of structure for organizations, necessary to industry success during that period, points to the emergence of management as a science. Mechanization of the factory environment and the concurrent division of labor experienced in the 1920s is shown to indicate a departure from a leadership-dominated environment and into a management-focused environment. Scientific Management and bureaucracy is discussed in terms of their influence on structure in the workplace, and how structure drove stratified layers of workers, supervision, management, and executives. Through this it was shown that certain types of labor became less skilled, and specializations of management and other knowledge work increased, thus putting increased distance between the perceived value of managers and the labor forces they controlled. Labor relations are shown to affect both the structure of organizations and the powers of related stakeholders – owners, management, labor – and the effect on that arrangement as a result of the Great Depression. Unions and their role in stratification and structure are explained, and the role of World War II in terms of reinforcing prevalent production processes and values is discussed.

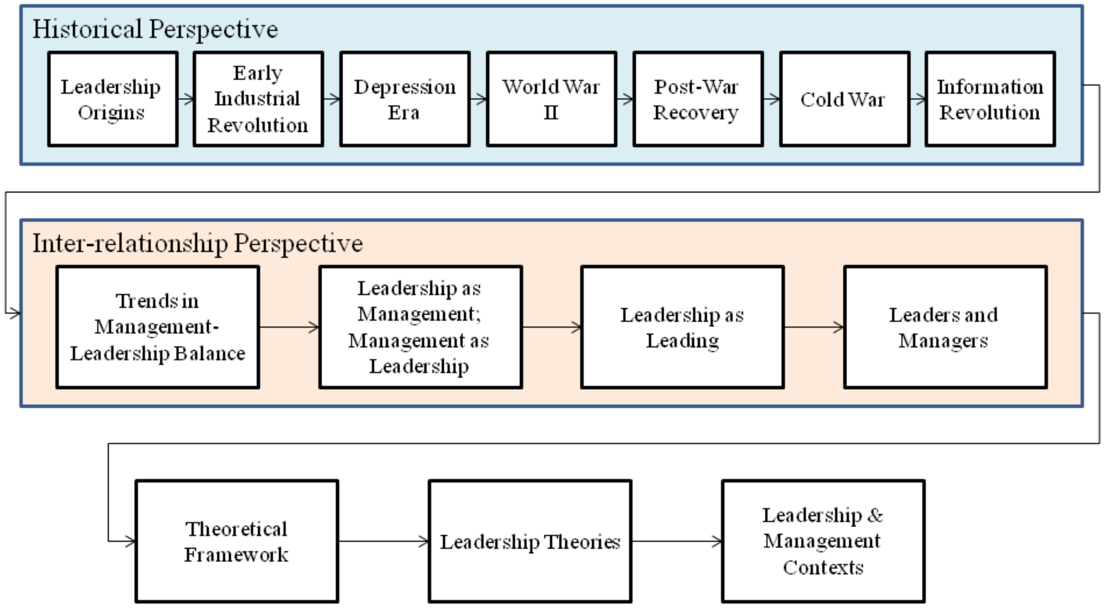


Figure 2. Chapter Two map.

The Hawthorne Experiments of the 1930s illuminated the origins of the human relations movement, which motivated increased attention to worker perception and participation. The effects of workplace structure on humans are addressed, and describe how the basis for organizational behavior lies in human behavior in an organizational context. Select models of human relations are explored with respect to leadership and management, including examples of empirical studies that characterize how people in organizations interact with each other and with organizations.

It is shown that the nature of industrial production changed from a pre-war competitive environment in the 1930s to a war-time high-volume-at-any-cost environment during World War II, and then back again to a competitive environment after the war. The post-war era is addressed in terms of how shifts in the labor pool coupled with the inertia of learned wartime manufacturing methodologies and business conduct put increasing strain on the relationship between management and labor.

Attention is paid to the effect that unions had on industry during the post-war period in terms of adding an intermediary role between labor and management, and to how increasing government regulation contributed to the increases in bureaucracy and rule-based operations. There is a discussion on the increase in available data on management and leadership during the information revolution, and how the understanding of the differences seems to have reached a plateau.

The tenets of scientific management and human relations are considered in the context of their commonalities, the increasing stagnation in management methods in the latter half of the 20th century, and growing influences in leadership modeling. Deficiencies in the understanding of concepts of both leadership and management, as affects the concurrency and possible overlap of leadership and management, are considered. Potential conflict between leadership and management in this context is proposed using explicit statements by influential theorists of the late 20th and 21st centuries. The chapter concludes by revisiting the threads of management and leadership that existed from the early 1990s to 2012 and suggests that certain aspects of leadership and management may be in conflict.

To the extent possible, the dates of cited references follow in rough chronological order, reflecting an attempt to portray the histories of leadership and management via the literature of the times. On occasion there are references whose dates are out of sync. These instances provide extra input from later historical retrospectives and articles. Given this, it is still recommended that in general one note the dates of the cited resources, as they provide context in many cases to the pertinence, in the continuum of management and leadership history, of the thinking behind many of the theories.

Context of the Issue

There are contending camps that assert that leadership and management overlap (Kotterman, 2006; Young & Dulewicz, 2008), or that one is a subset of the other (Doh, 2003), or that they are different altogether (Marker, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Zaleznik, 1977). Gordon and Yukl (as cited in Kotterman, 2006) go as far as to say they are perceived as mutually exclusive. Each of these descriptions collectively has adequate rationale for the position taken within a given context; however much of the evidence appears to be anecdotal or opinion-derived. Empirical data found as of this writing is limited in scope and has not been found to be sufficiently populous so as to be easily generalized. This includes the Royal Navy studies by Young and Dulewicz (2008) and the Four-Factor Study of Leadership by Bowers and Seashore (1966), although the latter mentions other empirical studies that were not investigated. What is clear is that there is no resolution (Kotterman, 2006).

Additionally, much of the literature addresses managers and leaders – the people executing the roles as opposed to the roles themselves – their styles, personality types, agendas, and objectives. Although both are oriented toward achieving results through others (Doh, 2003), their methodologies and personas diverge. Zaleznik (1977) says that “leaders and managers are basically different types of people” (p. 67), and that “They differ in motivation, personal history, and in how they think and act” (p. 70). Leaders are about empowerment, vision, purpose, and inspiration; managers are pedantic, controlling, generalized as the “unimaginative clod” (Kotterman, 2006, p. 15). Leaders rely on persuasion and shared values; managers rely on position and authority (Marker, 2010). Leadership is constituted by heroes (Kilbort, 2004), management “is a clinical discipline”

(Drucker, 2004, p. 161). Diversity in their functional backgrounds can lead to task conflict, while diversity in values can lead to relationship conflict (Acar, 2002).

Of the leadership and management concepts, leadership is more complicated than management (Marker, 2010). The definition of leadership has been wrought with ambiguity (Karmel, 1978; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Pfeffer, 1977). A complete theory of leadership is elusive (Stogdill, 1975). As of this writing it appears that much work needs to be done to get to where the concept of leadership/management conflict is legitimized. The plausibility of the conflict itself needs to be demonstrated, which implies that there is enough of a difference between leadership and management that this conflict would manifest. One way of clarifying the difference between leadership and management is to understand their origins and how those origins evolved to the state of affairs exigent today.

To understand what the concepts of leadership and management are, this chapter attempts to illuminate them by way of examining their history from ancient times up through the information revolution – and to identify points in history where their definitions converged and diverged.

Historical Background

Understanding the nature of the differences between leadership and management may be informed by the relative history of the two. Of particular interest is the purpose for each given role in the context of the needs and environments of the times. The following sections outline a rough evolutionary path, and suggest the relationship of the roles of management and leadership with respect to each other.

Leadership origins. “A leader is best when people barely know he exists, when his work is done, his aim fulfilled, they will say: we did it ourselves” (Lao Tzu, as cited in Polelle, 2008, p. xiv)

The philosophy of leadership has been around for millennia, although not always identified using that term. Early philosophical discussions go back to the late 6th century B.C. with Heraclitus, the Greek philosopher of Ephesus, who is the first known scholar to use the word *philosophos* (Benardete, 2000). According to Burns (2003), Heraclitus believed that conflict was a permanent part of the weave of the universe. Heraclitus alluded to the relationship between change and leadership by highlighting the value of opposites (Heine, 2008). He posited that the only permanent reality is the reality of change and that permanence was an illusion (“Heraclitus,” 2010; Waugh, 1991). In the 4th century B.C., Socrates carried this existential bent forward by suggesting that leaders self-examine their lives and values. This was further parlayed into a concept of the role of leaders by Plato, a student of Socrates, who believed that great leaders needed to be great philosophers that opted for intellect over passion (Pashiardis, 2009).

Plato extended this concept in terms of virtues such as high ethical values. He believed that virtues could be taught, and that justice was the focal point. In understanding this, Plato also understood that cognitive choice did not always have an honest or positive intent, nor was it fully accurate (Pashiardis, 2009). He brought forth the concept of the noble lie, which sought to convince the citizenry of the truth of untrue things, for their own good (Burch, 2007). Rhetoric became a trained skill, lest the public perceive an undesired intent, especially as compared to the praxis, or action (Pashiardis, 2009).

Aristotle, a student of Plato (Marsh, 2001), channeled leadership into a more benevolent stance in discussions of goodness for its own sake (Mackay, 2005). In Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics he discusses the link between *praxis,* or voluntary action, and *eudaimonia,* or well-being and prosperity, purposely coupling them to address the common good of humanity. *Phronesis* expands upon this by discriminating between *eupraxia,* or the mere doing of good acts, and *arete* – a cognitive ability to understand the goodness of those acts – the concept of ethics. Aristotle extended past phronesis, suggesting its use in the higher art form of politics (Hinchliffe, 2004).

The spectra of goodness and control were demonstrated in other parts of the world during this era. In the 5th century B.C., Confucius provided guidance about bringing social order out of chaos (Naím, 2005). Although Attila the Hun was a barbarian of the 4th century B.C. he was also a diplomat and administrator (Heine, 2008). The legendary Sun Tzu of the 4th century B.C. is purported to have written *The Art of War* (Chen, 1994) – likely the oldest Chinese military manual (Tremayne, 2008). In it he described purposeful deception which can be used strategically and flexibly to defeat an enemy through situational awareness (Heine, 2008). Sun Tzu's philosophy also included preventing his enemy from executing its plan instead of destroying the enemy (Fincher, 1995).

Close to 2000 years ago, Jesus of Nazareth became an agent of change, and a threat to both existing religions and the Roman Empire (Borrows, 2006). Indeed, Jesus was an effective leader – rated as most effective in history in a recent survey (Morrisette & Schraeder, 2010). He had a management team otherwise known as disciples (Throop, 1997) to help propagate his messages, offered a clear and complete vision, and gathered followers who willingly accepted his recommended lifestyle (Harrington, 2007). Sixth century prophet Muhammed built a legacy of teachings on the society of brotherhood in the Qur'an, which offered a clear vision of friendliness, kindliness, neighborliness, and compassion (Hammed, 2011). Muhammed is also listed first among a string of leaders that developed the Islamic view of government (Folaranmi, 1994; Hazleton, 2011).

Buddhism gained in fortitude around the 8th century through Zen master Mazu, a quiet-sitter, and his disciple Baizhang, who established the rules of the monastery (Raz, 2010). Zen Buddhism practiced a less is more philosophy, and used solidarity and communal discipline to develop teamwork (Heine, 2008). Among the Buddhist teachings is the Mahayana Path, or the path of selfless service, which follows the ideals of the Bodhisattva, who was known both as the awakened leader and the peaceful warrior. The Bodhisattva holds the highest ideals of spiritual leadership, principally dedication to the benefit of others, and reflects equanimity, joy and compassion (Ylimaki & McClain, 2009). It embodies six fundamental virtues:

- Generosity – openly giving of oneself as needed at the time without expecting anything in return;
- Discipline – helping others through ethics and virtue while also practicing self discipline;
- Patience – not reacting out of fear, anger, or frustration;
- Right effort – trusting in the energy of the moment and using the three efforts of diligent perseverance, joyous effort, and being of use in benefitting others;
- Meditation – to increase one's presence in the present; and
- Wisdom – which wraps around the other five virtues to enable their proper use.

Note how this compares to *Phronesis* in Aristotle's *Nicomachean Ethics*, which discusses *arete* – the awareness of the goodness of coupling *praxis*, or voluntary action, and *eudaimonia*, or well-being and prosperity, to address the common good of humanity (Hinchliffe, 2004).

In the 12th century, Genghis Kahn was born into slavery and illiteracy, and by determination and charisma became Mongol ruler. In the 13th century he spawned the conquest of densely populated civilizations, surpassing even the Roman Empire in magnitude, yet in the process he also transformed isolated regional civilizations steeped in aristocracy into a global order based on achievement, merit, and loyalty. He established free trade zones, a census, and rule of law that applied even to him (Weatherford, 2004).

In the early 16th century Martin Luther, a doctor of sacred scripture in the Catholic church, challenged the church through his 95 Theses, which disparaged papal indulgences and redefined the sinner's relationship with the almighty. Through the 95 Theses and others that followed, Martin Luther and his thinking spawned the Protestant Reformation, establishing a new religious realm that emphasized faith in Christ as the cornerstone of grace with God (Mullett, 2003).

Eighteenth century farmer and surveyor George Washington was transformed to military commander during a time of significant political resentment (Schwartz, 1983). He became a heroic leader by using the attributes of authority and personal qualities "to mobilize people for strenuous efforts to change or maintain existing cultural values and institutional structures" (p. 19). Of particular cultural significance was Washington's example in the redefinition of *heroic leader* into one who gives of his own power for the benefit of the people. Following the Revolutionary War he resisted deification and royal authority when he took the role of President, and retired into a modest life. He left behind a legacy of adherence to societal norms instead of being the source of the norms, of obligation and sacrifice instead of authoritative command.

Common to the leaders discussed above is that they were instrumental in significant societal change, and made strong by their personal convictions. Authoritative power was not a given circumstance, in many cases was not inherited or otherwise conveyed, and did not appear in historical accounts read for this dissertation as the primary motivation for action. Power was inherent in the ideas and ideals the leaders purveyed at times when needs were great. Absent are banal monikers showing deference to the status quo – one does not see historical accounts of Catherine the Administrator or St. Paul of Archives.

Early industrial revolution. "Above all, management is responsible for producing results" (Drucker, 2004, p. 18).

Each of the leadership examples above is centered on the concept of change, and is characterized by a relatively transient event or set of events that modified the cultural norms of the time. The onset of the industrial revolution brought new technology and a push to increase levels of production for technology-based products. Increasing focus was given to modifying techniques and methodologies. The skills that served to bring about cultural change through transient action were not necessarily useful for addressing complexity or increasing throughput in the steady state production of objects. A new way of thinking emerged.

Attila the Hun, in the 5th century, may have been one of the first to exploit management techniques of advanced planning to thwart his enemies by knowing their details and operating environment (Heine, 2008). However, management is a relatively recent development (Drucker, 1963). Its purpose is to address complexity with structure, control it, and make it repeatable and efficient (Toor & Ofori, 2008). This was necessitated by the technological advances of the industrial revolution and the need to accommodate larger scale efforts with increased efficiency and precision (Drucker, 1963). A new science evolved and techniques were developed by a new breed that carried productivity into a science. A key figure was Frederick Taylor, who is commonly associated with Scientific Management and with largely influencing and advancing the profession of management in the 20th century (Bennis, 1961).

Using a name coined by Louis Brandeis before becoming a Supreme Court justice (Shafritz, Ott, & Yang, 2011), *Scientific Management* was ostensibly a way to overcome *soldiering*, a tactic where output was purposely restricted by workers to maintain job security in a given industry. Taylor (2011) asserted that by dividing workers according to task, the average output of each laborer would increase and drive more productivity and sales, while at the same time increasing the number of jobs and the workers' amount of wages and increasing profit for the manufacturer. Taylor also proffered his management system as one that could effectively address labor unrest and counter the habit of workers restricting their outputs (Jacoby, 1983). Increases in productivity, sales, number of jobs, and workers' wages were accomplished through codification of traditional knowledge, scientific selection and development of workers, improved worker treatment and opportunity, and re-division of labor that resulted in a bifurcation of the workforce into defined workers and management. Complexity was reduced to a codified series of activities based on repeated motions and tangible objectives (Taylor, 2011).

At the same time, Fayol (2011) defined the worker as operating on materials and machines, while management operates on personnel. He established several principles of management to further the definition thereof, including division of labor, authority and discipline, establishment of lines of authority through centralized hierarchical structure, order and stability, initiative, and esprit de corps. All but the latter two principles concern some sort of control. The definition of management earlier in this dissertation is consistent with Fayol's aggregate concept.

The concept of hierarchical organization was further defined by Weber (2011) as a component of *bureaucracy*, which included jurisdictional rules and obligations within the hierarchy, the concept of delegation, the systematic subordination of lower levels of the hierarchy, the codification of official activities, and the specialization of duties. Weber's intention was for the term bureaucracy to be descriptive, not epithetical (Bennis, 1961). Note that this approach elevated the priorities of officials, in that their formalized duties became their vocation, while at the same time distancing execution of those duties from the private lives and assets of the officials. This required that officials operate within ethical boundaries and with an impersonal approach (Fayol, 2011). Fayol (2011) defined a bureaucratic official as having been appointed by and obliged to a super-ordinate authority rather than elected, tenured in their position therefore not easily dismissed, and that this status elevated the social positions of officials over that of their subordinates. That separation was further defined by the distribution of salaries to officials according to status rather than the work itself. This vertical separation in status ran somewhat counter to the approach asserted by Taylor (2011), who asserted that the workmen and their management were in a cooperative peer relationship.

Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, and Max Weber produced significant writings about scientific management, principles of management, and bureaucracy in the 1910s (Bennis, 1961; Jacoby, 1983). Scientific Management and bureaucracy theorized workplaces devoid of subjectivity and human error (Bennis, 1961). Around the same time, Henry Ford was revolutionizing the automobile industry with some of the same principles (Womack, Jones, & Roos, 1990). Ford took automobile manufacturing from low-volume production by skilled craftsman in the 1890s, to

- The simplicity of quasi-interchangeable parts in production of the Model A in 1903 by less skilled workers, to
- The reduction of relatively unskilled shop workers' duties to single tasks on Model T production in 1908, to
- Making these workers stationary by introducing the moving assembly line in 1913.

In doing so, Ford not only utilized interchangeable parts, by using low-skilled labor he made workers interchangeable as well (Lareau, 1991; Womack et al., 1990). Such an approach eventually permeated manufacturing industries throughout the world (Womack et al., 1990).

Ford's approach spawned several new knowledge worker classifications to compensate for the deletion of skilled craftsmen from the shop floor. There was the industrial engineer that designed parts, assemblies, and processes; the production engineer who coordinated parts and assets for the assembly line; the cleaning workers, skilled machine repairmen, and quality checkers. Some of these categories separated into still narrower specialties, such as industrial engineers specializing in either parts or assemblies. These knowledge workers became increasingly separated from the shop floor, and from the hands-on workers (Womack et al., 1990).

Over time the Ford Motor Company became vertically integrated from raw materials to finished product, spread operations throughout the world, and became the dominant automobile maker through high volume and low prices. In the 1920s, Alfred Sloan took over competitor General Motors and instilled a professional management system that had been elusive to Ford (Womack et al., 1990). The professional management system was demanding – frequent detailed reporting on marketing and sales, inventories, profit and loss – and the efficacy of management was determined by the numbers (Lareau, 1991; Womack et al., 1990). Sloan completed the business enterprise by adding financial specialists and other professional functions (Womack et al., 1990).

The idea of cooperation between employer and employee was significant, as was the notion of sharing surplus between labor and management. (Robbins, 1943). Throughout the industrial revolution, unions have also been a part of the business landscape (O'Farrell, 2009). They were not only a part of the organizing of workers, during the 1920s and into the early 1930s the AFL was also close friends with the Taylorists and participated in union-management experimentation with worker-management cooperation (Jacoby, 1983). Taylor asserted that the workmen and their management were in a cooperative peer relationship (Taylor, 2011). Notably, examination of private communications later revealed that Taylor himself believed that the laws of science were superior to motives for bargaining. Subsequent to Taylor's death in 1915, his top disciple Morris Cooke carried forward the mantra of cooperation between workers, management, and owners. His comrades, the *Taylorists*, maintained a close relationship with the AFL through the 1920s and into the early 1930s, including the endorsement of scientific management by the AFL in 1919, and the 1929-1931 attempts to organize southern textile workers by Geoffrey Brown, a Taylorist (Jacoby, 1983).

Despite the relationship with the AFL, which in actuality was tenuous and somewhat driven by AFL weakness, unions in general were hostile to time studies and production standards, and resorted not only to strikes but also to attempts at government legislation (Jacoby, 1983). Employers likewise had the attitude that "The acquisition of power is the primary thing that counts" (p. 25). There was also distrust within the unions ranks. Robbins (1943) later suggested that an explanation was warranted as to how competition with avarice and economic strength is superior to cooperation using fair play and reason.

The unions existed in some part to ensure that the workers were cared for and educated (O'Farrell, 2009). The Taylorist view was consistent with this, which implied that the emergence of the unskilled/uneducated worker was a byproduct of scientific management, not an objective of it. During the 1920s, the Taylorists pushed for worker participation in and consent to decisions regarding changes in technology and in incentives, and went as far as to say that this could best be obtained through trade unions. This stance in part assuaged fears that the spread of technology was undermining labor bargaining power (Jacoby, 1983).

During World War I, General Order Number 13 of the government Ordnance Department recommended that collective bargaining be adopted by government contractors, and suggested “an eight-hour day, minimum wages, and various health and safety standards” (Jacoby, 1983, p. 21). At the same time, leadership theories concerned the circumstance as they influenced leader-group interactions and relations, and the role of influence, persuasion, and compliance (Stogdill, 1975).

Depression era. Despite this sort of approach, in general the relationship between labor and management diminished with respect to equality versus control (Jacoby, 1983). Unions were increasing in strength to offset the power of employers (Robbins, 1943). In addition, a layer of separation from the workers evolved, and the unions started to be identified by their members as part of the problem. As the Great Depression began and injected significant stress into the economy, experiments in cooperation were dropped (Jacoby, 1983).

Around 1929, approximately 7% of workers in the private sector belonged to unions. During this time, Eleanor Roosevelt was increasingly involved in labor rights, and union movements – including right to organize and collective negotiation. This began as early as 1924, when she chaired the Democratic Women’s Platform Committee and pushed an agenda that included the right of workers to collectively organize and bargain. In 1936 she repeatedly provided clear support for labor rights in her daily *My Day* column (O’Farrell, 2009). During this time the National Labor Relations Act, introduced to congress in 1934 and enacted in 1935, defined an *employee* as one who in general does not belong to a particular employer, is protected in the event of ongoing labor disputes, except for agricultural workers, domestic servants, and individuals employed by a parent or spouse (Dannin, 2008).

During the 1930s and early 1940s there were parallel points of view as to what comprised the modern business enterprise (Ready, 1964; Roethlisberger, 1965). Pre-war industry incentives were competition-driven (Olson, 1947). Although the structured, professional enterprise was gaining a foothold, there was still a need to address human relations – the dependencies between leaders and followers, the existence of varying leadership styles, the social relationships between leaders and members, and recognition that social relationships were key to leadership success (Ready, 1964). This human relations model was catalyzed by studies from Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson (Bennis, 1961; Ready, 1964).

Know as the Hawthorne Experiments, these studies spawned several new directions in industry conduct ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975). The experiments were overseen at a distance by Elton Mayo, a Harvard Business School professor ("George Elton Mayo," 2002; "Hawthorne revisited," 1975), and run on site by Fritz Roethlisberger ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Roethlisberger, 1972). They ran from 1927 to 1932 at the Western Electric Hawthorne Works in Chicago, with the purpose of studying how productivity was affected by fatigue and monotony, and consisted of work groups whose environments – breaks, hours, temperature, lighting, and other factors – were systematically varied ("George Elton Mayo," 2002). No matter what changed, productivity always went up ("George Elton Mayo," 2002; "Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Roethlisberger, 1972).

Two basic schools of thought arose out of these experiments ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975). One was that the outcomes were due to low-status workers suddenly becoming important in the eyes of others by virtue of being studied ("George Elton

Mayo," 2002; "Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Roethlisberger, 1972). This special attention assertion was catalytic in changing views of management ("George Elton Mayo," 2002; "Hawthorne revisited," 1975), and was instrumental in motivating the human relations movement (Roethlisberger, 1972). Later writings by Roethlisberger and Dickson in *Management and the Worker* further crystallized the model (Bennis, 1961). Notably, a later experiment by Frederick Herzberg demonstrated that special attention to workers did nothing to change the outcome ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975).

The other school of thought was that productivity increased as a result of increased participation of the workers in workplace decisions ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Roethlisberger, 1972). This view was defined by Roethlisberger (1965) in his article *The Foreman: Master and Victim of Double Talk*. The benefits of participation were twofold: increased worker feelings regarding control over and commitment to decisions, and an increased amount of information for workers to digest ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975). Many studies have reinforced this view in subsequent years (Gill, 2003; Jacoby, 1983), although concerns were expressed over whether participative management could take hold when the prevailing organizational cultures put workers in a dependent, leader-oriented frame of reference (Argyris, 1954). Participation of employees was also essential to leader performance (David, 1949). Of course, this required that participation was genuine – not real participation over trivial matters and not lip service over important matters ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975).

These schools of thought roughly followed the predispositions of Mayo, often seen as a romanticist interested in participation as a societal cure ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Roethlisberger, 1972), and Roethlisberger and Homans, who saw organizational behavior in terms of human behavior in an organizational context (Roethlisberger, 1972). Argyris (1960) later referred to an aspect of human relations he called *being nice*, which may have worked when a company was coasting along in a stable environment, but didn't comply with the management philosophy of continual pressure on employees to output increasing volumes of products while reducing costs. Interestingly, the term *human relations* was misused to the point that Roethlisberger disowned it, and other Harvard academics replaced the term with organizational behavior (Roethlisberger, 1972). Nevertheless, human relations blossomed during this time, where people became the predominant driver of discussions, almost to the exclusion of organizations (Bennis, 1961).

World War II. During World War II the government embarked on a war production drive, which was made official by President Roosevelt in February 1942. Over 2,500 factories were organized by the government for this effort. Previous difficulty between employers and employees was identified as interference to the war effort, and was replaced with cooperation in light of common objectives. Organized labor was especially characterized as running counter to cooperation (Robbins, 1943). During this time, speed and reliability were imperative, and industrial costs increased significantly. One factor was the use of unskilled labor to staff the war machine while 13 million men went off to fight, and worker efficiency lowered productivity, raising labor per unit by as much as 70% (Olson, 1947).

By the advent of World War II, it was evident that the divisions between worker and employer were not working well, and that each was set on thriving at the others' expense (Robbins, 1943). Nonetheless, this was set aside to fight a common enemy

(Olson, 1947). This was somewhat influenced by Eleanor Roosevelt’s contention that although workers had the right to strike, they should voluntarily give it up during this period and seek to cooperate with the government more directly (O’Farrell, 2009). Unfortunately, the problems of industry were exacerbated rather than solved. The labor force tilted strongly to unskilled, given the loss of skilled workers to the armed forces. To accommodate this, specialization intensified: quality and cost control, production engineering and control, and manufacturing engineering (Olson, 1947).

An interesting dual use of the word *democracy* appears to have occurred during this time as well. Democracy was on the minds of many people given the common wartime enemies and their threat to political democracy (Carmichael, 1941; Mullen, 1942), yet was also being re-examined as a fundamental social construct (Dykstra, 1940). Democracy was viewed in terms of human rights in the workplace and the value of participation by workers (Lowin, Hrapchak, & Kavanagh, 1969; O’Farrell, 2009; Ready, 1964; Roethlisberger, 1965). This had its origins in the 1920s, during a time when unions were starting to take hold and the concepts of cooperation, understanding, and trust were on the minds of many (Jacoby, 1983), and extended at least to the 1960s (Ready, 1964).

Roethlisberger (1965) defined the enterprise as having “technical, economic, organizational, social, and human” (p. 180) realities, and that the work environment needs to have administrators who understand how to work within the ever-changing mix of these realities. He also articulated the increasing limitations of the foreman, who needs to exploit any informal relations he has built over time to overcome the logical/rational formalities demanded by higher management, so as to get cooperation at the working levels (Roethlisberger, 1965). Against this backdrop is added the power transferred to the unions and the resulting diminution of informal relations with workers that the foreman may have previously had (Roethlisberger, 1965; Selekman, 1945). The foremen were also stuck between unions and the workers, and in essence the foremen added another boss – the workers. Although foremen and stewards were strategically valuable, the management-appointed foreman represented an entrenched employer while the steward represented a burgeoning union leadership structure. The worker-elected steward was still subordinate to the foreman on the job; however, this had its own set of limitations (Selekman, 1945).

Post-war recovery. The competition-driven pre-war industry incentives changed to an intense drive to support the war effort, and then back to competition following the war. The post-war reorientation set the stage for clashes between old-school logical management and nascent humanist management techniques, and put a strain on unions. World War II had brought with it a confirmation of the superiority of the organized company structure and attendant lines of authority and responsibility that drove a high-output wartime effort. During the war, the workforce had grown considerably, especially in the unskilled ranks, however so did labor-per-unit output and wages (Olson, 1947).

Following World War II, the once-mighty industries of France, Germany, and Great Britain were in a shambles (Lareau, 1991). International cooperation during the war should have been parlayed over to domestic cooperation between employers and workers (Robbins, 1943). Improvements to organizational structure and management made during the war, including clear lines of authority and responsibility, had taught American businesses how to get things done reliably and quickly. Young executives returned from the war to implement these gains (Olson, 1947).

However, immediately after the war, the near-obliteration of previously dominant foreign industries meant that for a while there was little competition for the U.S. (Lareau, 1991). The largesse of production from wartime organizations remained in force, including the sophisticated control of production, cost, and quality that had been used to guide an unskilled workforce. Given that industry had to shift back to a competitive approach, this put a strain on unions and management. Manufacturing inventories were high, but post-war demand was decreasing, resulting in a shift back to a buyer's market. Despite the shift and the diminishing of the unifying purpose of the war effort, inertia kept organizational structures from changing (Olson, 1947). Organizational hierarchies prevailed for years to come (Argyris, 1970).

In the post-war era, additional bargaining areas were introduced to union negotiations: health plans and pensions (O'Farrell, 2009). After widespread strikes in 1946 the Taft-Hartley Act, intended to limit increasing growth and strength of the unions, was passed (Shister, 1958). Eleanor Roosevelt chaired the Human Rights Commission at the U.N from 1946-1948. At the end of that period the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which included the right to join a union, was passed by the United Nations (O'Farrell, 2009). The Landrum Griffin Act was passed in 1959 as a counter to union leadership corruption and malfeasance – essentially a follow-up to Taft-Hartley's restrictions on unfair labor practices (Ross, 1971).

Cold War. The 1950s and 1960s brought an expanded role for human relations. In the contingency approach, Fiedler posits that there is no good leader for all seasons and situations ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Stogdill, 1975). Leadership is where one person directs and supervises others doing tasks using a personal relationship (Fiedler, 1965). Fiedler felt that leaders had intrinsic, immutable leadership styles that could not be changed through training or development (“Hawthorne revisited,” 1975). He posited that there were two basic styles: task-motivated, where leaders were most successful when they had either a great deal or very little power (“Hawthorne revisited,” 1975; Stogdill, 1975) and tended to be authoritarian and directive (Fiedler); and relationship-oriented (Stogdill, 1975), which worked best for more permissive, egalitarian leaders (Fiedler, 1965) when their level of influence was moderate (“Hawthorne revisited,” 1975).

Vroom later expanded on Fiedler’s model using a more flexible model for leadership style changes. Five different decisions styles could be chosen according to the particular situation, ranging from unilateral problem-solving and decision-making to fully participative problem solving and consensus decision-making (“Hawthorne revisited,” 1975).

Empirical studies showed that the attitudes of workers could be differentiated according to skill level: highly skilled employees cared about their jobs and related productivity, and their emphasis on money was low (Argyris, 1959). This is consistent with Taylor’s (2011) rationale for division of labor, which posited that increasing output and wages garnered higher employee satisfaction. On the other hand, low-skilled employees tended to accept whatever management-driven rate of production occurred, put high emphasis on money, and had low interest in their work (Argyris, 1959). Some studies tended to run counter to human relations, although this was not a frequent occurrence (Argyris, 1954).

Argyris (1960) further differentiated the utility of the humanist approach by studying groups under stress. He defined a *be nice* approach where workers were given excellent wages, benefits, high job security, and agreeable working environment, in exchange for following leaders and being good corporate citizens. This is consistent with Taylor's (2011) scientific management approach, benefits of which included improved treatment of workers and increased opportunities, and the existence of cooperative relationships between workers and management, although this appears to be more correlation than causality. Argyris found that a *being nice* approach worked for an organization that was relatively devoid of challenges, but when there was pressure for increased efficiency or growth, this approach failed to produce adequate results.

At the same time, Japan was also recovering from wartime devastation (Drucker, 1963; Lareau, 1991). W. Edwards Deming brought techniques of quality control – kaizen – and technological innovation to help Japan improve productivity (Heine, 2008). Deming, perhaps the person most associated with Japan's industrial recovery, introduced statistical process control, a technique used to rapidly identify manufacturing variances according to statistical boundaries (Lareau, 1991). Other important contributions were the "Plan, Do, Check, Act cycle," otherwise known as the Deming Cycle (Lareau, 1991, p. 120), and the 85-15 rule, which stated that "85 percent of the problems in any operation are within the system and are the responsibility of management, while only 15 percent lie with the worker" (Walton, 1986, p. 242).

Through the 50s, 60s, 70s, and into the 80s, post-war management methods and organizational structure did not change much in the U.S. (Argyris, 1970; Lareau, 1991; Zaleznik, 1990). Most businesses were still run on the basis of control, which stifled creativity and innovation (Bavelas, 1960; Hammer, 1990). Stratified leadership structures also thwarted individual drive (Stogdill, 1967). Human organizations were hitting a low point (Argyris, 1970). As organizations grew larger they backslid on innovation, preferring vested interests to the point where the innovating manager became tantamount to an organizational embarrassment (Bavelas, 1960). Despite the emergence of computers and flexible automation technologies, American managers in the 80s were sticking to old methods, including the use of Taylorism and scientific management (Jaikumar, 1986). Despite the growth of the human relations movement, rational decision-making was used to address the problems of non-logical humans in organizations as though they were computers. Participative management became an overused cure-all for organizational issues (Roethlisberger, 1972). There was an abundance of entry-level workers and fewer knowledge workers, fragmented process structures, and elaborate systems for controlling work and disciplining workers (Hammer, 1990). Tasks were still specified by management, and there was little flexibility to change or make process improvements (Jaikumar, 1986). Some data suggested that inflexibility resulted from the mindset of managers more so than manufacturing capability (Upton, 1997). Such inflexibility slowed down decision making (Theuerkauf, 1991).

Rather than fix the process, managers added more layers of bureaucracy (Hammer, 1990). American business became inept and unable to compete with burgeoning foreign competition, especially from Asia. Honda surpassed Ford for the top-selling car in the U.S. in 1989; in 1990 thirteen of the top 20 companies in the world were Japanese and held 64% of the total market value for that group (Lareau, 1991).

Japanese designers had learned from Deming how to focus on reliability. Using flexible manufacturing technology, shop floor operators with a high level of education were able to understand systems, software and procedural development, thus making manufacturing highly flexible. Smaller-scale operations and autonomous machine operation were enabled by this flexibility and reliability, and Japanese manufacturers were able to automate job shops. This resulted in significant reductions in production personnel, and modest reduction in engineering ranks, to where engineers outnumbered production workers by three to one (Jaikumar, 1986).

During this time, new modes of thought emerged. Heavy American investments in information technology were still yielding poor levels of improvement because companies were using it to mechanize old ways of doing business -- computers were being used to speed up existing processes, and job designs, work flows, control mechanisms, and organization structures were used from a pre-computer age that emphasized efficiency and control. As an antidote, business reengineering emerged, where an all-or-nothing change to old ways replaced cautious, incremental improvement steps. Division of labor was reanalyzed and in many cases reduced to a cadre of specialists that executed end-to-end processes (Hammer, 1990). Note how this is comparable to automobile manufacturing, which had been executed in end-to-end fashion by skilled craftsman in the 1890s, although at that time the production was low-volume (Womack et al., 1990). The separation of tasks and complex mechanisms to track progress, traceable to the Industrial Revolution, were replaced with cross-functional teams and a reduced need for managers. Control was built into processes instead of organizations, and managers became supporters and facilitators rather than controllers and supervisors (Hammer, 1990).

Global companies decentralized as a result of epiphanies that one organizational operating model does not result in optimal solutions. In some cases, functional organizations were replaced with geographically-based organizations. In others, emphasis was changed from "strong, country-oriented organizations to product groups that manage their businesses across geographic boundaries" (Theuerkauf, 1991, p. 104).

The information revolution. The 1980s saw a marked increase in the number of publications on leadership (Rost, 1991). An informal numerical accounting of relative frequency of occurrence in journal articles, executed by the researcher and provided in Figure 3, shows that the period from the early 1990s up through the early 2010s saw a significant increase in the amount of literature that addressed management and leadership overall. Figure 3 was created based on searching the Business Source Premier database for the words *management* and *leadership* in document titles over the decades from 1950 to 1959, up through 2000 to 2009. The counts showed that the ratio of occurrences – management to leadership – peaked at approximately twelve to one in the 1960s, but by the 2000s had fallen to approximately five to one.

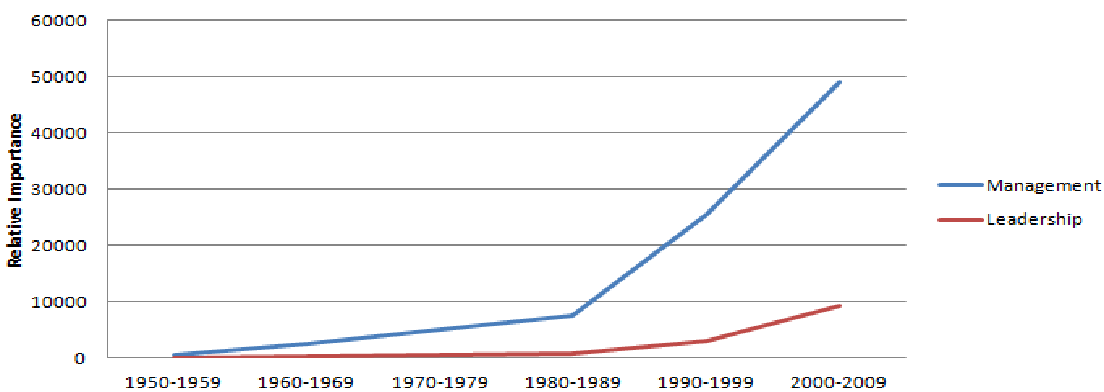


Figure 3. Inclusion of the words management and leadership in literature titles.

The literature from this period can be generally categorized according to whether (a) either leaders or managers were addressed while the other was excluded, (b) both were mentioned but no distinction was made between them, (c) leadership was viewed as top management, and (d) leadership and management are seen as separate and distinct. Based on the literature reviewed, there does not appear to be a strong trend toward any one of the categories.

Leader not addressed. The first category is reflective of the high level of attention to management previous to 1990. In "The Balanced Scorecard" (Kaplan & Norton, 1992), the authors delineated methods intended to help senior executives understand a company's measured performance parameters at a glance, and discussed how such measurement had an effect on managers and employees. Top managers would get a quick but comprehensive view of financial health. The researcher performed an electronic search in Kaplan and Norton (1992) for the words *manage* and *leader*. The search located the words manager or management 44 times, however the search for *leader* failed to find its use in the context of people – leaders or leadership. Hammond's *Thin Book of Appreciative Inquiry* (1998) used either *leader* or *leadership* three times, and not in the context that would differentiate it from a manager.

Lack of distinction between managers and leaders. Several pieces of literature mentioned both leadership and management, or managers and leaders, as though they were synonymous. This was indicated by interchangeable and alternating use. Fiedler (1996) defined leadership as the portion of management that involves the supervision of others, but otherwise used the terms interchangeably. No distinction was made according to hierarchical level. Eisenhardt, Kahwajy, and Bourgeois (1997) used the term *leaders who manage*. Goffee and Jones (2000) asserted that inspirational leaders manage employees, and observed that inspirational leaders were discussed in management literature. Charan (2001) said that leaders have direct reports, that the development of leadership demands managerial accountability, and in general appeared to use leader and manager terms interchangeably.

In *Change Through Persuasion*, Garvin and Roberto (2005) discussed the pitfalls of change and how it gets stopped or sub-optimally addressed in a routine-bound organization. Barriers to action were listed, including rampant cynicism, overemphasis on process, diversions, covert resistance and politics, indecisiveness, and a wait-it-out approach to avoiding engagement in initiatives. In discussing the barriers, Garvin and Roberto mentioned leaders but discussed their roles and actions in terms of management directives and management persuasion. Although Kouzes and Posner (2007) said "Leaders…don't like the status quo" (p. 168), they also said "If you're a manager in an organization, to your direct reports you are the most important leader in your organization" (p. 338).

According to Snowden and Boone (2007), the decision-making styles effective leaders used to match business environments called for a variety of managerial responses. In addressing resistance to change, Ford and Ford (2009) talked about management perception of resistance as a threat, but also said that leaders can blame the resistance when change efforts fail. Lorber and Savič (2011) addressed leadership style in terms of managerial competencies. Charan, Drotter, and Noel (2001) identified a focus on managerial-leadership, called out people in leadership positions as being managers, and talked about a process to help managers adopt their skills to appropriate leadership levels.

Leadership as top management. A third category distinguished leadership from management, but only in part, by saying or implying that leadership is a top management role. Collins and Porras (1996) coupled managers to identification of core ideology and development of vision statements, which according to other authors are the purview of leaders. According to Strebel (1996), top-level managers recognized the opportunities brought by change and strove to have employees buy into change. Strebel also saw CEOs as “seasoned professional managers” (p. 89), and Kim and Mauborgne (2003) identified a CEO as top management. Kim and Mauborgne also described how leader William Bratton overcame common management hurdles and forced change in several different police departments. In *Leadership That Gets Results*, Goleman (2000) referred to senior – i.e., top -- managers and leaders interchangeably, and talked about how affiliative leaders manage by building emotional bonds with employees.

In *Reengineering the Corporation*, Hammer and Champy (2003) called a leader a senior executive or senior business manager who motivates reengineering efforts, and drives changes to the status quo. Blanchard and Stoner (2004) identified top management within hierarchical leadership as being ultimately responsible for ensuring that vision and direction are well-shaped and communicated. Flamholtz and Randle (2007), in the context of transitioning an entrepreneurship to a managed firm, called leadership a “critical managerial function” (p. 272), discussed how managers have leadership styles, and regularly referred to leaders and managers within the same sentences and sections. Schaffer (2010) used the title “Four Mistakes Leaders Keep Making,” but within the text regularly referred to senior managers.

There are also authors that acknowledged the existence of the construct of leaders being synonymous with top management, without actually espousing that perspective. In *Principle-Centered Leadership*, although Covey (2003) differentiated leadership from management by saying that leadership addresses direction and vision while management addresses speed and structure, he also said "Management and leadership are not mutually exclusive…it might be said that leadership is the highest component of management" (p. 246). Senge (2006) said that the historical association of wisdom with leadership had been replaced in recent times by an association of leadership with positional authority, where it became synonymous with top management. Covey also discussed the potential for conflict when expectations about goals and roles are incongruent, with respect to relationships with others and within individual people.

Separate and distinct management and leadership. Whereas some authors didn't distinguish between managers and leaders, or identify leaders as top managers, other authors made a clear distinction between managers and leaders. In some cases the distinction was implied or treated as a given, in other cases it was explicitly addressed. Maccoby (2000) and Stanley (2006) offered that leadership is not a function but is instead a relationship, whereas management is a function. Similar perspectives are that managing is a way of doing, whereas leadership is a way of being (Maier, 2007), and leaders focus on purpose whereas managers focus on execution (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Stanley also suggested that the differences can lead to conflicting activities.

Zaleznik (1990) asserted that management and leadership are vastly different and are apt to be confused, as evidenced by the blurring of activities between structure and creativity, and on occasion using misguided principles. Bolman and Deal (2008) acknowledged disagreement about the meaning of leadership, suggesting that leaders are not always managers and managers are sometimes poor leaders. Zaleznik also said that the confusion between the two results in bad business outcomes, for instance the fomenting of politics when organizations are run by managers instead of leaders, including emphasis on form, structure, and power rather than substance and people. Cohn and Crim (1998) said that the distinctions between competent management and leadership are significant in terms of roles and purpose, that management and leadership are not synonymous. Buckingham (2005) and Gardner (1990) explicitly pointed out how many authors sought to distinguish managers from leaders, and Gardner said such an effort often makes both leaders and managers look absurd or relatively useless. Gardner cautioned about confusion between leadership and status or official authority, saying that a manager usually occupied a directive post. Gardner was careful to distinguish between leaders or leader/managers, and managers that are not leaders. Gardner's distinction is illustrated in Figure 4. Bolman and Deal said that one doesn't have to be a manager to be a leader. Kotter (2001) asserted that leadership and management are distinct and complementary, each having its own characteristic activities and functions, and that a balance between management and leadership is essential. Maccoby (2000) also identified the need for good managers and great leaders to nurture both functions and relationships.

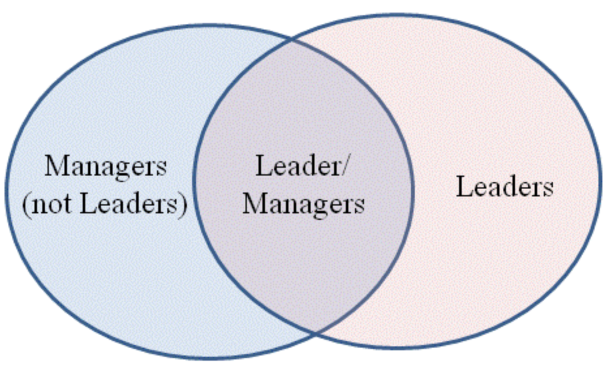


Figure 4. Leaders, leader/managers, managers who are not leaders.

Northouse (2010) called management and leadership different, but also identified similarities such as involvement with people and pursuit of goals. Although the constructs can overlap, implementation differs between the two -- management pursues stability and order, whereas leadership seeks healthy change (Northouse).

Bass and Avolio (1994) acknowledged that the distinction between leadership and management was sometimes identified in the literature, and sometimes not. In their view, managers focused on process whereas leaders enabled imagination and stimulation. George (2004) implied the differences, saying that a leader with diminished passion and engagement, and who challenges and criticizes less, is at risk of becoming a “plain vanilla manager” (p. 30). Peters (2009) alluded to the difference between managers and leaders but didn’t elaborate. Hannah, Woolfolk, and Lord (2009) illustrated that managers were organized and task-oriented whereas leaders were visionary and empowering.

Lack of trend in defining leadership and management. The above categories show that the past 20 years have presented a variety of definitions and uses for management and leadership. This elicits the question as to whether there are any hints of an evolutionary trend regarding changes to definitions and uses. Table 2, developed by the researcher, shows a time-phased view of the literature cited in the information revolution section regarding whether (a) either leaders or managers were addressed exclusive of the other, (b) no distinction was made between them, (c) leadership was viewed as top management, and (d) leadership and management are distinct. Table 2 shows an asterisk for each author or group of authors cited in the literature review for the 1990-2011 period, and indicates little if any discernible trending between 1990 and 2011, implying that the definition of the relationships between leadership and management have reached a plateau. Table C1 in Appendix C provides an account of the authors used as the basis for Table 2, which are the same authors cited in the above sections on the information revolution.

Table 2

Frequency of Leader/Manager Definitions 1990-2011

	Leaders Not Mentioned	No Distinction Between Leaders and Managers	Leaders are Top Managers	Leaders and Managers are Distinct
1990				***
1991			*	
1992	*			
1993				
1994				*
1995				
1996		*	**	
1997		*		
1998	*			*
1999				
2000		*	*	*
2001		*		
2002				
2003			**	
2004			*	*
2005		*		*
2006			*	*
2007		**	*	*
2008				*
2009		*		**
2010			*	*
2011		**		

One distinction that did surface in the literature from 1990-2011 was the recognition by some authors of the potential for conflict between leaders and managers. This includes Bolman and Deal (2008), Stanley (2006), and Zaleznik (1990). Therefore, the construct of conflict between the roles is not new. However, the authors only suggested conflict and did not go into detail. This study further explores the concept of conflict under the assumptions prevalent in the fourth category – that leaders and managers, and leadership and management, are separate and distinct.

Summary of the evolution. Historical accounts of leadership focused on the individuals, how their power was derived from personal fortitude and conviction, and how their successes were realized by guiding the energies of others. The industrial era brought in a level of complexity that transcended the control of individuals. The shortfall of individual control was resolved by development of mechanized processes that needed only instructions and efficient norms, brought forth repeatable behavior, and did not solely rely on the judgment of the individual for success. The mechanized approach had limitations, one of which was the relative reduction in value of the individual worker, which manifested in organized labor. Another limitation was an inherent inability to easily change methods and processes, coupled with institutionalized resistance carried out by the people that executed the methods and processes. The transition into the information age made inertia and resistance to change more apparent, and the power of mechanized processes came up against a key limitation. Attention started to migrate back to individuals and how their attitudes and perceptions could influence outcomes.

Leadership

> "An old story tells of three stonecutters who were asked what they were doing. The first replied, "I am making a living". The second kept on hammering while he said, "I am doing the best job of stonecutting in the entire country." The third one looked up with a visionary gleam in his eyes and said, "I am building a cathedral." The third man is, of course, the true manager. (Drucker, 2004, p. 297)

In essence, Drucker is calling a visionary a manager.

Leadership has been called out as being culture-bound and elusive (Ready, 1964). During the cold war era the literature was widely varying in theory and approach, and lacking in organization and common hypotheses (Hill, 1969). It was more like a "collection of concepts sharing the common theme" (Karmel, 1978, p. 476). Given the variability in definition and basis, the following sections will attempt to illuminate the concept and how it changed over time.

Trends in management leadership balance. Attention to the importance of leadership and management appears to have changed in the last 100 years. In the process of conducting research for this dissertation it was noticed that during the 20th century the academic attention to leadership appeared to have been eclipsed by that given to management, especially after 1950. Management books are ten times more populous on Amazon.com than books on leadership (Marker, 2010). Figure 3 showed that the number of publications on leadership and management increased significantly starting in the 1990s.

Leadership as management; management as leadership. As asserted previously, the amount of attention given to the concept of leadership was not as high as that given to management. This is further implied by examining the context of leadership discussions starting in the 1940s. Leadership was thought to be a distribution of decision making authority and power, i.e., an organizational function, focused on reaching objectives in the midst of both internal and external forces (Bavelas, 1960). The functional approach to leadership was dominant since World War II (Ready, 1964). Leadership authority was focused on control (David, 1949; Karmel, 1978; Meindl et al., 1985; Ready, 1964; Watson, 1983). Organizational leadership concerned uncertainty reduction (Bavelas, 1960; David, 1949).

Note how these renderings of *leadership* are similar to definitions of *management* found earlier in this dissertation: driven by the need to regulate and structure authority (Kotterman, 2006); "controlling things or people" (Management, n.d.b, para. 1); daily task-by-task oversight (Marker, 2010); and "the allocation of scarce resources against objectives, setting priorities, achieving results, controlling" (Weathersby, 1999, p. 5). Figure 5 shows a comparison of the definitions.

Leadership as leading. A recent survey showed that the four qualities admired most in the people considered to be leaders are that they are honest, forward-looking, inspire others, and are competent (Marker, 2010). Management is no longer sufficient given the increased rate of change catalyzed by improvements in technology. The world witnessed the great comeback of Japan after World War II (Drucker, 1963), and felt the impact of Japan's rising power in the 1980s when it captured larger and larger market shares through Deming-influenced *kaizen*, or quality control, and managed innovation. But this same degree of managed evolution became its undoing when Japan's entrenched corporate infrastructure got bogged down through bad leadership and scandals, and failed to make the necessary changes to prevent a further slide (Heine, 2008).

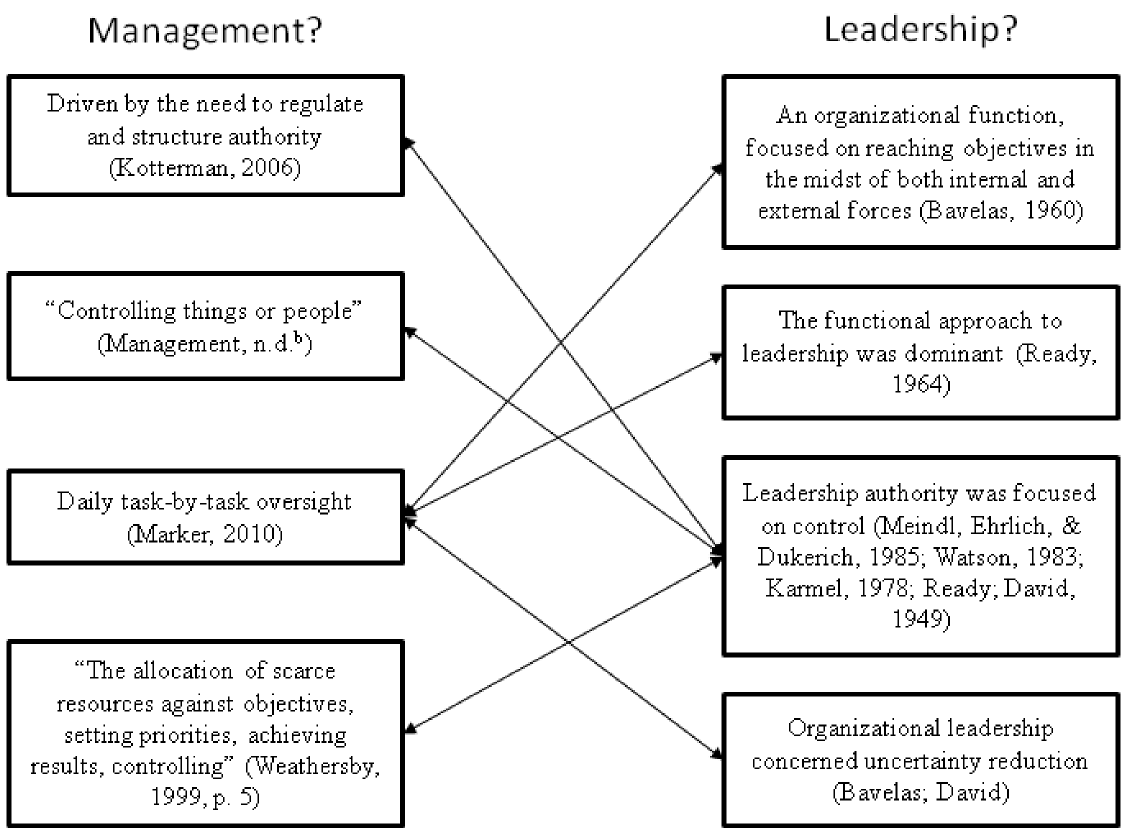


Figure 5. Comparison of definitions: Management and leadership.

Given the extraordinary increase in the rate of change in recent times – earth as a global village, full integration of computers and unabated passing of information (Pashiardis, 2009) – this potential conflict is further exacerbated. Previously controlled bureaucracies and regimes no longer have the upper hand, and stability is increasingly threatened. Examples of this are the increasing amount of unrest in China, where in 2003 there were 58,000 major incidents of unrest (Naím, 2005), the 2011 government overthrow in Tunisia powered by information passed through Facebook (Daragahi, 2011), and the relay of Libyan atrocities on video using thumb drives and CDs (Zucchino, 2011).

Management and control is no longer providing the clear advantages of organizational power over complexity. People can't be decomposed into discrete tasks

(Julius et al., 1999) as Ford did with automobile production (Womack et al., 1990). The focus is more on leaders, who turn control over to others rather than keep it for themselves (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Leaders and managers. What has surfaced as of 2012 is that between the subjects of leadership and management, leadership was predominant until the Industrial Revolution that started in the late 1800s, which was when Scientific Management and bureaucracy began to divide labor and drive organizational structure, and leadership diminished in relative visibility. Also during this time, the unions drove further definition and in some cases a higher degree of separation between executives and workers. In the 1950s, union representation of workers peaked at 35% (O'Farrell, 2009). Studies showed that low-skilled workers were relatively uninterested in their work and placed high emphasis on money (Argyris, 1959, 1960).

Although the term leadership began to be used more frequently as time progressed, it was roughly synonymous with management until around the middle of the 20th century. During that time the human relations movement increased in influence, manager-worker relations took on a less structured and more emotional tone, and leadership began to be associated with more people-oriented, non-logic facets of organizational discussions (Bavelas, 1960; Bowers & Seashore, 1966). Three basic skill sets were identified – human, technical, and conceptual – the relative weight of which varied according to position in a hierarchy (Katz, 1974). Additionally, the mix of the three was somewhat dependent on the level of stress in the situation (Argyris, 1960). The leadership pendulum started to swing to an almost unrealistic place, where leaders became heroes with extraordinary powers and superior traits (Bavelas, 1960) and romanticized definition (Meindl et al., 1985). The focus of the time was the set of personality traits of the manager and how they could identify high potential for executive positions (Katz, 1974). Witness the attributions of success to Lou Gerstner for the successes of IBM, as though he were the sole reason (Mintzberg, 2004).

At this point the boundary between management and leadership started to take definition. Even when there was a common task scope, management tended to shift decisions away from intangibles such as intuition and toward more rational calculations in a stable environment, whereas leadership utilized personal abilities and social skills to address uncertain and time-varying issues and circumstances (Bavelas, 1960). Conceptual skills became associated with senior levels, and technical supervisory skills became the domain of lower levels (Katz, 1974; Young & Dulewicz, 2008).

At all levels, however, complexity increased and made higher level managing difficult (Katz, 1974; Mintzberg, 1975). Yet, many of the methods used to manage and lead were relatively arcane. Increases in technological capability and information availability were eschewed by management in favor of the tried and true – verbal communication, primitive planning, judgment and intuition (Mintzberg, 1975). Into the early 90s there still had not been a significant shift in management methodologies and theories since the 1950s (Hammer, 1990; Lareau, 1991). Business processes were still oriented toward control of the workplace; creativity and innovation were hampered (Hammer, 1990).

Theoretical Framework for the Study: Hints of Conflict

"The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it." (Bennis, 1989a, p. 54).

The basis for conflict between leadership and management can be understood by looking at the evolution of the two during the 20th century, rather than as static constructs. The prima kernel is the advent of scientific management along with bureaucracy in the 1910s and 1920s, which established organizations to be relatively independent of the workers within (Fayol, 2011; Taylor, 2011). Between this and the unions further driving structure into the work environment, worker tasks became repetitive and predictable, and managing became a matter of efficiency and control (Drucker, 1963). Collective experiences from World War II further defined high production perspectives that drove yet more structure and hierarchy, especially for those returning from a successful war effort (Olson, 1947). Putting this trend in perspective, Stogdill (1967) asserted that despite the successes of structure with respect to meeting objectives, it was still biological beings that realized the outcomes. Similarly, Argyris (1959) asserted that actualization should be central to organizational theories related to human behavior – actualization of the human through the organization and the organization through humans.

Attention to humanist theories increased, at some points virtually ignoring the organization and instead focusing on the people and their interactions. Katz (1955) defined three basic skills necessary to a manager: human, technical, and conceptual. His later retrospective subdivided the human skill “into internal leadership and external interface & intergroup relations” (Katz, 1974, p. 101) and asserted that strength in one of those two subdivisions often meant that the other was weak. Katz characterized the parochial nature of department managers who focused on their own efficiencies and ignored those of other areas, thus garnering support from inside his ranks but antagonism outside (Katz, 1955). Stogdill (1975) defined two groups of theorists: the *environmentalists* that associated leadership with circumstances and group activities, and *personalists* that focused on leader traits and the subservience of his followers through persuasion and influence. The environmentalists concerned social and political movements, and propagated the concept that leadership was a function of groups, their problems, and processes. The personalists concerned business and the military, and pushed to the converse of the environmentalists – that groups were a function of and subservient to leadership.

Fiedler straddled the perspectives between the environmentalists and personalists by proposing a Contingency Model whose keys parameters were leadership situation and leader motivation (Fiedler, 1972). The Contingency Model identified two opposing leader personality orientations – to people and tasks ("Hawthorne revisited," 1975; Stogdill, 1975). Situations were defined in terms of group acceptance of the leader, degree of task structure, and leader leverage via position, while motivation was defined in terms of a leader's predisposition to see other workers positively or negatively. By considering the interactions of situations and relationships, the Contingency Model showed that when leaders were task motivated they fared the best in situations that were most or least favorable, whereas relationship-oriented leaders fared best in situations that were intermediate (Fiedler, 1972). Fiedler (1972) also addressed the fit between leader and follower (Toor & Ofori, 2008), characterized influence as a function of leader-member relations and position power, and task structure (Hill, 1969), and how fitting the man to the leadership job optimized perforce (Fiedler, 1965).

McGregor (2011) characterized organizations in terms of a human-centered Theory Y sort of culture versus command and control oriented Theory X culture. Argyris (1959) went as far as to say that organizations and individuals were not discrete or independent variables, and suggested that the use of the term *organization* had to encompass personalities, idiosyncrasies, interactions, and activities of individuals. Argyris (1970) talked about reductions in the formal powers of the superior, stating that "competence is more important than power, and collaboration and interdependence are more important than competition" (p. 40). Pfeffer (1977) saw the leader as part actor.

Other constructs started to recognize the separation of tasks and people through empirical means (Karmel, 1978), to study traits (Bavelas, 1960), and worker attitudes (Argyris, 1959). Empirical studies considered the relationships between leaders or managers and their subordinates (Kotterman, 2006). Fiedler classified work groups into those with interacting, coacting, and counteracting tasks (Hill, 1969).

Thus there are two basic camps: a rational camp that emphasizes structure and control of an entity called an organization that performs tasks, and a humanistic camp that emphasizes the emotions and variability of humans that accomplish objectives. Not invariably, but trend-wise, these two camps appear to associate respectively with the terms *management* and *leadership*. Table 3 lists a few characteristics of the two constructs and their sources.

Table 3

Characteristics of Management and Leadership

Management	Leadership	Source
Aligning people	Organizing and staffing	Young and Dulewicz, 2008
Motivating	Controlling	Young and Dulewicz
Communicating the vision	Maintaining the structure	Kotterman, 2006
Satisfying human needs	Solving problems	Kotterman
Creating teams	Directing groups	Boomer, 2005
Tolerating chaos	Embracing process	Zaleznik, 1977
Attention to daily tasks	Looking to the future	Cohn and Crim, 1998

Pertinent Leadership Theories

Extending this further into the realm of possible conflict, we look at definitions for management and leadership that are potentially contradictory. For instance, Zaleznik (1977) asserts that managers prefer process, control, stability, and quick problem solving, while leaders are tolerant of chaos and insufficient structure, and are more prone to take time to fully understand the significance of issues. Kotterman (2006) backs that up, stating that leadership is about driving change, and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo. Kouzes and Posner (2007) assert that “Leaders… don’t like the status quo” (p. 168). Bennis (1961) says that leadership addresses the balance between needs of the individual and the needs of the organization, that the needs of the two are basically incompatible, and that conflict between them is inevitable. McIntyre (1999) goes as far as to say that the term *management team* is an oxymoron when the group of managers is particularly dysfunctional, or lacking in cooperation and coordination.

This view is not universal. Gokenbach (2003) asserts that although leadership and management are distinct, they are complementary. Boomer (2005) thinks that successful organizations need both leaders and managers. However, with respect to the balance between the two, a strong bias toward management and away from leadership can lead to stifling and bureaucratic outcomes, whereas a strong bias toward leadership and away from management can result in directionless change and meaningless outcomes (Northouse, 2010).

Revisiting the Kotterman (2006) table from Chapter One, having surveyed the early history of leadership and management, it should now be more evident that management is oriented mostly toward things: plans, budgets, complexity, processes, staffs, employees, and results, while leadership is oriented toward human factors: vision, passion, change, organization, teams, emotions, employees, and humans. Different facets of this view were shared by Bass and Avolio (1994), Kotter (2001), Maccoby (2000), and Northouse (2010). Table 4 pairs certain management and leadership facets from Kotterman's table in the first two columns, and in the third column the researcher posits potential conflicts, to provide further context.

To summarize: up through the period researched, management satisfies the rational camp regarding organizations with plans and budgets, stability of processes, employee efficiency, and the results of the present. Leadership satisfies the humanistic camp regarding organizations of individuals and teams, emotions, vision and passions about new ways of thinking and doing, breakthroughs, and the future.

Table 4

Potential for Conflict between Management and Leadership

Management	Leadership	Potential for Conflict
Develops process steps and sets timelines	Promotes useful and dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labor relations	Process development requires that a certain amount of stability exist so that developers can systematically address and codify the details, and train the affected stakeholders. If processes were to be destabilized, at a minimum many steps would have to be revisited and either revised or deleted. Additional process steps may also be necessary. This necessitates not only reviewing the steps themselves, but their integration at the detail level. A worst-case outcome would be the total collapse of the process understanding and infrastructure. Thus, the leadership objective of dramatic change would run counter to the management objective to develop and deploy efficient processes.
Maintains structure	Sets the direction and develops the vision	Direction-setting implies that the current structures – organizational, operational – may need to change. This puts management at risk of losing gains in efficiency during ensuing transitions, and possibly in the long term in the event that new directions suboptimize management structure. A change to organizational vision implies that goals, objectives, and strategies may change. If this were to occur it would have a direct impact on the tactics developed and used by management.

(continued)

Management	Leadership	Potential for Conflict
Displays low emotion	Displays driven, high emotion; motivates and inspires	Leaders display high emotion and drive to motivate those being led. Management exhibits of low emotion give the appearance of not getting with the plan. This is an example of potential leader-follower dysfunction, and concerns the human relations aspect of the work environment.
Limits employee choices	Increases choices	This combination may be a direct conflict, depending on the context. If the leader increases employee choices, for example by declaring new operational protocols such as skip-level communications to improve the upward flow of information, management control of the work environment may be at risk of unraveling.
Controls Processes	Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change	The focus in this combination is *control* versus *change*. Unless change occurs in a controlled fashion by way of management/leadership coordination, stakeholders may be expending energy and resources to go in opposite directions. Additionally, the existence of detailed developed processes by itself represents a barrier, given the requirement for stability mentioned above.
Takes low-risk approach to problem solving	Takes high-risk approach to problem solving	If management and leadership are trying to solve the same problems, this may bring about an automatic conflict between the two.

(continued)

Management	Leadership	Potential for Conflict
Delegates authority	Influences creation of coalitions, teams, and partnerships that understand and accept the vision	Influencing the creation of teams and processes implies that there is some choice in the matter. By definition, authority of one entity constrains the choices of another. Inviting choice in organizational matters may increase risk to the authority component of management control.
Monitors results	Satisfies basic human needs	This combination directly contrasts the methodologies of Scientific Management and bureaucracy with some of the objectives of the human relations movement. Examples from this chapter are where rational decision-making is used to address the problems of non-logical humans in organizations; where elaborate systems exist for controlling work and disciplining workers; where management specifies tasks, with little flexibility to change or make process improvements.

Note. Columns 1 and 2 regarding Management and Leadership are adapted with permission from "Leadership versus Management: What's the Difference?" 2006, by J. Kotterman, *Journal for Quality & Participation, 29*(2), 13-17. Copyright 2006 by the American Society for Quality. Reprinted with permission from *Journal for Quality and Participation* ©2006 American Society for Quality. No further distribution allowed without permission.

The Contexts for Leadership and Management

This dissertation has addressed the evolution from leadership, to management, and back to the concurrency of both, up through 2012. Whereas management was once an asset to leadership, it has now become a potential constraint. Management brought a way to organize and control complexity in ways that leadership could not, but at some point the purpose of management also became counter to that of leadership.

The increasing rates of change in the world have transcended the ability of management to keep up. Increasing uncertainty and complexity is not as much about strategy and structure as it is about people and how they address change, and how their leaders are perceived in that context (Karp & Helgø, 2008). Leadership tomes are reaching back into earlier leadership philosophies to re-learn the arts of Aristotle and Sun Tzu, and getting away from the mechanistic management approaches of the Taylors and Fayols of the world – back into a more human-oriented approach. The period between the 1980s and 2012 saw an extension of leadership and management definitions, although there doesn't seem to have been an increase in clarity (Kotterman, 2006; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Young & Dulewicz, 2008). The struggle between leadership and management doesn't appear to have abated, either. There is still a tendency to apply mechanistic tools and approaches to human issues and interactions (Karp & Helgø, 2008).

Yet, although the characteristics and behaviors of leadership and management are not fully understood nor effectively coordinated, their utility still applies, and the literature is still updating relevant data to increase understanding. Effective use of internal and external people skills is still valued (Heine, 2008). Machiavellian approaches are still used (Kessler et al., 2010). Leaders still underestimate complexity (Heine, 2008; Karp & Helgø, 2008; Pashiardis, 2009). Leadership competencies are still being defined (Young & Dulewicz, 2008). What is common to leadership and management characteristics is that they address the interactions of people, and the differences in perspective that are inherent to the interactions. This includes differentiation between *relational conflicts* and *value conflicts* (Acar, 2002; Beck, 2010), the *role conflicts* driven by contradictions in methodologies used to reach common goals (Morgan, 2006), and the constructive outcomes possible by nurturing the right conflicts (Beck, 2010; Nickerson, 2009). This implies that the current state of leadership and management is a continuation of previous states, though undoubtedly more detailed. Assuming this is indeed the case, it is reasonable to also assume that the same hints of conflict between leadership and management exist, and it is possible that the characteristics of leadership and management that are in conflict have been given improved definition with higher levels of visibility. The effort to find these details and to propagate the plausibility of conflict between leadership and management is what was proposed for the research part of the dissertation.

Summary

Chapter Two reviewed the potential convergence and divergence of the definitions of leadership and management, leaders and managers, and provided brief examples of characteristics for leaders and managers. The question of conflict between leadership and management was raised. This was followed by a detailed accounting of the origins of leadership, starting from ancient times, and a detailed historical account of the origins of management starting with the onset of the industrial revolution. The growth of Scientific Management and bureaucracy was discussed in terms of how together they rationally drove structure into the workplace, and how structure morphed into stratified layers of workers, supervision, management, and executives. Unions and their role in further driving stratification and structure were discussed, as was the role of the World War II in terms of reinforcing prevalent production processes and values.

The beginnings of the human relations movement were conjectured by examining the Hawthorne Experiments, which elicited increased attention to worker perception and worker participation in workplace decisions. The chapter addressed the effects of workplace structure on humans, and articulated how human behavior in an organizational context formed the basis for organizational behavior. Several nascent models of human relations were explored with respect to leadership and management, including examples of empirical studies that characterized how people in organizations interacted with each other and with the organizations as a whole.

Commonalities between the tenets of scientific management and human relations were considered in the context of the increasing stagnation in management methods and burgeoning influences in leadership modeling. Deficiencies in the understanding of both leadership and management led to a revisit of the concepts, and the concurrency and possible overlap of leadership and management was introduced. Potential conflict between leadership and management, in the context of concurrency and potential overlap of objectives, was suggested by way of assertions by predominant theorists of the late 20th century to the point that wholesale contradiction became plausible.

The state of understanding of leadership and management in the late 20th century briefly touched on the originating tenets of each, thus re-illuminating the original purposes for leadership and management. The chapter revisited a few threads of management and leadership that existed up until the early 1990s, suggesting that understanding them is an ongoing process. The chapter finished by examining the proliferation of management and leadership information during the information revolution while showing that the distinction between management and leadership did not become significantly clearer.

Having set the stage in Chapter Two for examination of theoretical conflict between management and leadership and characterized the state of definitions for leadership and management up until 2012, Chapter Three describes the methodology that is used to validate the potential for conflict in the context of leadership and management processes. The findings from the literature is used as a starting point for querying experts in the application realms of management and leadership as to whether the potential for conflict exists, and to get a general sense for how the conflict is likely to manifest.

Chapter Three: Research Methods

Chapter Two demonstrated use of inductive data analysis based on select information from the literature about leadership and management objectives and behaviors, and developed tentative characteristics of conflict between the objectives. Chapter Two reviewed the potential convergence and divergence of the definitions of leadership and management, leaders and managers, and provided brief examples of characteristics for leaders and managers. The question of conflict between leadership and management was raised. This was followed by a detailed accounting of the origins of leadership, starting from ancient times, and a detailed historical account of the origins of management starting with the onset of the industrial revolution.

The beginnings of the human relations movement were examined, including the effects of workplace structure on humans. Chapter Two articulated how human behavior in an organizational context formed the basis for organizational behavior. Nascent models of human relations were explored with respect to leadership and management, including examples of empirical studies that characterized how people in organizations interacted with each other and with the organizations as a whole.

Commonalities between the tenets of scientific management and human relations were considered. Deficiencies in the understanding of both leadership and management led to a re-examination of the concepts, and the concurrency and possible overlap of leadership and management was introduced. Potential conflict between leadership and management, in the context of concurrency and potential overlap of objectives, was suggested by way of assertions by predominant theorists of the late 20th and early 21st centuries.

Chapter Three addresses the use of Delphi study methods for the purpose of further defining the concept of conflict between management objectives and leadership objectives. The Delphi purpose and variations in methodology are discussed in general terms, and with respect to the study in this dissertation. Participation by experts is described in terms of selection criteria, assurance of human safety, and purposive sampling. Specific application of the Delphi methodology is described in terms of validity and reliability, data sampling via surveys, analysis, and reporting. The logistics of data collection, storage, access, and security are discussed. Fundamental analysis types are discussed. Chapter Three finishes with a delineation of three key perspectives that are utilized to improve the understanding of conflict of objectives, and addresses a set of questions to be provided to the experts in the first iteration of the study in the context of the key characteristics.

Restatement of Research Questions

This research centers on management objectives and leadership objectives. Assuming that leadership objectives and management objectives are potentially countervailing and may lead to conflict, it would be helpful to know how conflict manifests. There may be definable attributes that help illustrate the components of objective-driven conflict, and enable execution of root cause analysis used in troubleshooting organizational problems. The following questions are pursued:

- Do countervailing objectives potentially lead to conflict?
- What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives?

- What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives?

Should the answers to these questions indeed point to intrinsic conflict between leadership and management, there may be a way in subsequent studies to define an evaluation methodology for troubleshooting leadership and management issues specific to a given institution. While the evaluation of and solutions for problems related to such conflict are important, the modus operandi of this study was to elicit conversations that brought improved definition of the conflict, not solve the problem.

Rationale for Choosing the Delphi Methodology

This study concerns a subject for which there are many erudite observations and assertions in the literature, but which does not appear to have a significant body of knowledge that explicitly bears out the observations and assertions with respect to leadership and management. The availability of data on the subject is low and as of this writing does not specifically focus on the subject of conflict between leadership objectives and management objectives. Although there are related qualitative studies that touch upon the subject, the researcher was not able to find studies that directly addressed the conflict. Using a rigid scientific approach would fall short in addressing the problem of conflict based on objectives, since the phenomenon is not well-understood and therefore clear, concise criteria for research or measurement would be hard to develop.

For the purpose of narrowing down a methodology, the researcher reviewed the characteristics of a qualitative study from Creswell (2007) and on the basis of the findings assumed that the study would be qualitative in part or in whole. This path was buffeted by a key assertion from Creswell: that voids in literature may be filled by a qualitative study; qualitative studies may spawn new ideas about how to think about the problem; qualitative studies are useful for assessing issues concerning understudied subjects. Although managers and leaders, and management and leadership have been extensively studied, the review of the literature up until this point appears to have shown voids where conflict between their objectives is concerned. In general, conflict in the leader/manager context does not appear to have been extensively studied. This study was intended to explore the leader/manager conflict realm. A qualitative approach was expected to be useful and effective, and should yield valuable insights in regard to leader/manager conflict.

Pertinent qualitative study characteristics from Creswell (2007) are that qualitative research “begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 37). This dissertation started with the assumption that management is about keeping the status quo, while leadership is about driving change. Several authors – i.e., Bennis (1989a), Julius et al. (1999), Kotter (1990), and Kotterman (2006) – suggested a theoretical construct along the lines of the assumption. Histories of leadership and management were used in Chapter Two as a theoretical lens to develop a broad view of their common and exclusive characteristics. The human problem addressed in the study concerns interactions between people in the roles of manager and leader.

To help narrow down the options for the study, five potential qualitative approaches suggested by Creswell (2007) were considered and four were eliminated. The five approaches were: narrative, phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study. For each approach, a template sentence was used to develop the purpose statement, which then led to development of relevant research questions and sub-questions. Appendix D provides the template sentence and the results of developing the five approaches. Narrative and phenomenology were deemed unlikely to render the data desired. The single observed subject for a narrative study would not necessarily be representative of the large body of managers and leaders, therefore generalization to a larger number of people in the manager and leader roles would be difficult. Phenomenological study would focus on the experience of the conflict without necessarily getting to the root cause. Ethnography was not considered a candidate, as by its nature it focuses on a subset of the population with unique characteristics, and the intent of this study was to develop a construct that is conducive to generalization, i.e., would be non-specific to a unique population.

Of the five candidate approaches, case study and grounded theory were considered to be the most conducive to studying conflict of objectives in the context of this study. Case study would be helpful to describe the differences in actions taken by managers and leaders in the midst of specific, bounded first-level change. However, while having potential, case study touches upon the *actions* of observed people, however the purpose of the study was to better understand factors that may aid determination of root cause for conflict between managers and leaders. Case study can imply root cause, but determining explicit causality from findings may be difficult, and extrapolation to a wider audience would suffer. By elimination, out of the five qualitative methods studied, grounded theory was left.

Grounded theory was useful in developing the construct of conflicting objectives – such a construct was found in the literature search to exist in assertions and observations, but needed more substantive data to show legitimacy as a de facto construct. The previous chapters in this dissertation illustrate a loose framework for articulating the construct of conflict between management objectives and leadership objectives. Chapter One posed several questions with respect to legitimizing the concept of conflict between leadership and management objectives. The plausibility needs to be demonstrated – is there really a conflict? If there is, how does it manifest? Is there a way to differentiate between people-driven and objective-driven conflict? What are the components of objective-driven conflict? A grounded theory approach had considerable potential for addressing these questions, as it can be used to identify emergent behaviors and causes based on data collected from the field. The drawbacks are that (a) data collection can be time consuming and may not provide answers to the questions being posed, (b) direct interaction with interviewees would negate anonymity and possibly bias the interpretation of the ideas of individual people, (c) perceived interviewer bias may color the responses from individual interviewees, and (d) a grounded theory approach may be too rigid. It was deemed necessary to develop an approach that guided the subject of data received without undue biasing, and remained flexible enough for the data to inform the direction taken.

A general approach was chosen, somewhat akin to a grounded theory approach, of using a document base coupled with survey data in a single study. Survey responses were used to corroborate assertions and observations found in the literature. The general sequence, depicted in Figure 6, would be to perform the document research, develop potential findings, collect field data via surveys as guided by the potential findings, and use the results of data analysis to narrow the scope to a concise theory.

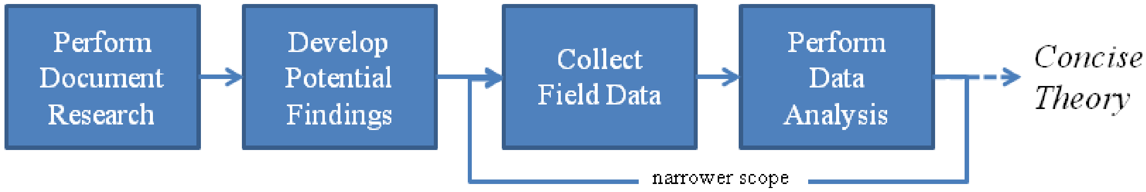


Figure 6. General sequence for research.

Assuming the approach was successful, the theory would then be ready for testing via surveys or by other means, in separate studies. Such an approach (a) helps get at the heart of findings in the literature, either to reinforce clear ones, clarify unclear ones, or refute any and all; (b) helps the interviewees understand what is being researched; and (c) qualitatively identifies any correlations between how interviewees define certain aspects of the construct and how they respond in the interviews. A Delphi study approach was chosen to manifest these characteristics. A hybrid interview-based and online survey-based Delphi study was expected to provide circumvention of the drawbacks listed above: (a) interviews conducted during the first iteration using a small set of experts should help to limit time consumption, while enabling the researcher to keep the line of discussion focused; (b) online data and idea exchange should provide ready access, and the iterative Delphi approach, if done correctly, was likely to accommodate the need to keep the discussion focused on the desired subject (Vernon, 2009); (c) the methodology enables anonymity among experts, which reduces bias toward ideas on the basis of who offers them (Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007; Vernon, 2009); (d) adherence to a scripted interview protocol during semi-structured interviews in the first iteration guides discussions, obviating some fraction of potential interviewer bias. Semi-structured interviews consist of the scripted questions specific to the study coupled with questions used to seek clarification of the responses (Plinske, 2008); and (e) Delphi is flexible (Skulmoski et al., 2007).

Overview of Delphi study methodology. Linstone and Turoff (2002) call Delphi a “participatory democracy” (p. 488). Delphi research employs a relativist approach whereby subjective interaction amongst a group of anonymous experts is iterated to develop specific concepts based on realities perceived by the experts (Amos & Pearse, 2008). Delphi is used to reach consensus via a structured approach (Vernon, 2009). Anonymity enhances the environment for open expression of opinions (Linstone & Turoff, 2002), and drives exchanges based on the merit of ideas rather than their sources (Skulmoski et al., 2007; Vernon, 2009). The ideas are examined using dialectic methods for the purpose of exploring differences of opinion rather than finding some sort of singular truth (Vernon, 2009). The method is particularly useful for increasing the understanding of problems and opportunities (Skulmoski et al., 2007), and is powerful for addressing complexity (Linstone & Turoff, 2002). Each iteration consists of questions that build on the results of previous iterations. The iterative process continues until consensus is reached on the subject or relevant theories are saturated (Skulmoski et al., 2007), or a pre-defined number of iterations are conducted.

Linstone and Turoff (2002) identify four phases for Delphi:

- Exploration, where each experts contributes their views on the problem;
- Reaching an understanding, where the group of experts collectively discuss how the issue is perceived;

- Disagreement, where the reasons for differences of opinion are clarified, and possibly evaluated; and
- Final evaluation, where the analysis of gathered data is fed back to the experts to consider. (pp. 5-6)

Discussion was not fully active in real time, since there was an analysis period prior to providing findings to the experts. The identities of the experts were unknown to each other. Researcher analysis was executed separately and in serial sequence with expert responses that were collected over a bounded period of time during each iteration.

Appropriateness of the Delphi method for this study. The qualities of the above approach were enhanced by an efficient iterative method conducive to rapid analysis and interaction with interviewees. The Delphi method is an iterative method that enables the convergence of variations in perspective, provided that the starting point of the concept being explored is sufficiently defined relative to the end point (Amos & Pearse, 2008). Each iteration results in more specificity than preceding iterations (Bryan, 2009). Delphi works well when the goal is to develop a better understanding of problems. It provides opportunities for participants to modify their perspectives on the basis of analysis results fed back to them during the iterative process (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Interactions between members of the group of experts help them to expand their knowledge about a specific problem (Bryan, 2009). It uses a dialectic method to drive understanding and resolve differences in opinion between participants so that some sort of truth can be defined. Some or all of it can be executed via computer and Internet, which helps to overcome the limitations of geographical access. It can also be of benefit to the participants, since they receive feedback as part of the iterative data collection process (Vernon, 2009). Reciprocity in the form of giving back to participants for their efforts and time spent is important (Creswell, 2007).

The Delphi approach also provides several options for execution, depending on the type of subject matter, the choice of experts selected as participants, and the degree to which the study converges or diverges (Amos & Pearse, 2008; Skulmoski et al., 2007; Vernon, 2009). Since the subject of conflict of leadership and management objectives was only loosely defined, having options for execution allowed for more rapid definition of norms of practice in the context of the emergent theoretical construct.

Pros and cons of using Delphi. The Delphi method is deployed in a variety of ways to many different subject types and issues (Amos & Pearse, 2008; Skulmoski et al., 2007; Vernon, 2009). It is not a one-size-fits-all approach, and does not necessarily lead to the *right* answers (Vernon, 2009). There is a wide array of options when using the method, and there are pros and cons that are fairly common to Delphi variants, as delineated below.

Skulmoski et al. (2007) espouse benefits of the Delphi method that include indirect interactions of the participants over the iterative cycle, and conduciveness to adjusting the study to the problem rather than the problem to the study (Amos & Pearse, 2008). Flexibility includes adjustment of the number of experts to the availability and appropriateness of potential participants (Vernon, 2009). Baker et al. (2006) point out that the success of the method is not solely dependent on the group of participants reaching consensus, rather it takes on additional value by illuminating lack of consensus. When that happens, identified differences tend to be informative (Vernon, 2009). Delphi is a bounded process that stops when the participants reach consensus, the theory is sufficiently substantive, or when information exchange reaches a point of diminishing returns. Both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used, depending on the needs of the study (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Linstone and Turoff (2002) assert that Delphi is effective in addressing complex problems through people with diverse backgrounds.

If finding a *right* answer to a problem is a criterion for completing a study, Delphi may not be a good choice (Vernon, 2009). Other key drawbacks include the dependency of the findings on the specific participants and researcher, the combination of which may significantly bias the outcome. The researcher alone can bias the outcome by making the chosen process too rigid, or by over-limiting the discourse and possibly missing important but seemingly ancillary aspects (Linstone & Turoff, 2002).

Risks to consider. Much of the literature (Amos & Pearse, 2008; Linstone & Turoff, 2002; Skulmoski et al., 2007; Vernon, 2009) addresses the selection of experts as participants. Lincoln and Guba (1979) assert that an assemblage of experts can assess an entity's level of merit. Although the use of experts is a cornerstone of the Delphi, the definition of *expert* is wide-ranging. Exclusion criteria must be carefully considered, including conflict of interest and familiarity with the researcher. More nebulous concerns include the boundaries between common practitioner and subject matter expert with professional qualifications, and how the inclusion of either or both serves to inform the discourse (Baker et al., 2006). Inclusion criteria will be addressed later in this chapter.

There is also a trade regarding sample sizes, in that larger samples are more likely to provide statistically significant answers, yet too large of a sample size can drive the study away from the concept and purpose of the Delphi, toward a probabilistic analysis rather than a meaningful discussion (Linstone & Turoff, 2002). A single researcher means that significant bias can be introduced into the study, whether knowingly or unknowingly (Vernon, 2009). An example of a known bias is the conscious avoidance of disagreements by the researcher, until one or more conflicting parties exits the study, which can result in artificial consensus (Linstone & Turoff, 2002).

The risks of using a Delphi, in addition to the potential lack of closure identified above, appear to be somewhat dependent on the researcher successfully tailoring the method to optimize its match to the problem. Subjective interaction of the participants and researcher can be either bad or good. This includes determination to focus on consensus when lack thereof can be significantly informative. Since the Delphi method is highly tailorable, validity is also of concern (Vernon, 2009). Using poor techniques for summarizing responses and presenting them back to participants is a common pitfall (Linstone & Turoff, 2002), and the allowed variation in approach may mask deficiencies in technique.

A risk that is nonspecific to Delphi is the quality of communications. In this study, written and electronic correspondence was used for data collection following conclusion of the first iteration. Mehrabian (1981) points out the partitioning of human communication channels into verbal, vocal, and facial. Regardless of whether one subscribes to the percentage distribution of the three aspects offered by Mehrabian, it is evident that intonation and velocity of speech, and body language, are absent from written communication. Differences in language and logic due to cultural diversity are also potential sources of failure (Linstone & Turoff, 2002).

Delphi Methodology

Linstone and Turoff (2002) describe the Delphi methodology as “more of an art than a science” (p. 3). The following subsections start with a general description of Delphi and gradually eliminate common variations until the specific application in this dissertation is visible.

Type of Delphi study. Skulmoski et al. (2007) describe a classical Delphi study as having anonymity for participants, discourse based on the merit of ideas rather than the status of those who offer them, an iterative approach that enables dynamic modification of the ideas and perspectives of the discourse, controlled feedback that informs participants of the perspectives of others, yet can still have a quantitative component that enhances interpretation and analysis of data by the researcher. Bryan (2009) states that Delphi is a way to reach consensus between experts. Amos and Pearse (2008) identify three basic types of Delphi method: numeric, historic, and policy. A numeric Delphi study is statistical in nature, which does not necessarily aid in developing a qualitative construct. A historic Delphi study explores a variety of issues that may have led to a specific event, or conjecture as to relevant alternative outcomes of the event. This dissertation concerns a potential construct that is nonspecific to events, and has already to some degree explored the historical perspectives that may have influenced the current state, therefore a historic Delphi was not chosen.

What is left of the three basic types was a policy Delphi study, which does not aim for a specific truth, but instead explores alternative views, and their related circumstances and assumptions, to improve understanding of a phenomenon (Amos & Pearse, 2008). Although the literature search revealed several assertions and observations regarding conflicts between leadership objectives and management objectives, consistent circumstances and context for the conflicts were not evident. Using a policy Delphi study relieves pressure to define circumstances and context prior to understanding the phenomenon, which enables a shorter path to discussing the plausibility of such a conflict, its manifestation, its relation to other types of conflict, and components that are common regardless of specific circumstances and context. The results may provide useful context for future studies that use large sample sizes (Bryan, 2009). The framework for a policy Delphi study is used for this dissertation.

Features specific to this study. It is important not to overlook the value of disagreement between participants with respect to the subject being considered (Linstone & Turoff, 2002; Vernon, 2009). Given that the central phenomenon of this study was conflict, disagreement between participants may be especially pertinent in that their perspectives as either managers or leaders may lead to better definition of differing paradigms and direct evidence of root cause. This implies that disagreement can be as powerful as agreement for determining perceived realities, and as such had prominence in the focus of analysis and discourse for this study.

Baker et al. (2006) and Vernon (2009) suggest that heterogeneity in the group of experts leads to better results, although Skulmoski et al. (2007) point out that such an approach is also susceptible to difficulty in data collection and consensus building, and verification of analytical results. These risks were acknowledged and accepted by the researcher. Emphasis was put on the diversity of the experts that participated so that the aggregate group of participants was heterogeneous. This emphasis did not constrain the choice of sources for finding experts.

Finding a *right* answer was de-emphasized so as to encourage discourse rather than conclusion. Participants eager to provide right answers are actually threats to construct validity (Ferguson, 2004). Since this study was expected to render a new perspective on objective-driven conflict, it was important that all pertinent answers be considered. The data guided the direction of the study to the extent feasible.

Attention was given to nomenclature in the analysis part of the iterations, since the characteristics of management and leadership are variable and the perception of those characteristics is likely subjective at the lay level. Such attention aided in making the information exchanges more efficient, and brought a taxonomy related to conflict of objectives to the fore.

Structured methods, similar to those used with the grounded theory approach, were used in Delphi analysis. Systematic steps were taken to assess the roles of leaders and managers, the objectives related to those roles, and the tasks associated with the objectives. Categories that define conflict were developed; these emergent categories were actively updated using a constant comparative method. Open coding was used to define major categories, and several core phenomena were selected for specific focus. The core phenomena were further decomposed to explore causal relationships, actions, situational factors, and outcomes. Selective coding was used to develop hypotheses that can be aggregated to illustrate the characteristics of the conflict of objectives. The section in this dissertation on *Data Analysis Methodology* provides more details.

The focus of this study. This study concerned organizational conflict as reflected in misalignment of objectives between individuals and between groups, as driven by differences in perspective between leadership and management. The roles of leaders and managers were aligned with perspectives that manifest in objectives. The purposes and manifestations of manager and leader objectives were highlighted to suggest causality for conflict between managers and leaders. The nature of conflict can, in general, be either positive or negative, and it was expected that the findings of the study will help to define what makes manager/leader conflict positive or negative.

Theories explored. Table 1 lists differences between management and leadership processes according to Kotterman (2006), and Table 4 explores the differences in Table 1 in terms of potential conflict. Toor and Ofori (2008) associate management with authority and leadership with influence. Kotter (1990) says that leadership is about change and management is about getting complexity under control. Bennis (1989a) posits that “The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it” (p. 54).

While these are not theories per se, their authors include highly respected industry icons in addition to academics. The variations between authors are reasonably low such that the aggregation of ideas suggested a loose frame for a construct that differentiates leadership from management. Indeed, further definition of that construct and corroboration of the authors’ offerings was part of the motivation for conducting the proposed study. The use of conflict was intended to be a differentiating mechanism which can enable more focused discussions on the differences between leadership and management.

Study Participants

Delphi study participants are referred to as *experts* (Lincoln & Guba, 1979), which were defined for the purpose of this study as practitioners of leadership and or management. The term practitioner was intended to mean those who have performed in manager or leader roles but have not extensively studied the art of management and or leadership. Persons with professional specialization in the organizational behavior or organizational change fields, i.e., with extensive academic training or organizational management/leadership development experience, were excluded from the study so that discussions were not steered toward implied expert opinion and away from practitioner perspectives. Efforts were made to obtain a heterogeneous group of practitioners in terms of industry and discipline. Specific criteria for selection are listed in the section *Criteria for Panel Membership*.

Accessing participants. Participants were initially solicited and engaged in the Delphi process online, via the Internet. Distribution of solicitations utilized e-mailing lists from relevant organizations, with permission, and via bcc: distribution provided by the organizations. Interested participants contacted the researcher and disclosed their contact information for the purposes of establishing informed consent, and so that further background and instructions for the study could be issued. For the purposes of dialog, participant identities were coded by the survey software so that associating a response with a particular expert during analysis was not likely. The exception was when textual responses contained identifying information specific to the expert.

Process for selection of data sources. Panel members were sought online by accessing sources that were likely to (a) provide the requisite number of qualified candidates, and (b) have a mix of backgrounds and experience levels such that homogeneity can be obtained. An example source for solicitation is MBA students, who are likely to be feasible candidates due to meeting the entrance criteria for graduate business schools, likely to have experience in places where management and leadership are integral to daily activities, and are likely to be diverse in terms of background and employers. The researcher was similarly solicited for survey-taking several times via email when pursuing his MBA.

Other potential sources are corporations with organizations that require leadership and or management to competitively operate, and the military. The data collection site was independent of these and other sources; therefore a combination of sources was feasible. The researcher sought out points of contact for candidate sources and engaged them for the purposes of reaching potential participants.

Potential experts were asked to participate by notifying them of the study and providing sufficient details such that they could grasp the nature of the research. The details included the relevance and importance of participating, the purpose of the study, a statement regarding confidentiality, information about the researcher and the degree program at the institution, and a general schedule. Appendix E provides candidate text for use in engaging potential experts for the study. Respondents to the initial query were then solicited regarding their willingness and availability, based on the information provided.

Securing human safety. Data for this study was collected both person-to-person and online, and organized such that anonymity with respect to survey answers was maintained, so that risk to any one respondent was minimized. Certain demographic-related questions were included in the survey, such as years past graduation, and how long ago they acted in a management or leadership role (ranging from never up to present, in discrete ranges). Personal identifying information – name, company, select demographic information – was not requested as part of the actual survey. Care was taken to ensure that no perceived threat to protected groups was likely as a result of the questions.

The details on the nature of the research and the care in handling the data included a request to provide informed consent. Consent was given based on assurances of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity with respect to data collection, storage, analysis, and reporting. No participant was allowed to join the study without having first provided their consent. The informed consent text is in Appendix F.

All research involving human participants must comply with ethical, federal, and professional standards of research, as well as the principles contained in the Belmont Report, so that the welfare and dignity of human subjects is protected (Pepperdine University, 2009). Following committee approval of the proposal, it was submitted to Pepperdine University's Internal Review Board (IRB) for review and approval of the methods to be used to collect, store, analyze, and report on the data taken for this study. Human subjects are defined as "living individuals about whom an investigator (whether professional or student) conducting research obtains (1) data through intervention or interaction with the individual, or (2) identifiable private information" (p. 10). The five-member IRB considers the use of human subjects: risks to subjects, plans to minimize risk, and research classification. Written Graduate and Professional Schools IRB approval was obtained prior to initiating any research. Following IRB approval and after completion of the research, the researcher went back and rewrote the first three chapters in past tense.

The researcher was required to and completed training on federal guidelines for the protection of human participants/subjects, as required by Pepperdine University (Pepperdine University, 2009), and as shown in Appendix G.

There are three categories or levels of IRB review, depending on the proposed activity, the subject population, and the risk level for the subjects (Pepperdine University, 2009). The categories and general criteria are as follows:

- Exempt: No risk of criminal or civil liability, employability, or damage to subject's financial standing or reputation; research does not use a protected group as subjects; no more than a minimal risk to subjects; study does not involve deception; research employing survey methodologies is within the exempt category per Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46.101 (b) (2).
- Expedited: Exempt criteria, plus may involve studies of drugs and medical devices, blood or other biological samples, medical diagnostics, data collection through electronic means, continuing review of previously IRB-approved research.
- Full Review: Activities that do not meet the criteria of Exempt or Expedited review.

Intentional researcher contact with experts was to be limited to soliciting their participation and administrative conduct – notifications and instructions – of the survey process. Direct contact was also to occur during the first iteration of the study during face-to-face or over the telephone interviews. There was the prospect that participants may contact the researcher, which was possible as a result of providing them with contact information for the researcher. In the event that a participant contacted the researcher directly following the first iteration, data for the research was not collected by that means.

Pilot studies were only used to refine survey questions and data collection methods prior to issuance to the experts, and did not contribute directly to the data. IRB approval is not required for the pilot studies (Pepperdine University, 2009). Taking the above into account, this study was expected to be categorized as exempt based under Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46.101 (b) (2), and was approved as such.

Criteria for panel membership. Inclusion criteria for participants biased toward leadership and management practitioners. Academics and other specialists in the management and leadership fields were excluded, as the desired outcome of the study was for it to be useful to field application by practitioners. It was deemed important that practicality be given priority.

General criteria for experts is that they need to have the requisite knowledge and experience for the particular study, a willingness and ability to participate, time to participate, and good communication skills (Skulmoski et al., 2007). For this study, requisite knowledge concerned familiarity with decision-making as a decision-maker or observer thereof, and was assumed by virtue of sufficient experience in a work environment. Experience was assumed to be sufficient if the expert had at least 5 years of actively executing a recognized leader or manager role, or 10 or more years as a subordinate and or follower. Willingness to participate was determined by bounding the study to be no more than 6 months in duration, and receiving an agreement from experts that they were amenable to participating during that time. The agreements were obtained via internet-based media, i.e., email. Logistical ability and time to participate was assumed by way of receiving the agreement to participate. Cognitive ability to participate was assumed to exist by virtue of the years of experience criterion. Communication skills were assessed by asking open-ended questions during the initial contact. A reasonable amount of English proficiency was assumed, so that the intended meanings of responses were not easily lost in semantics or grammatical errors. It was expected that candidates who passed the experience criteria would not fail the communications criteria, except possibly due to language barriers. Inclusion criteria are listed in Table 5.

There are certain categories of potential experts that were not desired for this study. They are listed in Table 6. Candidates failing to meet the criteria in the column on exclusion boundary were eliminated from the pool of participants.

Table 5

Inclusion Criteria for Participants

Criterion	Minimum for meeting	Rationale
Experience level – Managers and Leaders	At least 5 years of actively executing a formalized leader or manager role	Assumed to be reasonably familiar with executing the role by 5 years
Experience level – Subordinate and or Follower	At least 10 or more years as a subordinate and or follower	Assumed to have worked for significant periods of time with managers or leaders and reasonably familiar with observing execution of the role by 10 years
Industry	Any for-profit or non-profit oriented industry, except as identified in the exclusion criteria	Heterogeneity should help in generalizability
Access to survey	Has access to a computer, world wide web, and email	Minimize variations in media used to conduct the surveys

Table 6

Exclusion Criteria for Participants

Criterion	Exclusion boundary	Rationale
Academic experience	Has not studied management or leadership more extensively than the level offered in an MBA program	May introduce an imbalance in discourse due to perceived higher value of “expert” opinions
Industry	Does not have experience working in a management consulting company for more than 2 years	Assumed to have extensively studied the art of management and or leadership formally, or on-the job
Heterogeneity	There are no more than five experts from the same industry	Avoid bias potentially brought on by industry-specific norms
Familiarity; conflict of interest	Expert is not personally known to the researcher	Avoid bias
Participant location	Participant is not outside the U.S. territories	Increased IRB approval complexity for international studies
English language skills	Participant does not have difficulty in articulating ideas in the researcher’s language	Avoid miscommunication or misinterpretation

Figures 7, 8, and 9 show examples of how demographic data is displayed, which includes answers to demographic questions from Appendix H: Interview Protocol and select criteria from Table 5 and Table 6.

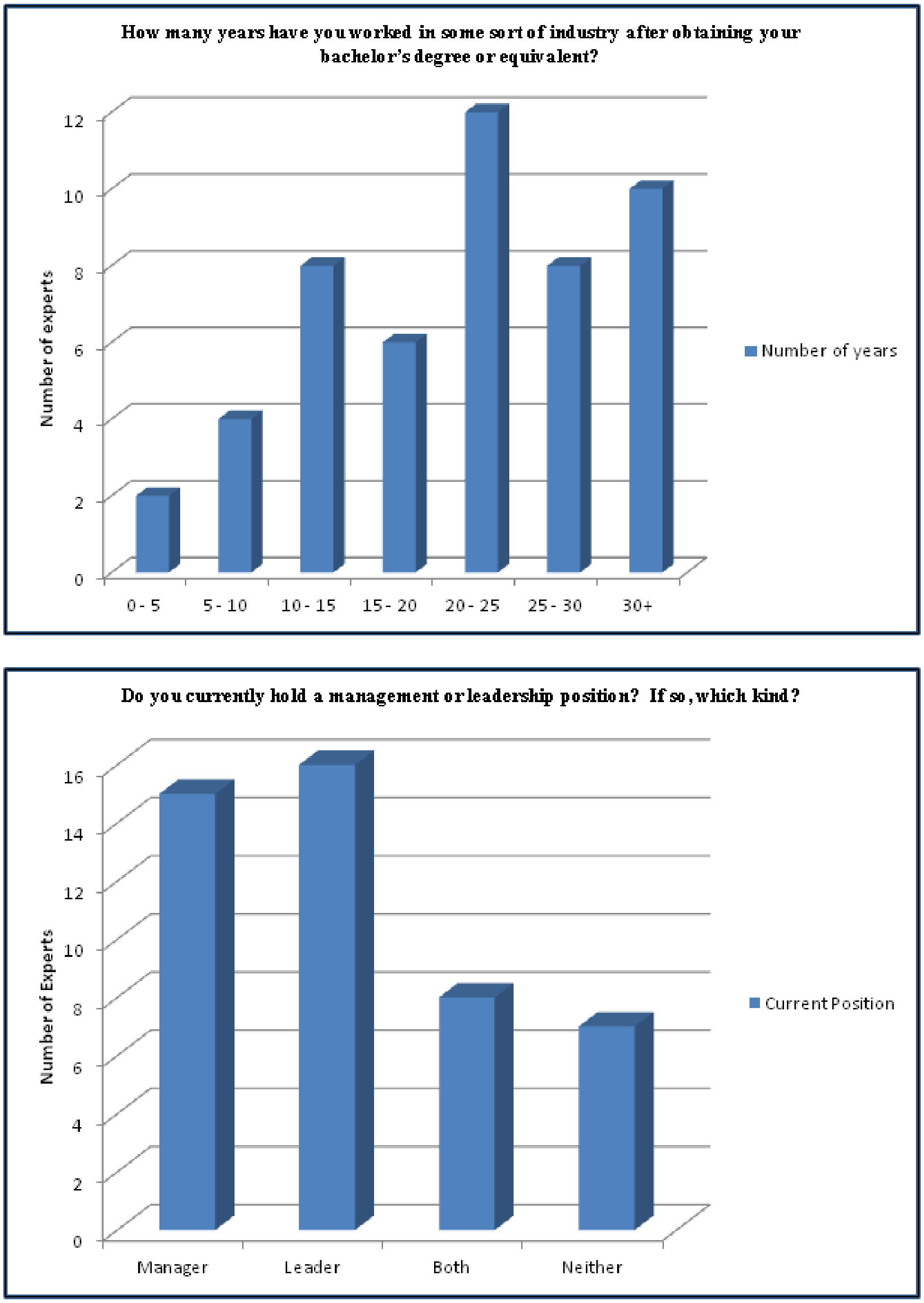


Figure 7. Demographic distributions.

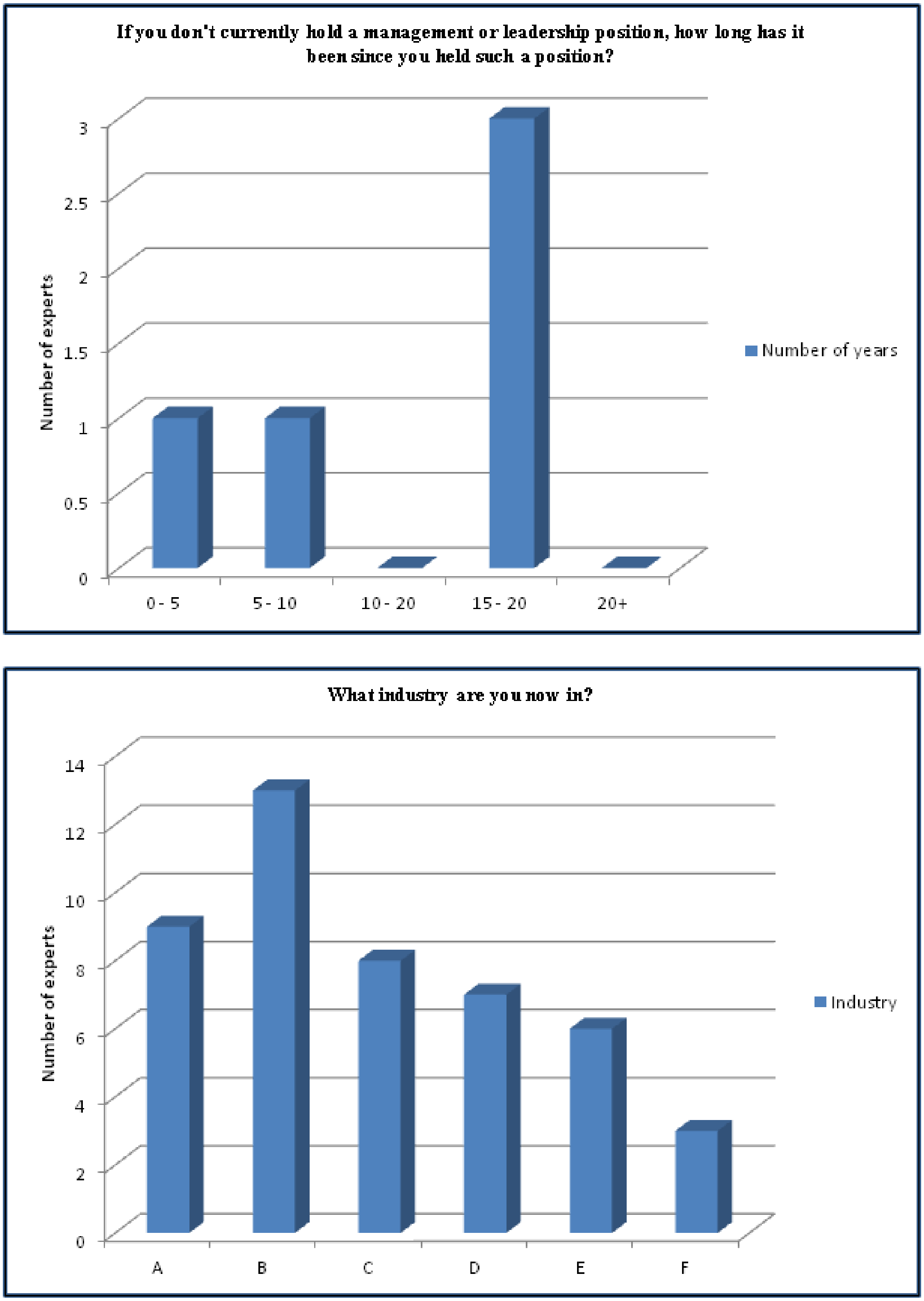


Figure 8. Demographic distributions.

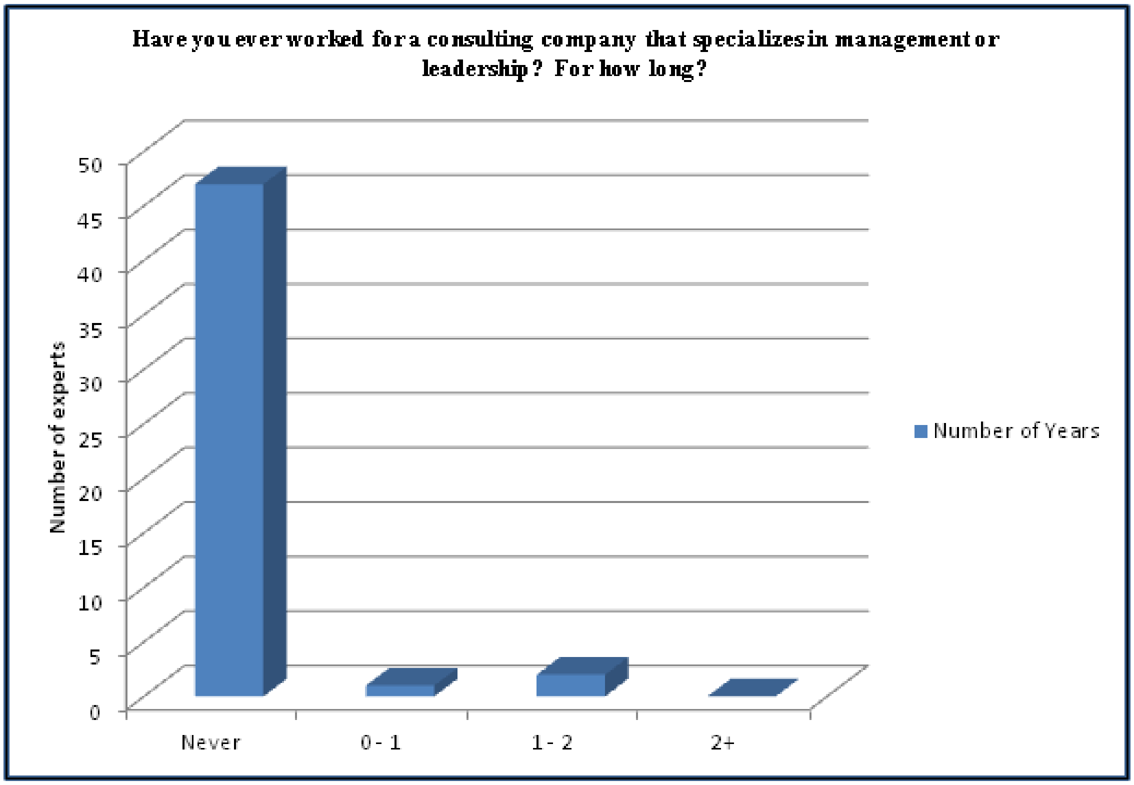


Figure 9. Demographic distributions.

Population, practitioners, and purposive sampling. Critical to the success of surveys is the ability to attract and keep the necessary number of interested survey takers to repeatedly participate (Brüggen, Wetzels, de Ruyter, & Schillewaert, 2011). The number of experts used for a Delphi study is highly variable (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Analyses reported by Brockhoff (2002) imply that the performance of a group of experts does not appreciably improve beyond group sizes of 7-10 participants, and states that “A general positive relationship between group size and group performance cannot be recognized” (p. 310). Baker et al. (2006) suggest that the right number is less than 20. For the purposes of this study, twelve was used as the desired number of experts that are engaged at the end of the iterations, and 10 was the minimum number. If the number of experts fell below 10, additional experts were to be sought in the same manner as the original group until the number met or exceeded twelve. Table 7 shows that considerably more than 12 people were assumed to be needed to be queried to match that number. Table 7 also suggests that in light of possible attrition, the first iteration using face-to-face interviews engage 16 experts.

Table 7

Number of Experts

Number of Experts	Assumptions
107	Number of participants queried to join the study
21	20% response rate
16	25% of applicants excluded and used for first phase interviews
12	25% attrition

Although response rates are typically low for surveys that access participants randomly, it was expected that use of purposive sampling would increase the response rate. Online survey response rates are affected by intrinsic or extrinsic motives for the survey taker, and extrinsic motives such as incentives or need for recognition did not apply to this study given the anonymous nature of responses. Intrinsically motivated respondents tend to have higher response rates. Intrinsic motives include interest, curiosity, enjoyment, and the desire to give their opinion, the latter of which is a significant motivator (Brüggen et al., 2011). It was assumed that purposive sampling was more likely to entice potential respondents that were interested in leadership and management and wanted to give their opinion, which was the rationale behind using a

20% response rate in Table 7 for the Delphi study instead of a lower rate. In the event that there were more than 16 willing participants, a subgroup of 16 experts was to be selected for one-on-one interviews in the first phase, and the researcher was to include all willing participants in subsequent phases to enhance statistical outcomes.

Purposive, or purposeful, sampling was used to target the initial group of people that was queried about joining the study. Such sampling is used to select specific people to purposefully inform the research, and the related phenomenon being studied, and is legitimate for exploratory research in the social sciences (Creswell, 2007). Purposive sampling is necessary since experts have the ability to answer the research questions, as opposed to the general population, which in general does not have that ability (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Purposive sampling is often used to obtain samples with otherwise diverse attributes (Ferguson, 2004).

Candidates were introduced to the study at a summary level and were provided with a listing of the inclusion criteria. They were given an estimate of the calendar schedule and expectations for the amount of time they may spend during each iteration for answering questions and providing feedback. Expectations were set as to the type of information they were to receive, and how their inputs were to be used to develop that information. Candidates were encouraged to participate by articulating how the study will be of benefit to them in addition to the researcher. Appendix E shows an example of text that could be used for this purpose.

Definition of Analysis Unit

The *who* or *what* that is being analyzed is referred to as the unit of analysis. Creswell (2007) associates the unit of analysis for grounded theory as follows: “Studying a process, action, or interaction involving many individuals" (p. 78). This study concerned the interactions between leaders and managers, but additionally queried followers and subordinates. The interactions that were studied were interactions between the processes of leading and managing.

Anticipated Time Period for Successive Delphi Iterations

Figure 10 shows a rough-order timeline that was anticipated for the study. Actual durations were modulated by the number of experts and their availability, the variety of responses, and the depth of analysis necessary to bring significant meaning to the data.

Event↓ Week→	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Solicit for participants	■	■															
Downselect and obtain consent		■	■														
Iteration 1: interviews				■	■	■											
Analysis period 1							■	■	■								
Iteration 2: Surveys										■	■						
Analysis period 2												■	■				
Iteration 3: Surveys														■	■		
Analysis period 3																■	■

Figure 10. Anticipated timeline for the Delphi study.

Methodology Details as Applied to This Study

This section addresses the specifics of the methodology that were used in this study. It addresses validity and reliability, risk, piloting of the surveys, the handling of data, analysis, and reporting. This section also describes the types of software tools that were to be used, and shows the general approach that was to be taken in developing the questions for each iteration.

General plan of inquiry. This study sought to obtain increased substance to improve understanding of a problem that was assumed to be common to a multitude of perspectives – regardless of industry, demographics, location, or time, it was expected that this problem existed in an identifiable form. The study followed a pattern of asking questions to a group of experts selected via purposive sampling, analyzing the responses and formulating new questions based on the results, and providing the results plus new questions to the participants. The pattern was followed until convergence and stability was reached, as described in the section on Criteria for Terminating Data Collection. Participants were given the option of modifying their previous answers as a result of the ongoing exchange of data.

Accomplishing the increased understanding of the concepts required a variety of analytical approaches. Data was needed to be understood in context, decomposed, synthesized according to emergent concepts, tested, and reexamined in light of newly discovered meanings. Ideally, the data collections and analyses will bring the study to the point of conceptual saturation, where themes and concepts are sufficiently developed in terms of properties and relevant perspectives, and variations to those themes are understood in context (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

The literature search provided a basis for initial questioning of the experts. It is one approach to theoretical sampling, which uses evolving concepts to enable the researcher to ask pertinent questions based on logical reasoning (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The specific questions that were asked during the first iteration are listed in Appendix H: Interview Protocol. The questions were only a starting point for the study, and did not necessarily point in the directions that were to emerge in subsequent data collection and analysis.

Data analysis methodology. Transforming data into information requires a process of interpreting, extrapolating, concluding, and recommending (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). It is process of evolving data into coherent themes and concepts, which themselves may evolve as the study progresses. The analysis process includes decomposition of ideas and data, developing codes that identify characteristics, developing groupings based on associations, and synthesizing ideas. It is not unusual for concepts to change over time as a result of additional data collection or evolution driven by analysis, or moments of significant insight (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007) point to the value of using multiple types of analysis to aid in triangulation, and describe seven analytical techniques, including the constant comparative method, keywords-in-context, domain analysis, and taxonomic analysis. Corbin and Strauss (2008) assert that such focused analyses should be alternated with *open coding* to ensure richness of the data while also keeping the research open to new insights.

The initial phases of analysis benefit by the use of open coding, where the data is decomposed and separate chunks of data are examined for meaning (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Hutchison, Johnston, & Breckon, 2010). General questions are asked regarding the processes at issue, their definitions, the participant's actions within the processes, and how the processes change (Hutchison et al., 2010). This initial stage is also where the kernels for emergent themes are first developed (Creswell, 2007), and where the researcher revisits data further into the study to consider adjustments to findings and develop new concepts (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Corbin and Strauss (2008) identify constant comparison analysis as a way to examine events or descriptions for their similarities or dissimilarities and out of them develop salient meaning. Creswell (2007) explains the constant comparative method as a process of developing categories of information, and then comparing incoming data to those categories. Such an approach allows the researcher to use within-code comparisons to develop specific properties and perspectives for the categories, which can later be used to compare and contrast with other categories. The categories are based on conceptually similar descriptions that are grouped into a common higher-level concept that is then associated with a term – a code – selected by the researcher. It is sometimes appropriate to select a code that literally originates in the data itself, called an in-vivo code (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

In the event that constant comparison between chunks of data yields findings where the association with categories is not immediately evident, theoretical comparisons are made at the properties and perceptions level to capture abstract associations without fully defining the concept. Such an approach enables the researcher to identify potential relationships and seek them out in the data, with the intent of finding more data with similarities, and perhaps maturing the grouping of data into defined concepts and themes. Theoretical comparison also addresses data without the implied constraints of classification, and may lead to associations that would otherwise be considered unconventional (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Keywords-in-context analyzes the use of keywords by examining adjacent words, i.e., before and after the keyword (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Domain analysis considers symbols in a cultural context in terms of the symbols themselves, what they refer to, and what the relationship is between the symbol and the referent (Spradley, 1979). Taxonomic analysis addresses word use by each participant, in search of their meaning and connotation (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Words are selectively chosen and considered in context to develop possible meanings, and data is further examined on the basis of those meanings to identify other words that may be logically associated (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). These and other qualitative analysis types were used in this study.

Regardless of specific analyses used or when and how they are used, the concepts they are used to develop must become part of a larger picture rather than a set of separate concepts. *Axial coding* is used to synthesize the interrelationships of concepts at the properties and perspectives level (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Hutchison et al., 2010). The researcher focuses on one key coded category at a time and builds up relationships around that core (Creswell, 2007). Axial coding takes data that was decomposed in open coding, or data developed via more focused analyses, and creates a weave of concepts and themes that together define the emerging theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Hutchison et al., 2010). Included in the weave are logic, causal conditions, actions and interactions, the context for the actions and interactions, and expected outcomes of the actions (Creswell, 2007). An appropriate use for axial coding is to examine the inter-relationships between circumstances or situations related to the phenomenon being examined, and the actions and interactions between individuals or groups of people (Hutchison et al., 2010). Hutchison et al. (2010) admonish researchers that ultimately, axial coding is intended to help develop a theoretical framework, not be used as an aid to force-fit data into such a framework. Out of the integrative effort, selective coding is used to take the categories and overall model and develop a story line, or hypotheses that describe the model (Creswell, 2007).

Fundamental to all analysis types is the ubiquitous use of memos, field notes, and diagrams. Memos are records written by the researcher to archive thoughts and insights on the analytic processes, and how they are influencing the findings and outcomes of the analyses, but even more importantly are a way to drive the researcher to thoroughly cogitate on what they are seeing and thinking – to organize their thoughts (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Hutchison et al. (2010) identify several different types of memo, including the following:

- Research diary, which encompasses tracking of all analyses and decisions, and recording of general events;
- Reflective, which capture the researcher's evolving thoughts regarding the data, the analyses, and the processes;
- Conceptual, which facilitates coding and aids in concept development;
- Emergent questions, which address emergent themes and suggest further sampling and analysis; and
- Explanatory, which provides lower-level details regarding the relevancy of select literature, the execution of processes, and the creation of conceptual models developed from the analyses. (p. 287)

Corbin and Strauss (2008) identify other memo schema, but caution that there is no optimal classification system to be universally applied, and suggest that classifying memos should not be subservient to actually writing the memos.

Field notes, considered by some to be a subset of memos, are the researcher's records of their thoughts and insights generated while they are collecting data. Diagrams are the graphical equivalent of memos, a way to pictorially depict thoughts and insights, and are an effective aid in synthesizing constructs. It is typical for memos, field notes, and diagrams to be simple in the beginning of the analytical process and become progressively more detailed with time and further analysis. The tracking and storage of memos, field notes, and diagrams, and hence their utility as part of the analysis process, is greatly enhanced by the use of computer programs (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Participant answers were decomposed, coded, and grouped using a commercially available computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) program – NVivo 9. The CAQDAS software was also used for recording memos, field notes, and diagrams in a way that they could be easily retrieved and readily assist in analyses. Use of CAQDAS programs potentially enables a more in-depth approach to qualitative analysis than would be realized with manual methods (Hutchison et al., 2010; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). A benefit of CAQDAS programs is that they are conducive to transparent reporting of activities, which aids in determining the validity and theoretical density of the study. Transparent reporting is enabled by keeping activity logs, including memos and diaries, notes on researcher readings and reflections, concept developments, explanations, and the rationale behind questions developed for subsequent interaction with participants. CAQDAS programs offer both textual and graphic displays of data (Hutchison et al., 2010). CAQDAS programs do not execute analyses; they only assist in sorting and organizing the information so that the researcher can more easily conduct the analyses (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie).

Key requirements for this approach were that (a) the porting of data between tools, e.g., from interview transcriptions and survey data compilation tools to data analysis tools, be easily executed without loss of data; and (b) analytical tools must enable rapid and easy changes between analysis types according to the perspectives needed by the researcher at any given time.

Reliability and validity. Creswell (2007) provides several characteristics for a good qualitative study, including an evolving design, a focus on participants' views, starting with a focus on a single concept, and openness to unusual perspectives. Such characteristics in essence comprise the approach taken in a Delphi study, and in the research for this dissertation. The quality of the study is also influenced by the reliability of the findings, their merit, and the extent to which they are applicable beyond the bounds of the study.

Survey research methods can affect validity and reliability (Bennett et al., 2011). In any measurement, reliability and validity are key issues about which perfection is never reached, but are aspired-to in the ideals of researchers. Reliability concerns the repeatability or dependability of the research such that other researchers can reproduce or replicate the results (Neuman, 2003). When appropriately designed, the iterative approach in a Delphi study drives a continuous verification of findings by nature, which enhances reliability (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Logging and journaling are valuable in that (a) repeatability is enhanced, and (b) such activity aids the thinking of the researcher (Bringer et al., 2004).

The Delphi approach that was used in this study iterated findings with their data sources – the experts – to verify that the findings were accurate with respect to the inputs provided. Such an approach was assumed to be an effective alternate to using a second person to sort and classify findings to increase reliability, as is done in other field studies. In essence, the aggregation of experts became the equivalent of the second person, given that the findings of the researcher were cross-checked. Time-sequenced logs and journals were thoroughly kept and reflect the thinking of the researcher with respect to data formulation and sorting, and interaction with the experts, so that subsequent review or studies by others can reasonably replicate the findings as determined. Records of all other activities, including administrative, were kept.

It is acknowledged that a key limitation in reliability for studies is typically sample size. As stated previously, the performance of a group of experts is not expected to be appreciably effected provided the group size is larger than 7-10 participants (Brockhoff, 2002), and it has been suggested that the right number is less than 20 (Baker et al., 2006). Since this study had a target participant number of 12, sample size was not expected to significantly bias the outcome. In the event that more than 16 participants were willing to participate in the first iteration, up to 50 of them were to be included in the survey-based second iteration and beyond, to further enhance reliability.

There is also the possibility that a different researcher or group of experts may render a different outcome, although there appears to be considerable common and or complementary thought in the literature, suggesting that a replicable outcome is plausible. Additionally, exclusion criteria for participants were established that are expected to reduce variability in possible outcomes.

Creswell (2007) identifies validation as a process, whereby the researcher proactively assesses the accuracy of the findings. It concerns the match between ideas about reality, and actual reality (Neuman, 2003). Important validation strategies for qualitative studies include triangulating data from several sources (Creswell, 2007; Neuman, 2003), and having participants review and correct the studies (Creswell, 2007). Since it is important to ensure that construct validity is obtained, i.e., that the attributes developed are indeed representative of the findings and theoretical concepts (Ferguson, 2004), participant review and correction is valuable.

Lincoln and Guba (1979) make a distinction between merit, which is a context-free estimate of intrinsic value, and worth, i.e., the extrinsic value that depends on the context related to practical application. Merit is tied to the stand-alone characteristics of an entity, while worth considers the interactions between the entity and external factors. Validity is similarly decomposed to internal validity and external validity. Internal validity assures that the internal design of the research has minimal errors (Neuman, 2003). It addresses the degree of truth for inferences that some sort of causality or non-causality exists between multiple variables (Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010).

External validity concerns the degree of generalizability for the causal or non-causal relationships across variations in people, location, and time (Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010; Neuman, 2003). It is believed that internal validity is a prerequisite to external validity, in that relevancy to the external world is moot if causal relationships are not first validated (Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010). External validity provides a link between the generation and the utilization of knowledge, a way to apply findings across people, locations, and times that were not part of the study. Key determinants of generalizability are (a) how representative the samples were of the larger population, and (b) the circumstances of the study (Ferguson, 2004).

Neuman (2003) asserts that reliability is easier to obtain than validity, in that a wrong answer can be repeatedly found if the design of the research is insufficient. Threats to internal validity include biases resulting from the test set-up itself, including biases induced in the selection process; reactions that are modulated by the circumstances of the test; measurement effects such as degree of time-dependence, i.e., history or sequencing; and participant awareness of the test (Ferguson, 2004). The researcher was going to be the key instrument, and was to directly collect the data, which ran the risk of bias. Reliability can also work against validity, especially when addressing highly abstract concepts, since specificity can lead further away from the subjective nature of the abstraction (Neuman, 2003).

To offset the above threats, the practices in Table 8 were used in the study.

Table 8

Threats to Internal Validity, and Offsetting Factors

Threat	Offsetting factors
Inaccuracy of the findings	The Delphi study had the experts review the findings and recommend corrections. The approach should satisfy the need for triangulation of data since there were multiple experts participating.
Biases resulting from the test set-up itself	An acceptable aspect of the test set-up and data collection method was that the participants in the second iteration and beyond must be computer literate. While this may be a bias, the commonality of computer use in 2012 was assumed to extend forward in time, making the significance negligible.
Biases induced in the selection process	The study in this dissertation used purposive selection, which is an allowable bias inherent in the Delphi approach.

(continued)

Threat	Offsetting factors
Reactions that are modulated by the circumstances of the test	During the first iteration the researcher sought to engage experts one-on-one in an interference-reduced environment. The site for the second iteration of the study and beyond, from the participant perspective, was a series of web pages common to all participants. The circumstances under which each expert engaged the common web pages were out of the control of the researcher, however could provide valuable context for the data.
Measurement effects such as degree of time-dependence, i.e., history or sequencing	The nature of the long-standing relationship between leadership and management is such that it was not seen as being significantly time-varying or sequenced in the context of the study.
Participant awareness of the test	Participants were aware of the study by virtue of consenting to participate. The awareness was assumed to be insignificant.
The researcher will be the key instrument, and will directly collect the data	The researcher had successful interview experience under guidelines provided in the EDOL program. The researcher also had several years of experience in objectively utilizing both numerical and non-numerical data for scientific purposes. This includes derivation of causal relationships based upon incomplete data, and testing or analyzing for plausibility.
Reliability as affects validity, especially concerning highly abstract concepts	The first iteration of questions maintained a reasonable balance between specificity and abstraction. The first iteration used definitional abstraction, and subsequent iterations gradually narrowed down to specifics regarding application.

One additional threat is that there appears to be a trade-off between internal and external validity: removing interfering factors by isolating an experiment to ensure a clear picture of causality also removes the experiment further from the outside world (Ferguson, 2004; Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010). Such distance from the outside world makes generalizability a challenging proposition (Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010). The distance also means that the study may base the results on artificial means, and as a result, practitioners could find the results of the research difficult to access or apply (Ferguson, 2004). This study was limited to English-proficient, U.S.-bound participants, and the plausibility that the findings may not apply in other cultures was acknowledged. Conversely, the study sought to improve the ontology of leadership/management conflict, which has the benefit of obviating the risk of non-applicability.

Since this study was used to establish the legitimacy of conflicting management and leadership objectives, internal validity was assumed to be more important than external. Such relative weighting is similar to Neuman's (2003) assertion that authenticity garners higher interest from researchers than validity does. This study addressed aspects of the relationship between leadership and management that had not been examined to substantial depth; hence, replication studies beyond the scope of this dissertation may be of aid for increasing external validity.

Pilot study specifics. It is important to ensure that the intended meaning of each question in the interviews is clear and likely to elicit a pertinent response, and that questions be screened for any problems that go unrecognized by the researcher (Vernon, 2009). The initial set of survey questions were subjected to limited pilot testing prior to providing it to the experts. Students and or alumni from the researcher's degree program were used for the piloting. The questions were provided along with the instructions to identify ambiguities, give an interpretation of meaning, provide a one- or two-sentence answer to each question, and suggest modifications. Pilot participants did not participate in the actual data collection portion for each iteration, nor were any of their comments used in the analysis of responses.

Data collection using one-on-one interviews. In the first iteration of the study, data collection was done via one-on-one interviews with the experts, over the telephone. According to McKenna (1989), face-to-face interviews are beneficial in that they provide opportunities for clarification of terminology, allow the interviewer to capture nuances indicated by body language, and enhance the overall personal touch of the interviewer. At the beginning of each interview, the interviewer sought concurrence with the expert on expected duration of the interview; asked for and obtained permission from the expert to electronically record the interview, and explained that a written record was also to be taken. The interview protocol provided in Appendix H then guided the remainder of the interview.

Following demographics questions, open-ended questions were asked to each interviewee to elicit their thoughts without bounding their responses narrower than the realm of the management and leadership discussion. In the event there was ambiguity or incomplete information in interviewee responses, questions were used to seek clarification of the responses from the interviewees. Clarification questions came in the form of *Can you expand on that*?, or *What did you mean by…?*, or *Can you explain to me how…?*.

The interview questions themselves were validated in two ways. The first validation was executed by running a small pilot prior to execution of the actual interviews and verifying that the answers given were in line with the intent of the questions. Pilot participants were a small group of people that were at or above the same level of expertise as the anticipated set of experts. Answers received from the pilot participants were not included in the data sets used for analysis. The second validation consisted of examining the nature of the answers received from the experts during the interviews to ensure that, in general, they were fairly consistent in the way they addressed the subject matter. It was not necessary for the data to show any given level of agreement about leadership and management. The second validation was estimated in real time by the researcher during the one-on-one interviews, and confirmed by the relative usability of the data received during analysis.

Transcription of the interview data was done by engaging a professional transcription service Final output was in Microsoft Word format. The data collected during the first iteration was analyzed as described in the section on Data Analysis Methodology, and the categories of information that resulted were used to generate a data collection instrument for use in the second iteration and beyond.

Data collection instrument and methodology. Data collection during the second iteration was via online web-based electronic survey, using commercially available software Survey Monkey. All participants who passed the initial screening per inclusion/exclusion criteria and provided their consent were contacted via email and given urls, passwords, and instructions for ranking the categories as developed in the previous iteration. The instructions are provided in Appendix I. Each iteration repeated the instructions and used a separate survey. Secure web pages were used to ensure confidentiality. Since the researcher had, by necessity, contact information for the experts, total anonymity was maintained only with respect to which expert provided which specific responses. Contact information was and is protected by the researcher and not provided in the dissertation.

The data collection instrument was provided to participants as web pages with multiple questions, which consisted of a mix of 7-choice Likert scale and free-form response. The 7-choice questions were based on the categories developed during the analysis portion of the first iteration, and were used to assess the relative importance of each category.

The 7-choice response questions were based on the findings developed in the analysis in the first iteration of the Delphi study. The first iteration was expected to result in a list of categories that are pertinent to the discussion of management and leadership, especially with respect to the objectives of those roles. The questions started with the phrase *How important is…* or similar language that elicited a rating context, where the subject of the question was one of the categories developed in the first iteration, and the context was given in terms of leader or manager role, objective, or action. For a given category, a rating of 1 indicated lowest or no importance while a rating of 7 indicated highest or maximum importance. To avoid leading the experts or grouping questions to drive a biased response, the 7-choice questions were randomized in the survey tool. Each set of 7-choice questions in the second iteration was followed by an open-ended question to elicit additional candidates for categories that did not result from analysis of the interviews. Multiple separate responses from the same participant were not allowed. Upon conclusion of data collection during the second iteration, data was exported to software tool Excel, for analysis. The outcome of that analysis was used to gauge consensus, which is described in the section on Criteria for Terminating Data Collection.

The third iteration was similar to the second iteration, with three modifications: (a) categories that reached consensus in the second iteration were not included, (b) the categories that did not reach consensus in the second iteration were again provided along with the average for each as determined in the third iteration, and (c) categories suggested in the open-ended question of the second iteration were included. The average of responses for the categories that did not reach consensus in the second iteration were provided as a point of reference for experts when they re-evaluated the categories. The results of the third data collection were analyzed, and the degree of consensus determined. The degree of stability for categories used in the second and third iterations was also assessed, as described in the section on Criteria for Terminating Data Collection. If the criteria for consensus or stability were not met by the third iteration, a fourth iteration would have been executed in the same manner as the third iteration.

Following data collection during each iteration, data was imported to the selected analysis tool. Computer tools such as NVivo readily take field data, literature, graphics, and digital recordings of events into one centralized source, and enable linking between the various media (Bergin, 2011; Hutchison et al., 2010). NVivo includes the ability to play back digital events from within the application, which aids in analysis and transcription, and import data from common software tools such as the Microsoft Word application (Bergin, 2011), and Adobe PDF format. Nvivo enables the researcher to associate important attributes with the imported files, such as date/time of data capture and descriptions of the contents. Linking between the imported media and data generated within the tool is also possible, including codes, memos, and diagrams (Hutchison et al., 2010). Themes and concepts can be developed based on analyses that are enabled by the linked data. NVivo includes several query functions, including text search, word frequency, single code and matrix coding, and a capability to build custom queries (Bergin, 2011). Incorporating data from each iteration into existing, i.e., previous, data will be a matter of importing more files and continuing the analyses already under way. For this study, the Excel spreadsheet tool was used for survey data analysis.

Setting up the surveys. Neuman (2003) points out that several definitions can exist for a single construct, and there may be disagreement between people regarding those definitions. This study explored definitions and related agreements or disagreements among a group of experts with respect to the construct of conflict between management objectives and leadership objectives. Surveys were the vehicle used to gather data during the second Delphi iteration, and enabled interchange of ideas between the experts. Linstone and Turoff (2002) suggest that questionnaires are legitimate, reliable tools for research via surveys. The second iteration included more specific questions that were developed on the basis of information received in previous iterations, and as guided by the scope of the research. The general-to-specific sequence is depicted in Figure 11. It was anticipated that three iterations would be sufficient to reach consensus, which was realized.

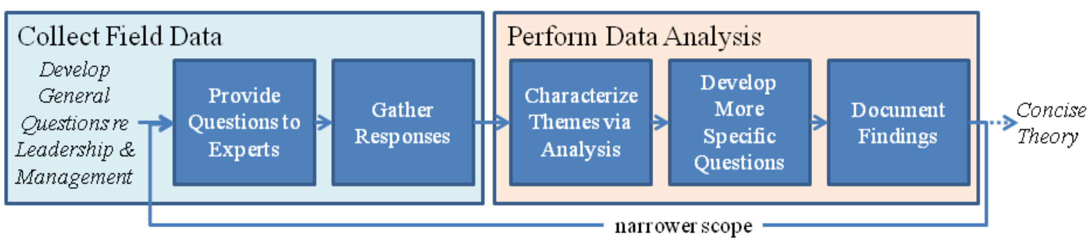


Figure 11. Survey iterations.

In survey number 2, experts received the aggregation of findings and assessments from the previous iteration. The aggregation was based on themes or concepts developed in the previous iteration, comparison of the themes, and synthesis of new information suggested by the findings. Attention was given to actual or potential disagreement within and between the themes. In the event that disagreements were significant to the study, new questions sought to clarify and, if possible and appropriate, resolve the disagreements. The experts were given an opportunity to modify their previous answers based on feedback related to the analysis of all answers received, in addition to answering the new questions.

Schaeffer and Dykema (2011) address multiple possible shortcomings of survey questions, including ambiguity and imprecision, syntactic complexity, length of questions, undefined terms, and the relationships of the questions relative to each other. Questions in this study included the following characteristics:

- Questions were limited to one subject at a time.
- Compound questions were avoided except where necessary to context.
- Terms and abstractions used in questions were defined to the extent necessary either within the question, or in a preface to the question. An exception to this was where it was desired that experts provide their own terms or abstractions in their response.
- The context for each question in first iteration interviews was either provided in the question, or reasonably implicit from previous questions. Iteration 2 and above relied on the context developed from previous iterations to the extent feasible.
- Leading questions that potentially bias answers were minimized in the first iteration. Subsequent iterations required some leading in the process of systematically narrowing the subject matter. Leading also occurred as a result of reporting findings of the previous iterations to the participants.
- Word choice minimized the risk of misunderstandings or undue complexity.
- Words were qualified, e.g., points of reference or time frame, as appropriate but not so much as to bias the responses.

- Closed-ended questions were used for demographic purposes.

Data storage, access, and security. Survey data and analyses, including consent-related information, was stored on removable computer solid state drives to limit access, and controlled by the researcher. Two independent drives carried the same data and were controlled by the researcher, to facilitate data back-up. Any personally identifying information (PII) that arose was substituted with codes, the PII code mapping is kept separate from the survey data, and PII codes are not provided in the report. Where PII codes were substituted for personal information as described, the substitution occurred prior to importing the data into the analysis tool to ensure anonymity.

Confidentiality is maintained for all participants, and anonymity is assured in this dissertation. The dissertation does not include identifying information such as participant names, specific title, specific position by name, or other data that can be traced to the participants. Information such as titles and positions are generalized in the published data.

Data retention. All research data will be stored for at least 3 years following publication of the dissertation in a locked and undisclosed location in or around Denver, CO, and will be destroyed after the required retention period but before 5 years following publication.

Data reporting methodology. Transparency is essential to the research process (Bringer et al., 2004). Clear reporting of survey methods enables the assessment of validity, generalizability, and reliability (Bennett et al., 2011; Hutchison et al., 2010). The transformation of data into information requires that the methodology is known to the reader, and confirmable by the public. Readers should have clear access to (a) the data, (b) an articulation of how the data was manipulated to render a position or argument, and

(c) how that articulation is coherent and logical (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Since a CAQDAS tool such as NVivo was to be used, it is also important to provide sufficient details to demonstrate that the tool was used in a manner consistent with the chosen methodology (Bringer et al., 2004).

The data in this dissertation that address interview and survey results, analysis methods, analytical findings, and conclusions includes delineations of factors that affect validity, generalizability, and reliability. The specifics of how data was translated into discrete chunks of information is recorded in a log and provided in Appendix J, and is summarized in the chapter that addresses survey results. College-level language is used, however care is taken to ensure that little-known or potentially obfuscating words are avoided.

Criteria for Terminating Data Collection

The variability in the definition of a Delphi study and related analyses required that criteria be articulated for terminating the iterations. In this study, a combination of interquartile range (IQR) and stability criteria was used. The IQR is determined by identifying the median of a data set for a given category, the median of the first half of the data set (first quartile or Q1), and the median of the second half of the data set (third quartile or Q3), and then subtracting Q1 from Q3 (Marmolejo-Ramos & Tian, 2010). Stated alternatively, the IQR is "the absolute value of the difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles, with smaller values indicating higher degrees of consensus" (Rayens & Hahn, 2000, p. 311). Provided the data has a single mode, a reasonable criterion for consensus is if the IQR is less than 2 units out of 10 (Scheibe, Skutsch, & Shofer, 1975).

Given that the study was about conflict, there was the prospect that the data would not converge, possibly reflected as a bimodal distribution. In those cases, consensus was assumed not to have been reached, and stability was used as a second criterion for closure. Stability can be considered as the degree of variation of data distribution from one data set to the next (Scheibe et al., 1975). Figure 12 shows how the stability metric is determined according to Scheibe et al. (1975) using percent change as the evaluand. Scheibe et al. suggest that a figure of merit of 15% be used to determine stability between successive data distributions, where percent change less than 15% deems the data stable, and percent change greater than 15% warrants further investigation.

$$\text{Percent change} = \frac{\text{Net person-changes}}{\text{Number of responses}}$$

Where:

$$\text{Net person-changes} = \frac{\text{Total units of change}}{2}$$

$$\text{Total units of change} = \begin{array}{c}\text{Sum of the absolute values of}\\ \text{change in each rating from}\\ \text{one iteration to the next}\end{array}$$

Figure 12. Percent change calculation.

The primary criteria for terminating the study were (a) consensus of the experts, roughly defined in this study as having an IQR of 20% or less of the measurement scale in three-quarters of the key categories; and or (b) stability of the data for three-quarters of the key findings according to stability criteria. An IQR was the criterion used to indicate consensus for each finding. The measurement scale for questions in this study was 7-point, therefore the threshold for consensus was 1.4. In accordance with Scheibe et al. (1975), a figure of merit of 15% was used for stability.

In the event the consensus and stability criteria were not met by the completion of the third iteration, a fourth iteration was to be used. If the consensus and stability criteria were not met after the fourth iteration, the lack of consensus and or stability itself was identified as a finding, and the data collection terminated. The third iteration passed the termination criteria, thus a fourth iteration was not necessary.

The First Iteration of Questions

The first iteration of the Delphi study was oriented toward open-ended questions regarding leadership and management in general. The questions considered a triad of the roles, their objectives, and actions. There are three key perspectives that were pursued: role-objective-action, degrees of commonality; and status quo versus change.

The McCall job interaction diagram in Figure 13 suggests a construct, developed by the researcher, where interplay exists between the role of manager or leader, the objectives of each, and actions taken. In this first perspective, role is the *who* to be considered, the objective is the *why*, and the action is the *what*. Focusing for the moment on just the manager, the relationship can be viewed as directional, where the manager role preordains the management objective, which influences management action. Assuming that the taking of an action or actions requires a decision to do so, there will be a variety of actions to decide upon, the outcome of which will be influenced by why they are being made and who is making them – in this case management decisions being made by managers. The act of deciding is a key event, and up to the point of the decision these considerations have an *a priori* perspective. Once a decision is made, *a posteriori* actions will be taken, however the way that the actions are executed may be attributable to a number of different influences. In this study we were concerned with how the actions would be generated as influenced by management objectives according to the role of the managers taking the actions. A similar construct is assumed for leaders and leadership. The first iteration of questions attempted to determine if there is any significance in the directional aspect of the relationships regarding how roles and objectives of managers and leaders influence actions, or how the execution of actions is influenced by objectives associated with the roles of leaders and managers.

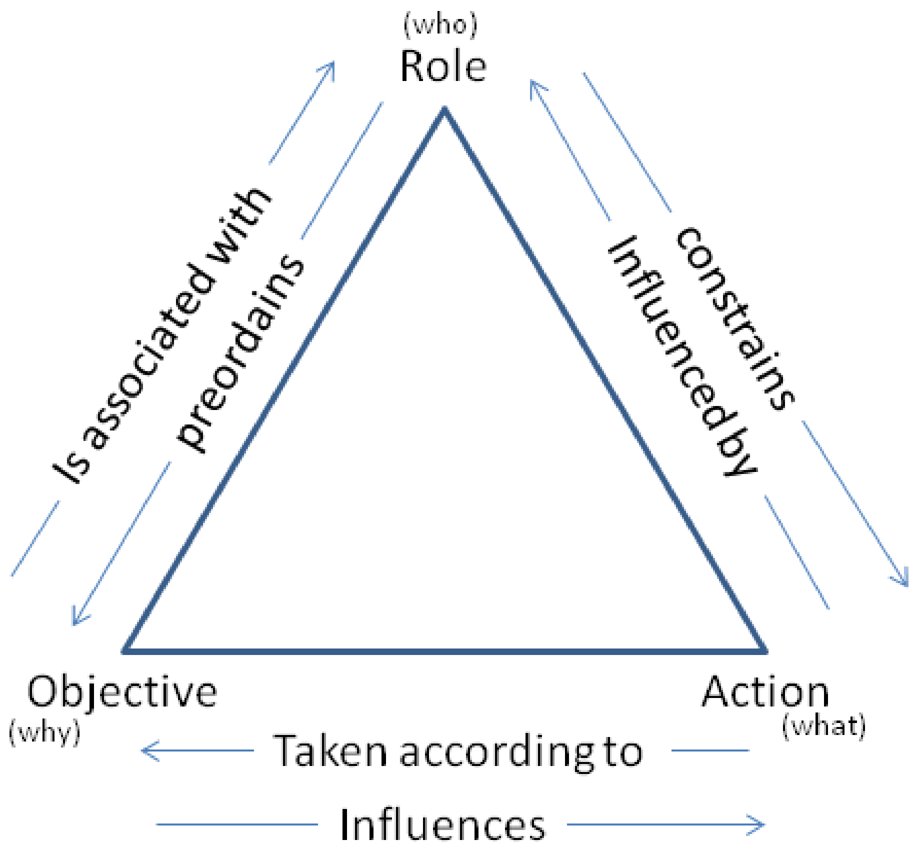


Figure 13. Relationships between roles, objectives, and actions.

The above approach addresses the role-objective-action relationship for one paradigm – leader, or manager – at a time. The second key perspective to be considered is the interactions between leader and manager roles, leader and manager objectives, and leader and manager actions. There are different schools of thought as to whether management and leadership are the same thing (Gill, 2003), or they overlap (Kotterman, 2006; Young & Dulewicz, 2008) or are distinct (Marker, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Zaleznik, 1977), or whether they are in conflict (Kotterman, 2006; McIntyre, 1999). Figure 14 illustrates the above interaction perspectives, and hints at the prospect of examining degrees of commonality between leadership and management by comparing roles, objectives, and actions.

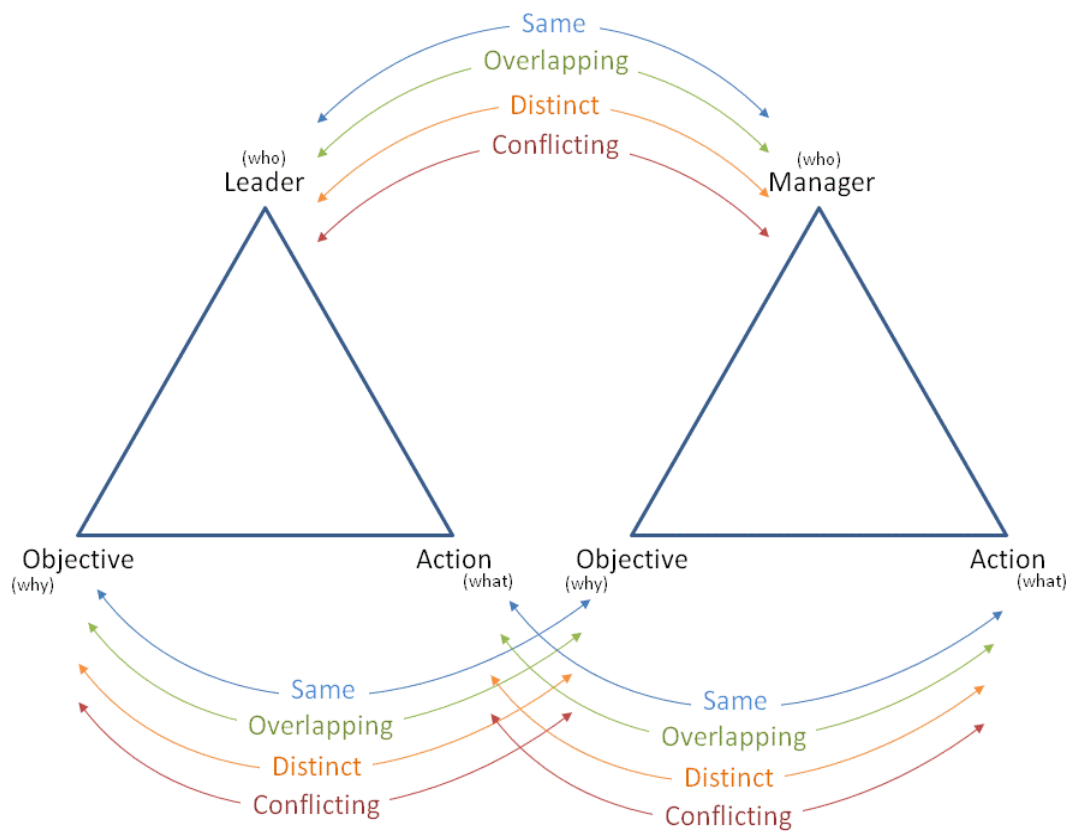


Figure 14. Degrees of commonality between management and leadership.

The third key perspective to be considered is the concept of change versus status quo. Bennis (1989a), Kotter (1990), and Kotterman (2006) assert that leadership is about driving change, and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo. Julius et al. (1999) state that change elicits conflict from those who have a vested interest in the status quo. Julius et al. also state that tampering with the status quo elicits opposition. While the aggregation of these positions suggests conflict, none of them explicitly offer that conflict exists as a result of leaders biasing toward change and managers biasing toward the status quo. The previous sentence concerns three items: (a) leaders biasing toward change, (b) managers biasing toward the status quo, and (c) conflict exists as a result of a and b.

Having developed the three key perspectives, the basis for the line of questioning for the first iteration is established. The questions in Appendix H: Interview Protocol provide the line of interview questioning that was used in the first iteration, subject to adjustments that were made in context or semantics as a result of the pilot for the survey.

Subsequent Iterations

The responses obtained from the experts as a result of the first set of questions were analyzed to identify themes and patterns. The analyses considered agreement and disagreement with respect to the themes, words used, and context. Significant ideas that manifested as a result of the analyses were the basis for the subsequent iteration of questions.

To the extent feasible and according to the responses received, the analyses considered sameness and complementarity between management and leadership in addition to differences so that the questions provided to participants were not unduly biased toward conflict. Conversely, if conflict was prominent in the responses, further elucidation was pursued. The study objective was to be satisfied, however, when the requisite level of agreement – or non-convergent disagreement – provided answers to the following questions:

- Do countervailing objectives potentially lead to conflict?

- What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives?
- What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives?

Summary

Chapter Three addressed the use of Delphi study methods for the purpose of further defining the concept of conflict between management objectives and leadership objectives. The Delphi purpose and variations in methodology were discussed in general terms, and with respect to the study in this dissertation. Participation by experts was described in terms of selection criteria, assurance of human safety, and sampling. Specific application of the Delphi methodology was described in terms of validity and reliability, data sampling via one-on-one interviews and surveys, analysis, and reporting. The logistics of data collection, storage, access, and security were discussed. Fundamental analysis types were discussed. Chapter Three finished with a delineation of three key perspectives to be considered for understanding conflict of objectives, and listed a set of questions to be provided to the experts in the first iteration in the context of the perspectives.

Chapter Four provides a detailed account of the specific application of the Delphi method per Chapter Three plans. It shows how the data was collected and analyzed, how questions were developed for subsequent iterations, and how the logistics of data collection and protection were actually executed. It also shows any apparent patterns and significant behaviors in the data.

Chapter Four: Findings

Chapter Three addressed the plan for conducting the Delphi study for the purpose of further defining the concept of conflict between management objectives and leadership objectives. The following aspects of the plan were described: participation by experts, specific application of the Delphi methodology, the logistics of data management for the study, and fundamental analysis types. Chapter Three finished with a delineation of three key perspectives to be considered for understanding conflict of objectives, and listed a set of questions to be provided to the experts in the first iteration in the context of the perspectives.

Chapter Four provides a detailed account of the conduct of the Delphi method per Chapter Three plans. It includes a description of how participants were recruited and engaged, what the participant demographics were, and how participant activities were tracked. It shows how the data was collected and analyzed, how questions were developed for subsequent iterations, and how the logistics of data collection and protection were actually executed. It shows the data that was collected, the results of the data, and the manner in which the data met the termination criteria for the study.

Recruitment of Participants

Sixteen participants were selected for this study, out of an initial candidate group of 32 experts. Of the 16 candidates that did not participate, three did not meet the exclusion criteria for participants. The other thirteen candidates either opted out of the study, or were non-responsive to ongoing queries. For the three people that were eliminated from the pool of candidate participants via the exclusion criteria, one had recently completed a PhD in management, while another was enrolled in a doctoral program in Higher Education Student Affairs Leadership. The third candidate was personally known to the researcher.

Criteria for participation. Inclusion criteria for participants were biased toward leadership and management practitioners. Academics and other specialists in the management and leadership fields were excluded, as the desired outcome of the study is for it to be useful to field application by practitioners.

General criteria for experts were that they need to have the requisite knowledge and experience for the particular study, willingness and ability to participate, time to participate, and good communication skills (Skulmoski et al., 2007). For this study, requisite knowledge concerns familiarity with decision-making as a decision-maker or observer thereof, and is assumed by virtue of sufficient experience in a work environment. Experience is assumed to be sufficient if the expert has at least 5 years of actively executing a recognized leader or manager role, or 10 or more years as a subordinate and or follower. Willingness to participate was determined by bounding the study to be no more than 6 months in duration, and receiving an agreement from experts that they were amenable to participating during that time. The agreements were obtained via internet-based media, i.e., email, which also served as an indication that logistical ability and time to participate were adequate. Cognitive ability to participate was assumed to exist by virtue of the years of experience criterion. Communication skills were assessed during the initial contacts, which included introductory emails and telephone calls to set up the interviews. English proficiency was present in all participants, and as such it was assumed that the intended meanings of responses were not easily lost in semantics or grammatical errors.

Table 5 of this dissertation lists inclusion criteria for the study. All participants had at least 5 years of experience actively executing a formalized leader or manager role. Since that was true, the criterion that participants have at least 10 or more years as a subordinate and or follower was not necessary. Heterogeneity was maintained by having participants from seven different NAICS classifications. All participants had computer, World Wide Web, and email access.

Table 6 of this dissertation lists exclusion criteria for the study. None of the participants had formally studied management or leadership more extensively than the level offered in an MBA program. All but two participants had no experience working in a management consulting company for more than 2 years. For the two participants that did have such experience, one produced diversity and inclusion training for the manufacturing and paper industry, and the other participant worked for a consultant for 2 years after college graduation in an entry-level role, neither of which was deemed to fail the criterion. The maximum number of experts from the same industry was five. None of the participants were personally known to the researcher. All participants were inside U.S. territories. None of the participants had difficulty in articulating ideas in the researcher’s language.

Demographics of the participants. Figure 15 reflects the results of three of the four demographics questions asked to the participants at the beginning of the interviews.

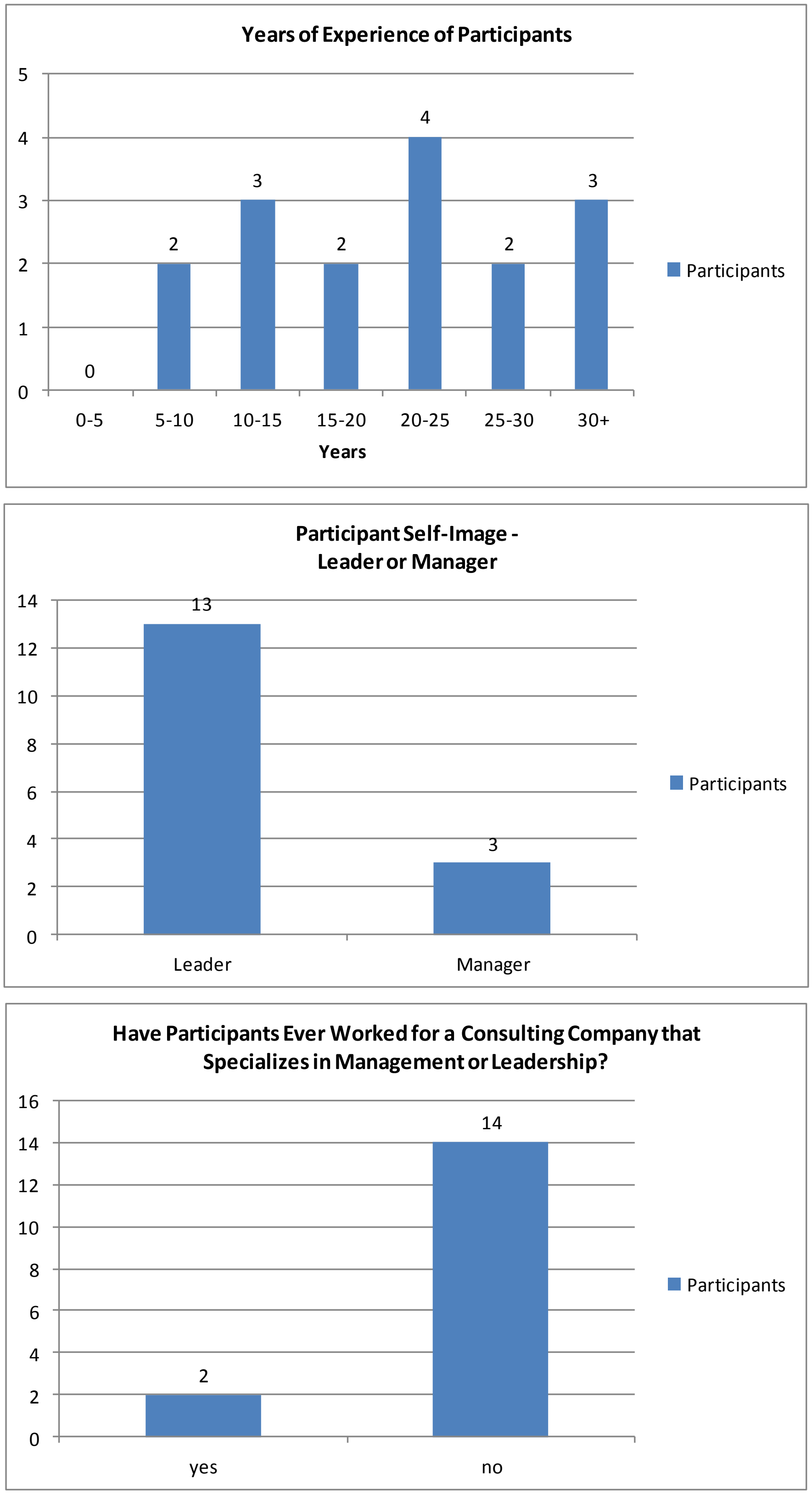


Figure 15. Results of three of four demographics questions asked to the participants.

Years of experience following attainment of a baccalaureate degree or equivalent ranged from 8 to 39 years, with an average of 21.7 years and a median of 22 years. Thirteen of sixteen participants saw themselves primarily as a leader when compelled to choose between being a leader or manager, while the other three participants saw themselves as managers. Thirteen of sixteen participants were a leader or manager at the time of the interview. Of the three remaining participants, two were leaders within the past 0-5 years, and the third was a manager 5-10 years prior. In 14 of 16 interviews, the response to *Have you ever worked for a consulting company that specializes in management or leadership* was no. In one interview the answer was yes but for less than 2 years. In an interview where the answer was yes and more than 2 years, further clarification by the participant led the researcher to conclude that the nature of the work was not related to the study's subject matter, and the participant was allowed to continue.

There were 21 choices for NAICS category in which the participants could classify themselves, as identified in Appendix K, and seven of them were used, as shown below. Figure 16 shows how heterogeneity was maintained by including participants from across the seven NAICS categories.

- Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
- Manufacturing
- Finance and Insurance
- Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
- Educational Services
- Health Care and Social Assistance
- Other Services (except Public Administration).

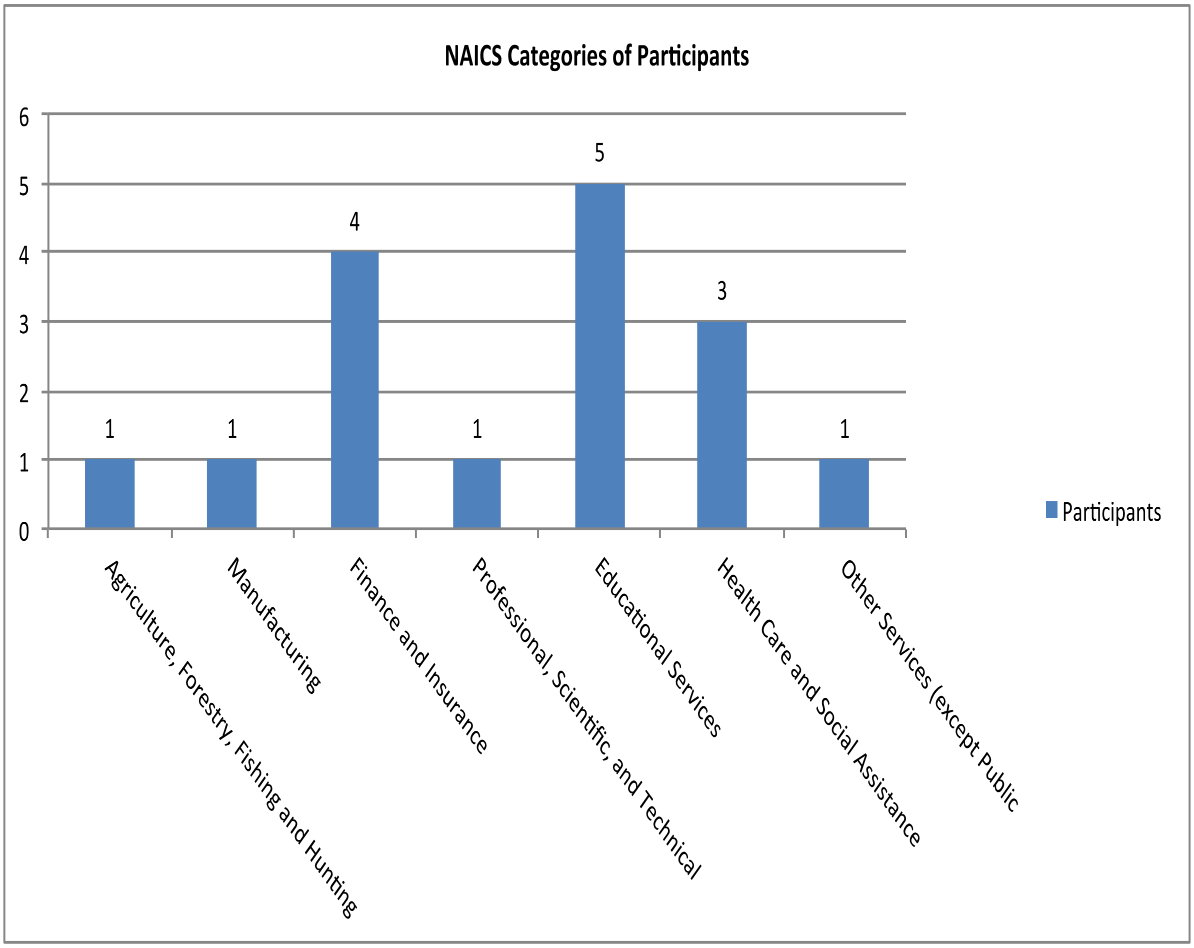


Figure 16. Distribution of NAICS categories across participants.

Outreach to and selection of participants. A one-page web site was set up and used as a common starting point for all participants. Potential participants were notified of or alerted to the study, and encouraged to visit the site for pertinent information. Contact information for the researcher was included at the bottom of the web page, a screen shot of which is shown in Appendix L. Distribution systems such as the Yammer account at Pepperdine University were used to notify potential candidates, in addition to email and word of mouth. In some instances, interested participants recruited other potential candidates.

All email correspondence sent to participants in and candidates for the study was done one person per email, to avoid any mistakes that may disclose the identities of others. Once each candidate responded to the researcher and expressed interest in the study, they were provided an Informed Consent form and invited to sign it and send it to the researcher, or opt not to sign, either of which was acceptable to the IRB provided the receipt of the consent form by the participant was acknowledged. The text of the query for Informed Consent is in Appendix M of this dissertation; the Informed Consent form is in Appendix F. The method of opting not to sign was to send an email to the researcher stating *I would like to participate but do not wish to complete an informed consent form*. One of the 16 selected participants opted not to sign using this statement. Eighteen signed consent forms were received, 15 of which were from selected participants, and three from non-selected participants.

Following receipt of the signed Informed Consent form or the consent waiver, the researcher sent each candidate a brief description via email of what their part in the study was expected to be. It explained the iterative nature of the data collection and that the first phase would be a one-on-one interview, either by telephone or in person. It notified participants that the researcher would be asking to record the conversation and that they had the option to opt out of having it recorded. The email also prefaced one of the demographics questions to be asked to participants in the interview, having to do with the type of industry they were in, and attached a top-level list of industries based on the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS). The number of NAICS choices was kept to 21, since the next indenture level would have rendered many more choices than were necessary for the purpose of this study and may have diverted time from it.

Tracking of participant activities. At the beginning of Phase 1, a tracking spreadsheet was set up to track candidates, key correspondence with them throughout the process, and their progress in key steps. The spreadsheet included initial contact dates, contact information for and notes on each participant with respect to availability, qualification and industry information, Informed Consent dispositions, interview schedules and actual lengths, interim correspondence, and survey tracking. Appendix N shows a condensed version of the tracking sheet, with information removed that is attributable to specific participants.

Phase 1

Scheduling and conduct of interviews. Interviews for the 16 initial participants were scheduled either by email or over the telephone. Participants were informed as to the expected time duration, and given flexible options for times chosen. Interviews took place before, during, and after regular business hours, and on weekends. All participants chose to interview over the telephone. Interviews occurred from July 23, 2012 to September 4, 2012.

Interviews were conducted to the standard set of questions provided in the Interview Protocol in Appendix H. Each interview was prefaced by the purpose of the study, the expected time duration, and a request from the researcher for permission to record the interview. All interview participants consented to being recorded, and were notified that the recording had started. A Zoom H4 handheld digital recorder was placed next to a Blackberry speakerphone so that both the participant and researcher voices were picked up. Each interview was recorded in .mp3 format, and the quality of all but one recording was very clear. The one challenging recording was of sufficient quality to be used.

Interviews followed the script designated in the interview protocol in Appendix H. In some instances the researcher asked for clarification or further elaboration from participants regarding specific comments they were making, likewise the researcher provided clarifications of questions to participants when requested. Interviews lasted between 12 and 51 minutes, with a mean duration of 30.6 minutes and standard deviation of 13.1 minutes.

Figures 7, 8, and 9 showed the demographic data for the participants, which were collected via demographic questions from Appendix H: Interview Protocol and select criteria from Table 5 and Table 6. All demographics questions were completely answered, although in some interviews discussion was necessary to clarify or choose the NAICS categories. In several cases there was ambivalence regarding the question *[If you currently act as a leader or manager] and had to choose, which role, i.e., leader or manager, do you have*. According to participants the ambivalence owed either to their perception that they were both leader *and* manager, or to the lack of definition of leader and manager. This was not surprising, given the nature of the study.

The core questions in the second part of each interview were asked and answered in the scripted order, with one exception, where a participant asked to return to one of the questions and then answered it. Each interview concluded with the researcher telling the participant that the recorder was being turned off, turning off the recorder, thanking the participant for their time and insights, and informing them of planned next steps.

Transcription of interviews. The .mp3 files recorded during the interviews were transcribed in their entirety and stored in Microsoft Word files. Transcriptions were initially attempted by the researcher using voice recognition software from Microsoft Windows 7, and from Dragon Naturally Speaking, but the transcription quality was inadequate and required extensive time to correct. The researcher chose a transcription contractor via ODesk, and exchanged files via a file transfer protocol web site. All transcriptions were done quickly and with high quality. After receiving the transcriptions, the researcher replayed all interview recordings and made corrections to the few transcription errors that existed. The researcher also checked for information in the responses that could be attributed to specific individuals or companies, and modified that information as necessary so that anonymity of participants was not at risk. A generic example of this would be changing *When I worked for ABC Incorporated I felt that…*, to *When I worked for [company] I felt that…*

Interim correspondence. Following the interview and transcription process there was a 3-month delay in continuing to the next steps. To re-engage the participants, the researcher sent out an interim note via email toward the end of the delay period to inform them of the status of the study and give an idea of when they would receive the first survey. Appendix O provides an example of that note.

Analysis. NVIVO 9 was used for open coding of the interview responses due to its user-friendly interface and drag-and-drop features. All transcriptions were checked for consistent formatting, to ensure that they were compatible with the import requirements for NVIVO analysis software. All transcriptions were successfully loaded into the NVIVO file.

The coding was organized by using the interview question structure for the top level of indenture, and entering codes underneath that were developed via open coding analysis. The NVIVO software highlighted all parts of the responses that were used in open coding and provided traceability between the responses and the codes chosen, so that the rationale behind coding choices could be revisited at a later time to check for consistency.

Although NVIVO was helpful in the open coding process, it also showed signs of instability, and was not sufficiently useful for the task of formulating and sorting the categories chosen for the raw responses. Coded data was exported to Microsoft Word for further analysis. Category formulation was a process of taking the categories chosen by the researcher during open coding and modifying the wording to be more clear and concise. A byproduct of the formulation task was the shifting of some responses to other top levels of indenture.

The formulations were then ported over to Microsoft Excel for sorting, and further modification to make the language of survey choices consistent. One worksheet per interview question was dedicated to each related set of formulated and sorted categories, so that the data could be transferred to one survey page per set in the online survey tool. This was done for simplicity, and to provide familiar context for survey choices to the participants. Each survey page contained a list of potential survey questions that were relevant to the originating interview question. The candidate survey questions were reviewed for redundancy and combined when appropriate; however the researcher opted to err on the side of keeping similar choices separate so as to avoid diluting subtle but distinct ideas. Candidate questions were re-stated in a way that was conducive to conducting a survey, which included orienting them towards a rating process. Content preparation also included checking each group of choices to ensure semantic consistency, i.e., formulate them so that every question on a given survey page would complete an introductory phrase such as *How important is*…

The end result of phase 1 was a set of recorded interviews and the related interview transcripts. In addition there were 225 categories that were derived from the transcripts, which were mapped to the interview questions in a way that provided context for the details of survey 2. By mapping the categories in this manner, participants would be answering the survey based on an approach with which they were already familiar.

Phase 2

Phase 2 consisted of preparing the survey in the online tool, piloting then releasing the first survey, following up with participants, collecting the data once the participants were finished responding, and analyzing the data received. The first step was to port the survey questions in the Excel worksheets over to the Survey Monkey online survey tool.

Online survey tool. Survey Monkey was chosen due to: (a) no limit placed on how many questions that could be asked when accessing the tool under the Gold Plan, (b) provisions that protected participant anonymity, (c) flexible question randomization capability, (d) participant tracking capability, (e) user-friendly graphical user interface, (f) capability for distributing surveys from within the tool, (g) easy data export to Excel and SPSS, and (h) reasonable cost with a student discount.

A survey framework was chosen in Survey Monkey, and the contents of each Excel worksheet were transferred to individual survey pages. Each page was given introductory language, part of it common to every page, and the rest specific to the subject matter of the page. The language common to the pages requested that the full scale of ratings be used by the participant so that the relative importance was discernible in the statistics, and informed the participant that any categories they believed were missing could be suggested in the response to an open-ended question at the end of each survey page.

All but the last (open ended) survey question on each page was formatted to accept a response on a 7-point rating scale. Labels were given to the endpoints of the rating scale only, and every question on a given page – except for the last question – had the same labels. The page-specific labels are shown in Table 9. The last survey question on each page was open-ended and asked if there were any other choices the participant wanted to suggest adding with respect to the subject matter of the page. Each survey page was set up so that all questions were randomized except for the last question.

Table 9

Rating Label Endpoints for Survey 1

Survey Page	Lowest Rating	Highest Rating
1. Manager's Role, 2. Manager's Objectives, 4. Leader's Role, 5. Leader's Objectives	No Importance	Critical Importance
3. Manager Actions, 6. Leader Actions	No Relevance	Critical Relevance
7. Characteristics of Interactions	Not Prevalent	Extremely Prevalent
8. Leader/Manager Compatibility (or Incompatibility), 9. Time-Concurrent Action	Not at All	To a Very Great Extent
10. Leadership/Management Assertion, 10A. Potential Conflict,	I Don't Agree At All	I completely Agree
11. Uncategorized Comments		

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

The exception to this process was the Uncategorized Comments page that followed the pages listed in Table 9, which included questions related to the final one-on-one interview question – *Is there anything else you wish to add?* In general the interview responses for that question were not easily classified into one of the other pages, but in several cases did have valuable insights that the researcher did not want to exclude. The responses were translated into survey questions and given a 7-point rating format as was done for the questions on the previous pages; however each individual question was also allotted space for open-ended commentary. At a minimum, the responses were candidates for use in the recommendations for further study section of the dissertation, but may also lead to crystallization of certain facets of a concise theory.

An introductory page was added before all other survey pages, which included instructions for taking the survey, and expressed appreciation for participating. A close-out page was added following all other pages, which stated that the participant had reached the end of the survey, and thanked them for spending their time and energy on it. The compiled product was sent to the pilot participants, who were fellow classmates in the Organizational Leadership Doctoral program at Pepperdine University, for review. Review comments were received by the researcher within 3 days. All comments were minor adjustments to introductory language, and choice of words in very few cases. The suggestions and comments that resulted were incorporated in to the final version.

An email was sent to participants immediately prior to distributing the survey to alert them that it was coming. This was done both for their convenience and as back-up correspondence in the event that the researcher failed to properly utilize the automated distribution capability in Survey Monkey. An example of the email is provided in Appendix P.

A screen shot of the first two pages of the survey are provided in Appendix Q to show how the graphical user interface looked to the participants. Appendix Q also provides the entire text of the survey and shows the rating labels used. The survey was distributed to the participants by invitation email that was automatically generated by Survey Monkey. The automated emails were sent to one participant per email. The invitation email was also sent to the researcher so that (a) evidence of correct distribution was obtained; and (b) a representation of what each participant received was obtained, as reflected in Appendix R. The survey distribution format in Survey Monkey was set up so that the researcher was able to see which participants had started or completed the survey, and which had not. A schedule was set up in Microsoft Outlook for reminding those who had not started that the survey was still open. On the planned days the researcher sent reminder emails, again through the automated email distribution capability in the Survey Monkey tool.

Survey 1 outcome. Survey 1 was conducted from January 12, 2013 to February 3, 2013. All participants had started the survey, and 13 of the participants had completed it. Appendix S provides an example of an email sent to participants informing them that the survey was closed, and what steps were planned next, including expected timing. Figure 17 provides the frequency of responses across the 225 questions. The researcher downloaded the results into a single summary Excel worksheet using the following download format: spreadsheet/condensed/numerical values. The download contained all survey responses, plus administrative data.

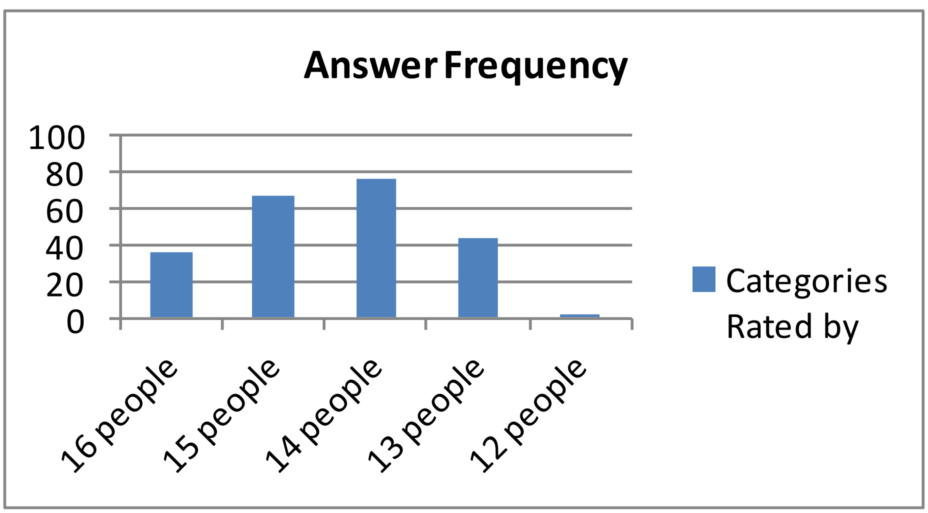


Figure 17. Number of survey 1 catgeories rated by how many participants.

The administrative data included the survey tool-generated respondent numbers that were unique to each participant, and the email addresses of the respondents. The survey tool automatically provided the participant-specific information when the choice had been made to enable participant tracking, i.e., which participants had started or completed the survey. According to Survey Monkey customer service, the two features were not separable. The researcher decided that tracking was important, and that deletion of the participant-specific data prior to examining the responses met the intent of anonymity. Respondent-unique numbers and email addresses were deleted by the researcher before saving the file for the first time, or reviewing the data, to preserve anonymity.

Category data was organized according to the survey page on which rating choices were provided. In tables throughout the rest of this dissertation, the term *Page X* is used as a heading for each group of categories, where *X* corresponds to the interview question number as shown in Appendix H. For example, the first interview question was *In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?* A category heading of *Page 1* has below it all categories associated with interview question 1.

Analysis. Recall that interquartile range (IQR) was to be used to determine consensus for each category in this study and was to be assessed on the set of ratings for each category. The IQR is the “difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles of the data, with smaller values indicating higher degrees of consensus” (Rayens & Hahn, 2000, p. 311). Provided the data has a single mode, a reasonable criterion for consensus is if the IQR is less than 2 units out of 10 (Scheibe et al., 1975). Since the category rating scales were 7-point, 2 units out of 10, or 20%, meant that the IQR criterion for each category was 0.2 x 7 = 1.4. Therefore, in tables that show the results of surveys, an IQR of 1.4 or less means that the given category had consensus from the participants. An IQR greater than 1.4 means that consensus was not reached.

Formulas were entered into the summary spreadsheet to determine the interquartile range (IQR) and average of responses for each individual survey category. Of the 225 questions that were in the survey, the IQR criterion of 1.4 or less was met on 83 of the questions, or 37%.

The set of average responses across all 225 categories was also characterized to understand any biases in the values of the ratings given by the participants. Figure 18 shows a distribution of the averages over the 225 categories that are biased toward higher ratings. The first, second, and third quartiles for the final set of average ratings will be determined and used in the Phase 3 analysis section of this dissertation to provide perspective on the relative criticality of select categories, given the bias in the answer values.

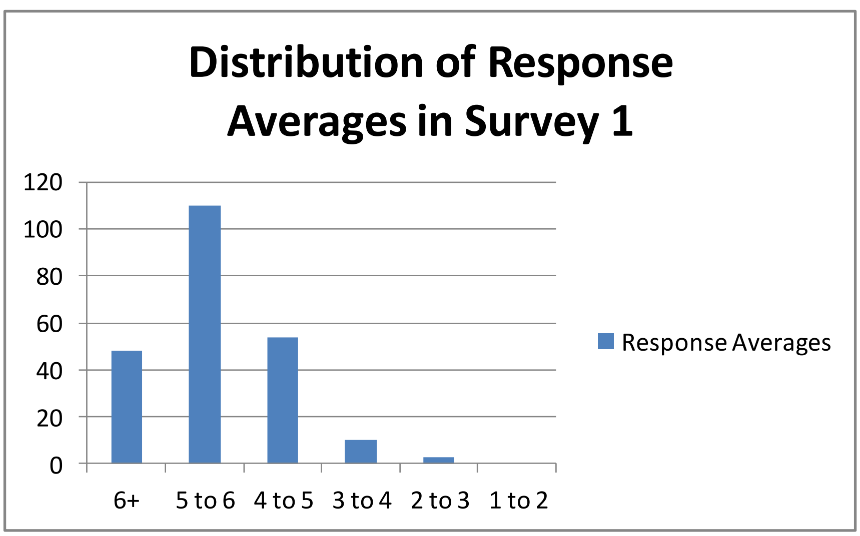


Figure 18. Distribution of response averages in survey 1.

The researcher sorted the results of the first survey by ascending value of IQR for each choice on every survey page. The results for each page were then split into two groups, the first group having achieved consensus by having an IQR of 1.4 or less, the second group having not achieved consensus. Table T1 in Appendix T shows the 83 of 225 categories in the first survey where consensus was reached. Table U1 in Appendix U shows the 142 of 225 categories where consensus was not reached.

Additional items. Each separate page with questions in survey 1 ended with an open-ended question that asked if there was anything else that the participant suggested be added to the set of categories for that page. In the page that addressed a manager's role, two new categories were suggested and subsequently added to the choices for the second survey: (a) Ensure Processes, People and Priorities are executed in accordance with Vision, Mission and Core Values; and (b) Show the employees how they are valued. In the page that addressed a manager's objectives, two new categories were suggested and subsequently added to the choices for the second survey: (a) Ensure creative critical thinking, problem solving and training in intercultural communication skills; and (b) Ensure that the actual resources used are adequate to meet the expected rate of delivery of the product. In the page that addressed a leader's role, a new category was suggested and subsequently added to the choices for the second survey: Lead by example. Other suggestions were deemed to be overlapping with existing questions and were not added.

As a result of analysis by the researcher of the answers in the first survey, seven more new questions were added for the second survey. This was done to make more explicit the findings that were only implied when comparing certain survey 1 responses.

Phase 3

The researcher duplicated survey 1 in the Survey Monkey tool and renamed it survey 2. All questions for which there was agreement in survey 1 based on criterion IQR < 1.4 were then eliminated, and the new questions suggested by the participants in survey 1 were entered in each page where applicable. The labels for the rating choices in survey 1 were not modified from the first survey. The open-ended questions at the end of each page were also deleted.

A new page was added to contain the seven new questions that were derived as a result of the analysis done on survey 1 responses. The text for these pages was as follows: “The questions on this page are new, relative to the first survey, and are based on first survey findings. They are stated as assertions, for which you will indicate your level of agreement. To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

1. Management is an enabling function
2. Leadership is a strategic function
3. Leadership is an aspirational function
4. Leadership is more about success than it is about change
5. There are more negative manager/leader interactions than there are positive interactions
6. A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is
7. If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are”.

The labels at the extremes of the 7-point rating scale for these questions were “I Don’t Agree At All”, and “I Completely Agree”.

To each of the questions that remained from survey 1, the researcher added text that reflected the level of agreement obtained in terms of the average of responses, to the first decimal point. The leading text prior to giving the average was as follows: *The average rating in the first survey was…* Similar to what was done in survey 1, survey 2 randomized all questions on each page. Appendix V shows a screen shot of the first page and the top part of page two of survey 2, an explanation of the rating labels used, and the full text of the survey.

The survey was distributed to participants using the automated email capability in the Survey Monkey tool. The researcher was also included in the distribution, for the same reasons as in survey 1. Appendix W provides an example of the email. A follow-up email was sent to all participants, alerting them that the survey had been released and that they should have received an invitation in their email. Appendix X provides an example of a reminder email sent to participants who had not started survey 2 that the targeted closure date was approaching.

Survey 2 outcome. Survey 2 was conducted from February 8, 2013, to February 27, 2013. Fifteen of sixteen participants had started the survey, and 12 of the participants had completed it. Appendix Y provides an example of an email sent to participants informing them that the survey was closed, and thanking them for their participation. Figure 19 provides the frequency of responses across the 154 questions. The researcher downloaded the results into a single summary Excel worksheet using the following download format: spreadsheet/condensed/numerical values. The download contained all survey responses, plus administrative data. The administrative data included the survey tool respondent numbers that were unique to each participant, and the email addresses of the respondents, both of which were deleted by the researcher before reviewing the data or saving the file for the first time, to preserve anonymity as was done with survey 1 results.

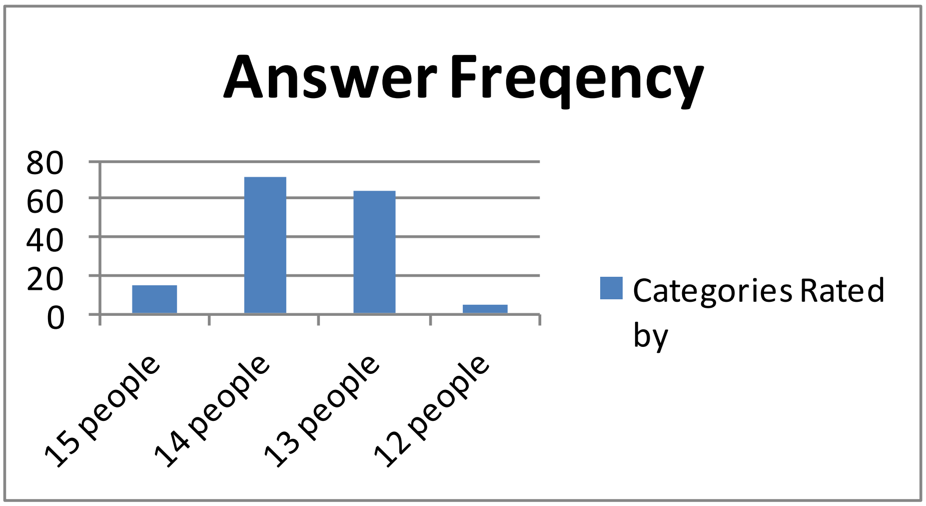


Figure 19. Number of survey 2 catgeories rated by how many participants.

Analysis. Recall that interquartile range (IQR) was to be used to determine consensus for each category in this study and was to be assessed on the set of ratings for each category. The IQR is the “difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles of the data, with smaller values indicating higher degrees of consensus” (Rayens & Hahn, 2000, p. 311). Provided the data has a single mode, a reasonable criterion for consensus is if the IQR is less than 2 units out of 10 (Scheibe et al., 1975). Since the category rating scales were 7-point, 2 units out of 10, or 20%, meant that the IQR criterion for each category was 0.2 x 7 = 1.4. Therefore, in tables that show the results of surveys, an IQR of 1.4 or less means that the given category had consensus from the participants. An IQR greater than 1.4 means that consensus was not reached.

Also recall that for categories in which consensus was not reached in the second survey, stability was to be used as a second criterion for closure. Stability can be considered as the degree of variation of data distribution from one data set to the next (Scheibe et al., 1975). The stability metric is determined using percent change as the evaluand. In this study the evaluand is the average of responses for a given category. Scheibe et al. (1975) suggest that a figure of merit of 15% be used to determine stability between successive data distributions, where percent change less than 15% deems the data stable, and percent change greater than 15% warrants further investigation. Therefore, in tables that show the results of survey 1 and survey 2, 15% change in average responses or less means that the given category had stability from survey 1 to survey 2. A percent change greater than 15% means that stability was not obtained.

Formulas were entered into the summary spreadsheet to determine the interquartile range (IQR) and average of responses for each survey question. Of the 154 questions in the survey, the IQR criterion of 1.4 or less was met on 81 of the questions, or 53%. Figure 20 shows the distribution of the averages over the 154 questions.

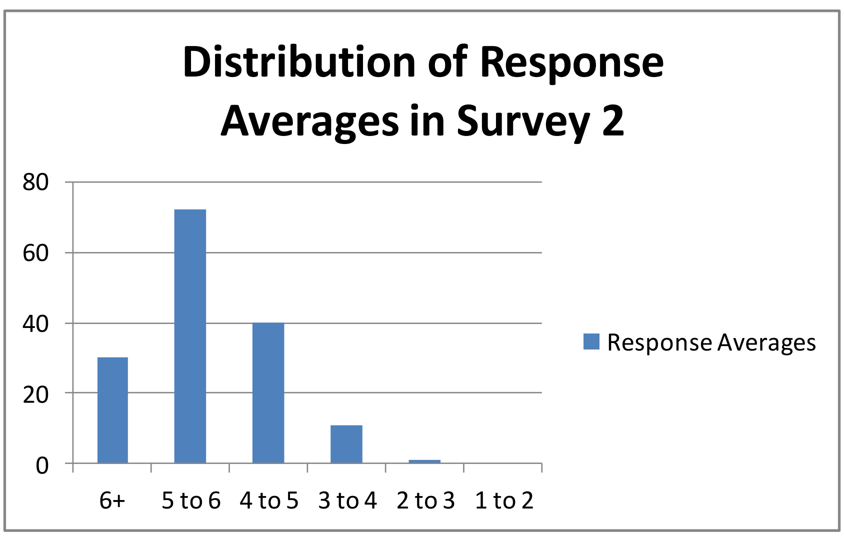


Figure 20. Distribution of response averages in survey 2.

The researcher sorted the results of the second survey by ascending value of IQR for each line item. The results were then split into two groups, the first group having achieved consensus by having an IQR of 1.4 or less, the second group having not achieved consensus. Table Z1 in Appendix Z shows 73 of 154 categories in the second survey where consensus was reached. Table AA1 in Appendix AA shows 69 of 154 categories where consensus was not reached, and also shows the degree of change in response averages from survey 1 to survey 2, for use with the stability criterion. Note that Table 12 and Table 13 do not show the results of the questions that were new in survey 2. Those results will be addressed in a later section of this chapter.

Responses to new questions. Twelve questions were added to survey 2 as a result of analysis on the results of survey 1, and according to suggestions provided by the participants in survey 1. Table 10 provides the new questions that passed the IQR criterion, and Table 11 provides the new questions that did not pass the criterion.

Table 10

New Survey 2 Categories that Reached Consensus

	Avg	IQR
Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?		
Ensure that the framework of Processes, People and Priorities is executed in accordance with Vision, Mission and Core Values	6.1	1.0
Show the employees how they are valued	6.0	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?		
Ensure that the actual resources used are adequate to meet the expected rate of delivery of the product	6.1	1.0
Ensure creative critical thinking, problem solving and training in intercultural communication skills	5.4	1.0
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?		
Lead by example	6.6	0.0
New Questions from Analysis of Survey 1 Responses		
A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is	5.8	1.0
If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are	5.3	1.0
Management is an enabling function	4.4	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Table 11

New Survey 2 Categories that Did Not Reach Consensus

	Avg	IQR
New Questions from Analysis of Survey 1 Responses		
Leadership is a strategic function	5.5	2.0
Leadership is an aspirational function	5.2	2.0
Leadership is more about success than it is about change	3.8	2.0
There are more negative manager/leader interactions than there are positive interactions	3.1	2.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

The categories that met the consensus criteria were examined for keywords. The redacted transcriptions were modified to take out all dialogue from the researcher, thus leaving only what the participants said. All participant words were ported into Excel, separated into one cell per word using the *Text to Columns* function in the Data tab, and tallied for word frequency for the keywords using the COUNTIF function in Excel. The search terms for word frequency were often truncated versions of keywords, so that variations in those words could be successfully captured. Figure 21 shows a Pareto of the top 25 truncated text strings, and Table 12 shows the frequency of the strings, the truncations, and the corresponding keyword variations.

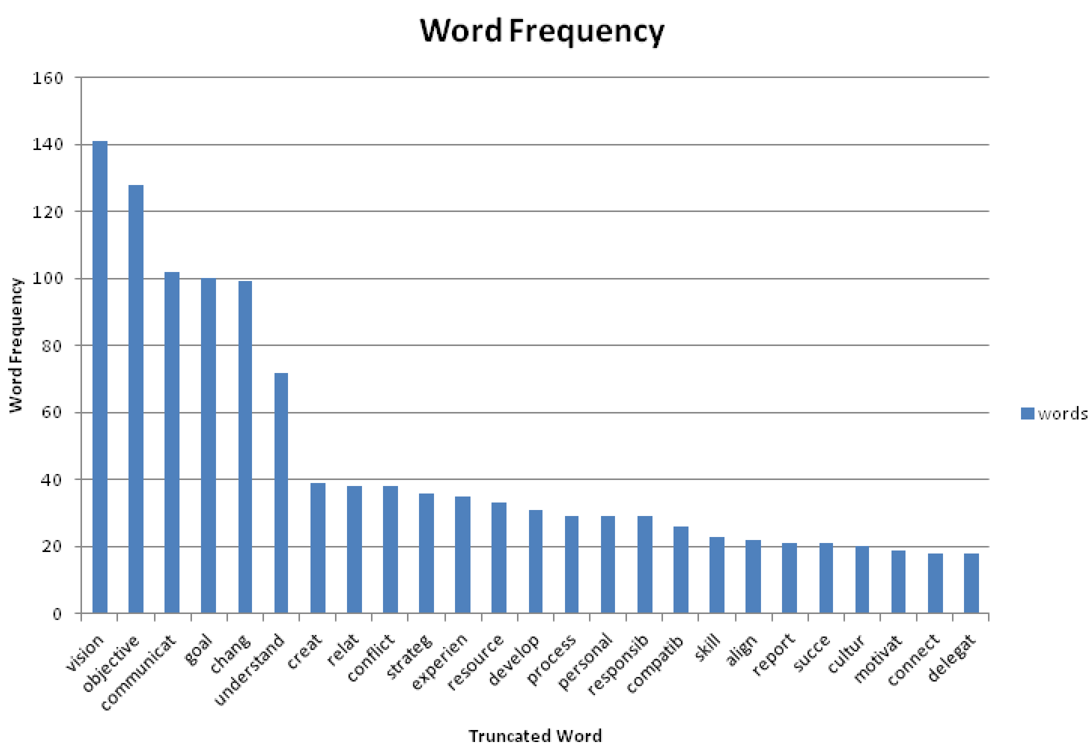


Figure 21. Pareto diagram of keywords in interviews.

Table 12

Most-Used Keywords in Interviews

String Frequency	Truncated Word String	Keywords
141	vision	vision
128	objective	objective, objectives
102	communicat	communicate
100	goal	goal
99	chang	change, changing
72	understand	understand, understands, understanding
39	creat	create, creative, creativity, created
38	relat	relation, relationship
38	conflict	conflict, conflicted, conflicting
36	strateg	strategy, strategic, strategize
35	experien	experience, experiential
33	resource	resource
31	develop	develop, developing, development
29	process	process, processes, processing
29	personal	personal, personality, personalities
29	responsib	responsible, responsibility, responsibilities
26	compatib	compatible, compatibility, compatibilities
23	skill	skill, skillful
22	align	align, alignment, aligned
21	report	report
21	succe	success, successful, succeed
20	cultur	culture, cultural
19	motivat	motivate, motivated, motivational, motivating
18	connect	connect, connecting, connection, connected
18	delegat	delegate, delegating, delegated

Study termination. The primary criteria for terminating the study, stated in Chapter Three, were (a) consensus of the experts, roughly defined as having an IQR of 20% or less of the measurement scale in three-quarters of the key categories, and or (b) stability of the data for three-quarters of the remaining key findings according to stability criteria. An IQR was the criterion used to indicate consensus for each finding. The threshold for consensus was 1.4, and a figure of merit of 15% for changes in average score was used for stability.

Survey 1 had consensus on 83 of the categories, and survey 2 had consensus for 73 of the categories from survey 1 that were repeated. Between the two surveys, consensus was reached on 156 of 225 original categories, or 69%. For the 69 survey 1 questions that were repeated in survey 2, but did not pass the IQR criterion in the second survey, 69 passed the stability criterion, or 100%. Adding the categories that passed the consensus criteria in both surveys to the survey 2 categories that passed the stability criteria, 225 of 225 categories met the termination criteria. Accordingly, the study was terminated following survey 2.

Final Results

In this Delphi study with 3 iterations, participants reached consensus on 156 original categories, plus 10 new categories, with respect to leadership and management. Of those categories, eight were considered to be critical with little or no disagreement, using the criteria of an average of 6.0 or greater and IQR of 0.5 or less. The nine categories are listed in Table 13 along with the relevant interview questions.

Table 13

Critical Categories with Little or No Disagreement

Relevant Interview Question	Category	Avg	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?	Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?	See the “big picture” and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly	6.6	0.5
	Set an example for how to act with a certain behavior	6.3	0.5
	Lead by example	6.6	0.0
Page 5. What are typically a leader’s objectives?	Set the ethical tone	6.5	0.0
	Create change and set the stage so that the change is successful	6.0	0.5
	Create followers and motivate them to follow	6.0	0.0
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?	There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations	6.0	0.0
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?	A good leader or good manager will always keep learning	6.9	0.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Five additional categories had full consensus, defined as IQR = 0, as shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Categories with Full Consensus

Relevant Interview Question	Category	Avg	IQR
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager’s objectives?	Observe and measure during execution, evaluate, and change execution if necessary	5.8	0.0
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader’s objectives?	Identify and assess the risks of potential or ongoing actions	5.8	0.0
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?	The implied amount of impending change	5.0	0.0
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?	The stability and consistency of the direction taken	5.0	0.0
	The level of detail involved	5.1	0.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Ten additional categories had high criticality, defined as average rating greater than or equal to 6.5, but with some disagreement, as shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Categories with High Criticality but Some Disagreement

Relevant Interview Question	Category	Avg	IQR
IQ.1 In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?	Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct	6.5	1.0
IQ.4 What is the role of a leader?	Be accountable for outcomes generated by the organization	6.5	1.0
	Communicate a rational vision that people will follow	6.5	1.0
	Understand the customer and the customers needs	6.5	1.0
IQ.5What are typically a leader's objectives?	Communicate effectively with all stakeholders	6.5	1.0
	Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people	6.7	1.0
	Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood	6.6	0.8
	Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it	6.5	1.0

(continued)

Relevant Interview Question	Category	Avg	IQR
IQ.6 What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader's objectives?	Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future	6.6	0.8
	Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents	6.5	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Three categories that were developed as a result of analyzing the responses for survey 1 received consensus and moderate criticality, as shown in Table 16.

Table 16

New Categories with Moderate Criticality

	Avg	IQR
Management is an enabling function	4.4	1.0
A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is	5.8	1.0
If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are	5.3	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Disagreement was identified earlier in this dissertation as being another valuable source of information, in that it may serve to identify aspects of management and leadership that are far from universally agreed. Table 17 provides a list of categories where lack of consensus was considerable, defined as IQR > 2.0. Note that the third quartile of IQR values overall is 1.8.

Table 17

Categories Where Lack of Consensus was Considerable

	Avg	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?		
(No considerable lack of consensus)		
Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?		
Satisfy stakeholders – the Board down to the workers, end users or beneficiaries, investors, community at large	5.3	2.5
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?		
Ensure the work environment is safe	5.6	2.8
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?		
Know what is going on everywhere and step in when needed	4.1	3.5
Page 5. What are typically a leader's objectives?		
(No considerable lack of consensus)		

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader's objectives?		
Make adjustments when necessary and or get involved at the detail level when insufficient progress warrants, relative to goals and objectives	5.6	2.8
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?		
The leader sells the vision and the manager makes it happen	5.2	2.5
Management teams are encouraged to openly voice their opinions about the goals and objectives at hand	4.6	2.5
Common objectives are not established to begin with, due to lack of communication of vision and direction	4.6	3.0
Vision of change is neither communicated nor clarified, but the leader expects that people will be on board	4.4	2.5
Communication is ineffective, due to using a communication approach that has an inappropriate context for the audience	4.4	2.8
Conflict is resolved immediately, openly, and transparently	4.4	2.5
Vision, goals, and objectives are fully aligned and there are no issues	4.0	2.8
Upon disagreement, someone leaves the organization or is moved out	3.7	3.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?		
(No considerable lack of consensus)		
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?		
(No considerable lack of consensus)		
Page 10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?		
The perception of leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo is real	3.9	3.0
It is true that “leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo”	3.3	3.0
Leaders maintain the status quo	3.1	3.0
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?		
The conflict is driven by confusion as to who has which role, rather than the roles themselves	4.8	3.0
The division between leader and manager roles, with respect to change and status quo, is by design and is necessary	2.9	3.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?		
There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers	4.3	5.0
Everyone leads	4.2	4.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Summary

Chapter Four provided a detailed account of how the Delphi study was conducted in accordance with Chapter Three plans. It included descriptions of how participants were recruited and engaged, what the participant demographics were, and how participant activities were tracked. It described the data collection and analysis methods, the development method for interpreting interview responses and translating them into questions that were used in survey 1 and survey 2, and the logistics approach that was used for data collection and protection. It shows the data that was collected, how the data for each category met or did not meet consensus or stability criteria, and the manner in which the aggregate study data met the termination criteria for the study.

Chapter Five will discuss key data provided in Chapter Four and reach conclusions pertinent to the research questions in this dissertation. The chapter will discuss statistical findings of significance of and by themselves, and compare certain findings to assertions made in selected literature discussed in earlier chapters. Researcher observations made during the study, including lessons learned, will be provided. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for future research.

Chapter Five: Conclusions and Recommendations

Organizational conflict manifests in misalignment of individuals and groups, and is often discussed in terms of the effect that leadership and management have on the state of affairs. It is built-in for any organization, yet its root causes are not fully understood. In this research, the effect that leadership and management have on conflict was examined in terms of management objectives and leadership objectives and how those objectives may be in conflict. The context for leadership/management conflict was generally defined as states of intent that are out of alignment with respect to the methodologies used to realize organizational goals.

The purpose of the study for this dissertation was to provide a formative evaluation of potential conflict between leadership and management in the context of their respective objectives, as further defined by the respective roles and associated actions. This chapter will discuss several key findings from the Delphi study and evaluate them in the context of conflict as defined. The discussion will include review of pertinent statistical findings, with respect to the research questions, the bounded study data compiled from a group of experts, and with respect to assertions made in selected literature discussed in earlier chapters. Researcher observations and lessons learned will be provided. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for future research.

Results

This research centered on management objectives and leadership objectives. Assuming that leadership objectives and management objectives are potentially countervailing and may lead to conflict, it would be helpful to know how conflict manifests. This research sought definable attributes that help illustrate the components of objective-driven conflict, which may enable execution of root cause analysis used in troubleshooting organizational problems. The following research questions were pursued:

- RQ 1. Do countervailing objectives potentially lead to conflict?
- RQ 2. What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives?
- RQ 3. What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives?

The analyses in this chapter that address the research questions and other perspectives only use data for which there was consensus, unless otherwise noted. Interquartile range (IQR) was used to determine consensus for each category in this study and was assessed on the set of ratings for each category. The IQR is the "difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles of the data, with smaller values indicating higher degrees of consensus" (Rayens & Hahn, 2000, p. 311). Provided the data has a single mode, a reasonable criterion for consensus is if the IQR is less than 2 units out of 10 (Scheibe et al., 1975). Since the category rating scales were 7-point, 2 units out of 10, or 20%, meant that the IQR criterion for each category was 0.2 x 7 = 1.4. Therefore, in data that show the results of surveys, an IQR of 1.4 or less means that the given category had consensus from the participants. An IQR greater than 1.4 means that consensus was not reached.

Also recall that for categories in which consensus was not reached in the second survey, stability was used as a second criterion for closure. Stability can be considered as the degree of variation of data distribution from one data set to the next (Scheibe et al., 1975). The stability metric is determined using percent change as the evaluand. In this study the evaluand is the average of responses for a given category. Scheibe et al. (1975) suggest that a figure of merit of 15% be used to determine stability between successive data distributions, where percent change less than 15% deems the data stable, and percent change greater than 15% warrants further investigation. Therefore, in data that show the results of survey 1 and survey 2, 15% change in average responses or less means that the given category had stability from survey 1 to survey 2. A percent change greater than 15% means that stability was not obtained.

In tables throughout this chapter, the term *Page X* is used as a heading for each group of categories, where *X* corresponds to the interview question number as shown in Appendix H. For example, the first interview question was *In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?* A category heading of *Page 1* has below it all categories associated with interview question 1.

Use of quartiles for the set of average scores. Interquartile range, or IQR, was described as a metric for use in determining consensus between survey participants, for each of the 225 categories. The average score was also determined for each individual category, however Figure 18 and Figure 20 showed that across all categories there was a discernible bias toward the top end of the rating scale. Such a bias makes it challenging to understand which average scores are of significance relative to the others.

To address this challenge, the first, second, and third quartiles of the set of average scores for the 164 categories that reached consensus have been calculated. In all categories for which there was consensus, the first quartile of average ratings = 5.3, the second quartile = 5.7, and the third quartile = 6.2. In the analyses that follow, it will be made clear whether IQR is being discussed, versus the quartiles of the set of average scores.

Findings with respect to Research Question 1. To address research question 1 (i.e., RQ 1), *Do countervailing objectives potentially lead to conflict?*, the answer can be examined by splitting the single question into two related sub-questions: (a) Do countervailing objectives lead to conflict? (b) What is the potential for doing so? Table 18 repeats selected data from Chapter Four related to the sub-question (a).

Table 18

Do Countervailing Objectives Lead to Conflict?

	Avg	IQR
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?		
The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable	4.5	1.0
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?		
Willingness to compromise	5.4	1.0
Differences in priorities	5.3	1.0
A common understanding of the vision	6.1	1.0
Alignment between leaders and managers	5.4	1.0
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?		
Awareness by a leader or manager, of what the other manager or leader is doing	4.9	1.0
Compatibility of the objectives	5.6	1.0
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?		
It’s important to transfer the vision, goal, or new direction of the organization back to the management team so that they are enrolled in the direction and the journey	6.2	1.0

Note All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

The categories in Table 18, by addressing priorities, understanding, alignment, and compatibility, provide some validity that countervailing objectives lead to conflict. However, with the exception of transferring the vision, the average ratings do not imply high criticality for such an assertion. The outcome of time-concurrent actions taken by managers and leaders is affected by *Compatibility of the objectives* at an average rating of 5.6, which is below the median for all average ratings in categories for which there was consensus. The category *The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable* likely correlates to the conflict being due to objectives, yet the average rating was below the first quartile for all categories with consensus. Thus, the answer to the first part of the first question above, *Do countervailing objectives lead to conflict*, is: not necessarily.

To address sub-question (b), *What is the potential for doing so?*, the potential for conflict is influenced by the degree to which circumstances dictate. Table 18 suggests that willingness to compromise, differences in priorities, common understanding of the vision, and alignment between leaders and managers are moderate influences. However, they are variable by nature. The outcome is a matter of *how much* willingness, *how different* the priorities, and *how much* understanding or alignment. The circumstantial nature of the outcome is also suggested by the average ratings of two of the new questions in survey 2: *A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is* (Average = 5.8), and *If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are* (Average = 5.3). The most convincing argument regarding the circumstantial nature of manager/leader conflict is reflected in the category *There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for* *change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations*, which had an average rating = 6.0 and an IQR = 0.0. Thus, the answer to *What is the potential for doing so? is* circumstantial, not certain or predestined.

Findings with respect to Research Questions 2 and 3. To address the second and third research questions, i.e., RQ 2. What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives? and RQ 3. What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives? Table 19 provides the categories for manager objectives and leader objectives for which there was consensus and for which the average ratings were above the third quartile for all average ratings in categories with consensus. In Table 19 the nature of the manager's objectives is thing-oriented – ensure that output meets expectations, meet goals and objectives. The nature of the leader's objectives is mostly people-oriented – vision, communication, alignment, character building, ethics, influence. This is consistent with Table 1 of this dissertation (Kotterman, 2006), and the early history of leadership and management discussed in Chapter Two, where management is oriented toward things: plans, budgets, complexity, processes, staffs, employees, and results, while leadership is oriented toward human factors: vision, passion, change, organization, teams, emotions, employees, and humans.

Table 19

Manager and Leader Objectives with Average Ratings > Third Quartile

Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?	Avg	IQR	Page 5. What are typically a leader's objectives?	Avg	IQR
Ensure that product output meets expectations – requirements, quality standards, desires (spoken or unspoken)	6.3	1.0	Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood	6.6	0.8
Have teams work effectively and professionally to meet goals and objectives	6.2	1.0	Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it	6.5	1.0
			Accomplish the vision, achieve a goal	6.2	1.0
			Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people	6.7	1.0
			Set the ethical tone	6.5	0.0
			Communicate effectively with all stakeholders	6.5	1.0
			Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome	6.2	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Between leadership and management objectives in Table 19, the common category in the data is to meet or achieve goals. Using the categories in Table 19, it can be argued that the difference in the nature of leader and manager objectives is complementary – the leader objective is to have a vision and strategy that is communicated and understood so that a manager has teams that meet goals and objectives. There is little in Table 19 to suggest that by nature, manager and leader objectives are inevitably in conflict. The remaining manager and leader objectives with consensus, i.e., those with average ratings below the third quartile, follow with the results in Table 19 with respect to managers generally being thing-oriented and leaders being people-oriented.

Using the data in Table 19, the answer to the second and third research questions, i.e., RQ 2. What aspects of leadership objectives run counter to common management objectives?, and RQ 3. What aspects of management objectives run counter to common leadership objectives? is that the aspects depend on the situation.

- The data show that there exist distinct objectives for management and leadership, which may lead to conflict, however the data are not significantly convincing in terms of those objectives being intrinsic. Having objectives run counter is more a matter of circumstance than it is of predefined role. Thus, the aspects of leadership objectives that run counter to common management objectives are situation-driven aspects that present barriers to managers managing things such as plans, budgets, complexity, processes, staffs, employees, and results. The aspects of management objectives that run counter to common leadership objectives are situation-driven aspects that present barriers to leaders leading humans such as vision, passion, change, organization, teams, emotions, and employees.

Other findings. Skulmoski et al. (2007) espouse benefits of the Delphi method that include indirect interactions of the participants over the iterative cycle, and conduciveness to adjusting the study to the problem rather than the problem to the study. This section addresses the findings of the study that surface outside the context of the three research questions, as guided by the inputs of the participants. Addressing such findings is representative of adjusting the study to the problem.

Critically important with high agreement. Table 13 provided critical categories from the study, i.e., relatively high average rating, that had little or no disagreement. Categories with high agreement and high average ratings suggest that a manager's role is to provide structure for getting work done, while a leader's role is to develop a vision and strategy for that work based on the *big picture*, and lead by example. Additionally, a leader's objectives are to set the stage for and create change, plus create and motivate followers, all within ethical boundaries.

Common to both roles is the statement *A good leader or good manager will always keep learning*, for which the average rating = 6.9 and the IQR = 0.0. This strongly implies that a static or non-learning leader or manager is not likely to be affective, which dovetails with the circumstantial nature of conflict between objectives – a manager or leader that doesn't learn in the midst of changing circumstances is more likely to fail. Assuming that changing circumstances are a regular occurrence, the managers and leaders who learn as a regular course are more likely to be able to effectively address those changes.

Highest agreement. Table 14 provided categories with total consensus, defined as having IQR = 0.0, regardless of perceived criticality as reflected in the average rating.

Based on Table 14, there is robust agreement that manager actions are to address ongoing activities – observe, measure, and change execution when appropriate – whereas leader actions are to look ahead to the potential risks of actions taken or to be taken. Given that leader and manager actions are often taken in parallel, the concurrent perspectives of present and future – ongoing execution versus looking ahead -- affect the stability of the direction taken, which in turn affects the quality of the outcome for those actions. An additional influence is the amount of detail at hand.

Most critically important with some disagreement. Table 15 showed categories considered to have high criticality, defined as average rating greater than or equal to 6.5, albeit with some moderate disagreement. Findings based on Table 15 fall somewhat in line with earlier observations that managers are generally thing-oriented while leaders are people-oriented. While the role of a manager is seen as *Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct*, and *Get work done through others* (Avg for both = 6.5, IQR = 1.0), the nature of that management is more transactional than transformational. Words such as develop, instruct, assign, evaluate and track progress, guide and correct, are not motivationally or considerably future oriented, and only imply communication and understanding between managers and others rather than consider them explicitly as is done between leaders and others.

Lowest agreement. The success of the Delphi method is not solely dependent on the group of participants reaching consensus, rather it takes on additional value by illuminating lack of consensus. When that happens, identified differences tend to be informative (Vernon, 2009). Such disagreement can be powerful for identifying areas of concern that may be divergent in general, i.e., beyond the group of study participants.

Such divergence would provide significant numbers of candidate focal points in future studies, where the *why* of divergence is examined. Table 17 provided a list of categories where IQR was above the third quartile, i.e., low consensus.

There is little agreement as to whether manager objectives should concern satisfying stakeholders, which suggests in part that the assertion of thing-orientation for managers is not necessarily exclusive. Since stakeholders are people, satisfying them, by definition, would to some degree be people-oriented.

There is little agreement that leaders need to be omniscient and hands-on. While it is agreed that leaders should *Be accountable for outcomes generated by the organization* (Avg = 6.5, IQR = 1.0), there isn't agreement with respect to accountability in terms of involvement in making adjustments at the detail level (Avg = 5.6, IQR = 2.8).

The category with the highest disagreement was *There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers* (Avg = 4.3, IQR = 5.0). Two possible explanations for this dispersion are: (a) such generalizations are acceptable but this one is not correct, or (b) such generalizations are not valid in the first place. The next section addresses generalizations found in the literature, and their validity.

Comparison of data to assertions in the literature. Several assertions from the literature were collected in Chapter Two. Table 20 through Table 29 repeats several of those assertions and their sources and compares the outcome of the study to each in terms of specific categories with their ratings and IQR. The comparisons are to be understood as *the author(s) made this assertion, and the study data suggests that the assertion is valid or un-valid*. Entries made for study data were limited to pertinent categories with consensus and an average rating of 6.0 or greater. The data suggest the validity of many of the assertions found in the literature used in Chapter Two.

Table 20

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Marker

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
A leader is defined by Marker (2010) as someone who “gets others to want what he/she wants” and who “utilizes a totally different set of skills including persuasion, communication, shared vision, values, logic and even, at times, emotion”	(A leader's role is to) Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision	6.1	1.0
	(A leader's role is to) Use the vision to motivate and inspire people	6.2	1.0
	(A leader's role is to) Communicate a rational vision that people will follow	6.5	1.0
	(A leader's objective is to) Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome	6.2	1.0
	(A leader's action is to) Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents	6.5	1.0
Marker (2010) says that management is about daily task-by-task oversight.	(A manager's role is to) Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues	6.3	1.0
	(A manager's action is to) Address and resolve barriers to progress	6.4	1.0

(continued)

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
	(A manager's action is to) Translate goals and objectives into assignable tasks, assign them to the appropriate resources, track progress, correct when necessary	6.2	1.3
A good manager is defined by Marker (2010) as someone who “gets others to do what he/she wants them to do”	(A manager's role is to) Get work done through others – assign, instruct, track progress, adjust and correct	6.5	1.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Marker (2010) defines a leader as someone who “gets others to want what he/she wants” (p. 32). Assuming that the vision is what the leader wants, the study data show validity in Marker’s assertion by giving high ratings to *get people to pull in the same direction*, and *follow*, to *achieve a desired outcome* according to the vision. The use of persuasion in Marker’s assertion is mirrored by the high rating for *Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome*.

Marker’s (2010) assertion about daily task-by-task oversight is closely paralleled by *help teams accomplish their tasks*, and *address and resolve barriers*. *Track progress* also denotes oversight. Thus, Marker’s assertions are valid.

Table 21

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Kotterman

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
A leader establishes organizational direction (Kotterman, 2006)	(A leader's role is to) See the "big picture" and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly	6.6	0.5
	(A leader's role is to) Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision	6.1	1.0
	(A leader's objective is to) Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood	6.6	0.8
	(A leader's action is to) Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future	6.6	0.8
A manager is necessary to introduce and maintain order and consistency into the work place, stabilize work, organize resources, solve problems, and reduce chaos (Kotterman, 2006).	(A manager's role is to) Ensure that the direction of the company is followed – vision, strategy, policies and procedures	6.2	1.3
	(A manager's role is to) Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0
	(A manager's action is to) Address and resolve barriers to progress	6.4	1.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Kotterman's (2006) description of a leader establishing organizational direction is closely paralleled in the high rating for *See the "big picture" and develop the long-range vision,* and *Develop the vision for and direction of the future state*. Establishing organizational direction is also implied by *identify the right path* and *Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be*. As such, Kotterman's assertion is valid.

Table 22

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature -Weathersby

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
According to Weathersby (1999) leadership is about conceiving a common vision, motivating people to align their self-interest with that of the organization, and persuading.	(A leader's role is to) Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision	6.1	1.0
	(A leader's role is to) Capture hearts and inspire others, drive enthusiasm and motivate to make things happen	6.1	1.0
	(A leader's objective is to) Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood	6.6	0.8
Weathersby (1999) asserts that management concerns the allocation of scarce resources according to objectives, setting priorities, achieving results, and controlling.	(A manager's role is to) Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues	6.3	1.0

(continued)

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
	(A manager's role is to) Ensure that the direction of the company is followed – vision, strategy, policies and procedures	6.2	1.3
	(A manager's objective is to) Ensure that product output meets expectations – requirements, quality standards, desires (spoken or unspoken)	6.3	1.0
	(A manager's action is to) Obtain resources that can and will get the work done	6.0	1.3

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Weathersby's (1999) assertion of about conceiving a common vision is similar to *Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood*. Weathersby's motivating people to align their self-interest with that of the organization aligns well with *get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision* and *motivate to make things happen*.

Weathersby's (1999) assertion *allocation of scarce resources* closely resembles the study data that give high ratings to *obtaining and managing resources. Setting priorities, achieving results* resembles *Obtain resources that can and will get the work done*, and *Ensure that product output meets expectations*. *Controlling* is implied by *Ensure that the direction of the company is followed*. Thus, Weathersby's assertions are valid.

Table 23

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Plato

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
This was further parlayed into a concept of the role of leaders by Plato, a student of Socrates, who believed that great leaders needed to be great philosophers that opted for intellect over passion (Pashiardis, 2009)	(The role of a leader is to) Communicate a rational vision that people will follow	6.5	1.0
	(A leader's objective is to) Set the ethical tone	6.5	0.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Plato's (as cited in Pashiardis, 2009) opting for *intellect over passion* is implied by study category *Communicate a rational vision*. *Setting an ethical tone* can also be seen as a rational pursuit, given the cognitive and therefore intellectual nature. As such the study data validate Plato's philosophy.

Table 24

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Drucker

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
"Above all, management is responsible for producing results." -- Peter Drucker (Drucker, 2004).	(A manager's objective is to) Ensure that product output meets expectations – requirements, quality standards, desires (spoken or unspoken)	6.3	1.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Drucker's (2004) *producing results* is a close parallel to *Ensure that product output meets expectations*. Thus, the study data validate his assertion.

Table 25

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Maccoby

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
Maccoby (2000) and Stanley (2006) offered that leadership is not a function but is instead a relationship, whereas management is a function	(A leader's role is to) Pay attention to the people aspects of the organization	6.1	1.0
	(A leader's role is to) Capture hearts and inspire others, drive enthusiasm and motivate to make things happen	6.1	1.0
	(A manager's role is to) Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues	6.3	1.0
	(A manager's role is to) Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Maccoby (2000) and Stanley's (2006) offerings that *leadership… is a relationship* are reflected in the study categories *Pay attention to the people aspects of the organization* and *Capture hearts and inspire others*. Similarly, *management is a function* is explained by *Facilitate*, and *ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done*. As such, Maccoby's and Stanley's points are backed up by the study data.

Table 26

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Bolman and Deal

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
Leaders focus on purpose whereas managers focus on execution (Bolman & Deal, 2008)	(A leader's role is to) Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary	6.5	1.0
	(A leader's action is to) Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken	6.3	1.0
	(A manager's role is to) Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues	6.3	1.0
	(A manager's role is to) Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0
Bolman and Deal said that one doesn't have to be a manager to be a leader.	Leadership is not exclusive to where one is in an organization	6.3	1.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Bolman and Deal (2008) say that *Leaders focus on purpose*, and the study data says that leaders *Look to… where the key opportunities or risks will be* and *create the context for… actions*. Bolman and Deal also say that *managers focus on execution*, whereas the study data say that managers *help teams accomplish their tasks* and *ensure* *that there is structure and process for getting work done*. Bolman and Deal also say that if one is a leader, one doesn't have to be a manager, which is similar to *Leadership is not exclusive to where one is in an organization*. Thus, the study data validate the Bolman and Deal assertions.

Table 27

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Kouzes and Posner

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
Kouzes and Posner (2007) assert that "Leaders… don't like the status quo" (p. 168).	If the leader is driving change and the manager is maintaining status quo, the possibility of conflict exists	6.2	1.0

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

The idea of conflict existing if a *leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining the status quo* implies that the status quo is part of the conflict. This is in line with *Leaders… don't like the status quo*, according to Kouzes and Posner (2007). As such, the study data provide credence to the Kouzes and Posner assertion.

Table 28

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Young and Dulewicz

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
Young and Dulewicz (2008) differentiate key aspects of leadership and management by saying that (a) leadership sets a direction while management plans and budgets;	(A leader's role is to) Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary	6.5	1.0

(continued)

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
	(A manager's action is to) Translate goals and objectives into assignable tasks, assign them to the appropriate resources, track progress, correct when necessary	6.2	1.3
	(A manager's action is to) Manage the budget	6.1	1.0
(b) leadership aligns people while management organizes and staffs;	(A leader's role is to) Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision	6.1	1.0
	(A manager's role is to) Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct	6.5	1.0
(c) leadership motivates people while management controls and solves problems; and	(A leader's role is to) Use the vision to motivate and inspire people	6.2	1.0
	(A manager's action is to) Address and resolve barriers to progress	6.4	1.0
(d) leadership masters the context, while management controls the environment.	(A leader's role is to) See the "big picture" and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly	6.6	0.5
	(A manager's role is to) Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0
	(A manager's action is to) Ensure the work environment is productive	6.1	1.3

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Young and Dulewicz (2008) provide a four-part assertion that maps well to the study data. *Leadership sets a direction* resembles *Look to… what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary*. *Management plans and budgets* is similar to *Translate goals and objectives into assignable tasks, assign them* and *Manage the budget*. Young and Dulewicz say that *leadership aligns people*, while the study data says that a leader's role is to *Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction*. *Management organizes and staffs* is similar to *recruit, develop, assign*.

Leadership motivates people is very similar to saying that a leader's role is to *Use the vision to motivate*. *Management… solves problems* sounds a lot like *Address and resolve barriers to progress*. If *leadership masters the context*, then another way to express that idea is to say that leaders *see the "big picture" and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly*. Management controlling *the environment* is similar to *Establish and maintain infrastructure* and *Ensure the work environment is productive*. Thus, Young and Dulewicz's (2008) assertions have validity according to the study data.

Table 29

Comparison of Study Data to Selected Literature - Maccoby and Scudder, Kouzes and Posner

Literature Reference	Study Data	Avg	IQR
Maccoby and Scudder (2011) assert that “Leaders lead change” (p. 51). Kouzes and Posner (2007) say that “The work of leaders is change” (p. 164).	(A leader's role is to) Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary	6.5	1.0
	(A leader's objective is to) Create change and set the stage so that the change is successful	6.0	0.5

Note. All study categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) and Maccoby and Scudder (2011) all say that leaders are about change. The study data gave high ratings to leaders looking *to… what changes will be necessary* and *create change*. Hence the study data validate Maccoby and Scudder’s and Kouzes and Posner’s assertions.

Change versus the status quo. There was little broad disagreement between the literature and the study findings, with one exception. A discussion in Chapter One of this dissertation was in regard to the concept of a prevailing premise, found collectively in the literature, that leadership is about driving change, and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo (Bennis, 1989a; Kotter, 1990; Kotterman, 2006; Zaleznik, 1977). This concept was explicitly addressed in the study by asking two interview questions:

1. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?
2. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?

Recall that in all categories for which there was consensus, the first quartile of average ratings = 5.3, the second quartile = 5.7, and the third quartile = 6.2. With respect to the survey categories that were indentured under the above two interview questions, there were two categories with consensus that were above the third quartile in average rating: (a) Some managers also lead (Avg = 6.5, IQR = 1.0); and (b) If the leader is driving change and the manager is maintaining status quo, the possibility of conflict exists (Avg = 6.2, IQR = 1.0). The results of the second category are not definitive, but instead point to the circumstantial or conditional nature of manager and leader compatibility. However, the results of that category also legitimize the concept of leader/manager conflict due to actions, which in turn are driven by objectives.

The generalization made in the first question above is further offset by two categories for which there was no consensus: (a) It is true that “leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo” (Avg = 3.3, IQR = 3.0); and (b) The statement “Leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo” is not true (Avg = 5.2, IQR = 2.0). Setting aside the lack of consensus for these two categories, it is evident that *leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo* is not valid, by virtue of the roles themselves, according to the experts, given that the statement that it is not true rated considerably higher than the statement that asserted it is true. What is left is the circumstantial view: *if* one person is driving change while the other is driving the status quo, *then* conflict becomes more possible. This conclusion is further supported by the results of the category *The conflict between the roles depends on the situation* (Avg = 5.5, IQR = 1.0).

Nomenclature, taxonomy, and ontology. According to Simpson (2003), "If taxonomy is the 'how,' then nomenclature is the 'what'" (p. 18). Ontology is a complement to nomenclature and taxonomy, in that it (a) provides the conceptual framework for the terms used, by theorizing the properties of and relationships between the entities of concern; and (b) transcends the actual language used.

Figure 21 and Table 12 showed the top 25 words spoken by the participants during the one-on-one interviews in terms of word frequency. Six words were dominant: Vision, Objective, Communication, Goal, Change, and Understand. Based on analysis of the data, all six of the words are commonly associated with leaders, while two of the words – goal, and objective – are commonly associated with managers. Although there were not any dominant words exclusive to managers, the word frequency results do suggest the plausibility of establishing nomenclature for both roles.

Laying the groundwork for taxonomy will require that a different approach be made in a separate study. Although there is a kernel for nomenclature, the data is lacking clarity for differentiators that define the *how*, i.e., how the nomenclature is used across several contexts.

Management and leadership – separate and distinct? This study explored the concept of conflict under the assumption that leaders and managers, and leadership and management, are separate and distinct. The nomenclature and taxonomy discussed in the section on *Nomenclature, Taxonomy, and Ontology* of this dissertation suggest that there is some overlap between management and leadership. The study data also support an overlap perspective. The assertion *Management and leadership are separate roles but they aren't necessarily multiple people* had an average rating = 6.2 with an IQR = 1.0, and *Some managers also lead* had an average rating = 6.5 with an IQR = 1.0, suggesting that part of the lack of definition of the roles relates to non-exclusivity of who executes each role.

There was enough overlap in other categories that an argument for separate and distinct status of leaders and managers, and leadership and management, is not feasible. To illustrate, Table 30 shows five categories each for managers and leaders where there was consensus and relatively high criticality, but also where there is overlap. In each set of categories in Table 30, although the phrases appear to be similar, there are likely subtle differences that are dependent on context of use, and situation. Deciphering the subtle differences will be addressed further in the upcoming section on Recommendations and Conclusions.

Table 30

Manager/Leader Overlap

Managers	Avg	IQR	Leaders	Avg	IQR
Communicate important and or pertinent information	6.4	1.0	Communicate effectively with all stakeholders	6.5	1.0
Align ongoing activities with goals and objectives	6.1	1.3	Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken	6.3	1.0
Meet or exceed obligations - deadlines and outcomes - relative to expectations	5.9	1.0	Be accountable for outcomes generated by the organization	6.5	1.0
Teach, coach, and develop people	6.3	1.0	Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people	6.7	1.0

(continued)

Managers	Avg	IQR	Leaders	Avg	IQR
Obtain resources that can and will get the work done	6.0	1.3	Ensure that resources and infrastructure needs are recognized, prioritized, and in place	6.0	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

The plausibility of intrinsic conflict. Conflict between leadership and management was suggested earlier in this dissertation as being driven primarily by the objectives of manager and leader, and it has been shown that there is a reasonable possibility of objectives-based or actions-based conflict. Two of the categories added to survey 2 as a result of analyzing survey 1 results have criticality of objectives and actions that are not particularly high, however suggest that there is consensus that circumstantially-driven objectives and actions are valid sources of conflict: *A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is* (Avg = 5.8, IQR = 1.0), and *If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are* (Avg = 5.3, IQR = 1.0). Thus, while intrinsic conflict is possible, *conflict relates more to what they are doing* at any given time, which is likely to be changing over time. In the context of objectives it is reasonable to assume that what the manager and leader are doing is driven by what is needed, also which is likely to be changing over time. What is needed and acted upon by a leader or manager does not necessarily correlate with a well-defined list of natural or intrinsic objectives for either entity. Since *A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is,* what they are doing in response to that need is what drives conflict, instead of a predetermined set of objectives based on their role.

Conceptual framework. Part of the objective of this dissertation was to develop the kernels for a concise theory that characterizes conflict between leaders and managers. Management and leadership, both separately and as each relates to the other, is an ongoing process of gaining understanding. They are not static constructs. However, the preceding analyses in this chapter can be reduced to useful components of a conceptual framework that can help improve understanding:

- Leaders and managers in general are not separate and distinct.
- A manager's general role is to provide structure for getting work done, whereas a leader's general role is to develop a vision and strategy for that work based on the big picture. This is not absolute, and there are exceptions.
- The general nature of the manager's objectives is thing-oriented, whereas the general nature of the leader's objectives is mostly people-oriented.
- One of the leader's objectives is to set the stage for and create change.
- Countervailing manager and leader objectives do not necessarily lead to conflict; leader/manager conflict is not inevitable. The potential for conflict is more circumstantial and not certain or predestined.
- Manager actions focus on ongoing activities – observe, measure, and change execution where appropriate. Leader actions are to look ahead to the potential risks of actions taken or to be taken. The concurrent perspectives of present and future – ongoing execution versus looking ahead – affect the stability of the direction taken.
- The concept that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo is not valid by virtue of the roles themselves. However, if one person is taking

the action to drive change while the other is acting to drive the status quo, then conflict becomes more possible.

- A good leader or manager will always keep learning.

Researcher Observations and Lessons Learned

The researcher had several basic expectations about the study outcome, three of which were not met: (a) the effect of leader and manager personalities would tend to creep into the discussion despite the effort to focus on task and objective orientation, (b) the concept that leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and/or improving the status quo would be validated, and (c) the concept that leader or manager role is the primary driver of objectives would be validated. Other lessons pertain to the conduct of the study.

Leader/manager personality conflict. Revisiting the distinction between task-oriented and personality-oriented conflict, the study focused on task orientation. All interview questions centered on rational constructs such as role, objective, and action. Having done so, the researcher still expected that one or more of the participants would assert that manager and leader personalities had at least some effect on organizational conflict. In this study, that was not the case. Potential causes of that absence include: (a) the line of questioning was clear regarding the boundaries of the subject under study and the participants were not inclined to go outside those boundaries; (b) participants saw the focus of the study as breaking new ground and were keen to explore it; and (c) personalities, although addressed to considerable extent in the literature, are indeed not significant drivers for conflict. Responses to interview questions and answers to open-ended survey questions strongly suggest that participants saw the study as breaking new ground; however a causal relationship with respect to the absence of personality-related discussions cannot be established.

Change versus status quo. A significant and convincing line of assertion in the literature was that *leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and/or improving the status quo* – according to Bennis (1989a), Kotter (1990), and Kotterman (2006), and Zaleznik (1977). This assertion was directly tested in the study and was essentially refuted by the participants, in contrast to several of the other assertions from the literature that were well-corroborated. There are a few factors that could have influenced the outcome.

First, it is acknowledged that the assertion that leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and/or improving the status quo may in fact be untrue, or at least not *generally* true. The literature did provide a wide spectrum of definitions for leadership and management, and a variety of opinions as to whether management and leadership were the same, or totally different, or somewhere in between. Given that there is little agreement as to the degree of commonality in the roles, it follows that this well-defined construct would also have little agreement. In fact, the IQR for the category was 3.0, implying that agreement was minimal.

Second, the assertion that leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and/or improving the status quo was not prefaced or offered to the participants in context. The concept of change was not predefined, nor was the concept of status quo. There were no scenarios that illustrated the concept or provided a reference point for discussions; there was only the line of questioning in the interview protocol and the sequence of categories in the surveys. As such, there were several undefined variables involved, and the relative weight that the study participants assigned to those variables was likely not uniform.

The third factor draws back to the conditional nature of conflict, which surfaced in the study. An example of the conditional nature of conflict was reflected in the high average rating for the survey category that suggested *if* leadership was driving change and management was maintaining and or improving the status quo, *then* conflict may result. The assertion that leadership is about driving change and management is about maintaining and or improving the status quo was stated in fairly absolute terms, which runs counter to the conditional nature. Thus it is accepted that the assertion may be true in some cases – when the if/then statement is satisfied – but it cannot be generalized.

Role/objective/action revisited. The conditional nature of conflict, and of manager/leader relations overall, surfaces the third outcome that did not meet expectations. Chapter Three delineated the concept of role/objective/action, with the underlying assumption that roles drive objectives that in turn drive actions – with the role of a manager or leader being the originating or primary driver out of the three. Study findings instead strongly suggested that objectives are the originating driver, not roles. This is depicted in Figure 22, a slightly modified version of Figure 11 in Chapter Three. Role does not predefine objectives; however objectives may be associated with role. Likewise, actions are taken on the basis of what's needed, i.e., objectives, not solely because someone has a manager or leader role. Even if there was universal agreement of what a leader is and what a manager is, a one-definition-fits-all approach does not address the variability of *what's needed* at any given time, place, or organization.

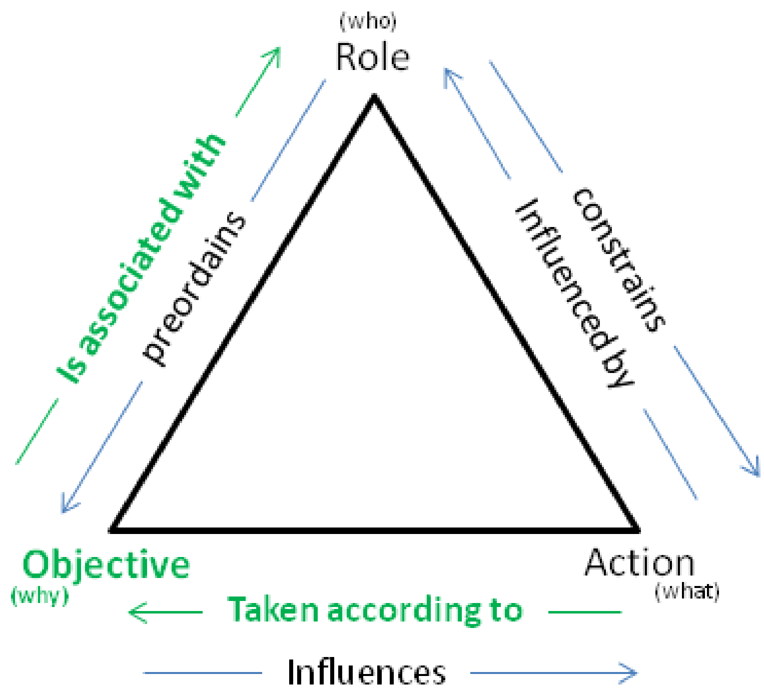


Figure 22. Relationships between roles, objectives, and actions – modified.

Additionally, one of the findings of the study was that leaders tend to look toward the future, while managers are trying to address the present. It is conceivable that in looking to the future, leaders examine all possible paths and determine that the status quo is the best or lowest risk path to take. Conversely, managers may see change as the path to success in the present term, e.g., determine that immediate objectives won't be met unless something changes. The above example suggests that the paths chosen by the leader or manager are influenced by their desired outcomes, not necessarily what role they have.

The study has validated the concept of objectives-driven conflict between leadership and management is plausible, however the objectives are driven by what's needed, not by role. Since what's needed and hence objectives are variable, it is conceivable that leaders and managers can have identical objectives at any given time, and also conceivable that they could have orthogonal objectives. Such a concept is useful in understanding why the spectrum of potential overlap for leadership and management is so broad, i.e., whether management and leadership are the same, or totally different. If their objectives are identical, leaders and managers can be perceived as being the same; if their objectives are orthogonal or even diametrically opposed, leaders and managers can be perceived as being totally separate.

Study conduct. Skulmoski et al. (2007) espouse benefits of the Delphi method that include indirect interactions of the participants over the iterative cycle, and conduciveness to adjusting the study to the problem rather than the problem to the study. The Delphi study conducted for this dissertation realized said benefits. Anonymity and confidentiality were successfully maintained, interactions were indirect through the conduit of the interviews and surveys as executed by the researcher, and the data spoke for itself.

The participant experts were very cooperative, enthusiastic, and responsive. Many comments were made as to the value of the subject matter of the study, and considerable interest has been expressed at seeing the results and having follow-up conversations. Comments were also made as to how the study questions and categories helped participants to focus their own thoughts and perspectives, which provided direct value to them. This is especially gratifying in light of the considerable amount of time that was asked of them, especially when filling out the surveys.

Although some of the study data drove to different conclusions than expected, such as the lack of validity for leaders driving change while managers maintain the status quo, the approach taken regarding the interview questions and framework based on those questions was easy to maintain. There were very few comments about ambiguity, the answers came back in the context in which they were intended, and the resulting data was conducive to building coherent perspectives. It was helpful to conduct the first iteration as one-on-one interviews, both to provide a personal touch and voice to the research, and to effectively set the context for the second and third iterations.

Participant persistence was especially valuable due to the 3-month delay between transcribing the interviews and issuing the first survey. Figure 10 showed an anticipated timeline of 17 weeks, or approximately 4 months. Solicitations for participation started in mid July 2012 and the third iteration was closed in late February 2013, for a calendar duration of 7 ½ months, as compared to the 6-month duration proffered to the participants. Subtracting the 3-month delay, total execution time was roughly 4 ½ months, reasonably close to the original expected duration depicted in Figure 10.

A significant lesson learned from conducting the study was that the latest software for voice transcription and data analysis was not sufficiently dependable. Accessing a transcription service was much more effective and accurate, and took much less of the researcher's time. Furthermore, the features in Microsoft Excel and Word applications were much more elementary than the features brought by computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), which is tailored for sophisticated analyses, however Word and Excel were also more familiar to the researcher and forced some analysis that rendered valuable insights. The CASDAS tool used in this study is very powerful, but that power was not warranted for this study.

The process of filtering and translating interview responses into coherent survey questions was challenging in terms of obtaining semantic and grammatical consistency within each set of categories that were indentured under the interview questions. An example is the difference between “the objectives are to…”, and “the objectives are that…”. The former relates to the link between the objective and the individual, the latter relates to the existence of the objective. The option to go with the former was taken, given that this is about the individuals and their roles.

It was helpful to have indirect interview questions that further defined the core concerns of manager and leader roles, objectives, and actions. Asking *what have you observed* did not lead participant responses in a particular direction, and solicited ideas and perspectives that the researcher had not considered. Several valuable insights came from the resulting discussions. Conversely, directly soliciting participants to take a stand with regard to whether leaders drove change while managers maintained the status quo was an effective way to crystallize thoughts on roles, objectives, and actions. Whereas the indirect questions rendered new ideas, the direct questions elicited exceptions to what was previously discussed with respect to roles, objectives, and actions.

Recommendations for Future Research

While the idea of conflict between leadership and management was feasible, the data showed that it is not necessarily intrinsic based on a fixed set of generic objectives, but rather is more situation-dependent. The nature of the situations and examples of conditional conflict were not directly evident in the study data, however. The situation dependency is worthy of further pursuit. A good source for future study foci is the list of categories in this study for which there was little or no consensus, which in turn hints at the circumstantial or situational nature of certain aspects of management and leadership interaction.

The role-objective-action construct proposed in Chapter Three served as an effective way to understand conflict and the prospect that conflict may be intrinsic, and would also be useful in identifying the situational factors that influence conflict. Coupled with the degrees of commonality construct from Chapter Three it may be helpful in the future for sorting out characteristics of management and leadership that are sensitive to situations. One suggested approach for such studies is to focus one at a time on a single characteristic of leadership and or management and determine the differentiators between them in the context of role-objective-action. An example of such a characteristic is the specific application of words associated with leadership and management, such as the six dominant words identified in the word frequency analysis above. Such an approach would also further define the taxonomy associated with the words.

The strongest category in the surveys was suggested through the open-ended question at the end of the first survey: *Is there anything else you wish to say*? The statement was *A good leader or good manager will always keep learning*, which had an average rating = 6.9 and IQR = 0.0. A useful follow-up to this assertion would be to identify what in particular is worth learning. Is there more value in learning about technically-oriented and rational subjects than there is in learning about organizational or emotional subjects? How does one go about choosing the highest leverage subject on which to learn? How deep or broad does the learning need to be? If the answers to those questions are situational, what are the key factors that drive the decision on what to learn?

Another category provided through the open-ended question at the end of survey 1 was *The size of the organization affects the need for traditional and or structured management*, which had an average = 5.2 and IQR = 1.0. While the average rating was below the first quartile for the set of average responses to categories with consensus, there was agreement. The assertion also falls in line with the historical trends identified in Chapter Two of this dissertation with respect the effects of the increased size and complexity of organizations. Further study can revolve around the perceived value of leadership or management versus organization size, and should be able to help in identifying the characteristics of leadership and management that drive the perceived value. An additional parameter to assess in such a study would be how the perceived value of management or leadership modulates across organizational size depending on which perspective is being taken, i.e., stockholder, leader, manager, worker, or customer.

Conclusions

Organizational conflict manifests in misalignment of individuals and groups, and is often discussed in terms of the effect that leadership and management have on the state of affairs. Although leadership/management conflicts are often characterized in terms of the style or personality type of the individuals involved, conflicting leadership and management objectives that are not style or personality dependent are also a significant factor for conflict.

The researcher posited that a portion of organizational conflicts may be predestined by way of conflicting objectives that are intrinsic to management and leadership, and defined a perspective that utilized the historical bases for leadership and management to illuminate the possibilities. A Delphi study was conducted, which iteratively utilized a diverse group of industry experts to explore the roles, objectives, and actions of leaders and managers from a practitioner perspective. Although the study found that organizations can be in conflict due to conflicting management objectives and leadership objectives, the interchange of ideas during the study led to the conclusion that the nature of the objectives is largely conditional or subjective rather than predestined, and therefore the conflicts are conditional or subjective as well.

In addition to leading the researcher to the above conclusion, the study data rendered several kernels for further definition of management and leadership, including common nomenclature, and a list of leadership and management characteristics that were defined in the context of conflict. Recommendations were provided for furthering the research started in this dissertation on the basis of findings that were implied and believed to have merit if made more explicit.

REFERENCES

Acar, F. P. (2002). *Diversity, conflict, and systems leadership in project groups: A longitudinal study* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3056060)

Amos, T., & Pearse, N. (2008). Pragmatic research design: An illustration of the use of the delphi technique. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 6*(2), 95-102. Retrieved from http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&q=Pragmatic+Research+Design%3A+an+Illustration+of+the+Use+of+the+Delphi+Technique.+author%3A%22Amos%22

Argyris, C. (1954). Leadership pattern in the plant. *Harvard Business Review, 32*(1), 63-75. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/resultsadvanced?sid=aadc3fa7-d3b7-4f92-9f45-384fd5d76514%40sessionmgr4&vid=5&hid=19&bquery=TI+(Leadership+pattern+%22in%22+the+plant)&bdata=JmRiPWE5aCZkYj1idWgmZGI9ZXJpYyZsb2dpbi5hc3A%2fY3VzdGlkPXM4NDgwMjM4JnR5cGU9MSZzaXRlPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d

Argyris, C. (1959). The individual and organization: An empirical test. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 4*(2), 145-167. doi:10.2307/2390675

Argyris, C. (1960). Organizational effectiveness under stress. *Harvard Business Review, 38*(3), 137-146. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/resultsadvanced?sid=aadc3fa7-d3b7-4f92-9f45-384fd5d76514%40sessionmgr4&vid=6&hid=19&bquery=TI+(Organizational+effectiveness+under+stress)&bdata=JmRiPWE5aCZkYj1idWgmZGI9ZXJpYyZsb2dpbi5hc3A%2fY3VzdGlkPXM4NDgwMjM4JnR5cGU9MSZzaXRlPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d

Argyris, C. (1970). Management information systems: The threat of rationality. *McKinsey Quarterly, 7*(2), 25-41. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/resultsadvanced?sid=aadc3fa7-d3b7-4f92-9f45-384fd5d76514%40sessionmgr4&vid=7&hid=19&bquery=TI+(Management+information+systems%3a+The+threat+%22of%22+rationality)&bdata=JmRiPWE5aCZkYj1idWgmZGI9ZXJpYyZsb2dpbi5hc3A%2fY3VzdGlkPXM4NDgwMjM4JnR5cGU9MSZzaXRlPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d

Argyris, C. (1973). Personality and organization theory revisited. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 18*(2), 141-167. doi:10.2307/2392060

Baker, J., Lovell, K., & Harris, N. (2006). How expert are the experts? An exploration of the concept of “expert” within Delphi panel techniques. *Nurse Researcher, 14*(1), 59-70. http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=11&sid=aadc3fa7-d3b7-4f92-9f45-384fd5d76514%40sessionmgr4&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=23026746

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bavelas, A. (1960). Leadership: Man and function. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 4*(4), 491-498. doi:10.2307/2390770

Beck, B. (2010). *Integrated Conflict Management Systems as cure and cause: How leaders address cultural change and conflict in their organizations*. (Master’s thesis). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 1474992).

Benardete, S. (2000). On Heraclitus. *The Review of Metaphysics*, *53*(3), 613-633. Retrieved from http://galenet.galegroup.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/servlet/IOURL?locID=pepp12906&ste=6&prod=BioRC&docNum=A70696455

Bennett, C., Khangura, S., Brehaut, J. C., Graham, I. D., Moher, D., Potter, B. K., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2011). Reporting guidelines for survey research: An analysis of published guidance and reporting practices. *Plos Medicine, 8*(8), 1-11. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001069

Bennis, W. G. (1961). Revisionist theory of leadership. *Harvard Business Review, 39*(1), 26-150. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=3&sid=39318e0e-bb02-4031-bcfe-6c8617088286%40sessionmgr15&hid=19&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=buh&AN=6776915

Bennis, W. G. (1989a). *On becoming a leader*. Philadelphia, PA: Perseus Books Group.

Bennis, W. G. (1989b). *Why leaders can't lead: The unconscious conspiracy continues*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bergin, M. (2011) NVivo 8 and consistency in data analysis: reflecting on the use of a qualitative data analysis program. *Nurse Researcher, 18*(3), 6-12. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=3&sid=a2961de7-96ff-4339-b428-6123c9de27cc%40sessionmgr15&hid=19

Blanchard, K., & Stoner, J. (2004). The vision thing: Without it you'll never be a world-class organization. *Leader To Leader, 2004*(31), 21-28. doi:10.1002/ltl.59

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Boomer, L. G. (2005, January). Leadership and management: Your firm needs both. *Accounting Today*, 23. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=3&sid=6fe1c829-6f8a-41d7-9fb3-28ca261b0453%40sessionmgr11&hid=19&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=buh&AN=23861516

Borrows, C. (2006). Jesus in politics. *Stimulus: The New Zealand Journal of Christian Thought & Practice, 14*(3), 42. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=8&sid=a2961de7-96ff-4339-b428-6123c9de27cc%40sessionmgr15&hid=19&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=a9h&AN=22318014

Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 11*(2), 238-263. doi:10.2307/2391247

Bringer, J. D, Johnston, L. H., & Brackenridge, C. H. (2004). Maximising transparency in a doctoral thesis: The complexities of writing about the use of QSR*NVIVO within a grounded theory study. *Qualitative Research, 4*, 247-265. doi:10.1177/1468794104044434

Brockhoff, K. (2002). The performance of forecasting groups in computer dialogue and face-to-face discussion. In H. A. Linstone & M. Turoff (Eds.), *The Delphi Method: Techniques and applications* (pp. 285-311). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Brüggen, E., Wetzels, M., de Ruyter, K., & Schillewaert, N. (2011). Individual differences in motivation to participate in online panels. *International Journal Of Market Research*, *53*(3), 369-390. doi:10.2501/IJMR-53-3-369-390

Bryan, J. (2009). *Regional transitions from conflict to post-conflict: Observed leadership practices* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3407435)

Buckingham, M. (2005). What great managers do. *Harvard Business Review*, *83*(3), 70-79. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2005/03/what-great-managers-do/ar/1

Burch, K. (2007). Plato's myth of the noble lie and the predicaments of American civic education. *Studies in Philosophy & Education*, *26*(2), 111-125. doi:10.1007/s11217-006-9024-0

Bureaucracy. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/bureaucracy

Burns, J. M. (2003). *Transforming leadership*. New York, NY: Grove.

Carmichael, O. C. (1941). Leadership and the present crisis. *Vital Speeches of the Day, 8*(5), 139. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=5&sid=6fe1c829-6f8a-41d7-9fb3-28ca261b0453%40sessionmgr11&hid=19&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=buh&AN=9741330

Carse, J. P. (1986). *Finite and infinite games*. New York, NY: Macmillan.

Chandrasekaran, B., Josephson, J. R., & Benjamins, V. R. (1999). What are ontologies and why do we need them? *IEEE Intelligent Systems, 14*(1), 20-26. doi:10.1109/5254.747902

Charan, R. (2001). Conquering a culture of indecision. *Harvard Business Review, 79*(4), 74-82. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2006/01/conquering-a-culture-of-indecision/ar/1

Charan, R., Drotter, S., & Noel, J. (2011). *The leadership pipeline: How to build the leadership powered company.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Chen, M. (1994). Sun Tzu's strategic thinking and contemporary business. *Business Horizons, 37*(2), 42-48. doi:10.1016/0007-6813(94)90031-0

Cohn, A. W., & Crim, D. D. (1998). The failure of correctional management: Rhetoric versus the reality of leadership. *Federal Probation, 62*(1), 26. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=3&sid=485cf6b1-c9b5-4437-903e-c8291db2e7ae%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=a9h&AN=1780919

Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. (1996). Building your company's vision. *Harvard Business Review, 74*(5), 65-77. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1996/09/building-your-companys-vision/ar/1

Conflict. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/conflict

Cole, C. J. (1984). Taxonomy: What's in a name? *Natural History, 93*(9), 30. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=4&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=8400008037

Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Covey, S. R. (2003). *Principle-centered leadership*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dannin, E. (2008). Not a limited, confined, or private matter – Who is an “employee” under the National Labor Relations Act. *Labor Law Journal, 59*(1), 5-15. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/ detail?vid=6&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr 13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1la G9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=31856478

Daragahi, B. (2011, January). Tunisia's uprising was three years in the making. *The Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from http://www.latimes.com/news/nationworld/world/ la-fg-tunisia-uprising-20110127,0,7541408.story

David, D. K. (1949). Business responsibilities in an uncertain world. *Harvard Business Review, 27*(3), 1-8. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ ehost/detail?vid=8&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr 13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1la G9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6780278

Doh, J. P. (2003). Can leadership be taught? Perspectives from management educators. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 2*(1), 54-67. doi:10.5465/AMLE.2003.9324025

Domanska, E. (2008). A conversation with Hayden White. *Rethinking History, 12*(1), 3–21. doi:10.1080/13642520701838744

Drucker, P. F. (1963). *Peter Drucker on the profession of management*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Drucker, P. F. (2004). *The daily Drucker*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.

Dykstra, C. A. (1940). The training of leadership: Professional and technical education is not enough. *Vital Speeches of the Day*, *6*(6), 175. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=10&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata= JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb 3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=9738705

Dysfunction. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster’s Online Dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/dysfunction

Eisenhardt, K. M., Kahwajy, J. L., & Bourgeois III, L. J. (1997). How management teams can have a good fight. *Harvard Business Review, 75*(4), 77-85. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1997/07/how-management-teams-can-have-a-good-fight/ar/1

Fayol, H. (2011). General principles of management. In J. M. Shafritz, J. S. Ott, & Y. S. Jang (Eds.), *Classics of organization theory* (pp. 52-64). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.

Ferguson, L. (2004). External validity, generalizability, and knowledge utilization. *Journal Of Nursing Scholarship, 36*(1), 16-22. doi:10.1111/j.1547-5069.2004.04006.x

Fiedler, F. E. (1965). Engineer the job to fit the manager. *Harvard Business Review, 43*(5), 115-122. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=12&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=3866422

Fiedler, F. E. (1972). Predicting the effects of leadership training and experience from the contingency model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 56*(2), 114-119. doi:10.1037/h0032668

Fiedler, F. E. (1996). Research on leadership selection and training: One view of the future. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*(2), 241-250. doi:10.2307/2393716

Fincher, C. (1995). Air between forums: Principles and examples of leadership. *Research in Higher Education, 36*(6), 705-709. doi:10.1007/BF02208252

Flamholtz, E. G., & Randle, Y. (2007). *Growing pains: Transitioning from an entrepreneurship to a professionally managed firm*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Folaranmi, J. O. (1994). *The Nigerian Islamic view of state and its effects on the mission of the Christian church in Nigeria* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 9432987)

Ford, J. D., & Ford, L. W. (2009). Decoding resistance to change. *Harvard Business Review, 87*(4), 99-103. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2009/04/decoding-resistance-to-change/ar/1

Friedman, R. A., Tidd, S. T., Currall, S. C., & Tsai, J. C. (2000). What goes around comes around: The impact of personal conflict style on work conflict and stress. *International Journal Of Conflict Management, 11*(1), 32-55. doi:10.1108/eb022834

Gardner, J.W. (1990). *On leadership*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Garvin, D. A., & Roberto, M. A. (2005). Change through persuasion. *Harvard Business Review, 83*(2), 104-112. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2005/02/change-through-persuasion/ar/1

George Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Experiments. (2002). *Workforce, 81*(1), 42. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=14&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=5826748

George, B. (2004). The journey to authenticity. *Leader To Leader, 2004*(31), 29-35. doi:10.1002/ltl.60

Gill, R. (2003). Change management—or change leadership? *Journal of Change Management, 3*(4), 307-318. doi:10.1080/714023845

Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (2000). Why should anyone be led by you? *Harvard Business Review, 78*(5), 62-70. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2000/09/why-should-anyone-be-led-by-you/ar/1

Gokenbach, V. (2003). Infuse management with leadership. *Nursing Management, 34*(1), 8-10. doi:10.1097/00006247-200301000-00004

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78-90. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2000/03/leadership-that-gets-results/ar/1

Groves, C. (2004). The what, why and how of primate taxonomy. *International Journal of Primatology, 25*(5), 1105-1126. doi:10.1023/B:IJOP.0000043354.36778.55

Hagen, N. A., Wu, J. S., & Stiles, C. R. (2010). A proposed taxonomy of terms to guide the clinical trial recruitment process. *Journal of Pain & Symptom Management, 40*(1), 102-110. doi:10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2009.11.324

Hammed, A. A. (2011). Islamic perspective to xenophobia. *IFE Psychologia*, 213-230. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=16&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=66960340

Hammer, M. (1990). Reengineering work: Don't automate, obliterate. *Harvard Business Review, 68*(4), 104-112. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1990/07/reengineering-work-dont-automate-obliterate/ar/1

Hammer, M. & Champy, J. (2003). *Reengineering the corporation*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.

Hammond, S.A. (1998). *The thin book of appreciative inquiry*. Bend, OR: Thin Book.

Hannah, S. T., Woolfolk, R. L., & Lord, R. G. (2009). Leader self-structure: A framework for positive leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*(2), 269-290. doi:10.1002/job.586

Harrington, D. J. (2007). Follow the leader. *America, 197*(1), 30-31. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=18&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=25517573

Hawthorne revisited: The legend and the legacy. (1975). *Organizational Dynamics, 3*(3), 66-80. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=20&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=mth&AN=5139521

Hazleton, L. (2011). The chosen ones of Allah. *New Statesman*, *140*(5058), 24-25. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=22&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=61305301

Heine, S. (2008). From Art of War to Attila the Hun: A critical survey of recent works on philosophy/spirituality and business leadership. *Philosophy East & West*, *58*(1), 126-143. doi:10.1353/pew.2008.0001

Heraclitus. (2010). In *Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia* (6th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/Heraclitus.aspx

Hill, W. (1969). The validation and extension of Fiedler's Theory of leadership effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal*, *12*(1), 33-47. doi:10.2307/254670

Hinchliffe, G. (2004). Work and human flourishing. *Educational Philosophy & Theory, 36*(5), 535-547. doi:10.1111/j.1469-5812.2004.089_1.x

Hutchison, A., Johnston, L., & Breckon, J. (2010). Using QSR-NVivo to facilitate the development of a grounded theory project: an account of a worked example. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *13*(4), 283-302. doi:10.1080/ 13645570902996301

Jacoby, S. M. (1983). Union-management cooperation in the United States: Lessons from the 1920s. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, *37*(1), 18-33. doi:10.2307/2522721

Jaikumar, R. (1986). Postindustrial manufacturing. *Harvard Business Review*, *64*(6), 69-76. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1986/11/postindustrial-manufacturing/ar/1

Jimenez-Buedo, M., & Miller, L. M. (2010). Why a trade-off? The relationship between the external and internal validity of experiments. *Theoria, 25*(3), 301-321. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=26&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=phl&AN=PHL2161911

Julius, D. J., Baldridge, J., & Pfeffer, J. (1999). A memo from Machiavelli. *Journal of Higher Education, 70*(2), 113-133. doi:10.2307/2649124

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (1992). The balanced scorecard – Measures that drive performance. *Harvard Business Review, 70*(1), 71-79. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2005/07/the-balanced-scorecard-measures-that-drive-performance/ar/1

Karmel, B. (1978). Leadership: A challenge to traditional research methods and assumptions. *Academy of Management Review, 3*(3), 475-482. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=28&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=4305735

Karp, T., & Helgø, T. I. (2008). From Change Management to Change Leadership: Embracing Chaotic Change in Public Service Organizations. *Journal of Change Management, 8*(1), 85-96. doi:10.1080/14697010801937648

Katz, R. L. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, 33*(1), 33-42. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=30&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6774557

Katz, R. L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, 52*(5), 90-102. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1974/09/skills-of-an-effective-administrator/ar/1

Kessler, S. R., Bandelli, A. C., Spector, P. E., Borman, W. C., Nelson, C. E., & Penney, L. M. (2010). Re-examining Machiavelli: A three-dimensional model of machiavellianism in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40*(8), 1868–1896. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00643.x

Kilbort, P. M. (2004). Management vs. leadership. *Physician Executive*, *30*(6), 32-35. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=32&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=15316678

Kim, W., & Mauborgne, R. (2003). Tipping point leadership. *Harvard Business Review, 81*(4), 60-69. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2003/04/tipping-point-leadership/ar/1

Kotter, J. P. (1990). *Force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. (2001). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review, 79*(11), 85-96. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2001/12/what-leaders-really-do/ar/1

Kotterman, J. (2006). Leadership versus management: What's the difference? *Journal for Quality & Participation, 29*(2), 13-17. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.

lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=34&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=22035378

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lareau, W. (1991). *American Samurai*. New York, NY: Warner Books.

Leader. (n.d.a). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/leader

Leader. (n.d.b). In *New Oxford American Dictionary* (3rd ed.). Retrieved from http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/leader?region=us&q=leader

Leadership. (n.d.a). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/leadership

Leadership. (n.d.b). In *New Oxford American Dictionary* (3rd ed.). Retrieved from http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/leadership?region=us&q=leadership

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2007). An array of qualitative data analysis tools: A call for data analysis triangulation. *School Psychology Quarterly, 22*(4), 557-584. doi:10.1037/1045-3830.22.4.557

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2011). Beyond constant comparison qualitative data analysis: Using NVivo. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *26*(1), 70-84. doi:10.1037/a0022711

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1979, September). *The distinction between merit and worth in evaluation.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Evaluation Network, Cincinnati, OH.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. E. (1986). Research, evaluation, and policy analysis: Heuristics for disciplined inquiry. *Policy Studies Review*, *5*(3), 546-565. doi:10.1111/j.1541-1338.1986.tb00429.x

Linstone, H. A., & Turoff, M. (2002). *The Delphi Method: Techniques and applications*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Lorber, M., & Savič, B.S. (2011). Perceptions of managerial competencies, style, and characteristics among professionals in nursing. *Croatian Medical Journal, 52*(2), 198-204. doi:10.3325/cmj.2011.52.198

Lowin, A., Hrapchak, W. J., & Kavanagh, M. J. (1969). Consideration and initiating structure: An experimental investigation of leadership traits. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 14*(2), 238-253. doi:10.2307/2391102

Maccoby, M. (2000). Understanding the difference between management and leadership. *Research Technology Management, 43*(1), 57-59. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=36&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2lu LmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNp dGU%3d#db=buh&AN=2678130

Maccoby, M., & Scudder, T. (2011). Leading in the heat of conflict. *T+D, 65*(12), 46-51. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=38&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=67443552

Mackay, A. A. (2005). Aristotle's dilemma. *Journal of Ethics, 9*(3/4), 533-549. doi:10.1007/ s10892-005-3526-9

Maier, M. (2007). On the social aspects of organization: "The human side of enterprise" revisited. In J. S. Schmieder-Ramirez & L. A. Mallette (Eds.), *The SPELIT Power Matrix: Untangling the Organizational Environment with the SPELIT Leadership Tool* (pp. 33-54). Charleston, SC: Booksurge.

Management. (n.d.a). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/management

Management. (n.d.b). In *New Oxford American Dictionary* (3rd ed.). Retrieved from http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/management?region=us&q=Management

Manager. (n.d.a). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/manager

Manager. (n.d.b). In *New Oxford American Dictionary* (3rd ed.). Retrieved from http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/manager?region=us&q=manager

Marker, D. (2010). Leadership or management? *Management Quarterly, 51*(2), 31-34. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=40&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=51782009

Marmolejo-Ramos, F., & Tian Siva, T. (2010). The shifting boxplot: A boxplot based on essential summary statistics around the mean. *International Journal Of Psychological Research, 3*(1), 37-45.

Marsh, C. W. Jr. (2001). Public relations ethics: Contrasting models from the rhetorics of Plato, Aristotle, and Socrates. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics, 16*(2/3), 78-98. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=42&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&

bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ufh&AN=5424094

McGregor, D. M. (2011). The human side of enterprise. In J. M. Shafritz, J. S. Ott, & Y. S. Jang (Ed.), *Classics of organization theory* (pp. 183-188). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.

McIntyre, M. G. (1999). Five ways to turn your management team into a leadership team. *Journal for Quality & Participation, 22*(4), 40-44. Retrieved from http://links. emeraldinsight.com/ref/28AT422

McKenna, H. (1989). The selection by ward managers of an appropriate nursing model for long-stay psychiatric patient care. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 14*(9), 762-775. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.1989.tb01641.x

Mehrabian, A. (1981). *Silent messages: Implicit communication of emotions and attitudes*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Meindl, J. R., Ehrlich, S. B., & Dukerich, J. M. (1985). The romance of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 30*(1), 78-102. doi:10.2307/2392813

Mintzberg, H. (1975). The manager's job: Folklore and fact. *Harvard Business Review, 53*(4), 49-61. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1990/03/the-managers-job-folklore-and-fact/ar/1

Mintzberg, H. (2004). Leadership and management development: An afterword. *Academy of Management Executive, 18*(3), 140-142. doi:10.5465/AME.2004. 14776190

Morgan, G. (2006). *Images of organization*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Morrisette, S., & Schraeder, M. (2010). Leadership development approaches. *Journal for Quality & Participation, 32*(4), 32-34. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com. lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=46&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=47967245

Mullen, F. E. (1942). The heritage of leadership. *Vital Speeches of the Day, 9*(2), 56. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=48&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=9758014

Mullett, M. (2003). Martin Luther's ninety-five theses. *History Review,* (46), 46-51. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=52&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=

19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=10663154

Naím, M. (2005, January 5). Three Wise Men. *Foreign Policy,* (146), 95-96. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&vid=55&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=15424821

Neuman, W. (2003). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Nickerson, J. (2009). *School district cabinet member task and relationship conflict behavior during budget development in a state fiscal crisis* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3415673)

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Farrell, B. (2009). Restoring workplace democracy: Eleanor Roosevelt and labor law reform. *Journal of Workplace Rights, 14*(3), 329-350. doi:10.2190/ WR.14.3.e

Olson, J. C. (1947). Is your company prepared for rough weather? *Harvard Business Review*, *25*(4a), 595-608. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=57&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6780194

Pashiardis, P. (2009). Educational leadership and management: Blending Greek philosophy, myth and current thinking. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 12*(1), 1-12. doi:10.1080/13603120802357269

Pepperdine University. (2009). *Protection of human participants in research: Policies and procedures manual.* Retrieved from http://community.pepperdine.edu/irb/policies/

Peters, T. (2009). Lead yourself. *Leadership Excellence*, *26*(12), 6-7. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=59&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=46738793

Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. *Academy of Management Review*, *2*(1), 104-112. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=61&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=4409175

Plinske, K. (2008). *The next generation of community college presidents: Critical characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3331199)

Polelle, M. R. (2008). *Leadership*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Rayens, M., & Hahn, E. (2000). Building consensus using the policy Dephi method. *Policy and Politics in Nursing Practice, 1*(4), 308-315. doi:10.1177/152715440000100409

Raz, J. (2010). Kill the Buddha. *Common Knowledge, 16*(3), 439-456. doi:10.1215/0961754X-2010-005

Ready, R. K. (1964). Leadership in the 1960's. *California Management Review, 6*(3), 37-46. doi:10.2307/41165590

Robbins, E. C. (1943). Management-labor cooperation. *Harvard Business Review, 21*(4), 415. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=63&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6775026

Roethlisberger, F. J. (1965). The foreman: Master and victim of double talk. *Harvard Business Review, 43*(4), 22-184. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1965/09/the-foreman-master-and-victim-of-double-talk/ar/1

Roethlisberger, F. J. (1972). Conversation...with Fritz J. Roethelisberger. *Organizational Dynamics, 1*(2), 31-45. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(72)90010-1

Ross, P. (1971). An assessment of the Landrum-Griffin Act's secondary boycott amendments to the Taft-Hartley Act. *Labor Law Journal, 22*(11), 675-689. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=67&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=5812656

Rost, J. C. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Schaeffer, N., & Dykema, J. (2011). Questions for surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 75*(5), 909-961. doi:10.1093/poq/nfr048

Schaffer, R. H. (2010). Four mistakes leaders keep making. *Harvard Business Review, 88*(9), 86-127. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2010/09/four-mistakes-leaders-keep-making/ar/1

Scheibe, M., Skutsch, M., & Shofer, J. (1975). Evaluation: Delphi methodology. In H. A. Linstone & M. Turoff (Eds.), *The Delphi method: Techniques and applications* (pp. 257-281). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schwartz, B. (1983). George Washington and the Whig conception of heroic leadership. *American Sociological Review, 48*(1), 18-33. doi:10.2307/2095142

Scudder, T., Patterson, M. & Mitchell (2012). *Have a nice conflict*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Selekman, B. M. (1945). Administering the Union Agreement. *Harvard Business Review, 23*(3), 299-313. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=69&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6779503

Senge, P.M. (2006). *The fifth discipline*. New York, NY: Random House.

Shafritz, J. M., Ott, J. S., & Jang, Y. S.(2011). *Classics of organization theory*. Boston, MA: Wadsworth.

Shister, J. (1958). The impact of the Taft-Hartley Act on union strength and collective bargaining. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review, 11*(3), 339-351. doi:10.2307/2519953

Simpson, R. L. (2003). What's in a name? The taxonomy and nomenclature puzzle, part 1. *Nursing Management, 34*(6), 14, 18. doi:10.1097/00006247-200306000-00010

Skulmoski, G. J., Hartman, F. T., & Krahn, J. (2007). The Delphi Method for graduate research. *Journal of Information Technology Education, 6,* 1-21. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=71&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=eric&AN=EJ807652

Snowden, D. J., & Boone, M. E. (2007). A leader's framework for decision making. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(11), 68-76. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2007/11/a-leaders-framework-for-decision-making/ar/1

Spradley, J. P. (1979). *The ethnographic interview.* Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Stanley, D. (2006). Role conflict: leaders and managers. *Nursing Management - UK, 13*(5), 31-37. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=73&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=22275500

Stogdill, R. M. (1967). Basic concepts for a theory or organization. *Management Science, 13*(10), B-666-B-676. doi:10.1287/mnsc.13.10.B666

Stogdill, R. M. (1975). The evolution of leadership theory. *Academy Of Management Proceedings*, 4-6. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.1975.4975786

Strebel, P. (1996). Why do employees resist change? *Harvard Business Review*, *74*(3), 86-92. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/1996/05/why-do-employees-resist-change/ar/1

Taylor, F. W. (2011). The principles of scientific management. In J. M. Shafritz, J. S. Ott, & Y. S. Jang (Eds.). *Classics of organization theory* (pp. 65-76). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.

Theuerkauf, I. (1991). Reshaping the global organization. *McKinsey Quarterly*, (3), 102-119. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=75&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=9707260006

Throop, J. (1997). Jesus and his management team. *Christianity Today*, *41*(11), 61. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=77&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=ulh&AN=9711156117

Toor, S., & Ofori, G. (2008). Leadership versus management: How they are different, and why. *Leadership & Management in Engineering*, *8*(2), 61-71. doi:10.1061/(ASCE)1532-6748(2008)8:2(61)

Tremayne, V. (2008, March). The ancient art of leadership. *Nursing Management – UK, 14*(10), 14-15. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=79&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=31199645

Upton, D. M. (1997). Process range in manufacturing: An empirical study of flexibility. *Management Science*, *43*(8), 1079-1092. doi:10.1287/mnsc.43.8.1079

Vernon, W. (2009). The Delphi technique: A review. *International Journal of Therapy & Rehabilitation*, *16*(2), 69-76. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=83&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=36515951

Walton, M. (1986). *The Deming management method*. New York, NY: Berkley.

Watson, C. M. (1983). Leadership, management and the seven keys. *McKinsey Quarterly*, (3), 44-52. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=85&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=6753733

Watzlawick, P. (1993) *The language of change*. New York, NY: W.W. Norton.

Waugh, J. B. (1991). Heraclitus: The postmodern presocratic? *Monist, 74*(4), 604. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&vid=88&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=a9h&AN=9705071697

Weatherford, J. (2004). *Genghis Khan and the making of the modern world*. New York, NY: Random House.

Weathersby, G. B. (1999). Leadership vs. management. *Management Review, 88*(3), 5. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail?vid=92&sid=d5386358-6de2-4c05-8ef2-e233df4342ab%40sessionmgr13&hid=19&bdata=JmxvZ2luLmFzcD9jdXN0aWQ9czg0ODAyMzgmc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZlJnNjb3BlPXNpdGU%3d#db=buh&AN=1635947

Weber, M. (2011). Bureaucracy. In J. M., Shafritz, J. S. Ott, & Y. S. Jang (Eds.), *Classics of organization theory* (pp. 77-82). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.

Williams, D. D., & Graham, C. R. (2010). *Evaluating e-learning*. Retrieved from http://www.elsevierdirect.com/brochures/educ/PDF/Evaluating_E-Learning.pdf

Womack, J. P., Jones, D. T., & Roos, D. (1990). *The machine that changed the world*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.

Ylimaki, R., & McClain, L. J. (2009). Wisdom-centered educational leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 12*(1), 13-33. doi:10.1080/13603120802361006

Young, M., & Dulewicz, V. (2008). Similarities and differences between leadership and management: High-performance competencies in the British Royal Navy. *British Journal of Management, 19*(1), 17-32. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2007.00534.x

Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review, 55*(3), 67-78. Retrieved from http://hbr.org/2004/01/managers-and-leaders-are-they-different/ar/1

Zaleznik, A. (1990). The leadership gap. *Executive (19389779), 4*(1), 7-22. doi:10.5465/AME.1990.4274698

Zucchino, D. (2011, February). Telling Libya's story over the Internet. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from http://www.latimes.com/news/nationworld/world/la-fg-libya-information-20110227,0,5176350.story

APPENDIX A

Publisher Permission for Reprint

From: ASQ Customer Care [cs@asq.org]

Sent: Tuesday, March 13, 2012 11:46 AM

To: Mc Call, Dean (student)

Subject: RE: ASQ Reprint Permission Request

Hello Dean,

Thank you for contacting ASQ and the Quality Information Center. ASQ does own copyright to the James Kotterman article "Leadership Versus Management: What's the Difference?", so you would not have to obtain permission from the author.

I can go ahead and grant you permission to use the figure in your dissertation. I will need you to sign a copyright permission agreement form. I will go ahead and create this and send it to you hopefully sometime this afternoon.

There is a copyright line I will need you to include somewhere near the figure—I will give you more specifics in the email I send you with the form.

If, in the future, you will be publishing your dissertation for profit, please contact ASQ again for additional permission to use the figure. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Best regards,

Katie

Ms. Katie Kvien

Research Librarian

ASQ

600 North Plankinton Avenue

Milwaukee, WI 53201-3005

t: 414-298-8789, x7406

toll free: 800-248-1946, x7406

kkvien@asq.org

www.asq.org

The Global Voice of QualityTM

Thank you for contacting ASQ. In our effort to continuously improve our service performance we are inviting your input through a very brief (10 question) survey. Your feedback is important to us and will be reviewed, tracked and used for our performance improvement. Thank you for your time and input. http://www.asq.org/mr/ko-satisfaction-survey.html

Please consider the environment -do you really need to print this email?

From: ASQ Customer Care [cs@asq.org]

Sent: Tuesday, March 13, 2012 2:08 PM

To: Mc Call, Dean (student)

Subject: RE: ASQ Reprint Permission Request

Hello Dean,

I have attached the copyright permission agreement form that I need you to sign. You can either fax it back to me at 414-765-8660 or sign, scan and email it back to me.

The following copyright line, which is also on the copyright permission form, must be included in or near the figure when it's posted or copied:

Reprinted with permission from ***Journal for Quality and Participation*** ©***2006***

American Society for

Quality. No further distribution allowed without permission.

Please let me know if you have any questions.
Best regards,
Katie
Ms. Katie Kvien

Research Librarian

ASQ

600 North Plankinton Avenue

Milwaukee, WI 53201-3005

t: 414-298-8789, x7406

toll free: 800-248-1946, x7406

kkvien@asq.org

www.asq.org

The Global Voice of QualityTM

Thank you for contacting ASQ. In our effort to continuously improve our service performance we are inviting your input through a very brief (10 question) survey. Your feedback is important to us and will be reviewed, tracked and used for our performance improvement. Thank you for your time and input. http://www.asq.org/mr/ko-satisfaction-survey.html

Please consider the environment -do you really need to print this email?

COPYRIGHT PERMISSION AGREEMENT

Title of Article: Figure 1: Comparison of Management and Leadership Process Differences

in the Workplace, from "Leadership Versus Management: What's the Difference?" by

James Kotterman, Journal for Quality and Participation, Summer 2006

Requested by: Dean McCall, Pepperdine University

Purpose of Request: Figure used in dissertation for an Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership; figure used in whole in Chapter 1, parts used in an analysis in Chapter 2; Tentative title *The Built-in Conflicts Between Leadership Objectives and Management Objectives*.

Projected Date of Use: 2012

Permission Granted: Yes No further distribution allowed without permission; This edition only

Fee: $0.00 (Our accounting department will send you an invoice shortly. Do not send any payment

until you receive the invoice from ASQ .)

Billing Address: _______________NO FEE____________________

____

____

A one-time permission is hereby granted to reprint the material described above in the specified publication. Any unauthorized reproduction is a violation of U.S. copyright law and is subject to a penalty of $100,000 per violation. As a condition of this approval, you agree to publish the following copyright line in conjunction with this material:

Reprinted with permission from ***Journal for Quality and Participation*** ©***2006*** American Society for

Quality. No further distribution allowed without permission.

I agree to the terms listed above.

Please sign here and fax to 414-765-8660 or email signed copy to address below.

Name_(signed be Dean W McCall)____Title_student______________Date_3/13/2012________

(faxed on 3/13/2012)

If you have any questions, please contact Katie Kvien at kkvien@asq.org.

Signed by: Katie Kvien, March 13, 2012

APPENDIX B

Management/Leadership Scenario

Systems don’t work well if all the parts are not working in unison to reach the same goal. Conflict is where someone perceives that another person is taking actions that are out of sync with their interests (Beck, 2010). This appendix provides a fictional scenario that illustrates one way of how the objectives of a leader and of a manager can put them at odds with each other, and illuminates the distinction between people-driven and role-driven conflict.

ABC Bank has taken on the name of XYZ Bank as though there was instead a takeover, even though ABC is the larger and wealthier of the two. For simplicity, each bank consists of one branch office. The task ahead is as follows: (a) assess systems and procedures to prepare for merging them, (b) examine the operational cultures to see where best practices and efficiencies can be implemented, (c) formulate the strategy for assimilating the existing Customer community into the new entity, (d) execute the required legal documentation and notifications, (e) assess the marketing profile to see whether any modifications to branch distribution is warranted, (f) set a timeline for making the transition, (g) develop a specific plan for execution, (h) assess the post-merger staffing profile to understand what sort of adjustments are appropriate, (i) keep the bank operating seamlessly in the midst of the transition, and (j) manage the change and communicate.

This scenario is ripe for conflict. Manuel the ABC bank manager is a devotee to procedure and has made his mark over the years by carefully honing the fine details of branch operations. Loretta the head of marketing, known for her innovation and aggressive approach to increasing Customer loyalty, has been designated by the board to be the transition leader. Although Manuel the manager and Loretta the leader have had a respectable working relationship in the past years, it is clear that this has been maintained as a result of keeping out of each others' way. The merger directly makes this approach moot.

This simple illustration makes a case for the distinction between people-driven and role-driven conflict. There is ample opportunity for personality clashes owing to different work styles and historical focus, gender differences, culture of origin, elements of control, recognition and prestige, and career growth. There is also a conflicting set of objectives for the two, in that bank operations must continue unfettered – Manuel's objective – while the path to modified operations in a new banking entity – Loretta's objective – is established. Environments that are too biased toward managerial duties hinder innovation (Toor & Ofori, 2008).

Manuel could see Loretta's objective as a threat to his role of maintaining stability and to his personal standing. Specifically, changes to systems increase operational risk by perturbing validated software architectures for processes such as standard bookkeeping, fraud detection, and wire transfer. Changes to procedures not only introduce software risk, they also create a new operating environment to be learned by staff, thus lowering efficiency for at least the short term. A change in operational culture, even when assimilating into the best practices and efficiencies of new partners, potentially resets working relationships and increases risk for misunderstanding and poor communication. The existing Customer community is already used to the styles and methods of each individual bank branch, and may be offended or confused by new people or new approaches, thus decreasing Customer satisfaction. If the timeline for making the transition disturbs the operational cycles of reporting, reconciling, and assessing performance, key products or decisions may be delayed, possibly resulting in noncompliance to legal obligations. Following the merger, the staff may perceive a threat to their positions or possibly their jobs. This may in turn affect the degree of trust in coworkers and management, which potentially has an impact on communications and efficiency. All of these possibilities are threats to Manuel's objective to maintain operational stability. While the effects can be personal, the causes are primarily independent of Loretta's personal approach, although her approach could exacerbate or alleviate problems.

Conversely, Loretta may see Manuel's objectives as a threat to her role as change agent and possibly her career growth. Specifically, the added operational risks due to impending changes will add mitigation steps, resulting in a slower transition, a more costly transition, or both. Great care would need to be taken to ensure that not only the transition objectives are met, but also that unintended consequences are avoided. The necessary added caution is independent of Manuel's personal approach; however his approach could exacerbate or alleviate problems.

Thus, there are operational constraints driving issues, which may also have an overlay of personal styles or attitudes influencing outcomes. This is not limited to Loretta the leader or Manuel the manager. Other stakeholders are affected: staff that is not sure how to execute in the new regime or who is in charge, and additionally who is afraid about job security; Customers that welcome more capability but expect nothing to change, including relationships and convenience; the newly formed board of directors that may have its own set of issues. From all perspectives there is potential conflict in both objectives and organizational/people aspects – that is, concurrent conflict in those two realms.

APPENDIX C

Comparison of Authors with Respect to Definitions During the Information

Table C1 shows how authors categorized leaders and managers from 1990-2011.

Table C1

Comparison of Authors

	Leaders Not Mentioned	No Distinction Between Leaders and Managers	Leaders are Top Managers	Leaders and Managers are Distinct
1990				* Gardner * Kotter * Zaleznik
1991			* Covey[a]	
1992	* Kaplan & Norton			
1993				
1994				* Bass & Avolio
1995				
1996		* Fiedler	* Collins & Porras * Strebel	
1997		* Eisenhardt, Kahwajy, & Bourgeois		
1998	* Hammond			* Cohn & Crim
1999				
2000		* Goffee & Jones	* Goleman	* Maccoby
2001		* Charan		
2002				
2003			* Hammer & Champy * Kim & Maubourgne	
2004			* Blanchard & Stoner	* George
2005		* Garvin & Roberto		* Buckingham
2006			* Senge	* Stanley
2007		* Kouzes & Posner * Snowden & Boone	* Flamholtz & Randle	* Maier
2008				* Bolman & Deal
2009		* Ford & Ford		* Peters * Hannah, Woolfolk, & Lord
2010			* Schaffer	* Northouse
2011		* Lorber & Savič * Charan, Drotter, & Noel		

[a]Where applicable, publications with more than one release date show the earlier date of release.

APPENDIX D

Problem Statements and Research Questions for Five Qualitative Approaches

To better understand the potential for qualitative study, a purpose statement template was modified for the five qualitative methods addressed in Creswell (2007). The template was as follows: "The purpose of this ____________ (narrative, phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnographic, case) study is (was? will be?) to _________ (understand? describe? develop? discover?) the __________(central phenomenon of the study) for ____________ (the participants) at ________ (the research site). At this stage in the research, the ___________ (central phenomenon) will be generally defined as _____________ (provide a tentative, preliminary definition of the central concept)" (Creswell, 2007, pp. 103-104). Subsequent to tailoring of the purpose statement for each given approach, candidate research questions were added. The following sections show the results of this exercise.

Narrative

Purpose statement: The purpose of this narrative study is to understand the differences in objectives for managers and leaders at (the research site) through lived experiences and epiphanies. At this stage in the research, the differences in objectives will be generally defined as "opposition" (Maccoby & Scudder, 2011) when executing role-specific tasks.

Research question and sub-questions:

- What are the differences in objectives for managers and leaders?
- What are the intentions of a leader or manager in the midst of change?

- What do leaders experience in terms of the actions of managers during times of change?
- What do managers experience in terms of the actions of leaders during times of change?
- What do participants experience in terms of the actions of leaders and managers during times of change?
- Are there aspects of leadership that result in a negative experience for managers or participants?
- Are there aspects of management that result in a negative experience for leaders or participants?
- What stories illustrate intentions and experiences?
- What are the key events that altered intentions or experiences?
- What theories relate to the intentions and experiences?

Phenomenonological

Purpose statement: The purpose of this phenomenological study is to describe the essence of opposition between managers and leaders at (the research site) during times of first level change Watzlawick (1993). At this stage in the research, opposition will be generally defined as contrasting or contradictory ideas.

Research question and sub-questions:

- What is essential for the experience to be described by a leader or manager as opposition or conflict?
- What statements describe these experiences?
- What themes emerge from these experiences?

- What are the contexts and thoughts about these experiences?
- What is the overall essence of the experiences?

Grounded Theory

Purpose statement: The purpose of this grounded theory study is to develop the construct of conflicting objectives for managers and leaders at (the research site). At this stage in the research, conflicting objectives will be generally defined as contrasting or contradictory purposes in action.

Research question and sub-questions:

- What sort of opposition is experienced between leaders and managers during times of change?
- What general categories emerge during the first review of the data?
- How do these categories relate to the subject of interest?
- What are the characteristics for the phenomenon?
- What were the circumstances and contexts for the phenomenon?
- Did significant strategies or tactics emerge that were role-dependent?
- What were the consequences of these strategies or tactics?

Ethnography

Purpose statement: The purpose of this ethnographic study is to describe the differences in actions taken by managers and leaders at (the research site) during times of first level change. At this stage in the research, the differences in actions will be generally defined as actions taken to meet role-specific purposes.

Research question and sub-questions:

- Do countervailing objectives lead to opposition or conflict between managers and leaders during times of change?
- What is the nature of change pertinent to this study?
- What are the role-dependent contexts for the behavior of leaders or managers?
- What is observed during times of change?
- Do separate cultural domains emerge from studying the situations?
- Are there specific, focused observations made about the situations?
- What taxonomy emerges from the observations?
- What themes emerge?

Case Study

Purpose statement: The purpose of this case study is to describe the differences in actions taken by managers and leaders at (three different work sites) in the midst of specific, bounded first-level change. At this stage in the research, the differences in actions taken will be generally defined as actions taken to meet role-specific purposes.

Research question and sub-questions:

- What actions were taken by leaders and managers to address specific changes?
- What were the specific changes?
- Who was involved in addressing the changes?
- Who was affected by the changes?
- How are the actions of leaders and managers described?
- What themes emerged for the period prior to actions being taken?
- What themes emerged for the period after actions were taken?

- What theoretical constructs aid in understanding these themes?
- What aspects of each case were unique?

APPENDIX E

Candidate Text for Use in Attracting Potential Experts for the Study

The following text is an example of candidate text that was to be used to advocate participation by potential experts for this study. To the extent allowed by the sources used to access candidates, this language will be used, however it may be modified according to the requirements of any institutions through which participants are sought.

Have your Expert Opinion Count!

Do you know why there is dysfunction in the workplace between various managers and leaders? Are you curious about the factors that cause disconnects and dismay? Do you wish you understood them better? A study is being conducted by a doctoral student at Pepperdine University to address these very concerns. In this study, the task-oriented facets of conflict in leadership and management will be explored for the purposes of developing an emergent theory on why that conflict exists. You can be part of that development by providing your expertise! And best of all, you will likely benefit by being a part of the discussion!

You, as an expert, will be asked a short series of questions using an Internet-based survey tool, and your responses along with those from other experts will be analyzed for relationships, concepts, and themes. The results of those analyses will be fed back to you along with more questions that are intended to clarify previously received responses, and elicit more input on key areas. You will have a chance to modify your previous thoughts or correct the interpretation of your responses, and to challenge the analytical findings. The cycle will likely consist of three, but no more than four iterations of questions, and all participants will have access to the final analytical results. By approaching the study this way, you will likely benefit from the exchanges while you are helping to formulate a new and interesting concept in organizational operations.

Desired candidates will have the following qualifications:

- At least 5 years of actively executing a formalized leader or manager role in the workplace, or at least 10 or more years as a subordinate and or follower
- Experience in any for-profit or non-profit oriented industry
- Access to a computer, world wide web, and email
- Residence in states or territories of the U.S.
- English proficiency

The study will take place over a roughly 20-week period; however the time necessary to participate during each iteration should be no more than 20 minutes per set of questions. Many of the questions will be open-ended to allow for more in-depth responses if you have a lot to say.

Access to your identity will be restricted to the researcher, and will be used for administrative purposes only. Every participant will have the latitude to speak freely and assert their beliefs and experiences, without attribution.

For more information or to submit your name for consideration as an expert, please email XXXXXXX or contact Dean McCall at XXXXXXX.

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent Text

The following information is provided to help you decide whether you wish to allow the researcher to use the information gained through your participation in research and scholarly work at Pepperdine University.

The purpose of the study is to learn about your perspective and opinions on leadership and management characteristics, particularly with respect to differences between leadership and management. This study will allow the researcher, and those who read the research, to gain a better understanding of potential conflicts between leadership objectives and management objectives. In order for the researcher to use what is learned from your participation in the research and publications, our University requires that we provide you with the following statement and ask for your permission. We would like to ask you if you would agree with the following arrangement:

By choosing the “accept” radio button, I confirm that I am at least 18 years old, and agree to permit the researcher to use information I provide through a one-on one interview (in person or via telephone) and online surveys. I agree to permit the researcher to keep any personal information associated with me within research notes only (i.e., not publish my personal information), and only to the extent necessary to administer the research, e.g., contact me via email with urls and passwords. I understand that the researcher will refer to me in published works only by a pseudonym or other anonymity-based moniker. I understand my identity and the name of my organizations and or affiliations will be kept confidential at all times and in all circumstances where research based on my responses are presented. I understand I will not receive a copy of the manuscript prior to submission of this research for publication. If at any time I no longer wish to participate in the research, I will notify the researcher, who will then delete my name and any other pertinent identifying information related to me, from the research notes.

In any case, you should be aware that your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time without affecting your relationship with the researcher or Pepperdine University. Upon your request, the researcher will provide information enabling you to locate any published papers based upon the research, including dissertations or professional presentations that take place as a result of your participation.

Please feel free to ask any questions about this study before or during the study. If you have any additional questions, please feel free to contact Dean McCall, Principle Researcher at (dwmccall@Pepperdine.edu), or Dr. Leo Mallette, Adjunct Professor at Pepperdine University, at (Leo.Mallette@pepperdine.edu), or Dr. Yuying Tsong, Chairperson, Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at (310-568-5768) or (yuying.tsong@pepperdine.edu).

By clicking on the first radio button, I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, potential risks as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. I also acknowledge that (a) I am over the age of 18, and that (b) I give my permission to be voluntary participant in the outlined study.

______________________________	___________
Researcher's Name	Date
______________________________	___________
Investigator's Name	Date

APPENDIX G

Certification for “Protecting Human Research Participants”

Figure G-1 shows the certification for Protecting Human Research Participants that was received by the researcher.

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Dean McCall** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course “Protecting Human Research Participants”.

Date of completion: 01/18/2010

Certification Number: 365187

Figure G1. Certification for “Protecting Human Research Participants”.

APPENDIX H

Interview Protocol

Time of interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewer: Dean McCall

Interviewee:

Recorder start

I'm going to start the recorder now. [Start recorder]

Demographics Questions:

1. How many years have you worked in one or more industries after obtaining your bachelor's degree or equivalent?

2. Do you currently act as a leader or manager, regardless of whether or not you have a formal title? If you do and had to choose, which role, i.e., leader or manager, do you have? If not, have you held such a position? If yes, how long has it been since you held such a position? (0 – 5 years, 5 – 10 years, 10-20 years, more than 20 years).

3. What industry are you now in? Please choose from the following list:

   a. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
   b. Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
   c. Utilities
   d. Construction
   e. Manufacturing
   f. Wholesale Trade
   g. Retail Trade
   h. Transportation and Warehousing
   i. Information
   j. Finance and Insurance

k. Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
l. Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
m. Management of Companies and Enterprises
n. Administrative and Support Services (Office Administrative, Facilities, Employment, Business, travel, Security)
o. Waste Management and Remediation Services
p. Educational Services
q. Health Care and Social Assistance
r. Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
s. Accommodation and Food Services
t. Other Services (except Public Administration)
u. Public Administration

4. Have you ever worked for a consulting company that specializes in management or leadership? For how long?

Preface to interview questions:

I'm going to ask you a series of questions about the roles, objectives, and actions of leaders and managers. Rather than define leader and manager roles, objectives, and actions for you, I am going to have you tell me your view of what they are based on your experiences and observations. There are no right or wrong answers, however if a question is not clear, you are encouraged to ask for clarification.

Is there anything you need before we start?

Interview Questions:

1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?

2. Objectives can be defined as an aim or goal, or the desired results of specific actions and efforts. In that context, what are typically a manager's objectives?

3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?

4. What is the role of a leader?

5. Recalling that objectives can be defined as an aim or goal, or the desired results of specific actions and efforts, what are typically a leader's objectives?

6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader’s objectives?

7. When leaders and managers interact in a given situation, they may interact positively or negatively, or in between, with respect to the objectives they are trying to meet. That is, they may interact in a coordinated or complementary way, or with non-interference, or in a way in which each tolerates the other but does not specifically support the other, or in a manner where one person’s actions conflict with those of the other person. What have you observed or experienced during manager/leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?

8. When managers and leaders interact, the interaction may be influenced by the compatibility or incompatibility of the objectives they are trying to meet. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?

9. In a given situation, leaders and managers may act concurrently, i.e., in parallel, to pursue their objectives. The results of such a concurrent approach may be favorable or unfavorable. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?

10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true, and if so, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?

11. Is there anything else you wish to say?

[Stop recorder]

APPENDIX I

Participant Instructions

Welcome to the study on Management and Leadership. You are participating as a result of having been solicited, expressing your interest and giving your informed consent to participate, and making yourself available to participate. Having access to these instructions means that you have received the necessary username and password to participate in this iteration; no other username or password will be required. Please follow these instructions:

- Use the advancement methods described by the survey tool to begin the survey or advance through the pages.
- For each question, consider your answer in the context of your current professional roles, and in the context of past duties and experiences.
- Where a discrete choice is requested on a seven-point scale, please consider the factors involved in your decision and your rationale for making your choice. All discrete choice questions will additionally ask you to provide your thoughts on the factors and rationale for your choice, in the amount of detail you see appropriate.
- If you are unsure of the context or definition of certain questions or terms, assume a context or definition and include that assumption in your response for the final question.
- If there are facets of the leadership/management discussion that are not addressed in the survey questions but in your opinion are worthy of being addressed, the final question on the survey will ask you for that information.

- If there are deficiencies in the survey, you are encouraged to either identify those in your final answer, or contact the researcher directly. In the event you contact the researcher, your query will not be used as data input to the analysis.

Thank you for participating!

APPENDIX J

Journals

The following data are the journal comments made during study execution.

7/6/2012

- I got the approval yesterday to go ahead with the study, so today I re-read chapter 3 and made notes that should help in conducting the study.
- I also did some research on encrypted flash drives, NVIVO software, and voice recognition software.

7/7/2012

- I took the text from Appendix D and morphed it into a solicitations page on my website deanmccall.net. More work to do tomorrow.
- I picked up a telephone headset and started working with the voice recognition capability built into Windows 7, hoping that it would help in the transcriptions. If that doesn't work I'll try Dragon.

7/8/2012

- Windows 7 voice recognition doesn't seem to go past a certain learning point. The learning routine was frustrating.
- I also refined the solicitation and sent it to classmates for review before linking anything to it.
- Very helpful video about graphic visuals to aid in analysis http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3UFgzDdKXbw&feature=channel_video_title
- I went ahead and bought Dragon NaturallySpeaking to do the voice-recognition software. Found it works a lot better than it windows seven software by far. I'm using it right now to write this note. I'll have to find out if journals need to be grammatically correct, it would be nice if I didn't have to go back and be grammatically complete. Then again maybe this thing will just keep me honest.
- I also got some feedback on the solicitation that I developed on the website. Parts of it were a little long to read, and I have some minor modifications do just to rearrange a couple of titles. Otherwise it's good to go.

7/18/2012

- Received the first set of emails indicating interest. 4 of 5 met the initial criteria. Responses sent to all.

- It took some time to set up the process for taking in the requests and responding to them. I had to set up a checklist for responses, including admin things like clicking on the options for delivery and read receipts.
- I also set up a tracking spreadsheet to coordinate correspondences.

7/24/2012

- 2 interviews so far
    - NAICS list seems to be working
    - Question 7 appears to be the toughest
    - Both interviews were enthusiastic, engaged
    - The 2nd interview was answering about management and leadership as though they were one person, so the differentiation wasn't quite clear at times.
    - Recordings were very clear on both
    - Durations were 40 – 45 minutes
- Both interviews gave me the types of answers that I was looking for, further confirming that they were written appropriately.
- Candidate participants are coming in a little at a time. There is some lag between expressing interest and responding to the informed consent query. Once the query is returned, the commitment seems to be more solid.

7/30/2012

- Spent more time trying to find in which recognition and it's not going as well as I'd hoped that this point.
- Let's try this again. I don't know why this is typing sentences and phrases twice praise is wise this doesn't make sense.
- If I'm going to use this for transcription if I'm going to use those for transcription this is going to have to be much better scored at a much better
- Voice recognition is not as good as I was hoping it would be

  Delphi notes 090812

- See page 67 for sequence of content analysis
- See page 68 for general questionnaire methodology
- Make sure the survey tool has tracking so I know who hasn't responded
- Final list of discrete aspects ordered according to median score
    - Should consider looking at average as well

Journal 9/8/2012

- In sorting out and coding items, there will be things that don't fit into the primary framework of the study, but can nonetheless be coded and made useful in other studies. As such, I will code everything that warrants it, and will use the out-of-framework items in the recommendations for future studies.
- It's worth the time going over the transcripts while listening to the audio. I should be doing this anyway, to get familiar with what people were saying. But also, the transcripts are not 100% correct. There are things that are context-dependent and pertinent to the study that need to be correct. It gives me a chance to make those corrections.

Journal 9/9/2012

- A couple of the questions are so open-ended that at first I was wondering how I would distill the data. But I'm finding context starts to reveal itself the more I listen, so I expect that by the end of listening to the interviews I'll have a good idea on all of the questions how to approach the analysis for each.

12/1/2012

For DQ.2.A there was some ambivalence with a few of the experts. Points to the possibility of a future study on self-image with respect to being a leader or manager -- not what you actually do, but how you see yourself and what criteria you are using to make that determination.

For IQ.2 there was a fuzzy boundary between manager roles and manager objectives for some experts. In coding answers to IQ.2, I found that I was linking a lot of the data to IQ.1-related codes.

12/4/2012

In the discussion about leadership objectives, one of the people commented about how "That's the mark of a successful leader". That way of expressing it may have been a better way of asking the question.

Several of the answers to particular questions fall into the category of other questions. Rather than ignore them, I am choosing to include them in the answers to those other questions. For example, someone may be giving an answer about roles when the question is about actions.

The first pass at codes is not going to be the only one. There are several codes for each question that give a slightly different flavor than other codes. In many cases these can be combined. In addition, the naming of the codes may change as a result of the aggregation of findings in each code bucket. Ultimately, the codes will need to render coherent questions for the surveys. That will be a more significant challenge than I had anticipated.

12/9/2012

Working on the coding for IQ.7 -- it's apparent that there's a spectrum from positive to negative for many of the observations that were articulated. Using those spectra for the survey questions may be worth considering.

12/30/2012

Sorting through the answers to open-ended questions would be greatly enhanced by an affinity exercise (a.k.a. yellow stickies) with several people, rather than one person. Would help with validity of the categorizations and how the questions are asked.

Translating answers to open-ended questions is not a linear, one-shot process. The way people express themselves and the contexts they use are highly variable, and there are a lot of good ideas. Part of that challenge is to distill the answers in a way that the survey questions are unambiguous but not overly numerous, criteria which may not be fully compatible.

Some of the answers express the "how", not the "what", the latter of which is the focus on the initial 6 questions. Filtering out the "how" is helpful.

It is becoming evident in looking at the leadership role that driving change is not a purpose of management, but a byproduct of their visions and actions. It is not a purpose unto itself.

1/1/2013

For some of the questions there are several distinct responses, enough that there is a concern about resulting in too many questions in the surveys. It may be worth considering the use of a hierarchy for the answers to force thinking (on the part of the researcher) as to whether there is overlap that can be taken out, to reduce the number of answers.

NVIVO was used for the initial open coding exercise used to take raw responses and code them, but when it came time to refine the categories in a way that was conducive to asking survey questions, the mechanics of NVIVO were too cumbersome to use alone. The application was also showing signs of instability and I didn't want the risk of losing data analysis. I used Word for the refinement process, one file for each main question.

1/2/2013

- Distillation – modifying the open-coded info to make it more coherent. A lot of the statements mapping during the open coding exercise were easy to take out of context standing by themselves. Important to make sure the true meaning comes along. Some distillation made the statements more concise, in other instances language was added for clarification. As a result of doing this I ended up moving some of the categories from their original group to others that were better-suited.

1/4/2013

- Word was good for working on the wording, but I still need to do some sorting so I can boil the groups down to something more concise. There's a lot of data, and I don't want to lose sight of the subtleties in the process.
- Getting the groups boiled down is good but the threads were not self-evident in the aggregate language. I had to spend some time altering the language for each group so that I could give one basic lead-in at the page intro and then all of the questions would follow the context of that lead-in. I have to do it this way, since not doing it would make each question a lot longer, and I already have a lot of ground to cover. Brings up an important point about the scope of the study. Getting a lot of good data is great until you ask a bunch of volunteers to spend time rating it. I could condense a lot more but then I'd lose some subtleties.
- I'm going to retain the grouping of survey questions under the original interview questions to maintain context. And to break the survey up so it doesn't seem as long.

1/5/2013

- Getting semantic and grammatical consistency within each questions area has been a bit of a challenge.
    - The differences between "the objectives are to…", and "the objectives are that…". The former relates to the link between the objective and the individual, the latter relates to the existence of the objective. I opted to go with the former, given that this is about the individuals and their roles.
    - IQ.7 had an array of answers that were either things people had actually seen (the "what"), or things that people know influence the quality of interactions (the "why"). I had difficulty making both of them flow the same, so I opted to break them into two separate groups – both sets are valuable in and of themselves, and this way I don't have to dilute the data for the sake of semantic or grammatical consistency. The data is more important.
        - After reviewing IQ.8, I opted to move the "influences" from IQ.7 to IQ.8. Otherwise it may confuse the survey takers.

- The responses for IQ.9 came back in terms of what influenced the outcomes of concurrent actions. Some were stated positively, some negatively. The original intent was to ferret out the factors that affect or influence the outcome of concurrent actions; the way the question was asked in the interviews (“what have you observed”) was a means to get realistic inputs. IQ.8 addresses manager/leader compatibility with respect to objectives, and IQ.9 addresses the timing of related actions and how ancillary factors affect the outcome.

2/2/2013

Summary page was partitioned along the same lines as the original interview questions, and formatted similarly in Excel, for easier reading

- Copy the group of numerical results for the given question -- the numbers and the statistics
- paste special/transpose into the dedicated worksheet for that question
- compare the categories for each question to the list of categories originally provided, to make sure all data is consistent
- widen the column (A) with the text of the choices, and collapse the row heights
- hide the columns with the raw numerical data (the transpose brought over fomulas, not values)
- delete the three blank columns after the first colored column
- copy the column headings from IQ.1 (# responses, 1st, 3rd, IQR, avg) and paste over the colored columns
- center the data in the summary columns (# responses, 1st, 3rd, IQR, avg) and adjust the column widths
- copy the open ended responses for that question from the summary page to the dedicated worksheet for that question

APPENDIX K

Top-Level NAICS Classifications

a. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
b. Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
c. Utilities
d. Construction
e. Manufacturing
f. Wholesale Trade
g. Retail Trade
h. Transportation and Warehousing
i. Information
j. Finance and Insurance
k. Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
l. Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
m. Management of Companies and Enterprises
n. Administrative and Support Services (Office Administrative, Facilities, Employment, Business, travel, Security)
o. Waste Management and Remediation Services
p. Educational Services
q. Health Care and Social Assistance
r. Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
s. Accommodation and Food Services
t. Other Services (except Public Administration)
u. Public Administration

APPENDIX L

Screen Shot of Introductory Page for the Study

Figure L1 provides a screen shot representing what potential participants saw when they were referred to the introduction of the study.

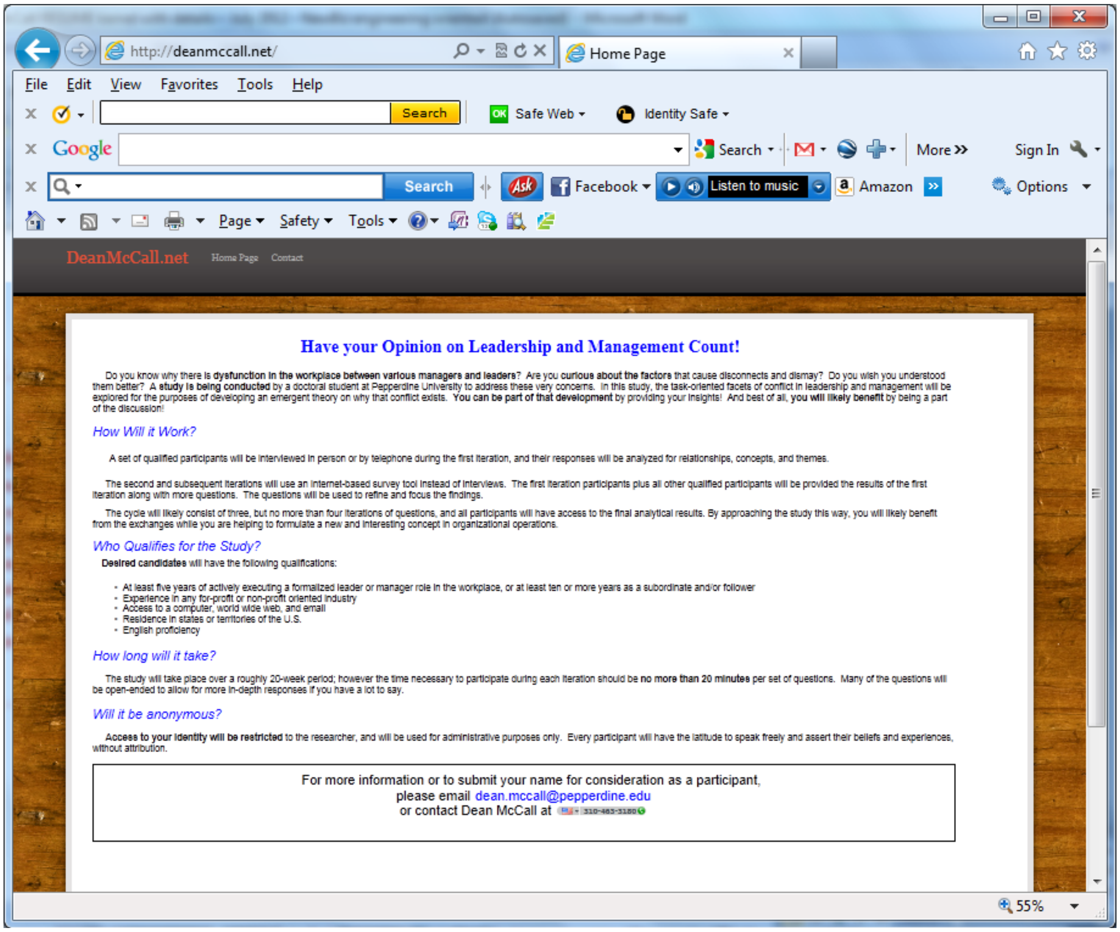


Figure L1. Screen shot of introductory page for the study.

APPENDIX M

Informed Consent Query to Potential Participants

The following email provides an example of the email sent to participants to engage them in the Informed Consent Process. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with “[expert]” to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student)
Sent: Friday, August 17, 2012 4:04 PM
To: {Expert]
Subject: RE: Study on management and leadership

[Expert] -- Thank you for your interest in this study, and for the clear explanation of your background, which does not exclude you. I'm happy to have you on board.

At this point I need to know if you want documentation linking you with the research (i.e., do you wish to complete an informed consent form). Your answer will govern whether informed consent is documented in regard to your participation. I have attached a copy of the Informed Consent form if you are interested. If you want to participate but do not wish to complete and return an informed consent form, please reply to this email with the statement “I would like to participate but do not wish to complete an informed consent form”.

Once you reply to this email and provide your preference for informed consent, I will provide information regarding the next step(s) to be taken.

The purpose of the study is to learn about your perspective and opinions on leadership and management characteristics, particularly with respect to differences between leadership and management. This study will allow the researcher, and those who read the research, to gain a better understanding of potential conflicts between leadership objectives and management objectives.

I appreciate your interest in this study, and look forward to hearing back from you.

Thanks

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)
XXXXXXX (office)

APPENDIX N

Participant Tracking Sheet

Figure N1 shows the participant tracking sheet used for the study, with information that would be traceable to specific participants removed. Following Figure N1 there is an indentured listing of the column headings in the tracking sheet.

							Informed Consent			Interviews						interim letter				1st survey					2nd survey			
	date rec'd	participant	email	init qual?	NAICS	comment	Query sent	email captured	consent dispo'ed[1]	setup query sent	scheduled (PDT)	occurred (PDT)	#	thank you sent	length (min)	interim letter sent	delivery receipt	read receipt	responded	heads up email sent	heads up del receipt	survey sent	survey complete	post-note sent	survey sent	heads up email sent	survey complete	post-note sent
1	7/17/2012			no			N/A	y	----	----	----	----		----														
2	7/17/2012			yes	P		7/18/2012	y	W	y	7/23 @5pm	7/23 @4pm	1	y	51	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013		1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	--	x	x
3	7/18/2012			yes	A		7/18/2012	y	S	y	7/24 @9am	7/24 @9am	2	y	40	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
4	7/18/2012			yes	L		7/18/2012	y	S (fax)	y	8/3 @10am	8/3 @10am	4	y	30	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
5	7/18/2012			yes			7/18/2012	y	sent 7/25, 8/1											1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
6	7/19/2012			yes			7/19/2012	y	sent 7/25, 8/1											1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
7	7/19/2012			yes	P		7/19/2012	y	S	y	8/8 @1:30pm	8/8 @1:30pm	5	y	26	1/2/2013	x	x		1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	nder sent	x
8	7/20/2012			yes	Q		7/21/2012	y	S	y	7/26 @1030am	7/26 @1030am	3	y	15	1/2/2013	x			1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
9	7/20/2012			no			N/A	y	----	----	----	----		----						1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
10	7/23/2012			yes			7/24/2012	y	W	y	----	----		----						1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
11	7/23/2012			no			N/A	y	----	----	----	----		----						1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
12	7/26/2012			yes	Q		7/28/2012	y	S	y	8/9 @ 7am	8/9 @ 7am	6	y	20	1/2/2013	x			1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
13																				1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
14	7/27/2012			??			7/28/2012	y												1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
15	7/28/2012			yes	J		7/28/2012	y	S	y	8/17 @9am PDT	8/17 @9am PDT	9	y	46	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
16	7/28/2012			yes	J		7/28/2012	y	S	y	8/21@7pm	949-215-1411;	11	y	16	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	--	x	x
17	7/28/2012			yes			7/29/2012	y	S	y										1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
18	7/30/2012			yes	P		7/30/2012	y	S	y	8/21 @ 1:00	T. 409.772.2780	10	y	40	1/2/2013	x	x		1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
19	7/30/2012			yes	J		7/30/2012	y	S	y	8/24 @1:00	8/24 @1:00	15	y		1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
20	7/30/2012			yes			7/30/2012	y	S	y	9/4 @10am	9/4 @10am	16	y		1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
21	8/1/2012				R		8/1/2012	y	S	y	8/17 @ 8am	8/17 @ 8am	8	y	34	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	--	x	x
22	8/3/2012						8/5/2012	y												1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
23	8/5/2012			yes	P		8/9/2012	y	S	y	8/15 @8pm	8/15 @8pm	7	y	23	1/2/2013	x			1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
24	8/6/2012			??			8/9/2012	y	S	y										1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
25																				1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
26	8/16/2012			yes	J		8/16/2012	y	S	y	8/23 @8pm	8/23 @8pm	14		12	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	--	x	x
27																				1/12/2013		1/12/2013						
28	8/16/2012			yes	P		8/17/2012	y	S	y	8/23 @5pm	8/23 @5pm	13	y	50	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	--	x	x
29	8/16/2012			yes	T		8/16/2012	y	S	y	8/23 @10am	8/23 @10am	12	y	26	1/2/2013	x	x	x	1/12/2013	x	1/12/2013	x	x	2/8/2013	2/8/2013	x	x
30	8/16/2012			yes			8/17/2012	y																				
31	8/19/2012						8/21/2012	y																				
32	8/21/2012						8/21/2012	y	S	y																		
Notes:														Std dev	13.11													
	1) S = consent form signed and returned; W = consent waived by the participant																											

Figure N1. Participant tracking sheet.

Column headings:

- date rec'd
- participant
- email
- init qual?
- NAICS
- comment
- Informed Consent
  - Query sent
  - email captured
  - consent dispo'ed1
- Interviews
  - setup query sent
  - "scheduled (PDT)"
  - "occurred (PDT)"
  - #
  - thank you sent
  - length (min)
- interim letter
  - interim letter sent
  - delivery receipt
  - read receipt
  - responded
- 1st survey
  - heads up email sent
  - heads up del receipt
  - survey sent
  - survey complete
  - post-note sent
- 2nd survey
  - survey sent
  - heads up email sent
  - survey complete
  - post-note sent

Notes:

1) S = consent form signed and returned; W = consent waived by the participant

APPENDIX O

Interim Note to Participants

The following email provides an example of the interim note sent to participants to get them re-engaged and inform them of the next steps to be taken in the study, including an expectation of timing. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with “[expert]” to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student) [mailto:Dean.McCall@pepperdine.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, January 02, 2013 6:44 PM
To: [expert]
Subject: status on management and leadership study

[expert] -- First of all, Happy New Year. I hope your holiday was fun, and 2013 is off to a good start.

I want to catch you up on progress for the Leadership & Management study conducted for my dissertation. All interviews have been conducted and transcribed, and the detailed analysis of the data is near completion. The data is consistent from interview to interview in terms of types of answers and the particular information given, however there are also some interesting and unique tidbits here and there, some of which may lead to further studies beyond the dissertation. In all, the interviews rendered the richness of data I was hoping to get. For that I thank you.

Regarding timing, I expect to have the first follow-up survey in your inbox around mid-January. It should take roughly a half hour to answer the questions. Following receipt of the responses there will be another round of analysis, but the timing will be much quicker as far as getting the second survey into your hands.

Please contact me if you anticipate any problems with continuing in this study, or have any questions in general. I’ll also send out one more email when the survey is implemented, to make sure you receive it from the survey company.

Thanks
Dean

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)

APPENDIX P

Email Alerting Participants About Survey 1 Release

The following email provides an example of the note sent to participants to alert them that the first survey was about to be released. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with "[expert]" to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student)

Sent: Saturday, January 12, 2013 3:29 PM

To: [expert]

Subject: RE: Interest in leadership study

[Expert] -- The first survey regarding Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership is about to be released. If you don't receive a survey invitation from Survey Monkey within the next day, please notify me.

The survey pilot suggested that the time needed for taking the survey is around 40 minutes. You will have the option to pause your answering session, and pick up later if needed. Simply click the exit button. To resume, click on the link in the invitation email and you will be taken back to the page where you left off. If you want to changes answers to or review previous pages, click on the "previous" link at the bottom of the page. Once you finish *all* pages, however, you will not be able to re-enter.

The planned cutoff date for completing the survey is Jan 27. If there are circumstances that prompt you to extend beyond that date, please let me know.

Thanks again, and enjoy the survey.

Dean

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)

APPENDIX Q

Survey 1

Figures Q1 and Q2 show screen shots of the first page and the top part of page two of Survey 1. In the actual survey there are page breaks between main pages, i.e., between pages titled “Welcome & Instructions”, and “Manager’s Role” in this example. All questions on each page were 7-point Likert except for the final open-ended question. Table Q1 shows the labels put on the endpoints, i.e., lowest and highest ratings, for all but one question on each survey page. The one exception is the last question on the page, which is open-ended essay-type and asks if the participant has anything they wish to say about the subject of the page. The data in this appendix that follows the figure and table has the entirety of the survey questions in text form.

Welcome & Instructions

Thank you for participating in the study on "Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership". The purpose of the study is to learn about your perspective and opinions on leadership and management characteristics, particularly with respect to differences between leadership and management. This study will allow the researcher, and those who read the research, to gain a better understanding of potential conflicts between leadership objectives and management objectives.

The survey you are about to take is based on the responses provided during one-on-one interviews that occurred in late summer 2012. The responses were analyzed and coded so that further examination would be possible, as manifested in this survey. There were ten original questions in the interviews, and the survey will have a page dedicated to each one of those questions (in one case a question is broken down to two pages). Each of those pages will contain the groups of responses for you to rate. At the end of each page, and at the end of the survey, there will be opportunities to comment free-form. The average time to take the survey is anticipated to be approximately 30 minutes.

For tracking purposes I will know who has finished the survey, but not what their answers were. Survey Monkey's privacy policy can be viewed at http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/. SSL encryption will be used for data collection on the pages of this survey.

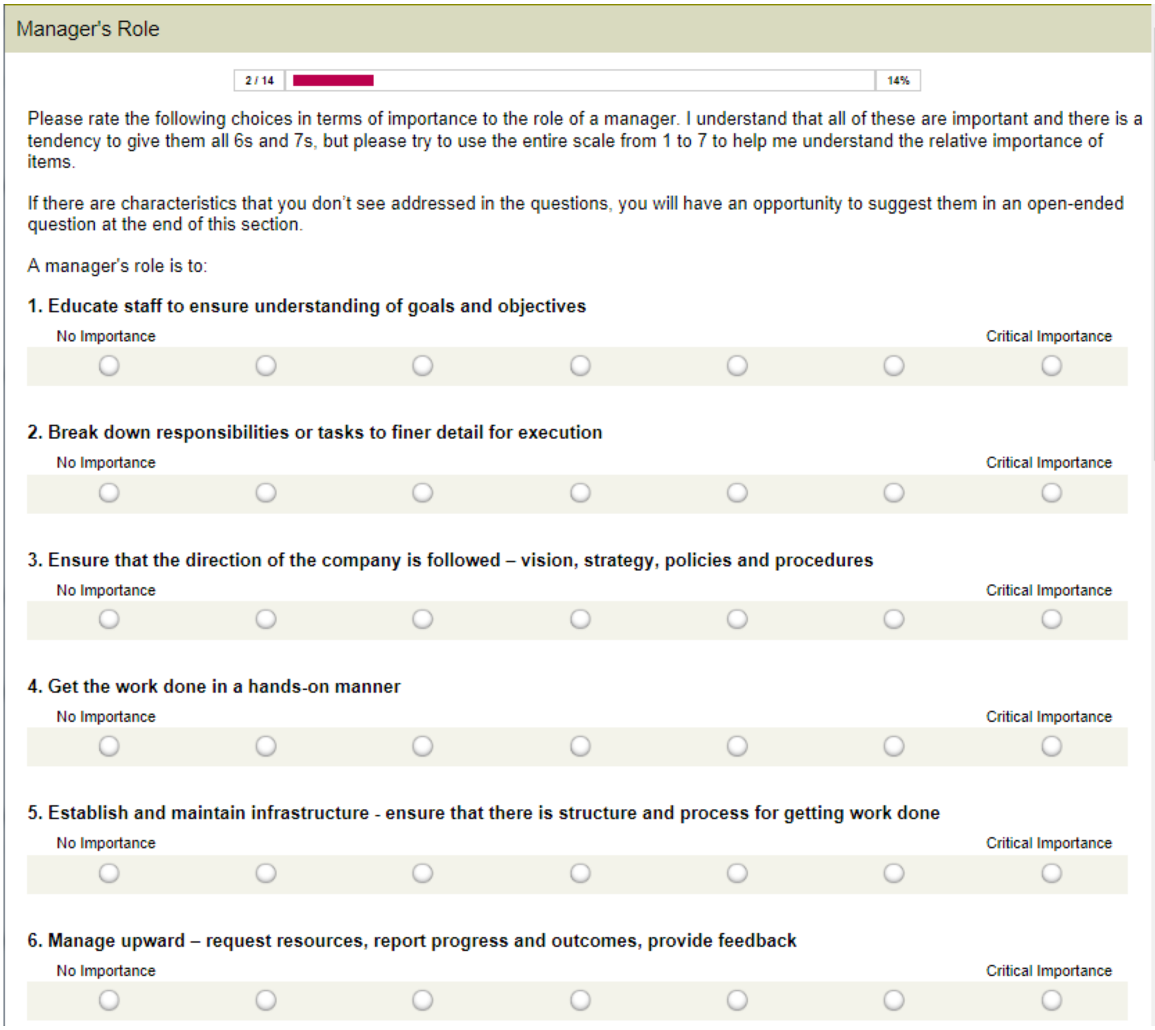
Every effort has been made to retain the original meaning of the responses, but at the same time keep the survey choices succinct and easily understandable. Some responses may appear to be very similar – this is purposeful, to capture subtle differences. If you are not sure of the meaning of a given response, make your best guess. If there are characteristics or facets that you don't see addressed in the responses but believe should be included, you will have an opportunity to suggest it in an open-ended question at the end of each page. You will have the option to pause your answering session and pick up later. The planned cutoff date for completing the survey is Jan 27.

If you have any questions, I can be reached at dwmccall@pepperdine.edu, or by phone at 310-463-3180.

Again, thank you for your interest and time spent. I look forward to sharing the results once the study is concluded.

Please click "next" to start taking the survey.

Figure Q1. Survey 1 introductory page example.



Manager's Role

2 / 14 14%

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a manager. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

A manager's role is to:

1. Educate staff to ensure understanding of goals and objectives

No Importance Critical Importance

2. Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution

No Importance Critical Importance

3. Ensure that the direction of the company is followed – vision, strategy, policies and procedures

No Importance Critical Importance

4. Get the work done in a hands-on manner

No Importance Critical Importance

5. Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done

No Importance Critical Importance

6. Manage upward – request resources, report progress and outcomes, provide feedback

No Importance Critical Importance

Figure Q2. Survey 1 page 1 example.

Table Q1

Rating Label Endpoints for Survey 1

Survey Page	Lowest Rating	Highest Rating
1. Manager's Role, 2. Manager's Objectives, 4. Leader's Role, 5. Leader's Objectives	No Importance	Critical Importance
3. Manager Actions, 6. Leader Actions	No Relevance	Critical Relevance
Characteristics of Interactions	Not Prevalent	Extremely Prevalent
Leader/Manager Compatibility (or Incompatibility), Time-Concurrent Action	Not at All	To a Very Great Extent
Leadership/Management Assertion, Potential Conflict, Uncategorized Comments	I Don't Agree At All	I completely Agree

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Welcome & Instructions

Thank you for participating in the study on “Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership”. The purpose of the study is to learn about your perspective and opinions on leadership and management characteristics, particularly with respect to differences between leadership and management. This study will allow the researcher, and those who read the research, to gain a better understanding of potential conflicts between leadership objectives and management objectives.

The survey you are about to take is based on the responses provided during one-on-one interviews that occurred in late summer 2012. The responses were analyzed and coded so that further examination would be possible, as manifested in this survey. There were ten original questions in the interviews, and the survey will have a page dedicated to each one of those questions (In one case a question is broken down to two pages). Each of those pages will contain the groups of responses for you to rate. At the end of each page, and at the end of the survey, there will be opportunities to comment free-form. The average time to take the survey is anticipated to be approximately 30 minutes.

For tracking purposes I will know who has finished the survey, but not what their answers were. Survey Monkey’s privacy policy can be viewed at http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacypolicy/. SSL encryption will be used for data collection on the pages of this survey.

Every effort has been made to retain the original meaning of the responses, but at the same time keep the survey choices succinct and easily understandable. Some responses may appear to be very similar – this is purposeful, to capture subtle differences. If you are not sure of the meaning of a given response, make your best guess. If there are characteristics or facets that you don’t see addressed in the responses but believe should be included, you will have an opportunity to suggest it in an open-ended question at the end of each page. You will have the option to pause your answering session and pick up later. The planned cutoff date for completing the survey is Jan 27.

If you have any questions, I can be reached at XXXXX@XXXX, or by phone at XXXXXXX

Again, thank you for your interest and time spent. I look forward to sharing the results once the study is concluded.

Please click “next” to start taking the survey.

Manager's Role

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a manager. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

A manager's role is to:

1. Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution

2. Communicate important and or pertinent information

3. Establish and maintain infrastructure ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done

4. Get the work done in a hands-on manner

5. Educate staff to ensure understanding of goals and objectives

6. Ensure that the direction of the company is followed – vision, strategy, policies and procedures

7. Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues

8. Get work done through others – assign, instruct, track progress, adjust and correct

9. Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct

10. Manage upward – request resources, report progress and outcomes, provide feedback

11. Influence others – share the vision, motivate and win minds, demonstrate behaviors

12. Manage conflict between people and teams

13. Are there any other choices you suggest adding with respect to the role of a manager?

Manager's Objectives

Please rank the following items in terms of importance to a manager's objectives. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don’t see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

A manager's objective is to:

1. Align ongoing activities with goals and objectives

2. See that all of the work gets done

3. Ensure that product output meets expectations – requirements, quality standards, desires (spoken or unspoken)

4. Have teams work effectively and professionally to meet goals and objectives

5. Meet or exceed expected monetary return on investments and resources

6. Ensure that planned activities are quantitatively or qualitatively measured and evaluated against criteria, results are understood, and corrected when necessary

7. Meet or exceed obligations deadlines and outcomes relative to expectations

8. See that goals and objectives are set, and aligned with (possibly changing) strategy and vision

9. Satisfy stakeholders – the Board down to the workers, end users or beneficiaries, investors, community at large

10. Understand and adequately manage risk – identify potential “fires”, put out real fires

11. Are there any other choices you suggest adding with respect to a manager's objectives?

Manager Actions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the relevance of actions, performed or assigned by a manager, that support manager objectives. I understand that all of these are relevant and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative significance of relevant items.

If there are characteristics that you don’t see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

Manager actions are to:

1. Translate strategy into tactics

2. Address and resolve barriers to progress

3. Determine where help is needed

4. Collect and disposition information as to how to improve

5. Act as liaison to “external” entities such as other departments, public or community

6. Ensure the work environment is safe

7. Manage the budget

8. Translate goals and objectives into assignable tasks, assign them to the appropriate resources, track progress, correct when necessary

9. Identify and pursue additional contractual business

10. Address conflict

11. Delegate manager actions to others for execution

12. Teach, coach, and develop people

13. Integrate the results of assigned tasks in a way that objectives are met

14. Obtain resources that can and will get the work done

15. Coordinate between resources to ensure intended outcomes

16. Clarify and communicate objectives and set expectations for how they are to be met

17. Observe and measure during execution, evaluate, and change execution if necessary

18. Establish, maintain, and improve communications between people and teams – communications materials, culture, accessibility, understanding

19. Provide feedback to stakeholders – workers, management and leadership, and others that affect outcomes

20. Report upward

21. Ensure the work environment is productive

22. Are there any other choices you suggest adding with respect to manager actions?

Leader's Role

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a leader. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don’t see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

A leader's role is to:

1. Make organizational changes when deemed necessary

2. Revisit vision and strategy frequently to ensure currency and viability, and adjust when needed

3. Use the vision to motivate and inspire people

4. Communicate a rational vision that people will follow

5. Ensure coherent strategy across disciplines marketing, sales, financial, legal, production

6. Clearly communicate vision and strategy to those who need it to do their jobs effectively

7. Set an example for how to act with a certain behavior

8. Establish and achieve goals and objectives

9. Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision

10. See the “big picture” and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly

11. Be accountable for outcomes generated by the organization

12. Create ideas and maintain a creative environment

13. Be social – interact with employees, the community, customers, vendors

14. Act as a buffer between the external world and the internal organization

15. Act as organization spokesperson to or conduit between the external world and the internal organization

16. Delegate the execution of vision and strategy to management

17. Provide the overarching “why” – establish a purpose and identify meaningful or important outcomes in the context of the big picture

18. Act as figurehead for or associated with the organization

19. Ensure that the right people with requisite skills sets are in the right places to get the vision realized

20. Pay attention to the people aspects of the organization

21. Know what is going on everywhere and step in when needed

22. Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary

23. Capture hearts and inspire others, drive enthusiasm and motivate to make things happen

24. Also perform a manager role

25. Be a teacher

26. Understand the customer and the customers needs

27. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding the role of a leader?

Leader's Objectives

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the objectives of a leader. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

A leader's objective is to:

1. See that their followers exceed them

2. Accomplish the vision, achieve a goal

3. Achieve balance between many competing professional and personal roles, demands, and goals

4. Maintain product relevance and competitiveness in the marketplace

5. Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people

6. Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood

7. Communicate effectively with all stakeholders

8. Create followers and motivate them to follow

9. Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it

10. Ensure that resources and infrastructure needs are recognized, prioritized, and in place

11. Ensure that people understand how to do what they need to do

12. Be satisfied on the job – both the leader, and the people working with or for the leader

13. Improve business execution

14. Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome

15. Set the ethical tone

16. Know the progress and status of activities in the context of their objectives – stay connected to activities and people

17. Learn by observing other leaders

18. Create change and set the stage so that the change is successful

19. Please the Board of Directors and other key stakeholders

20. Make sure that problems are resolved

21. Are there any other choices you suggest adding with respect to a leader's objectives?

Leader Actions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the relevance of actions, performed or assigned by a leader, that support leader objectives. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

Leader actions are to:

1. Assess the progress made by leaders and managers against their delegated or assigned roles and objectives

2. Seek feedback and listen to it to ensure they understand

3. Make adjustments when necessary and or get involved at the detail level when insufficient progress warrants, relative to goals and objectives

4. Influence others through the example of their own action

5. Assess the adequacy of resources at hand, and allocate them

6. Assess the effectiveness of the communication strategy

7. Delegate and or assign roles and objectives to other capable leaders and managers, and clarify them when needed

8. Celebrate success and recognize those who made it happen

9. Communicate outward to ensure the understanding of others

10. Seek the ideas and insights of those that work for them, and collaborate to determine how to go forward

11. Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken

12. Give attention to the operating environment authorities, people interactions, safety, sense of ownership

13. Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents

14. Measure and track progress to ensure the requisite quality and quantity of output

15. Find ways to identify, create, and engage new business opportunities

16. Hold people accountable to their commitments

17. Identify and assess the risks of potential or ongoing actions

18. Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future

19. Assess unique skill sets and talents needed for current and future efforts, fill gaps and match people to objectives, make adjustments to people when matches are inadequate

20. Own problems and fix them

21. Communicate and sell the vision and ensure that others are communicating and selling it with reasonable fidelity

22. Act as a steward to managers – assist in securing resources and making decisions, teach them what they need to know, help them reach their goals

23. Question the status quo

24. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding a leader's actions?

Characteristics of Interactions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the prevalence of certain manager-leader interactions in the workplace and or in your experience, with respect to meeting organizational objectives. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

How prevalent are the following characteristics of manager-leader interactions, with respect meeting organizational objectives?

1. Conflict is resolved immediately, openly, and transparently

2. Vision of change is neither communicated nor clarified, but the leader expects that people will be on board

3. Definitions and expectations are not crystal clear; the individual roles and responsibilities are not clearly delineated

4. Apparent conflict surfaces that leads to an effective outcome

5. Open disagreement or challenge results in articulation of differences/perspectives/opinions, followed by the reaching of agreement, consensus, or compromise

6. Clarification of the vision is sought and provided

7. Collaboration and brainstorming leads to success

8. Coordination occurs with others that have different objectives

9. Vision, goals, and objectives are fully aligned and there are no issues

10. Communication is ineffective, due to using a communication approach that has an inappropriate context for the audience

11. Interactions are hampered by differing objectives, issues, and opinions, but participants want to resolve only from their perspective

12. Common objectives are not established to begin with, due to lack of communication of vision and direction

13. The autonomy, the skills, and the talents of the other are not respected

14. The leader sells the vision and the manager makes it happen

15. Managers simply follow the leader; the more managers follow to the letter, the more positive and congenial the interaction

16. A barrier is thrown up – “we can’t do this”

17. Individuals are worked around when there are differences

18. Management teams are encouraged to openly voice their opinions about the goals and objectives at hand

19. Illusory full agreement between leader and manager results in passive aggressive behavior

20. Differing skill sets and roles are combined in a close, symbiotic arrangement

21. Interactions take the form of top-down “I know what’s best” dictums

22. The broad picture view does not satisfy the need for specific direction or information

23. Upon disagreement, someone leaves the organization or is moved out

24. The leader provides a clear background story for “why we’re doing this”

25. The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable

26. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding manager-leader interactions, with respect meeting organizational objectives?

Leader/Manager Compatibility (or Incompatibility)

Please rate the following choices in terms of influences on leader/manager compatibility. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

To what extent is leader/manager compatibility (or incompatibility) affected by the following aspects, characteristics, and factors of leader and manager objectives?

1. The personality of the organization, i.e., how the culture of the organization manifests

2. Hierarchical distance between leaders and managers

3. Being able to read when the other is being resistant

4. The degree to which the leader steps up and is right there every step of the way

5. Achievability and consistency of the vision

6. Alignment between leaders and managers

7. The amount and manner of delegation

8. A common understanding of the vision

9. The match between skill sets and or tools, and what needs to be accomplished

10. Broad thinking vs. narrower or more specific thinking

11. Clarity about the vision, the objectives, and what needs to get done

12. Communication effectiveness – skill, style, attention to understanding

13. A compelling vision

14. The degree of competition between the parties

15. An understanding of the core principals and cultural nuances of the other party

16. The degree to which leadership is willing to work in the trenches or get involved

17. Openness in all directions about potential barriers or challenges

18. How much the parties feel that they are understood

19. Preexisting expectations

20. Having the right people on the team

21. Degree of extrinsic motivation tangible incentives and perks

22. Institutional rules, requirements, and regulations

23. Level of engagement regardless of amount of agreement

24. Level of experience

25. The degree to which differences of opinion are leveraged

26. Listening, and understanding in the context of the role

27. Degree of intrinsic motivation

28. Number of other projects or responsibilities competing for attention

29. Organizational distance between leaders and managers

30. Amount of patience

31. Perceived authority

32. Amount of risk inherent in the project

33. The mix of personalities

34. Time demands and pressure

35. Differences in priorities

36. Self interest

37. Compulsion for collaboration or teamwork

38. Trust

39. Willingness to compromise

40. Willingness to follow the leader

41. The need to look good to others

42. The culture of the organization

43. The degree to which the leader listens, supports, and mobilizes resources, influences the character of the interaction

44. The implied amount of impending change

45. The quality of the working relationship between the individuals

46. The degree of empathy from one to the other

47. The style match

48. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding leader/manager compatibility?

Time-Concurrent Action

Please rate the following choices in terms of influence on concurrent (i.e., roughly simultaneous) actions taken by leaders and managers. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

Assuming that action is taken at the same time by leaders and managers, to what extent is the outcome affected by the following aspects, characteristics, and factors?

1. Timeliness of communication in the midst of changing directions

2. Awareness by a leader or manager, of what the other manager or leader is doing

3. Alignment between leaders and managers

4. The stability and consistency of the direction taken

5. The quality of the communication channels

6. The level of detail involved

7. Compatibility of the objectives

8. The consistency of messages given to different stakeholders

9. The timeliness of upward flow of important information

10. The organizational culture with respect to blame (i.e., shared, mutual, fingerpointing) for bad outcomes

11. The possibility of being overridden by higher authorities

12. Appearances regarding how connected the leader and manager are

13. Complementarity of leaders and managers

14. The pace of activities

15. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding actions taken by managers and leaders at the same time?

Leadership/Management Assertion

Please rate the following choices in terms of a stated definition of manager and leader roles. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

The following responses were received in response to the statement "leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo". To what extent do you agree with those statements?

1. Some managers also lead

2. Managers drive change in order to move things forward

3. Driving change or maintaining the status quo is affected by how well the project is being executed

4. Leaders maintain the status quo

5. Leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo are dynamics inherent in the role of the manager and the role of the leader

6. Managers are focused on succeeding with current tasks and responsibilities rather than maintaining the status quo

7. Both managers and leaders drive change

8. The statement "Leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo" is not true

9. Examples exist where leaders drive change and managers maintain the status quo, but in general this is not the case

10. The perception of leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo is real

11. It is true that "leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo"

12. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo?

Potential Conflict

Please rate the following choices in terms of a potential conflict between manager and leader roles. I understand that all of these are important and there is a tendency to give them all 6s and 7s, but please try to use the entire scale from 1 to 7 to help me understand the relative importance of items.

If there are characteristics that you don't see addressed in the questions, you will have an opportunity to suggest them in an open-ended question at the end of this section.

Assuming for a moment that "leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo", interview participants commented on whether that definition potentially created or presented a conflict. To what extent do you agree with the following comments?

1. The conflict between the roles depends on the situation
2. There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations
3. The division between leader and manager roles, with respect to change and status quo, is by design and is necessary
4. The definitions create a conflict even if the quote is not true
5. The conflict is driven by confusion as to who has which role, rather than the roles themselves
6. The definitions do not present a conflict
7. If the leader is driving change and the manager is maintaining status quo, the possibility of conflict exists
8. Are there any other choices you suggest adding regarding potential conflict, given the assumption that "leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo"?

Uncategorized Comments

The following comments were provided at the end of the interviews but could not be cleanly tied to any single previously asked interview question. Nevertheless they are pertinent to the discussion, and are included here for further optional comment by others. The researcher anticipates that the subject of any discussion(s) will be identified in the dissertation section on recommended further studies.

1. Leadership is not exclusive to where one is in an organization

2. A good leader or good manager will always keep learning

3. It's important to transfer the vision, goal, or new direction of the organization back to the management team so that they are enrolled in the direction and the journey

4. Everyone leads

5. Everyone manages, even if only themselves

6. The size of the organization affects the need for traditional and or structured management

7. Management and leadership are separate roles but they aren't necessarily multiple people

8. Managers who have been managing for quite a while may tend to get stuck in the day to day and have difficulty seeing further down the road

9. There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers

10. Do you have anything you wish to add?

Done!

You have completed the first survey on Leadership and Management. Your participation is greatly appreciated!

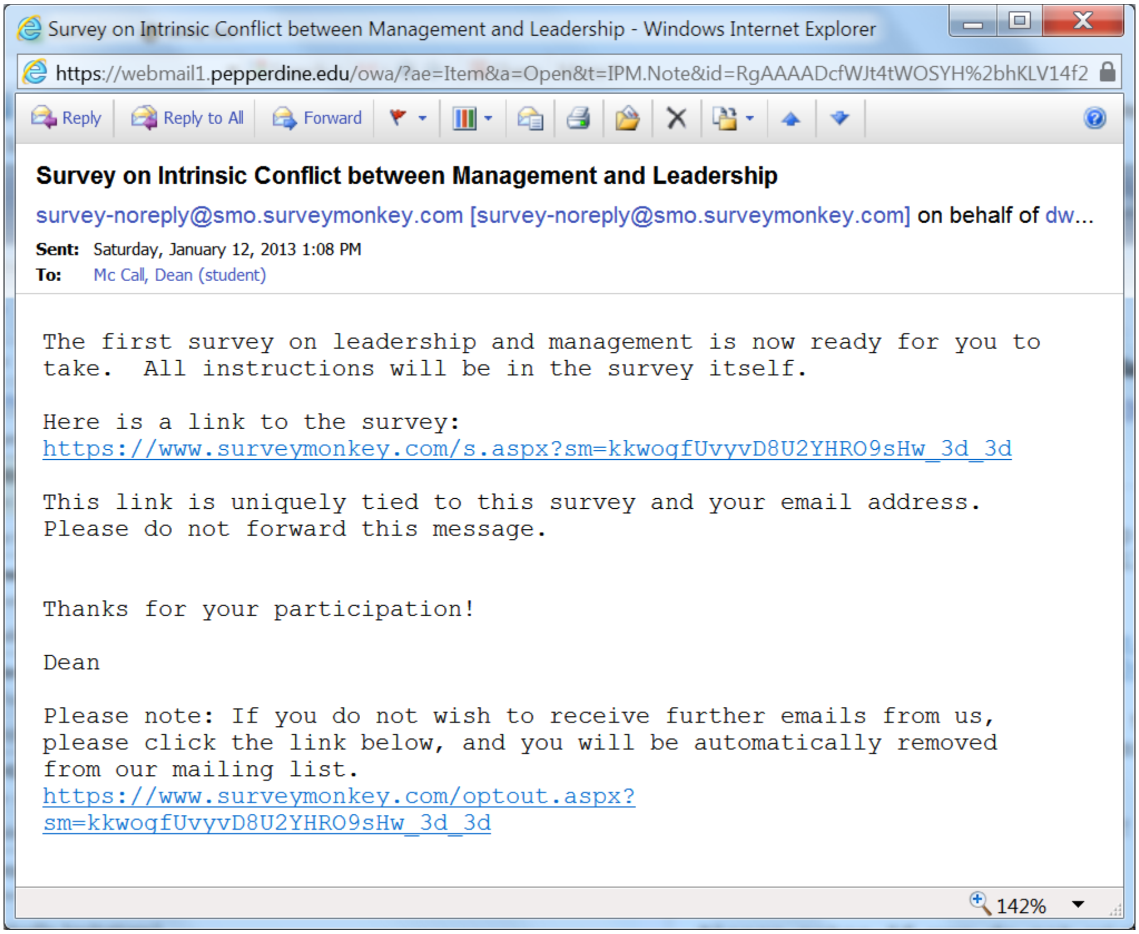
There is a short data collection period, after which the aggregation of answers will be analyzed and considered for further addressing in the next survey. Total elapsed time is expected to be 4 6 weeks. I will contact you shortly before the release of the next survey.

Thanks again for adding to this valuable study.

APPENDIX R

Screen Shot of Survey 1 Release Email

Figure R1 provides a screen shot of the email sent to participants regarding the release of survey 1. The email was sent to the researcher in addition to the participants so that distribution of the email through the Survey Monkey tool was readily verified.


Survey on Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership - Windows Internet Explorer

https://webmail1.pepperdine.edu/owa/?ae=Item&a=Open&t=IPM.Note&id=RgAAAADcfWJt4tWOSYH%2bhKLV14f2

Reply | Reply to All | Forward

Survey on Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership

survey-noreply@smo.surveymonkey.com [survey-noreply@smo.surveymonkey.com] on behalf of dw...

Sent: Saturday, January 12, 2013 1:08 PM

To: Mc Call, Dean (student)

The first survey on leadership and management is now ready for you to take. All instructions will be in the survey itself.

Here is a link to the survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=kkwogfUvyvD8U2YHRO9sHw_3d_3d

This link is uniquely tied to this survey and your email address. Please do not forward this message.

Thanks for your participation!

Dean

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.
https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx?sm=kkwogfUvyvD8U2YHRO9sHw_3d_3d

142%

Figure R1. Screen shot of survey 1 release email.

APPENDIX S

Survey 1 Close-Out Email and Next Steps

The following email provides an example of the email sent to participants to notify them that the first survey was closed, and what to expect next. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with "[expert]" to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student)
Sent: Sunday, February 03, 2013 1:31 PM
To: [Expert]
Subject: survey status

[Expert] -- The first survey for the leadership and management study is now closed. Many thanks for your inputs. We had 100% participation, and the data is rich, so many insights are coming out of it.

The follow-up survey should be ready by the end of this week. It will be shorter, and will be mostly comprised of questions for which there was inadequate agreement (per study criterion) in the first survey. All repeated questions will include the average rating of the responses from the first survey, and you will have the opportunity to revise your ratings should you wish. Additional criteria will be used to assess each set of responses in this round; this is expected to render the data set complete.

I very much appreciate the time you are taking to support this study. Experts are busy people, and to get 100% participation is remarkable. Hopefully you will find the end result very useful.

Stay tuned, and have a great week.

Dean

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)

APPENDIX T

Survey 1 Categories That Reached Consensus

Table T1 shows survey 1 categories that reached consensus.

Table T1

Survey 1 Categories that Reached Consensus

	Avg	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?		
Communicate important and or pertinent information	6.4	1.0
Facilitate – help teams accomplish their tasks by identifying needs, obtaining and managing resources, troubleshooting and resolving issues	6.3	1.0
Educate staff to ensure understanding of goals and objectives	6.3	1.3
Manage upward – request resources, report progress and outcomes, provide feedback	6.2	1.0
Ensure that the direction of the company is followed – vision, strategy, policies and procedures	6.2	1.3
Manage conflict between people and teams	5.8	1.3
Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?		
Ensure that product output meets expectations – requirements, quality standards, desires (spoken or unspoken)	6.3	1.0
Align ongoing activities with goals and objectives	6.1	1.3

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager’s objectives?		
Address and resolve barriers to progress	6.4	1.0
Clarify and communicate objectives and set expectations for how they are to be met	6.4	1.0
Teach, coach, and develop people	6.3	1.0
Provide feedback to stakeholders – workers, management and leadership, and others that affect outcomes	6.3	1.0
Translate goals and objectives into assignable tasks, assign them to the appropriate resources, track progress, correct when necessary	6.2	1.3
Establish, maintain, and improve communications between people and teams – communications materials, culture, accessibility, understanding	6.1	1.3
Ensure the work environment is productive	6.1	1.3
Report upward	6.1	1.3
Obtain resources that can and will get the work done	6.0	1.3
Observe and measure during execution, evaluate, and change execution if necessary	5.8	0.0
Collect and disposition information as to how to improve	5.5	1.0
Integrate the results of assigned tasks in a way that objectives are met	5.4	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?		
See the “big picture” and develop the long range vision and strategy accordingly	6.6	0.5
Be accountable for outcomes generated by the organization	6.5	1.0
Clearly communicate vision and strategy to those who need it to do their jobs effectively	6.5	1.0
Set an example for how to act with a certain behavior	6.3	0.5
Revisit vision and strategy frequently to ensure currency and viability, and adjust when needed	6.2	1.0
Use the vision to motivate and inspire people	6.2	1.0
Align the organization – identify the right path and get people to pull in the same direction according to a common vision	6.1	1.0
Pay attention to the people aspects of the organization	6.1	1.0
Capture hearts and inspire others, drive enthusiasm and motivate to make things happen	6.1	1.0
Ensure coherent strategy across disciplines - marketing, sales, financial, legal, production	5.9	0.5

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 5. What are typically a leader’s objectives?		
Set the ethical tone	6.5	0.0
Communicate effectively with all stakeholders	6.5	1.0
Accomplish the vision, achieve a goal	6.2	1.0
Create change and set the stage so that the change is successful	6.0	0.5
Know the progress and status of activities in the context of their objectives – stay connected to activities and people	5.5	1.0
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader’s objectives?		
Communicate and sell the vision and ensure that others are communicating and selling it with reasonable fidelity	6.3	1.0
Hold people accountable to their commitments	6.1	1.0
Influence others through the example of their own action	5.9	0.5
Seek the ideas and insights of those that work for them, and collaborate to determine how to go forward	5.8	1.0
Communicate outward to ensure the understanding of others	5.7	0.5

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Act as a steward to managers – assist in securing resources and making decisions, teach them what they need to know, help them reach their goals	5.7	1.0
Give attention to the operating environment - authorities, people interactions, safety, sense of ownership	5.3	1.0
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?		
The leader provides a clear background story for "why we're doing this"	4.3	1.0
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?		
Trust	6.2	0.8
A compelling vision	5.6	1.0
The personality of the organization, i.e., how the culture of the organization manifests	5.5	1.0
Self interest	5.5	1.0
Clarity about the vision, the objectives, and what needs to get done	5.5	1.0
Listening, and understanding in the context of the role	5.4	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Willingness to compromise	5.4	1.0
Achievability and consistency of the vision	5.4	1.0
Openness in all directions about potential barriers or challenges	5.3	1.0
Differences in priorities	5.3	1.0
Level of experience	5.1	1.0
The degree of empathy from one to the other	5.1	1.0
The implied amount of impending change	5.0	0.0
The mix of personalities	4.7	1.0
Being able to read when the other is being resistant	4.6	1.0
Broad thinking vs. narrower or more specific thinking	4.5	1.0
Compulsion for collaboration or teamwork	4.5	1.0
Amount of risk inherent in the project	4.5	1.0
The need to look good to others	4.4	1.0
The amount and manner of delegation	4.4	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?		
The quality of the communication channels	6.0	1.0
Timeliness of communication in the midst of changing directions	5.8	1.0
The timeliness of upward flow of important information	5.5	1.0
Alignment between leaders and managers	5.5	1.3
The consistency of messages given to different stakeholders	5.5	1.0
The stability and consistency of the direction taken	5.0	0.0
Awareness by a leader or manager, of what the other manager or leader is doing	4.9	1.0
Complementarity of leaders and managers	4.7	1.0
Page 10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?		
Some managers also lead	6.5	1.0
Managers drive change in order to move things forward	5.4	1.0
Managers are focused on succeeding with current tasks and responsibilities rather than maintaining the status quo	5.3	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Examples exist where leaders drive change and managers maintain the status quo, but in general this is not the case	4.7	1.0
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?		
If the leader is driving change and the manager is maintaining status quo, the possibility of conflict exists	6.2	1.0
The conflict between the roles depends on the situation	5.5	1.0
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?		
A good leader or good manager will always keep learning	6.9	0.0
Leadership is not exclusive to where one is in an organization	6.3	1.0
It’s important to transfer the vision, goal, or new direction of the organization back to the management team so that they are enrolled in the direction and the journey	6.2	1.0
Management and leadership are separate roles but they aren’t necessarily multiple people	6.2	1.0
Managers who have been managing for quite a while may tend to get stuck in the day to day and have difficulty seeing further down the road	5.2	1.0
The size of the organization affects the need for traditional and or structured management	5.2	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

APPENDIX U

Survey 1 Categories That Did Not Reach Consensus

Table U1 shows survey 1 categories that did not reach consensus.

Table U1

Survey 1 Categories that Did Not Reach Consensus

	Avg	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?		
Get work done through others – assign, instruct, track progress, adjust and correct	6.1	2.0
Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct	6.1	2.0
Influence others – share the vision, motivate and win minds, demonstrate behaviors	5.9	2.0
Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	5.8	2.0
Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution	4.8	3.3
Get the work done in a hands-on manner	3.5	2.0
Page 2. What are typically a manager’s objectives?		
Have teams work effectively and professionally to meet goals and objectives	6.1	2.0
Ensure that planned activities are quantitatively or qualitatively measured and evaluated against criteria, results are understood, and corrected when necessary	6.1	2.0
See that all of the work gets done	5.9	2.0
Understand and adequately manage risk – identify potential “fires”, put out real fires	5.9	2.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
See that goals and objectives are set, and aligned with (possibly changing) strategy and vision	5.6	2.0
Meet or exceed obligations - deadlines and outcomes - relative to expectations	5.6	2.0
Meet or exceed expected monetary return on investments and resources	5.4	2.3
Satisfy stakeholders – the Board down to the workers, end users or beneficiaries, investors, community at large	5.1	3.3
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?		
Translate strategy into tactics	6.1	2.0
Address conflict	5.9	2.0
Coordinate between resources to ensure intended outcomes	5.8	2.0
Determine where help is needed	5.6	1.5
Manage the budget	5.6	3.0
Ensure the work environment is safe	5.5	3.0
Delegate manager actions to others for execution	4.9	2.0
Act as liaison to "external" entities such as other departments, public or community	4.9	2.0
Identify and pursue additional contractual business	4.1	4.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?		
Communicate a rational vision that people will follow	6.3	1.5
Understand the customer and the customers needs	6.3	1.8
Ensure that the right people with requisite skills sets are in the right places to get the vision realized	6.0	1.5
Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary	6.0	1.5
Make organizational changes when deemed necessary	6.0	2.0
Establish and achieve goals and objectives	5.9	1.5
Provide the overarching “why” – establish a purpose and identify meaningful or important outcomes in the context of the big picture	5.8	2.0
Delegate the execution of vision and strategy to management	5.7	2.0
Create ideas and maintain a creative environment	5.3	2.0
Be social – interact with employees, the community, customers, vendors	5.3	3.0
Act as a buffer between the external world and the internal organization	5.3	2.0
Act as organization spokesperson to or conduit between the external world and the internal organization	5.3	2.0
Be a teacher	5.3	2.0
Act as figurehead for or associated with the organization	5.0	2.0
Also perform a manager role	4.7	3.0
Know what is going on everywhere and step in when needed	4.5	3.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 5. What are typically a leader's objectives?		
Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it's understood	6.1	1.5
Achieve balance between many competing professional and personal roles, demands, and goals	6.0	1.5
Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people	6.0	2.0
Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it	6.0	2.0
Create followers and motivate them to follow	5.8	2.0
Ensure that resources and infrastructure needs are recognized, prioritized, and in place	5.7	2.0
Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome	5.7	2.0
Make sure that problems are resolved	5.6	2.5
Improve business execution	5.5	1.5
Ensure that people understand how to do what they need to do	5.5	2.0
Maintain product relevance and competitiveness in the marketplace	5.5	2.5
Be satisfied on the job – both the leader, and the people working with or for the leader	5.4	1.5
Learn by observing other leaders	5.3	1.5
Please the Board of Directors and other key stakeholders	5.2	1.5
See that their followers exceed them	4.6	1.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader's objectives?		
Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future	6.2	1.5
Celebrate success and recognize those who made it happen	6.1	1.5
Seek feedback and listen to it to ensure they understand	6.0	1.5
Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents	6.0	2.0
Delegate and or assign roles and objectives to other capable leaders and managers, and clarify them when needed	5.9	1.5
Assess the progress made by leaders and managers against their delegated or assigned roles and objectives	5.9	1.8
Own problems and fix them	5.8	2.0
Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken	5.7	1.5
Question the status quo	5.7	1.5
Find ways to identify, create, and engage new business opportunities	5.7	2.0
Assess the adequacy of resources at hand, and allocate them	5.6	2.0
Identify and assess the risks of potential or ongoing actions	5.5	2.0
Assess unique skill sets and talents needed for current and future efforts, fill gaps and match people to objectives, make adjustments to people when matches are inadequate	5.4	2.0
Assess the effectiveness of the communication strategy	5.4	2.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Make adjustments when necessary and or get involved at the detail level when insufficient progress warrants, relative to goals and objectives	5.3	2.0
Measure and track progress to ensure the requisite quality and quantity of output	5.1	2.5
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?		
Definitions and expectations are not crystal clear; the individual roles and responsibilities are not clearly delineated	5.6	2.8
The broad picture view does not satisfy the need for specific direction or information	5.3	2.5
Vision of change is neither communicated nor clarified, but the leader expects that people will be on board	5.1	1.8
The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable	5.1	3.0
Collaboration and brainstorming leads to success	5.1	2.0
A barrier is thrown up – “we can’t do this”	4.8	2.0
Common objectives are not established to begin with, due to lack of communication of vision and direction	4.7	1.5
Interactions are hampered by differing objectives, issues, and opinions, but participants want to resolve only from their perspective	4.7	2.8
Clarification of the vision is sought and provided	4.6	3.3
Illusory full agreement between leader and manager results in passive aggressive behavior	4.5	2.0
Individuals are worked around when there are differences	4.5	2.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
The leader sells the vision and the manager makes it happen	4.4	2.8
Interactions take the form of top-down “I know what’s best” dictums	4.4	2.8
The autonomy, the skills, and the talents of the other are not respected	4.4	3.0
Apparent conflict surfaces that leads to an effective outcome	4.1	3.0
Management teams are encouraged to openly voice their opinions about the goals and objectives at hand	4.1	3.8
Differing skill sets and roles are combined in a close, symbiotic arrangement	4.1	3.0
Managers simply follow the leader; the more managers follow to the letter, the more positive and congenial the interaction	4.1	1.8
Open disagreement or challenge results in articulation of differences/perspectives/opinions, followed by the reaching of agreement, consensus, or compromise	4.1	3.5
Communication is ineffective, due to using a communication approach that has an inappropriate context for the audience	4.0	2.0
Conflict is resolved immediately, openly, and transparently	3.9	4.5
Coordination occurs with others that have different objectives	3.8	2.8
Upon disagreement, someone leaves the organization or is moved out	3.6	2.8
Vision, goals, and objectives are fully aligned and there are no issues	3.0	3.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?		
Communication effectiveness – skill, style, attention to understanding	6.0	1.8
The quality of the working relationship between the individuals	6.0	1.8
The degree to which the leader listens, supports, and mobilizes resources, influences the character of the interaction	5.9	2.0
A common understanding of the vision	5.9	1.8
Having the right people on the team	5.6	1.8
Alignment between leaders and managers	5.6	2.0
The culture of the organization	5.6	3.0
Perceived authority	5.5	1.8
Level of engagement regardless of amount of agreement	5.4	2.0
How much the parties feel that they are understood	5.4	1.8
Willingness to follow the leader	5.3	2.8
Number of other projects or responsibilities competing for attention	5.3	3.0
The match between skill sets and or tools, and what needs to be accomplished	5.1	1.5
An understanding of the core principals and cultural nuances of the other party	5.1	1.8
Time demands and pressure	5.1	2.0
Degree of intrinsic motivation	5.1	2.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Pre-existing expectations	5.0	2.0
Amount of patience	4.9	1.8
The degree to which differences of opinion are leveraged	4.9	1.8
The degree to which the leader steps up and is right there every step of the way	4.9	2.0
Institutional rules, requirements, and regulations	4.7	2.0
The degree to which leadership is willing to work in the trenches or get involved	4.6	4.0
Hierarchical distance between leaders and managers	4.4	2.8
Organizational distance between leaders and managers	4.3	1.8
The degree of competition between the parties	4.2	1.8
The style match	4.1	2.0
Degree of extrinsic motivation - tangible incentives and perks	4.0	2.0
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?		
The organizational culture with respect to blame (i.e., shared, mutual, finger-pointing) for bad outcomes	6.1	2.0
Compatibility of the objectives	5.8	2.0
The possibility of being overridden by higher authorities	5.2	2.0
The level of detail involved	4.7	2.0
Appearances regarding how connected the leader and manager are	4.5	2.0
The pace of activities	4.4	3.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?		
Both managers and leaders drive change	6.1	2.0
The statement “Leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo” is not true	5.0	3.0
Driving change or maintaining the status quo is affected by how well the project is being executed	4.8	2.0
The perception of leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo is real	4.3	4.0
Leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo are dynamics inherent in the role of the manager and the role of the leader	3.5	3.0
It is true that “leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo”	3.2	4.0
Leaders maintain the status quo	3.0	4.0
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?		
There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations	5.7	2.0
The conflict is driven by confusion as to who has which role, rather than the roles themselves	4.7	4.0
The definitions create a conflict even if the quote is not true	4.5	4.0
The definitions do not present a conflict	3.2	3.0
The division between leader and manager roles, with respect to change and status quo, is by design and is necessary	2.7	3.0

(continued)

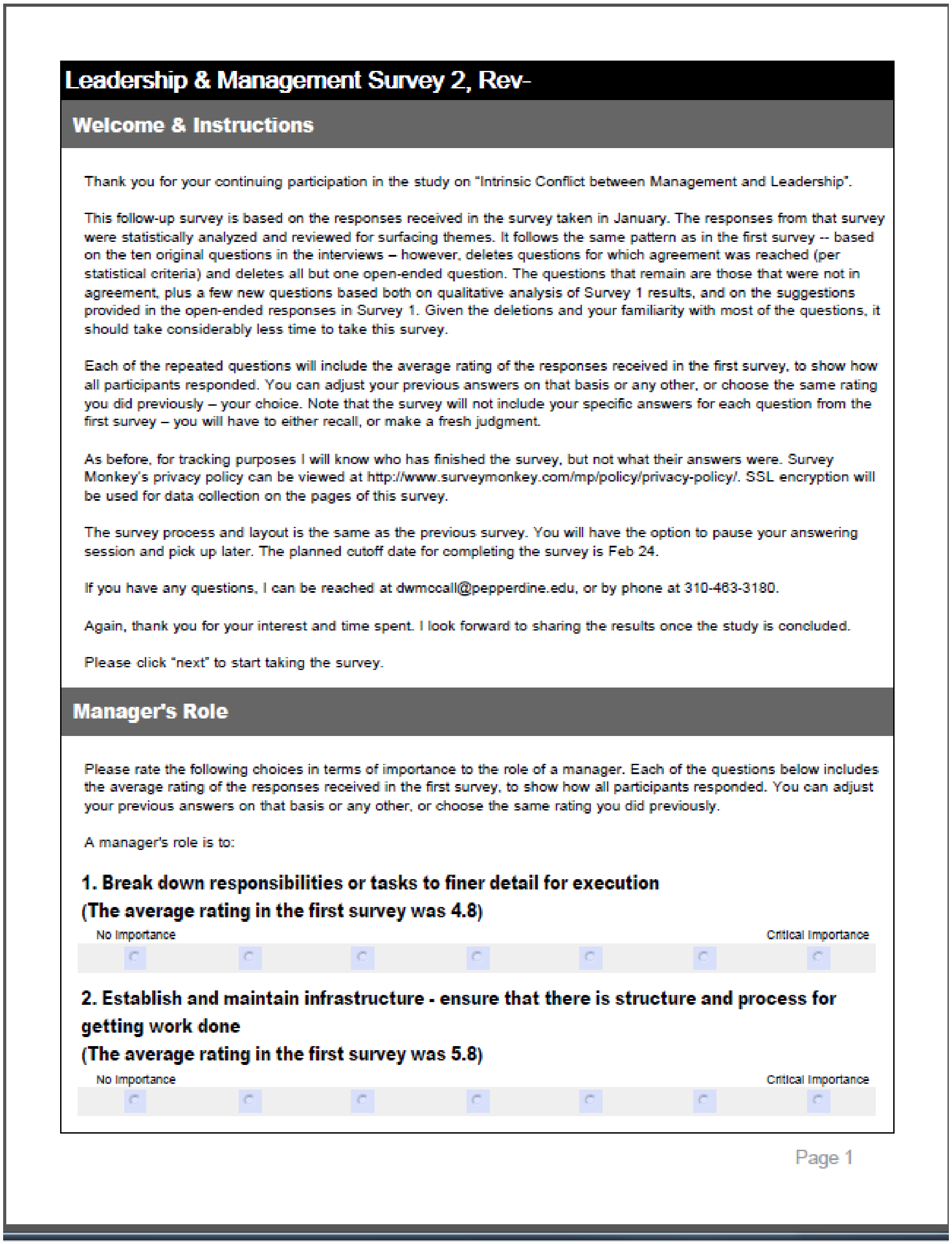
	Avg	IQR
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?		
Everyone manages, even if only themselves	5.8	2.0
There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers	4.6	2.0
Everyone leads	3.5	3.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

APPENDIX V

Survey 2

Figure V1 shows a screen shot of the first page and the top part of page two of Survey 2. In the actual survey there are page breaks between main pages, i.e., between "Welcome & Instructions", and "Manager's Role" in this example. All questions were 7-point Likert except for the final open-ended question. Table V1 shows the labels put on the endpoints, i.e., lowest and highest ratings, for each survey page. The data that follows the figure and table has the entirety of the survey questions in text form.



Leadership & Management Survey 2, Rev-

Welcome & Instructions

Thank you for your continuing participation in the study on "Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership".

This follow-up survey is based on the responses received in the survey taken in January. The responses from that survey were statistically analyzed and reviewed for surfacing themes. It follows the same pattern as in the first survey -- based on the ten original questions in the interviews – however, deletes questions for which agreement was reached (per statistical criteria) and deletes all but one open-ended question. The questions that remain are those that were not in agreement, plus a few new questions based both on qualitative analysis of Survey 1 results, and on the suggestions provided in the open-ended responses in Survey 1. Given the deletions and your familiarity with most of the questions, it should take considerably less time to take this survey.

Each of the repeated questions will include the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously – your choice. Note that the survey will not include your specific answers for each question from the first survey – you will have to either recall, or make a fresh judgment.

As before, for tracking purposes I will know who has finished the survey, but not what their answers were. Survey Monkey's privacy policy can be viewed at http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/. SSL encryption will be used for data collection on the pages of this survey.

The survey process and layout is the same as the previous survey. You will have the option to pause your answering session and pick up later. The planned cutoff date for completing the survey is Feb 24.

If you have any questions, I can be reached at dwmccall@pepperdine.edu, or by phone at 310-463-3180.

Again, thank you for your interest and time spent. I look forward to sharing the results once the study is concluded.

Please click "next" to start taking the survey.

Manager's Role

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a manager. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

A manager's role is to:

1. Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution
(The average rating in the first survey was 4.8)

No Importance — Critical Importance

2. Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done
(The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

No Importance — Critical Importance

Page 1

Figure V1. Survey 2 page example.

Table V1

Rating Label Endpoints for Survey 2

Survey Page	Lowest Rating	Highest Rating
Manager's Role, Manager's Objectives, Leader's Role, Leader's Objectives	No Importance	Critical Importance
Manager Actions, Leader Actions	No Relevance	Critical Relevance
Characteristics of Interactions	Not Prevalent	Extremely Prevalent
Leader/Manager Compatibility (or Incompatibility), Time-Concurrent Action	Not at All	To a Very Great Extent
Leadership/Management Assertion, Potential Conflict, New Questions, Uncategorized Comments	I Don't Agree At All	I completely Agree

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

Welcome & Instructions

Thank you for your continuing participation in the study on “Intrinsic Conflict between Management and Leadership”.

This follow-up survey is based on the responses received in the survey taken in January. The responses from that survey were statistically analyzed and reviewed for surfacing themes. It follows the same pattern as in the first survey based on the ten original questions in the interviews – however, deletes questions for which agreement was reached (per statistical criteria) and deletes all but one open-ended question. The questions that remain are those that were not in agreement, plus a few new questions based both on qualitative analysis of Survey 1 results, and on the suggestions provided in the open-ended responses in Survey 1. Given the deletions and your familiarity with most of the questions, it should take considerably less time to take this survey.

Each of the repeated questions will include the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously – your choice. Note that the survey will not include your specific answers for each question from the first survey – you will have to either recall, or make a fresh judgment.

As before, for tracking purposes I will know who has finished the survey, but not what their answers were. Survey Monkey’s privacy policy can be viewed at http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacypolicy/.

SSL encryption will be used for data collection on the pages of this survey.

The survey process and layout is the same as the previous survey. You will have the option to pause your answering session and pick up later. The planned cutoff date for completing the survey is Feb 24.

If you have any questions, I can be reached at XXXXX@XXX or by phone at XXXXXXX

Again, thank you for your interest and time spent. I look forward to sharing the results once the study is concluded.

Please click “next” to start taking the survey.

Manager's Role

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a manager. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

A manager's role is to:

1. Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.8)

2. Establish and maintain infrastructure ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

3. Get the work done in a hands-on manner

    (The average rating in the first survey was 3.5)

4. Get work done through others – assign, instruct, track progress, adjust and correct

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

5. Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

6. Influence others – share the vision, motivate and win minds, demonstrate behaviors

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

7. Ensure that the framework of Processes, People and Priorities is executed in accordance with Vision, Mission and Core Values

    (new item)

8. Show the employees how they are valued

    (new item)

Manager's Objectives

Please rank the following items in terms of importance to a manager's objectives. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

A manager's objective is to:

1. See that all of the work gets done

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

2. Have teams work effectively and professionally to meet goals and objectives

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

3. Meet or exceed expected monetary return on investments and resources

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

4. Ensure that planned activities are quantitatively or qualitatively measured and evaluated against criteria, results are understood, and corrected when necessary

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

5. Meet or exceed obligations deadlines and outcomes relative to expectations

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

6. See that goals and objectives are set, and aligned with (possibly changing) strategy and vision

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

7. Satisfy stakeholders – the Board down to the workers, end users or beneficiaries, investors, community at large

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

8. Understand and adequately manage risk – identify potential "fires", put out real fires

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

9. Ensure creative critical thinking, problem solving and training in intercultural communication skills

   (new item)

10. Ensure that the actual resources used are adequate to meet the expected rate of delivery of the product

   (new item)

Manager Actions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the relevance of actions, performed or assigned by a manager, that support manager objectives. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

Manager actions are to:

1. Translate strategy into tactics

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

2. Determine where help is needed

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

3. Act as liaison to “external” entities such as other departments, public or community

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.9)

4. Ensure the work environment is safe

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

5. Manage the budget

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

6. Identify and pursue additional contractual business

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

7. Address conflict

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

8. Delegate manager actions to others for execution

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.9)

9. Coordinate between resources to ensure intended outcomes

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

Leader’s Role

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the role of a leader. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

A leader's role is to:

1. Make organizational changes when deemed necessary

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

2. Communicate a rational vision that people will follow

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.3)

3. Establish and achieve goals and objectives

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

4. Create ideas and maintain a creative environment

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

5. Be social – interact with employees, the community, customers, vendors

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

6. Act as a buffer between the external world and the internal organization

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

7. Act as organization spokesperson to or conduit between the external world and the internal organization

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

8. Delegate the execution of vision and strategy to management

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

9. Provide the overarching “why” – establish a purpose and identify meaningful or important outcomes in the context of the big picture

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

10. Act as figurehead for or associated with the organization

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.0)

11. Ensure that the right people with requisite skills sets are in the right places to get the vision realized

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

12. Know what is going on everywhere and step in when needed

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.5)

13. Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

14. Also perform a manager role

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

15. Be a teacher

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

16. Understand the customer and the customers needs

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.3)

17. Lead by example

    (new item)

Leader’s Objectives

Please rate the following choices in terms of importance to the objectives of a leader. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

A leader's objective is to:

1. See that their followers exceed them

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.6)

2. Achieve balance between many competing professional and personal roles, demands, and goals

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

3. Maintain product relevance and competitiveness in the marketplace

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

4. Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

5. Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it’s understood

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

6. Create followers and motivate them to follow

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

7. Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

8. Ensure that resources and infrastructure needs are recognized, prioritized, and in place

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

9. Ensure that people understand how to do what they need to do

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

10. Be satisfied on the job – both the leader, and the people working with or for the leader

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

11. Improve business execution

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

12. Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

13. Learn by observing other leaders

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

14. Please the Board of Directors and other key stakeholders

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.2)

15. Make sure that problems are resolved

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

Leader Actions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the relevance of actions, performed or assigned by a leader, that support leader objectives. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

Leader actions are to:

1. Assess the progress made by leaders and managers against their delegated or assigned roles and objectives

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

2. Seek feedback and listen to it to ensure they understand

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

3. Make adjustments when necessary and or get involved at the detail level when insufficient progress warrants, relative to goals and objectives

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

4. Assess the adequacy of resources at hand, and allocate them

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

5. Assess the effectiveness of the communication strategy

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

6. Delegate and or assign roles and objectives to other capable leaders and managers, and clarify them when needed

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

7. Celebrate success and recognize those who made it happen

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

8. Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

9. Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

10. Measure and track progress to ensure the requisite quality and quantity of output

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

11. Find ways to identify, create, and engage new business opportunities

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

12. Identify and assess the risks of potential or ongoing actions

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

13. Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.2)

14. Assess unique skill sets and talents needed for current and future efforts, fill gaps and match people to objectives, make adjustments to people when matches are inadequate

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

15. Own problems and fix them

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

16. Question the status quo

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

Characteristics of Interactions

Please rate the following choices in terms of the prevalence of certain manager-leader interactions in the workplace and or in your experience, with respect to meeting organizational objectives. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

How prevalent are the following characteristics of manager-leader interactions, with respect meeting organizational objectives?

1. Conflict is resolved immediately, openly, and transparently

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.9)

2. Vision of change is neither communicated nor clarified, but the leader expects that people will be on board

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

3. Definitions and expectations are not crystal clear; the individual roles and responsibilities are not clearly delineated

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

4. Apparent conflict surfaces that leads to an effective outcome

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

5. Open disagreement or challenge results in articulation of differences/perspectives/opinions, followed by the reaching of agreement, consensus, or compromise

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

6. Clarification of the vision is sought and provided

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.6)

7. Collaboration and brainstorming leads to success

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

8. Coordination occurs with others that have different objectives

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.8)

9. Vision, goals, and objectives are fully aligned and there are no issues

    (The average rating in the first survey was 3.0)

10. Communication is ineffective, due to using a communication approach that has an inappropriate context for the audience

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.0)

11. Interactions are hampered by differing objectives, issues, and opinions, but participants want to resolve only from their perspective

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

12. Common objectives are not established to begin with, due to lack of communication of vision and direction

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

13. The autonomy, the skills, and the talents of the other are not respected

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.4)

14. The leader sells the vision and the manager makes it happen

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.4)

15. Managers simply follow the leader; the more managers follow to the letter, the more positive and congenial the interaction

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

16. A barrier is thrown up – “we can’t do this”

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.8)

17. Individuals are worked around when there are differences

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.5)

18. Management teams are encouraged to openly voice their opinions about the goals and objectives at hand

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

19. Illusory full agreement between leader and manager results in passive aggressive behavior

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.5)

20. Differing skill sets and roles are combined in a close, symbiotic arrangement

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

21. Interactions take the form of top-down “I know what’s best” dictums

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.4)

22. The broad picture view does not satisfy the need for specific direction or information

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

23. Upon disagreement, someone leaves the organization or is moved out

(The average rating in the first survey was 3.6)

24. The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

Leader/Manager Compatibility (or Incompatibility)

Please rate the following choices in terms of influences on leader/manager compatibility. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

To what extent is leader/manager compatibility (or incompatibility) affected by the following aspects, characteristics, and factors of leader and manager objectives?

1. Hierarchical distance between leaders and managers

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.4)

2. The degree to which the leader steps up and is right there every step of the way

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.9)

3. Alignment between leaders and managers

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

4. A common understanding of the vision

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

5. The match between skill sets and or tools, and what needs to be accomplished

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

6. Communication effectiveness – skill, style, attention to understanding

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

7. The degree of competition between the parties

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.2)

8. An understanding of the core principals and cultural nuances of the other party

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

9. The degree to which leadership is willing to work in the trenches or get involved

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.6)

10. How much the parties feel that they are understood

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

11. Preexisting expectations

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.0)

12. Having the right people on the team

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

13. Degree of extrinsic motivation tangible incentives and perks

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.0)

14. Institutional rules, requirements, and regulations

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

15. Level of engagement regardless of amount of agreement

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.4)

16. The degree to which differences of opinion are leveraged

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.9)

17. Degree of intrinsic motivation

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

18. Number of other projects or responsibilities competing for attention

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

19. Organizational distance between leaders and managers

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.3)

20. Amount of patience

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.9)

21. Perceived authority

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.5)

22. Time demands and pressure

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.1)

23. Willingness to follow the leader

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.3)

24. The culture of the organization

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.6)

25. The degree to which the leader listens, supports, and mobilizes resources, influences the character of the interaction

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.9)

26. The quality of the working relationship between the individuals

(The average rating in the first survey was 6.0)

27. The style match

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.1)

Time-Concurrent Action

Please rate the following choices in terms of influence on concurrent (i.e., roughly simultaneous) actions taken by leaders and managers. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

Assuming that action is taken at the same time by leaders and managers, to what extent is the outcome affected by the following aspects, characteristics, and factors?

1. The level of detail involved

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

2. Compatibility of the objectives

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

3. The organizational culture with respect to blame (i.e., shared, mutual, fingerpointing) for bad outcomes

    (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

4. The possibility of being overridden by higher authorities

    (The average rating in the first survey was 5.2)

5. Appearances regarding how connected the leader and manager are

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.5)

6. The pace of activities

    (The average rating in the first survey was 4.4)

Leadership/Management Assertion

Please rate the following choices in terms of a stated definition of manager and leader roles. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

The following responses were received in response to the statement "leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo". To what extent do you agree with those statements?

1. Driving change or maintaining the status quo is affected by how well the project is being executed

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.8)

2. Leaders maintain the status quo

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.0)

3. Leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo are dynamics inherent in the role of the manager and the role of the leader

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.5)

4. Both managers and leaders drive change

   (The average rating in the first survey was 6.1)

5. The statement “Leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo” is not true

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.0)

6. The perception of leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo is real

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.3)

7. It is true that “leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo”

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.2)

Potential Conflict

Please rate the following choices in terms of a potential conflict between manager and leader roles. Each of the questions below includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

Assuming for a moment that "leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo", interview participants commented on whether that definition potentially created or presented a conflict. To what extent do you agree with the following comments?

1. There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations

   (The average rating in the first survey was 5.7)

2. The division between leader and manager roles, with respect to change and status quo, is by design and is necessary

   (The average rating in the first survey was 2.7)

3. The definitions create a conflict even if the quote is not true

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.5)

4. The conflict is driven by confusion as to who has which role, rather than the roles themselves

   (The average rating in the first survey was 4.7)

5. The definitions do not present a conflict

   (The average rating in the first survey was 3.2)

New Questions

The questions on this page are new, relative to the first survey, and are based on first survey findings. They are stated as assertions, for which you will indicate your level of agreement.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

1. Management is an enabling function

2. Leadership is a strategic function

3. Leadership is an aspirational function

4. Leadership is more about success than it is about change

5. There are more negative manager/leader interactions than there are positive interactions

6. A manager or leader manages or leads more on the basis of what's needed than what their role is

7. If a leader is driving change and a manager is maintaining status quo, any conflict relates more to what they are doing than it does to what their roles are

Uncategorized Comments

The following comments were provided at the end of the interviews but could not be cleanly tied to any single previously asked interview question. Nevertheless they are pertinent to the discussion, and are included here for further optional comment by others. The researcher anticipates that the subject of any discussion(s) will be identified in the dissertation section on recommended further studies.

Each of the questions includes the average rating of the responses received in the first survey, to show how all participants responded. You can adjust your previous answers on that basis or any other, or choose the same rating you did previously.

1. Everyone leads

(The average rating in the first survey was 3.5)

2. Everyone manages, even if only themselves

(The average rating in the first survey was 5.8)

3. There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers

(The average rating in the first survey was 4.6)

4. Are there any additional comments for this survey?

Done again!

You have completed the second survey on Leadership and Management. Many thanks for your participation!

There is a short data collection period, after which the aggregation of answers will be analyzed. Total elapsed time is expected to be 2 weeks after this survey is closed. In the event any more participation is warranted beyond this round of surveys, I will contact you.

Thanks again for contributing your time and expertise to this valuable study.

APPENDIX W

Email Alerting Participants About Survey 2 Release

The following email provides an example of the email sent to participants to notify them that the second survey had been released, and what to expect therein. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with “[expert]” to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student)
Sent: Friday, February 08, 2013 7:18 PM
To: [Expert]
Subject: RE: survey status

[Expert] -- By now you should have received an invitation to take the 2nd survey in the study on leadership and management. Please let me know if you did not receive it, or if you’ve had any trouble accessing it.

Have a great weekend, and thanks again.

Dean

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)

APPENDIX X

Email Reminding Participants to Complete Survey 2

The following email provides an example of the email sent to participants to notify them that the second survey had been released, and what to expect therein. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with "[expert]" to preserve anonymity.

From: survey-noreply@smo.surveymonkey.com [mailto:survey-noreply@smo.surveymonkey.com] On Behalf Of dwmccall@pepperdine.edu via surveymonkey.com
Sent: Wednesday, February 20, 2013 9:51 PM
To: [expert]
Subject: Reminder: Leadership & Management survey

Checking in regarding the survey on leadership and management. I'm shooting for the end of the day Sunday to close the survey, would really appreciate your inputs. If you are concerned about the time spent, a partial complete is still very valuable.

The need for entries especially applies to the new page I added toward the end, which has seven new questions that are being used to make explicit some findings from the first survey that were only implicit. These questions get at the heart of the matter, and may (depending on outcome) serve as a backbone for the findings in general.

Thanks again for being part of this study. I have a date of April 4th for my final defense, so it won't be long before I'll be able to share the entire report.

Here is a link to the survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=2GZ7kRRnXifR76kg2KnwwQ_3d_3d

This link is uniquely tied to this survey and your email address. Please do not forward this message.

Thanks for your participation!

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.
https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx?sm=2GZ7kRRnXifR76kg2KnwwQ_3d_3d

The information contained in this message is privileged and intended only for the recipients named. If the reader is not a representative of the intended recipient, any review, dissemination or copying of this message or the information it contains is prohibited. If you have received this message in error, please immediately notify the sender, and delete the original message and attachments.

APPENDIX Y

Survey 2 Close-Out Email and Next Steps

The following email provides an example of the email sent to participants to notify them that the second survey was closed, and what to expect next. In the example, the name of the participant is replaced with “[expert]” to preserve anonymity.

From: Mc Call, Dean (student)

Sent: Wednesday, February 27, 2013 7:54 PM

To: [expert]

Subject: Data collection for the study is complete

[expert] – Survey 2 for the management and leadership study is now closed. We had 94% participation for the second survey, and got plenty of good data. Better still, the data pushed the study well past the termination criteria, so as was expected there won’t be a need for another follow-up survey. I’m writing up the data summary and preparing to start the conclusions and recommendations.

Thanks so much for your time and efforts on this study. I realize the surveys were long, but the chosen approach yielded some very useful data and so that was a good choice. Once the dissertation comes closer to being final, I will send out an electronic copy, including general guidance on where to find which parts. Conversations beyond that point will be very welcome.

Stay tuned…
Dean

Dean McCall
Doctoral candidate
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Organizational Leadership program
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX (cell)

APPENDIX Z

Survey 2 Categories That Reached Consensus

Table Z1 shows survey 2 categories that reached consensus.

Table Z1

Survey 2 Categories that Reached Consensus

	Avg	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?		
Manage individual people – recruit, develop, assign, evaluate, guide and correct	6.5	1.0
Get work done through others – assign, instruct, track progress, adjust and correct	6.5	1.0
Establish and maintain infrastructure - ensure that there is structure and process for getting work done	6.1	0.0
Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?		
Have teams work effectively and professionally to meet goals and objectives	6.2	1.0
See that goals and objectives are set, and aligned with (possibly changing) strategy and vision	5.9	1.0
Meet or exceed obligations - deadlines and outcomes - relative to expectations	5.9	1.0
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?		
Manage the budget	6.1	1.0
Translate strategy into tactics	5.9	0.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Coordinate between resources to ensure intended outcomes	5.8	1.0
Determine where help is needed	5.8	0.8
Identify and pursue additional contractual business	4.5	1.0
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?		
Communicate a rational vision that people will follow	6.5	1.0
Understand the customer and the customers needs	6.5	1.0
Look to the future – where the key opportunities or risks will be, what resources need to be in place, what changes will be necessary	6.5	1.0
Make organizational changes when deemed necessary	6.2	1.0
Be social – interact with employees, the community, customers, vendors	5.6	1.0
Create ideas and maintain a creative environment	5.5	1.0
Be a teacher	5.3	1.0
Also perform a manager role	4.4	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Page 5. What are typically a leader’s objectives?		
Build the character of the organization by building leaders and developing people	6.7	1.0
Develop the vision for and direction of the future state, communicate it, and make sure it’s understood	6.6	0.8
Develop effective strategy and ensure organizational alignment with it	6.5	1.0
Influence the behaviors and actions of others to achieve a desired outcome	6.2	1.0
Create followers and motivate them to follow	6.0	0.0
Ensure that resources and infrastructure needs are recognized, prioritized, and in place	6.0	1.0
Achieve balance between many competing professional and personal roles, demands, and goals	5.7	1.0
Be satisfied on the job – both the leader, and the people working with or for the leader	5.6	1.0
Learn by observing other leaders	5.6	1.0
Improve business execution	5.6	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Ensure that people understand how to do what they need to do	5.4	1.0
Please the Board of Directors and other key stakeholders	5.3	1.0
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader's objectives?		
Evaluate the current state of the organization and where it needs to be, now and years into the future	6.6	0.8
Encourage, inspire, and motivate people, and help nurture their talents	6.5	1.0
Celebrate success and recognize those who made it happen	6.3	1.0
Use the vision and objectives to create the context for the actions that are or will be taken	6.3	1.0
Seek feedback and listen to it to ensure they understand	6.2	1.0
Delegate and or assign roles and objectives to other capable leaders and managers, and clarify them when needed	6.1	1.0
Identify and assess the risks of potential or ongoing actions	5.8	0.0
Assess the effectiveness of the communication strategy	5.6	0.8

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
Assess unique skill sets and talents needed for current and future efforts, fill gaps and match people to objectives, make adjustments to people when matches are inadequate	5.6	0.8
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?		
Collaboration and brainstorming leads to success	5.2	1.0
A barrier is thrown up – “we can’t do this”	4.6	1.0
The system is set up in ways that make conflict inevitable	4.5	1.0
Differing skill sets and roles are combined in a close, symbiotic arrangement	4.4	1.0
Open disagreement or challenge results in articulation of differences/perspectives/opinions, followed by the reaching of agreement, consensus, or compromise	4.4	1.0
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?		
A common understanding of the vision	6.1	1.0
Having the right people on the team	6.1	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
The quality of the working relationship between the individuals	5.9	1.3
Communication effectiveness – skill, style, attention to understanding	5.7	1.0
Level of engagement regardless of amount of agreement	5.5	1.3
Willingness to follow the leader	5.5	1.0
Number of other projects or responsibilities competing for attention	5.5	1.0
The match between skill sets and or tools, and what needs to be accomplished	5.5	1.0
Time demands and pressure	5.5	1.0
Alignment between leaders and managers	5.4	1.0
How much the parties feel that they are understood	5.3	1.0
An understanding of the core principals and cultural nuances of the other party	5.3	1.0
Degree of intrinsic motivation	5.3	1.0
The degree to which differences of opinion are leveraged	5.3	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
The degree to which leadership is willing to work in the trenches or get involved	5.2	1.0
Amount of patience	4.9	1.0
Institutional rules, requirements, and regulations	4.8	1.0
The style match	4.8	1.0
Organizational distance between leaders and managers	4.5	1.0
Degree of extrinsic motivation - tangible incentives and perks	4.5	1.0
Hierarchical distance between leaders and managers	4.3	1.0
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?		
The organizational culture with respect to blame (i.e., shared, mutual, finger-pointing) for bad outcomes	5.7	1.0
Compatibility of the objectives	5.6	1.0

(continued)

	Avg	IQR
The level of detail involved	5.1	0.0
The pace of activities	4.5	1.0
Page 10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?		
(none of the categories passed in Survey 2)		
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?		
There are other drivers to the conflict – communication effectiveness, adequate planning for change, existing comfort zones or skill sets, commonality of expectations	6.0	0.0
The definitions create a conflict even if the quote is not true	4.7	1.3
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?		
Everyone manages, even if only themselves	5.5	1.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.

APPENDIX AA

Categories Included in Second Survey for Which Stability Occurred

Table AA1 shows categories for which consensus was not reached but for which stability occurred from survey 1 to survey 2.

Table AA1

Categories Included in Second Survey for which Stability Occurred

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 1. In your opinion, what is the role of a manager?					
Influence others – share the vision, motivate and win minds, demonstrate behaviors	5.9	6.1	0.3	3.7%	1.5
Break down responsibilities or tasks to finer detail for execution	4.8	5.4	0.7	9.3%	1.5
Get the work done in a hands-on manner	3.5	3.9	0.5	6.7%	1.5
Page 2. What are typically a manager's objectives?					
See that all of the work gets done	5.9	6.1	0.1	1.8%	1.5
Understand and adequately manage risk – identify potential "fires", put out real fires	5.9	6.0	0.1	1.9%	2.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Ensure that planned activities are quantitatively or qualitatively measured and evaluated against criteria, results are understood, and corrected when necessary	6.1	5.7	0.3	4.7%	1.5
Satisfy stakeholders – the Board down to the workers, end users or beneficiaries, investors, community at large	5.1	5.3	0.2	3.0%	2.5
Meet or exceed expected monetary return on investments and resources	5.4	5.2	0.2	2.3%	1.8
Page 3. What kinds of actions do managers typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the manager's objectives?					
Address conflict	5.9	6.1	0.2	2.8%	2.0
Ensure the work environment is safe	5.5	5.6	0.1	2.0%	2.8
Delegate manager actions to others for execution	4.9	5.1	0.1	1.9%	1.8
Act as liaison to "external" entities such as other departments, public or community	4.9	5.1	0.2	2.8%	1.8

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 4. What is the role of a leader?					
Provide the overarching “why” – establish a purpose and identify meaningful or important outcomes in the context of the big picture	5.8	6.1	0.3	4.9%	1.8
Establish and achieve goals and objectives	5.9	6.0	0.1	1.0%	1.5
Delegate the execution of vision and strategy to management	5.7	6.0	0.3	3.8%	2.0
Act as organization spokesperson to or conduit between the external world and the internal organization	5.3	5.9	0.6	8.4%	1.8
Ensure that the right people with requisite skills sets are in the right places to get the vision realized	6.0	5.9	0.1	2.0%	2.0
Act as a buffer between the external world and the internal organization	5.3	5.6	0.3	4.1%	1.8
Act as figurehead for or associated with the organization	5.0	5.2	0.2	2.2%	2.0
Know what is going on everywhere and step in when needed	4.5	4.1	0.4	5.6%	3.5

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 5. What are typically a leader's objectives?					
Maintain product relevance and competitiveness in the marketplace	5.5	5.9	0.3	4.6%	2.0
Make sure that problems are resolved	5.6	5.6	0.0	0.4%	1.8
See that their followers exceed them	4.6	4.9	0.3	4.1%	2.0
Page 6. What kinds of actions do leaders typically execute and or assign to someone to pursue the leader's objectives?					
Own problems and fix them	5.8	6.0	0.2	2.9%	1.8
Find ways to identify, create, and engage new business opportunities	5.7	6.0	0.3	4.8%	1.8
Assess the progress made by leaders and managers against their delegated or assigned roles and objectives	5.9	5.9	0.0	0.0%	2.0
Question the status quo	5.7	5.8	0.1	0.7%	2.0
Measure and track progress to ensure the requisite quality and quantity of output	5.1	5.7	0.5	7.8%	2.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Assess the adequacy of resources at hand, and allocate them	5.6	5.6	0.0	0.0%	2.0
Make adjustments when necessary and or get involved at the detail level when insufficient progress warrants, relative to goals and objectives	5.3	5.6	0.2	3.4%	2.8
Page 7. What have you observed or experienced during manager-leader interactions with respect to a positive or negative approach to meeting objectives?					
The leader sells the vision and the manager makes it happen	4.4	5.2	0.8	11.2 %	2.5
Individuals are worked around when there are differences	4.5	4.9	0.4	5.1%	1.5
The broad picture view does not satisfy the need for specific direction or information	5.3	4.8	0.4	6.3%	2.0
Interactions are hampered by differing objectives, issues, and opinions, but participants want to resolve only from their perspective	4.7	4.8	0.1	1.0%	2.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Clarification of the vision is sought and provided	4.6	4.8	0.2	3.1%	2.0
Management teams are encouraged to openly voice their opinions about the goals and objectives at hand	4.1	4.6	0.5	7.1%	2.5
Common objectives are not established to begin with, due to lack of communication of vision and direction	4.7	4.6	0.1	1.4%	3.0
Definitions and expectations are not crystal clear; the individual roles and responsibilities are not clearly delineated	5.6	4.6	1.0	14.3 %	1.8
Vision of change is neither communicated nor clarified, but the leader expects that people will be on board	5.1	4.4	0.7	10.2 %	2.5
Communication is ineffective, due to using a communication approach that has an inappropriate context for the audience	4.0	4.4	0.4	6.1%	2.8
Illusory full agreement between leader and manager results in passive aggressive behavior	4.5	4.4	0.1	2.0%	1.8
The autonomy, the skills, and the talents of the other are not respected	4.4	4.4	0.0	0.0%	1.8

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Conflict is resolved immediately, openly, and transparently	3.9	4.4	0.4	6.1%	2.5
Managers simply follow the leader; the more managers follow to the letter, the more positive and congenial the interaction	4.1	4.2	0.1	2.0%	2.0
Apparent conflict surfaces that leads to an effective outcome	4.1	4.1	0.0	0.0%	2.0
Coordination occurs with others that have different objectives	3.8	4.1	0.4	5.1%	2.0
Vision, goals, and objectives are fully aligned and there are no issues	3.0	4.0	1.0	14.3 %	2.8
Interactions take the form of top-down “I know what’s best” dictums	4.4	3.9	0.5	7.1%	2.0
Upon disagreement, someone leaves the organization or is moved out	3.6	3.7	0.1	1.7%	3.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 8. What are the key aspects, characteristics, or factors of leader and manager objectives that affect the compatibility or incompatibility between leader and manager?					
The degree to which the leader listens, supports, and mobilizes resources, influences the character of the interaction	5.9	6.1	0.1	2.1%	2.0
The culture of the organization	5.6	6.1	0.5	7.2%	2.0
Perceived authority	5.5	5.2	0.3	3.8%	2.0
Pre-existing expectations	5.0	5.0	0.0	0.0%	2.0
The degree to which the leader steps up and is right there every step of the way	4.9	4.9	0.1	0.9%	2.0
The degree of competition between the parties	4.2	4.6	0.4	5.7%	2.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 9. What have you observed or experienced in terms of the outcomes of manager and leader actions when they are taken concurrently?					
The possibility of being overridden by higher authorities	5.2	5.5	0.3	4.4%	2.0
Appearances regarding how connected the leader and manager are	4.5	5.0	0.5	7.7%	2.0
Page 10. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. Do you believe this to be true?					
Both managers and leaders drive change	6.1	5.5	0.5	7.7%	2.0
The statement “Leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo” is not true	5.0	5.2	0.2	3.3%	2.0
Driving change or maintaining the status quo is affected by how well the project is being executed	4.8	4.8	0.0	0.0%	2.0
The perception of leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo is real	4.3	3.9	0.4	5.5%	3.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
It is true that “leaders drive change, managers maintain the status quo”	3.2	3.3	0.1	1.1%	3.0
Leaders driving change and managers maintaining the status quo are dynamics inherent in the role of the manager and the role of the leader	3.5	3.1	0.5	6.6%	2.0
Leaders maintain the status quo	3.0	3.1	0.1	1.1%	3.0
Page 10A. It has been said that leaders drive change while managers maintain the status quo. If this is true, do these definitions potentially create or present a conflict?					
The conflict is driven by confusion as to who has which role, rather than the roles themselves	4.7	4.8	0.2	2.2%	3.0
The definitions do not present a conflict	3.2	3.3	0.1	1.1%	2.0
The division between leader and manager roles, with respect to change and status quo, is by design and is necessary	2.7	2.9	0.2	3.3%	3.0

(continued)

	Average Rating		Change in Average		
	Survey 1	Survey 2	Value	% of scale	IQR
Page 11. Is there anything else you want to say?					
There are four types of people: visionaries, designers, implementers, and maintainers	4.6	4.3	0.3	4.4%	5.0
Everyone leads	3.5	4.2	0.7	9.9%	4.0

Note. All categories were rated on 7-point scales.