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**DEVELOPING A MODEL OF LEADERSHIP STYLES: WHAT WORKS BEST
IN RUSSIA?**

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Developing a Model of Leadership Styles: What Works Best in Russia?

Abstract

Choosing a leader with an appropriate leadership style is critical for a firm's success. Thus, it is important to understand which leadership styles are most effective. Furthermore, past research suggests that different leadership styles are effective in different national contexts. However, little research has focused on what leadership styles are most effective in Russia. This study has two parts. The first part investigates which leadership characteristics are most commonly used to describe Russian leaders. Respondents from 90 firms indicated that task orientated, relations orientated, authoritarian, and democratic were the four most commonly chosen characteristics. These characteristics were then used to construct a model (a 2 x 2 matrix) which identified four different leadership styles (statesman, clergyman, politician, and military man). Middle managers from 101 firms in Russia then evaluated the effectiveness of these four leadership styles. Responses revealed that the statesman (task-oriented democrat) and the clergyman style (relations-oriented democrat) were considered most effective.

INTRODUCTION

Having an effective leader is critical for a firm to perform well. Further, it is now well established that different types of leaders exist and a growing body of literature shows that different types of leaders are more common or more effective in different countries (e.g., Bass, 1990; House *et al.*, 1998; Zander, 1997). Further, lack of understanding of optimal leadership styles has been an important problem in Russia, a country where little is known about leadership preferences (Ivancevich *et al.*, 1992), yet an understanding of optimal leadership styles is becoming increasingly critical as foreign firms with less knowledge than local firms about Russian leadership preferences have entered Russia. Further, several authors (Suutari, 1996; Filatotchev *et al.*, 1996) have suggested that one of the most important changes that needs to occur for firms in Russia to be more successful is for Russian managers to acquire better leadership skills. For example, Avraamova (1995) states that only 33 percent of surveyed Russian enterprise directors are prepared to work effectively in Russia's post-Soviet economy. Lack of understanding of leadership issues is a key problem contributing to this lack of preparation. As a result, achieving a better understanding of the types of leadership that are most effective in Russia is an important topic to study.

Most scholars describe Russian national culture as having high power distance and high collectivism (Hofstede, 1993; Elenkov, 1998). This combination speaks well for autocratic leadership since in countries with high power distance, subordinates are likely to prefer more autocratic leadership styles (Hansen, 1999). Traditionally, leadership behaviour has only been considered efficient in Russia if it was based on direction and authority (Elenkov, 1998). This view may be in part because Russia's history is rich with examples of powerful leaders who helped to create a strong and stable country. Thus, Russian companies have traditionally searched for leaders who were strong and who also addressed Russians' other national culture values. However, further investigation is needed to understand whether this preference for an authoritative type of leader still holds true for Russia today as its society is undergoing a significant transformation to a market economy.

The purpose of this study is to determine which leadership styles are perceived as most effective in modern Russia and to reflect on how these results compare to results

found in other countries (especially the USA where much leadership theory was developed). Specifically, the study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) Which characteristics of leadership behaviour are considered to be the most important by Russian managers?
- 2) Which leadership styles can be identified in Russian organizations?
- 3) Which leadership styles are perceived to be most effective in Russia?

The study is comprised of two parts. The first phase identifies which leadership characteristics best describe Russian leaders. Building on the results from the first phase, the second phase develops a model of leadership in Russia which identifies four Russian leadership styles based on combinations of the characteristics identified in phase one. Phase two concludes by showing which leadership styles Russians perceive to be most effective.

THE RUSSIAN CONTEXT

Before going further it is useful to provide a brief background about Russian national culture. It is well known that Russia's transformation to a market economy has not been easy. However, far less is known by the general public about who Russians really are. It is interesting to note that early influential Russian thinkers were poets rather than philosophers as is more traditional in the West. This tradition has helped to create a society where history plays an important role, art and education are highly valued, and ideals are striven for. Elenkov (1998) provides a useful characterization of Russian national culture using three of Hofstede's (1980) culture dimensions. Results of Elenkov's study show that Russians strongly want to avoid uncertainty, a stance that might be expected given the security of the communist system and the surprises dealt to Russia in the past. Russians also appear to have a large high power distance. This quality illustrates that Russians are accustomed to powerful leaders who delegate little power. Finally, Russians have been shown to be moderately individualist as Russians struggle with their traditional group orientation from communism and an evolving focus on oneself and immediate family at the expense of all others.

Further understanding of Russian national character is offered by Kliuchevskii (1990). He describes a set of stereotypical Russian behaviors including resourcefulness,

patience in the face of adversity, spurts of energy, a tendency to dissemble and inconsistency in following through with plans. He also characterizes Russians as circumspect, cautious, and ambiguous with a tendency to dwell on the past rather than to focus on the future. Finally, he describes Russians as group-oriented with a tendency to monitor results rather than set goals.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON RUSSIAN LEADERSHIP

Several authors have investigated Russian leaders. One of the first Western studies, which explicitly studied Russian leadership, was the study by Ivanovich, DeFrank, and Gregory (1992). This managerially-oriented descriptive study suggested that knowledge of economics was the most important characteristic of a good manager. Also important were knowledge of production activities, law, and effective management principles. Least important for good managers were the ability to adjust to new circumstances promptly, the ability to enforce discipline, persistence in carrying out decisions, initiative, and creativity. The study also discussed some differences in what Russian and American managers believed to be ethical. For example, Russian managers believed that workers were basically lazy and that low product quality was not normally related to poor management. This study is impressive for the early date that it was conducted, but provides a shallow investigation of Russian leadership and has now become dated.

A second important study is that of Suutari (1996) which compared Finnish expatriate managers' perceptions of the differences between common Russian and Finnish approaches to leadership. The data were collected via telephone interviews with 12 Finnish expatriates working in Russia and revealed that the largest difference in behavior between Russian and Finnish managers was that Russian managers criticize subordinate actions more and need more role clarification. In addition, Russian managers encouraged participation in decision making much less than Finnish managers and tended to be much more autocratic than their Finnish counterparts. Russian managers were also shown to place less effort than their Finnish counterparts on providing a vision for their firms.

To compare leadership beliefs Suutari conducted a second study with Bolotow (Suutari and Bolotow, 1996) including 25 Russian managers in each of two Russian companies and a slightly smaller number of Finnish managers. Finns have been shown to exert significantly more effort in participating in decision making, facilitating interaction, providing vision, and informing subordinates. In contrast, Russians spent significantly more effort on providing vision, rewarding employees, and clarifying roles. Both of the Suutari studies mentioned above focus on describing what Russian managers did rather than determining what leadership characteristics were most effective.

Sheila Puffer, one of the most prolific Western scholars studying Russian business, also wrote an article (Puffer, 1994) on Russian leadership based on anecdotal evidence she collected over the many years she has conducted research in Russia. The article identified leadership characteristics in three periods of Russia's history (1400-1917, 1917-1990, and 1991 to present). Puffer suggested that traditionally Russia has had powerful leaders, but that today Russian leaders are beginning to share power and decision making more even if it is still quite centralized. Puffer also suggested that a new breed of Russian leader has now developed who works very hard and believes anything is possible with hard work and skill. The above studies provided a useful background for the current study, but indicate that there is significant need for further investigation of leadership in Russia.

LEADERSHIP THEORY

Much past research has been conducted in the leadership field. In fact, more than 7500 studies on leadership have been conducted as is evidenced in Bass's excellent review of leadership research (Bass, 1990). In addition, a number of studies beginning with the work of Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (1966) and more recently continued by the award-winning dissertation of Zander (1997) and the highly-publicized GLOBE project (House *et al.*, 1998) have helped to establish that different leadership styles are more common (and thus hopefully more effective) in different countries. Many other multi-country leadership studies have also made important contributions (see Zander, 1997, for an excellent review). However, Russian leadership has received very little attention, being excluded from most studies, and remains a mystery for most people. While a

thorough review of the leadership literature is beyond the scope of this paper, a brief description of its development will be presented in this section and several of the studies that have influenced our study most will be discussed later in the paper.

One can consider leadership from several perspectives. First, leadership can be looked upon from a historical perspective focusing on how leadership theory has developed over time. Four stages can be identified: the trait approach (1940s), behavioral (style) approach (1950s and 1960s), contingency approach (1970s and 1980s) and new leadership approach (1990s).

Of course the above approaches are related to each other, especially when one understands leadership as a process comprised of several variables. Traditionally, leadership studies have taken as their independent variable either an attribute of a leader (such as a skill or personality trait) or a dimension of a leader's behaviour (such as the leader's preferred style of supervision). In leadership studies dependent variables have most often been satisfaction of the subordinates and performance. Some theories have gone further and speculated about intervening variables such as the motivations, attitudes, or expectancies of the subordinates. More recent studies of leadership have introduced moderator variables, factors that determine when a specific leader variable has one effect on the dependent variable (e.g., effectiveness).

Leadership has been viewed as (1) an attribute of position, (2) a characteristic of a person and (3) a category of behaviour. From the point of view of understanding people at work the latter seems to be the most useful description since it gives an idea of what a leader can do to influence the behaviour of others. Thus, the present study follows the behavioural approach and will concentrate on how a given leader's style influences a leader's effectiveness.

Some authors argue that one should distinguish between two fundamentally different forms of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leaders operate within the framework of an existing organisational culture, identify present subordinate needs, and strive to fulfil these needs largely within the existing initiating structure. Transformational leaders, in contrast, seek to make more substantial changes based on a clear vision that they have which they try to instil in others. Transformational leaders seek to alter the organisation's culture, change the group's needs and wants (Bass,

1990). While obtaining a better understanding of both transformation and transactional leadership is important, to make a worthwhile contribution a study needs to focus. This study seeks to look deeper into phenomenon of transactional leadership in Russia.

THE FIRST PHASE OF THE RESEARCH

Methodology

During the second half of 1999, questionnaires were given to 110 Russian middle managers taking part in executive training programs at two business schools located in St. Petersburg, Russia. Respondents were asked to complete a questionnaire which asked respondents to list the five characteristics which they thought best described an effective leader. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire in the evening after classes in a multi-day training program being held in English (participants had good English skills). 80% of the respondents completed the questionnaire in English. A Russian translation of the questionnaire was also available (prepared using a standard translation-back-translation procedure) for those who preferred to answer in Russian. Twenty percent of the respondents answered in Russian. The responses for those who completed the Russian version of the questionnaire were translated into English by a translator. One of the authors of the study is a native Russian who speaks fluent English. This author then checked the translations to ensure accuracy and resolved the few questions which emerge with the translator such that they came to agreement on translation.

Ninety of the 110 managers returned the questionnaires (82% response rate). No more than two managers were from the same firm. Sixty-one percent of the sample were men and 39 percent were women. They averaged being 31.2 years old with the youngest manager 22 and the oldest 50. Seventy-two percent of the respondents worked in wholly-owned foreign companies or Russian-foreign joint ventures. Twenty-eight percent were managers in local Russian companies. Differences between the samples obtained from the two business schools were investigated. No significant differences existed and thus the data were combined for analysis. There were no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents in terms of sex, age, level in organization, and years of education thus there does not appear to be any non-response bias.

The questionnaire asked respondents to list the five characteristics that they felt best described an effective leader (the respondents chose the characteristics they felt best described an effective leader. No list of possible choices were provided since the researchers did not want to influence the respondents' decisions). Three researchers independently spent significant time reviewing the responses in order to each group characteristics into about 17 groups. Collectively the researchers identified 23 different groups as candidates. The researchers independently identified 17 of the same groups and after discussion two additional groups were arrived at to form a total of 19 groups (see Table 1).

Phase One Results

The researchers identified the following 19 groups: democracy, task orientation, relations orientation, authoritarianism, charisma, intelligence and competence, honesty, creativity, flexibility, communication, organizational skills, consistency, assertiveness, reliability, hard-working, decisiveness, experience, and other. The three researchers then independently placed the leadership characteristics identified by the respondents into the nineteen groups. One of the researchers involved in this phase was different from those coding in the first phase to insure that bias did not exist. The three researchers placed the characteristics into the same categories 82% of the time. Finally, the three researchers met to resolve the differences that existed in the way they had grouped the remaining 18% of the characteristics.

Table 1 shows the complete results of the grouping exercise. The four items that were chosen most often were democracy (chosen 56 instances), task orientation (chosen 54 instances), relations orientation (chosen 45 instances), and authoritarianism (chosen 33 instances). As described above, these characteristics were identified by respondents using slightly different words. For example, task orientation was described as results orientation, results achievement, goal orientation, and planning.

----- Insert Table 1 about here -----

Discussion of Results from the First Phase

Having obtained the above results, we decided to focus on better understanding the four most commonly identified characteristics as a first step. We wondered whether these four characteristics were four separate dimensions or whether they were related to each other in some way. To help us make this decision, we decided first to take a more thorough look at what different scholars had written about these four dimensions (authoritarianism, democracy, task-orientation, and relations-orientation).

Authoritarian Versus Democratic

Authoritarian versus Democratic is the most common way to classify leaders (Bass, 1990). The authoritarian and democratic leadership types were first introduced by the Iowa Childhood Studies, which were experiments conducted by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939). This was the first attempt to shed light on authoritarian and democratic leadership. In the authoritarian treatment the leader determined policy and work techniques, but he was personal in his praise or criticism to group members. In the democratic condition policy matters were decided on a group basis with only general procedures suggested by the leader. Organisation of work was relatively freely decided on, and the leader was objective in praise and criticism.

The first studies using a style approach were the Ohio State Leadership studies (Halpin and Winer, 1957) and consisted of consideration and initiating structure styles. These styles were similar to the authoritarian-democratic dichotomy except that the Ohio researchers treated the leadership dimensions as independent of each other. The Michigan leadership studies (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950), however, were the first to put behaviour of a leader along a single continuum ranging from employee-centred leadership to production-centred leadership.

Task Orientation Versus Relations Orientation

The second important continuum, which describes leader behaviour, is the task-orientation versus relations-orientation continuum. At one extreme the leader organises, defines relationships, sets goals, and emphasises deadlines to ensure tasks get completed.

This dimension is present in many models of leadership under different names including initiating structure (the Ohio Leadership Studies, Halpin and Winer, 1957), concern for production (Blake and Mouton, 1964's Managerial Grid), and task orientation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1982—situational leadership life cycle model). At the other extreme is the relations-oriented leader whose first priority is establishing rapport, trust, and good communication with subordinates. This dimension is also present in many other leadership models and often called consideration, concern for people, and employee orientation (e.g., Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Hersey and Blanchard, 1977). Sometimes these are included as independent dimensions, and sometimes they are included as two ends of a continuum.

The Leadership Phenomenon in the Russian Society Before Perestroika

Two central focuses attracted managers' attention: a focus on tasks and a focus on people. Historically, one large challenge that managers have had is combining the need to focus on both of these activities. Management in the former Soviet Union had an interesting approach to dealing with this challenge: separate systems were developed to deal with each of them. In addition to these separate systems, strong cultural support was provided for these ideas in numerous propaganda movies about achievements of the socialist society, for example, large construction sites, grandiose breakthroughs in technology, a strong military machine, and breakthrough in space exploration. Everywhere one could see two mutually balancing figures: the director—the person responsible for the task accomplishment at any cost and the partorg—the person who took care of the people. The partorg was particularly important since in a country with collective mentality like Russia, employees expected their firm to take care of them as their family did (Elenkov, 1998).

It is very important to stress that on one hand the partorg was subordinate to the director in the production hierarchy, but at the same time the director was the subordinate to the partorg in the Communist Party hierarchy. This balanced division of power had some advantages that may explain why we now observe a trend where the human resource manager (the closest post-Soviet equivalent to the partorg) is increasingly being given more prominence in Russian companies.

Conclusions from the First Phase

In the literature as a whole and in our data, four key characteristics seemed to exist instead of the classical two that most past studies have used presumably for simplicity sake. We decided to maintain four characteristics in our model. Next we had to decide whether to unite the four characteristics into two dimensions by placing them as extremes on two continuums or keep them as four independent dimensions. Careful analysis led us to decide that we had four separate dimensions and that we would combine them into two continuums: democracy versus authoritarianism and task orientation versus people-orientation. This analysis led to the creation of the model which is depicted in Figure 1 and forms the basis of the second phase of our research which is described below.

THE SECOND PHASE OF THE RESEARCH

The second phase of the research, which is based on the results of phase one, involved developing a model of leadership and determining which style of leadership identified in the model was perceived as most effective in Russia. After much thought we realized that the four most commonly identified leadership characteristics from phase one nicely formed two continuum which in turn could be used to form a 2x2 matrix which did a good job of describing key Russian leadership styles. Below, we present descriptions of the two continuums which form the basis of our leadership model (see Figure 1)—autocracy versus democracy and task versus relationship. It is important to note that in addition to the strong empirical foundation for our model, our model also has strong theoretical foundations to build on. The authoritarian versus democratic continuum is the most common continuum mentioned in past leadership research (Bass, 1990). However, many past models have assumed that authoritarian leaders were also task-oriented or directive (Bass and Barrett, 1981; Heller, 1969). Our model departs from this tradition since we find that it is possible to have leaders that are very authoritarian, but more focused on relationships than tasks. Likewise we find that some democratic leaders are much more focused on tasks than relationships.

---- Insert Figure 1 about here ----

Autocracy versus Democracy Continuum

The continuum between autocracy and democracy answers questions such as how subordinates are treated and perceived by the leader and to what extent a leader delegates? Bass (1990) notes that meta analysis of past studies indicates that in general subordinates are more satisfied with democratic leaders but that authoritarian leadership is normally correlated higher with production. There are, however, plenty of conflicting of results and contingencies (Bass, 1990).

The Autocratic Extreme

At the autocratic extreme a leader has excessive desire to control and he believes that tasks will not be done unless delegated. Autocratic leaders believe that if they do not control things that something will go wrong. Such leaders believe that they should control all events and people and that only they know how it is best to do things. The authoritarian style came to prominence in the literature with Lewin's classical Iowa studies (Lewin, Lippitt, and White, 1939) which had an authoritarian style. Such a leader is directive in his manner of speech. Such leaders believe strongly in McGregor's theory X (McGregor, 1960). A similar style can also be seen in Barrow's (1976) description of an emphasis on punitive performance. Many other studies such as Bass and Barrett (1981) and Heller (1969) also discuss autocratic leadership.

The Democratic Extreme

A leader at the democratic extreme believes that people can make decisions, fulfill obligations, and complete tasks effectively without being given precise directions. Democratic leaders show trust in people's ability, motivation, and morals. McGregor's (1960) Theory Y underlies the democratic extreme. Further, this dimension is similar to the consideration dimension from the Ohio studies (Halpin and Winer, 1957). In addition, in 1966 Bowers and Seashore (1966) provided a useful summary of the Ohio (Halpin and Winer, 1957) and Michigan (Katz, Maccobi, and Morse, 1950) studies and work done by Cartwright and Zander (1960). They suggested that four dimensions of leadership exist: support, interaction facilitation, group emphasis, and work facilitation.

The combination of the first three describes what we refer to as the democratic extreme in our model. Many other studies such as the work of Lewin and Lippitt (1938), Bass (1976), and Vroom and Yetton (1974) also discuss a democratic leadership.

Task Focus versus Relations Focus Continuum

This continuum shows the main focus for a leader. This continuum implies a choice between two alternatives: concentration on tasks or concentration on people. Several studies have shown that leaders who focus on relations are most effective (e.g., Shartle, 1934; Kay and Meyer, 1962) while other studies have shown that leaders who focus on task accomplishment are most effective (e.g., Rubenowitz, 1962; Kelley, 1964). A popular modern belief is shown in Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid theory, which shows that the solution is that leaders should focus on both tasks and relationships at the same time. However, there is significant conflicting empirical evidence for and against each of these suggestions (Bass, 1990).

Task in Focus

If the leader focuses on tasks, then he/she structures the tasks, sets the objectives, establishes time frames, sets procedures and standards, determines precise goals, and ensures that everybody is aware of what needs to be done. This dimension is quite similar to the Ohio studies' (Halpin and Winer, 1957) initiating structure. Only here, as in the Michigan studies (Halpin and Winer, 1957), task in focus and relationship in focus are two different dimensions opposed within the same continuum. Misumi (1985) considered task-oriented leadership as performance leadership—leadership that motivates a group to achieve goals. Many other authors have also studied task-oriented leadership such as Bass (1967) and Fiedler (1967).

Relationships in Focus

If a leader is focusing on relations, then he/she is interested in what people think or feel. Such leaders place a high priority on knowing what is happening in different working groups and in the personal lives of subordinates. This is similar to a manager scoring 9 (high) for concern for people in Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid.

Leaders with a strong concern are considered to be relations-oriented (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950). Likewise, what Fleishman (1957) calls employee-emphasizing and Anderson (1974) calls people-centered are also relationship-focused. Misumi (1985) describes relationship-orientated leadership as maintenance-oriented leadership.

Stereotypical Leaders

Contrasting the two dimensions described above results in a 2 x 2 matrix which forms our leadership model depicted in Figure 1. We identify a stereotypical leader for each quadrant and describe that leader's behaviour in vignettes (see Appendix A for copies of the vignettes). These stereotypical types are described below and called military man, clergyman, statesman, and politician (see Figure 1 for location of leader types in our model).

Military man

A military man is a task-oriented autocrat. The priority for this leader is task accomplishment. To achieve this goal he/she exercises tight control over all processes in the organization, defines and sets goals, controls goal fulfillment, gives rewards and punishments, and manages by orders. Military man believes in McGregor's (1960) theory-X assumptions. Military man type leaders make most key decisions for their subordinates and expect others to do what they are told. Organizational goals are more important than personal ones for military man (unlike for politician). Obedience is crucial and military man makes evaluations based on the degree tasks are fulfilled, and followers are obedient. The working climate is very formal, full of routines and procedures, and sometimes rather tough. In a military man's organization people are promoted by their ability to do the task and follow the command.

Clergyman

The clergyman is a relations-oriented democrat. The priority for this type of leader is assuring an effective climate in the organization and good relations between all employees (including between management and non-managerial employees). Clergyman leaders feel that teamwork is important for setting and achieving organizational goals. As

soon as agreement about organizational goals is achieved, clergyman leaders delegate tasks to be carried out and only exercise loose control. Clergyman leaders believe in McGregor's (1960) theory Y assumptions. The group is the most important element in the clergyman's organization. People are promoted by their ability to work in groups. In a clergyman's organization, climate is very informal including loose procedures and standards, which give employees much freedom in organizing their jobs.

Statesman

The statesman is a task-oriented democrat. The priority for this leader is achieving organizational goals, but he/she strives for consensus about the best way to achieve them. A statesman leader understands the task and is not interested in discussing that. Instead he/she focuses discussion on how best to accomplish the task he has identified. Further, this type of leader negotiates with employees about how they use their time, how responsibility is allocated, and the best way to accomplish tasks, but command is centralized. Statesmen type leaders are well aware that in order to achieve optimal results, it is essential to obtain employees' commitment and involvement. Statesman-type leaders try to accomplish this through a democratic style. This leader's slogan is "let's get there together!" Under a statesman, employees are promoted based on their competence. The culture in a statesman's organization is formal and business-like.

Politician

A politician is a relations-oriented autocrat. The priority for this leader is his personal power. He organises the processes at work in a way that he has only people completely devoted to him nearby. A politician-type leader controls via relations. This control gives him the opportunity to reach his personal objectives in his career. This type of a leader would never let his followers be more clever or competent than himself/herself because he/she would see this as dangerous. The climate in an organization with politician leaders is full of flattery and intrigue. Plotting is very popular among employees as a way to show the leader who is more devoted to him/her. People are promoted by the ability to satisfy their leader's vanity. Organizational goals are taken into consideration only as long as they coincide with personal objectives.

Comparison with Other Leadership Models

Other researchers have developed models with similarities to ours (see Table 2 for a summary and comparison of key models, which influenced our model). Three models deserve special mention because they are also comprised of two dimensions: Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid, Likert's (1967) system approach, and Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1982) situational leadership model. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid was influenced by the Ohio studies (Lewin, Lippit, and White, 1939) and contrasts two dimensions of managerial roles: "concern for production" and "concern for people." Each concept is measured on a nine-point scale. As a result of different combinations of both dimensions, five styles emerged:

- (1) "Impoverished management" is characterized by low scores on both dimensions. This produces a context in which a conflict is likely to be rife.
- (2) "Country club management" has a high score on concern for people only. While the atmosphere is very good, people are not pushed to produce in this style (similar to the clergyman style).
- (3) "Task management" views people as merely suppliers of labor. Management sees its job primarily in terms of controlling and directing subordinates and planning their work.
- (4) "Middle-of-the-road management" emphasizes both dimensions.
- (5) "Team management" is the recommended managerial style in that both the task and people imperatives are met. Team management is a participative one. (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

We will discuss similarities between the results from the above studies and our study in the section discussing phase two results.

----- Insert Table 2 about here -----

Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1982) situational leadership is based on the assumption that different leadership styles are optimal depending on the psychological maturity of the follower (this follows from Argyris, 1962). The model suggests that a leader should focus on a different combination of relations and tasks depending on subordinate maturity. The lowest subordinate psychological maturity (unable-unwilling)

requires a low relations focus and a high task focus, which is telling behavior. Unable-willing subordinates (the next level up of subordinate psychological maturity) require a leader to have high relations focus and high task focus, which is selling behavior. Able-willing subordinates require high relations focus and a low task focus, which is a participating leadership behavior. Finally, able-willing subordinates (those with the highest psychological maturity) require low relations focus and a low task focus, which is a delegating leadership behavior. Based on answers to 12 vignettes the Hersey-Blanchard model determines what your leadership style is and also what leadership style, your subordinates would work best with.

Likert's (1967) system approach is the model, which appears to be closest to our model. Likert identifies four types of management:

- (a) System 1 – exploitative authoritative management – similar to military man;
- (b) System 2 – benevolent authoritative management – similar to politician;
- (c) System 3 – consultative management – an attempt to involve subordinates;
- (d) System 4 – participative group management – similar to clergyman.

Our approach differs in focus from that described above in that rather than focusing primarily on the degree of participation/democracy that a leader exerts, we try to combine two areas of concern in our model: goals the leader concentrates on and the manner in which he/she achieves them.

Phase 2 Methodology

Careful attention was paid to developing a thorough methodology for this study. We wrote one paragraph vignettes (stories) describing each of the four styles. Following the advice of Gordon *et al.* (1986) several steps were taken to ensure that the vignettes were well designed. In order to ensure that our vignettes reflected respondents' experience sufficiently for them to understand the vignettes well and deem them credible, several steps were taken. First, the authors were a team of Russian and Western scholars with both practical managerial experience and academic knowledge of leadership. Also, the authors focused on developing vignettes similar to situations the respondents had encountered. In addition, vignettes were pre-tested on five Russian managers and refined based on comments from the managers. A second questionnaire was constructed which

included the four vignettes. After each vignette respondents were asked to complete four questions. The questions asked respondents to assess the style (on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from “very poor” to “excellent”) overall, the extent such leaders were effective, the extent such leaders were good at motivating subordinates, and respondents’ personal preference for the leadership style in question.

Questionnaires were distributed to 135 Russian middle managers attending multi-day executive training programs in St. Petersburg, Russia, at two business schools. Differences between the samples obtained from the two business schools were investigated. No significant differences existed and thus the data were combined for analysis. Managers were asked to complete the questionnaire in the evening after class and return it the next day. The managers were told that their participation was optional. One hundred and one managers responded resulting in a response rate of 75%. No significant differences emerged between the respondents from the two business schools and thus the samples were combined.

Using multiple t tests we determined that there were no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents in terms of sex, age, level in organization, and years of education thus there does not appear to be any non-response bias. Respondents were guaranteed anonymity since Leung and Bond (1984) have shown that anonymity can help to decrease problems with demand characteristics (especially with respect to respondents answering candidly), an issue that research using vignettes must always pay careful attention to minimize.

Phase 2 Results

Figure 2 shows the average evaluation of each leadership style for each of the four questions mentioned above. The total evaluation of the styles demonstrates that the statesman is the preferred style while the clergyman style is the second most popular. Statesman and clergyman were rated much higher than the politician and military man. It is interesting to note that the order in which the styles were rated is fairly consistent across the four questions.

----- Insert Figure 2 about here -----

While the statesman was rated the most effective style, it is interesting to note that military man basically tied clergyman for second place. However, the situation for motivation is quite different. Respondents consider military man leaders to be by far the least motivating type of leader to work for. Thus, it is an interesting paradox that respondents feel that military man leaders are effective, but they do not find them motivating to work for nor do they prefer to work for such leaders (see below). Here again statesman was found to be best in motivating subordinates with clergyman leaders in second place. Similar results also were found for personal preference where statesman was evaluated a 4 or 5 by 77 respondents and clergyman was evaluated a 4 or a 5 by 56 respondents. The other two styles were much less preferred.

----- Insert Tables 3-6 about here -----

Tables 3-6 report in which cases a statistically significant difference exists between respondents' ratings of the leadership styles. Student's T tests were used to compare the mean ratings of the various leadership styles and a bonferroni correction (SPSS, 1999) was used to correct for multiple comparisons of means taking place. Twenty-two of the 24 differences of means are significantly different. The only two differences, which are not significantly different, are the overall rating of military man and politician and the effectiveness rating for clergyman and military man. Thus, these results indicate that statesman is always rated statistically significantly higher than the other leadership styles. Further, clergyman is always evaluated in the second place and in all cases except for the effectiveness evaluation the clergyman style is evaluated significantly lower than the statesman style and significantly higher than the military man and politician styles. In the case of effectiveness, clergyman is not significantly different from military man. The rankings of military man and politician are somewhat less clear. However, with three exceptions, the politician style is significantly preferred over the military man style and evaluated less effective than the statesman and clergyman styles. The first exception is that while the clergyman leadership style is evaluated more effective than that of the military man, this difference is not statistically significant. Second, the military man style is considered more effective than the politician style. The third and final exception is that while the politician receives a higher overall evaluation than the military man, but this difference is not statistically significant.

We also collected data on respondent sex, respondent age, type of firm, and the size of the firms they worked in to investigate whether these factors affected respondents leadership preferences. 65% of our respondents were men, 35% were women. They ranged from 23 to 50 years old and averaged 31.9 years old with a standard deviation of 7.5 years). 72% worked for local Russian firms and 28% worked for foreign firms of Russian-foreign joint ventures (There were only 5% JVs and all of them had majority foreign ownership and thus foreign firms and JVs were combined into one category). Respondents averaged having worked 6.0 years as a manager. 70% of them worked for companies employing between 20 and 100 employees while 30% of them worked for companies employing between 101 and 10,000 employees. We conducted 16 regressions (see Appendix B) to analyze the affects of the control variables--company size, firm type (local firm or foreign firm/JV), respondent's age, respondent's sex, and firm size (measured as the natural log of the number of employees in the firm to avoid a few large firms having an undue weight on the outcome)-- on the four leadership preference measures (total evaluation, effectiveness, motivation, and personal preference). None of the independent variables in the regression equations are correlated with each other at levels greater than $r=.155$. Somewhat to our surprise, results indicate that none of the control variables significantly affect leadership preferences.

Phase 2 Discussion

The majority of respondents preferred two styles--statesman and clergyman. These results are not surprising as they tie in well with the past literature as will be shown below. Basically, past literature provides support for two leadership styles being superior--one close to the statesman style and another one oriented to participation, which is close to the clergyman style. Below, we explain why we think these two styles are considered most effective in Russia today.

The Management Panacea or the Statesman

It is especially informative to consider results of previous studies, which have revealed that a simultaneous focus on relationship and task is desirable for leaders.

Halpin (1957) demonstrated that the group of people rated highest in overall effectiveness scored above average on both initiating structure and consideration. This finding led Halpin to conclude that optimal leadership behavior is that which achieves high scores on both dimensions. Further, Halpin showed that considerate leaders tend to have more satisfied subordinates.

In Likert's model employee-centered supervisors were identified as most effective and defined as those who focus on the human aspects of their subordinates' problems *and* build effective work groups with high performance goals (Likert, 1979). According to Kahn (1956) results showed that the best production records were exhibited by foremen showing both characteristics.

Misumi (1985) found that the most effective leaders are those who combine performance-orientation (P) and (relationship) maintenance orientation (M). The same best style finding can also be seen in the managerial grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), where the most effective manager has a maximum orientation on both dimensions (concern for people and concern for production). Further, Kets de Vries (1999a) has suggested that it is a characteristically Russian paradox that on the one hand Russians are wary of their leaders and on the other hand they are quite dependent on them.

The Participation Potential - Clergyman

Past studies (e.g., Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958) have shown that participative leaders are often very effective. Participation is the degree to which a leader consults and considers subordinates' opinions in making decisions. A highly participative leader frequently consults with subordinates concerning decisions, which affect the group and encourages subordinates to work out problems among themselves. The directive, non-participative leader makes decisions based on his/her convictions and expertise, and closely watches group members' activities. He/she uses the formal authority of the role as the dominant mode of influence, whereas the participative counterpart prefers collaborative reciprocity-based forms of influence.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) provide one example of a participation framework. The framework describes how to choose a participative leadership pattern and what degree of participation subordinates should be encouraged to engage in under

various circumstances. The authors conceptualize the range of leadership behaviors as a continuum with “boss-centered leadership” and “subordinate-centered leadership” as the two poles. On the basis of this dimension, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) distinguish between the following seven different types of leadership behaviors: 1) the manager makes the decision and announces it; 2) the manager ‘sells’ his/her decision; 3) the manager presents his/her ideas and invites questions; 4) the manager presents a tentative decision subject to change; 5) the manager initiates a solution but is open to solutions proposed by subordinates if he/she is convinced the solution is good; 6) the manager presents the problem, gets suggestions, and then makes the decision; and, finally, 7) the manager defines the problem and sets limits but requests the group to make a decision. Movement from type 1 to 7 implies a trend away from the manager’s use of authority towards greater freedom for subordinates. The authors argue that the seventh pattern is rarely found. Participative leadership is usually represented by the sixth pattern.

The following paragraph provides one explanation of why the statesman was preferred over the clergyman. Sadler (1970) compressed Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s (1958) scheme into four styles: the leader tells, sells, consults, and joins. With the last style the manager delegates the right to make a decision to the group. Most of the people indicated that they preferred their boss to use a consulting style. As we can guess, the task-focused statesman still holds onto responsibility for the final decision. Thus, the fact that respondents rate the statesman highest indicates that subordinates in Russia prefer the situation where responsibility is *not* totally lying with them. In contrast, we can expect that if we would repeat our study in a country with more focus on low power distance and consensus-based decision making than Russia (e.g., Sweden), then the statesman-type leadership style might be considered more effective. However, the results of our study certainly show that Russian middle managers’ leadership preferences have now evolved to the point that they are not very different from what might be found in the West. Perhaps some years ago one of the more autocratic styles (military man or politician) would have been evaluated as most effective in Russia. At a minimum they were the leadership styles most often used in communist times.

Military Man

The fact that the military man is basically tied for second place in terms of perceived effectiveness, but is in a distant third for overall rating of personal preference and ability to motivate is perhaps indicative of the fact that Russians have developed a national Oedipus complex—Russians on the one hand hate authority, but on the other hand almost need it to function and are extremely loyal to such leaders. Russians have a long history of strong dictatorial leadership after all. All transformation leaders of Russian were dictator-type leaders--starting with Ivan the Terrible ending with Lenin and Stalin. However, times are changing and people are apparently starting to see the virtues that democracy has as they are exposed to more positive examples of what a market economy can do in their daily lives. This can explain why Russian's preferences appear to be shifting away from autocratic leaders. Also, of course, one should remember that the study was made of managers – people who are more progressive than average and thus may prefer leaders more different from the traditional Russian leader than might be the case for traditional Russians.

Politician

The politician style has a very paternalistic flair to it. It has a reminiscence of the past, a hypocritical way of handling the internal conflict of a need for control over people and inability to really trust them. Perhaps politician-type leaders also seem to lead too much by ideology. And, perhaps strongly proclaiming an ideology can have adverse effects in today's Russia, a place where the average person feels that communist ideology blinded and parolized Russia for many years. The low rating of the politician seem to indicate a dislike for strict control.

Willing Followers on the Way to Empowerment: A Shift from Autocracy to Democracy

As a result of traditions, many Russians are averse to taking risk when doing things that could result in mistakes. This is because Russians have traditionally been severely punished for mistakes and because criticizing has been traditionally the accepted way to motivate subordinates in Russia (Suutari, 1996). As a result, the belief that mistakes and problems should be avoided at any cost is deeply rooted in Russian culture

(Michailova and Husted, 1999). In addition, most often failures are not perceived as learning opportunities in “coercive bureaucracy” (Adler, 1999) which is typical for the Russian organizational structural context. Collectively this tradition of harsh punishment for mistakes has resulted in responsibility avoidance, a lack of empowerment, and the absence of delegation as employees have striven to avoid decision-making authority due to the risks that come with it (Kets de Vries, 1999a). As a result, a need exists for such changes in leadership behavior and HRM-practices that will motivate Russian employees to take more responsibility for their work (Suutari and Bolotov, 1996). Thus, if managers work closely with responsibility allocation to assure that it is safe and possible to take responsibility, the clergyman role holds potential today for leader since it frees his/her time from close supervision and helps take full advantage of subordinate potential. It is worth noting that this trend is not purely Russian since most of Western countries have experienced shifting from a command-control orientation to a people-and-process orientation at work.

According to Kets de Vries (1999a), a shift in responsibility has to be a two-way street. Employees need to be willing to relinquish a measure of power, but employees also need to be willing to assume this power. Taking all these considerations into account, training may yield particularly high returns in Russia and result in much higher empowerment among other benefits (Elenkov, 1998).

Conclusion

This paper goes a long way in helping us develop a better understanding of Russian leadership, a subject that has been largely ignored. The study contributes by developing a model of leadership, which resulted in a typology of Russian leadership styles, which is based on the Russian situation (input obtained from phase 1). Had we used a model developed in the West, we would have risked missing some important Russian-specific features. Of course a drawback of our approach is that by not using a model developed in the West, making comparisons with other countries is more challenging. Our model of leadership (depicted in Figure 1) differs from previous studies in treating task versus relations and autocracy versus democracy as different dimensions. We did this in an effort to elaborate more about the concepts traditionally

treated in the same line: task, production, performance, direction, autocracy, etc.—an elaboration which is particularly important to accurately describe the leadership styles found in Russia. Our model of leadership, which was developed based on the results of phase one of this study, appears to work well in describing key types of leaders found in Russia. The model allows us in phase two to develop an understanding of what types of leadership work best in Russia. Results of phase two show that statesman leaders (task-oriented democrats) followed by clergyman leaders (relations-oriented democrats) are perceived to be most effective in Russia.

However, while this paper has begun to answer many important questions regarding which leadership behaviours that are most effective in Russia, it has also raised an equal number of questions for future studies to investigate. The study's findings that most Russians prefer statesman-type leaders, who are task-oriented democrats, shows that Russians not only prefer directive leaders but they also feel that effective leaders should prioritize task accomplishment over relationship building. This means that as long as the task is in focus, Russians perceive the leader as quite effective even if he is not autocratic in personal style. This is contrary to Russian traditions, which have primarily seen autocratic leaders (military man was ranked only third). Based on the results of this study, it appears that Russian leadership preferences are coming closer to, but not identical to, those which we would expect to find in the USA or Western Europe.

Russian respondents' preference for the statesman style should not come as a surprise. The idea of authoritative leadership versus authoritarian leadership presented by Kets de Vries (1999a) is useful in characterizing Russian leadership. Kets de Vries (1999a) suggests that an "authoritarian" leadership style characterizes Russia's past and that an "authoritative" management style characterizes the future where the Russian management should move. Our results suggest that Russia is moving in this direction. Kets de Vries (1999) also suggests that authoritative leaders provide clear vision, facilitate empowerment, fully involve employees by providing meaning to work, encourage employees to "own" the organization, foster openness and teamwork, exercise discipline and control by providing clear boundaries, give support, and create a sense of security. We think that this sense of security is provided by the fact that responsibility remains with the leader.

The above analysis tempts us to think that the clergyman style was ranked only second because it demands participation in decision-making and acceptance of delegation from employees which are two items Russians have historically been wary of. At the same time, some authors have argued that Russians tend to be more contemplative than action or task-oriented (Kets de Vries, 1999b) and extremely focused on the importance of personal relationships and trust (Ledeneva, 1998). This analysis suggests that provided some training and a more supportive environment is assured, Russians might overcome the "learned helplessness" phenomenon - the need/tendency for the instructions to come from above. The fact that neither of the authoritarian styles was chosen as respondents' first or second preference indicates that this process is already well underway in Russia.

This paper also speaks to foreign managers operating in Russia. The paper suggests what Russians are looking for in a leader by reading this study. These expectations have several expectations. For example, the paper reveals that one should use delegation in Russia in a gradual way and nor fall into the trap of choosing harsh direction due to some "special" Russian circumstances. One can not overemphasize the importance of cultural differences, but at the same time it is important not to loose sight of the fact that many trends are the same everywhere. For example, a preference for increasing amounts of delegation is definitely emerging in Russia like in the west (just to a lesser degree). Thus, our study suggests that international managers should learn how to flexibly move along delegation continuum in different national contexts.

This study has several limitations. First, This study was only based on progressive middle managers. While this makes an important contribution, it may well be that if we repeated the study on low-level factory workers in large state-owned companies that leadership preferences would be quite different (this would be a useful study to do in the future). Further, it appears that Russian leadership preferences are in a state of change as Russians become exposed to the market economy. However, our study is not able to gain a good picture of these change dynamics since it is conducted at one point in time. Longitudinal studies have the potential to make an important contribution in a dynamic context like Russia. Finally, this study is set in Russia. It would be

interesting for future studies to include explicit comparisons of leadership preferences of different countries.

In conclusion, this study has provided an important contribution in helping to develop a clearer understanding of the mystery of modern-day Russian leadership. However, it is clearly only a first step. Future studies are needed to build on this study and further explore many issues raised in this study.

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Figure 1: Leadership Styles Model

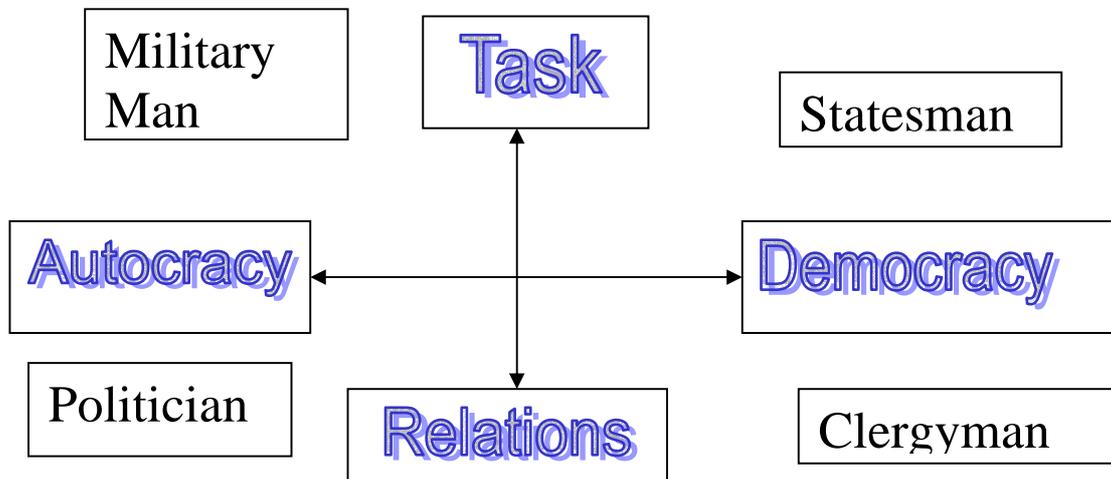
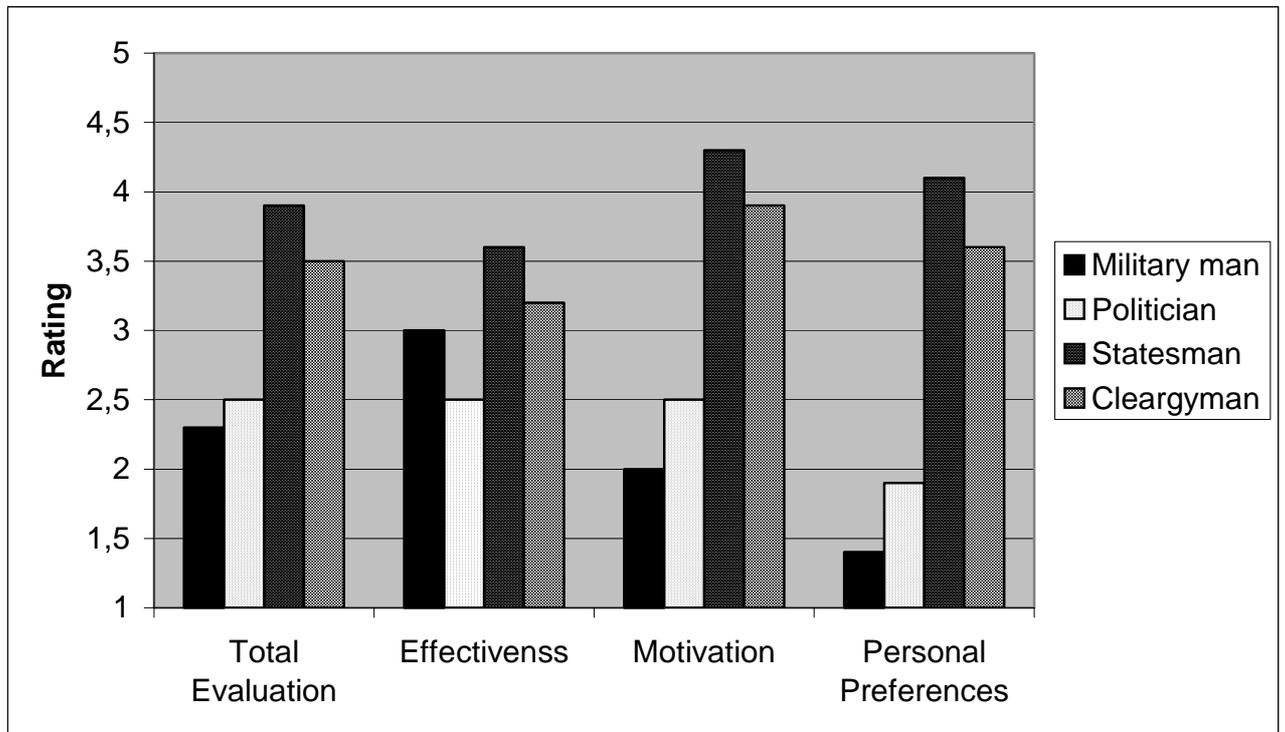


Figure 2: Evaluation of Leadership Style Effectiveness



Note: Respondents were asked to evaluate total evaluation, effectiveness, motivation, and their personal preference for the four different leadership styles on a scale from 1=poor to 5=outstanding. This is based on 101 responses.

Table 1: Distribution of the Choices Evaluating “an Effective Leader”.

Leadership Characteristic	Number of Respondents Choosing Characteristic
Democracy	56
Task oriented	54
Relation oriented:	45
Authoritarian	33
Charisma	26
Intellect and education	23
Competence	20
Honesty	18
Creativity	16
Flexibility	15
Communication	13
Organisational skills	11
Consistency	11
Assertiveness	9
Reliability	9
Hard-working	7
Decisiveness	7
Experience	6
Various other responses with less than 4 responses being the same	16

Note: Respondents were asked to list which five characteristics they felt best described an effective leader. However, some respondents only listed four characteristics.

Table 2: Summary of Key Leadership Models Influencing our Model

Study	Approach	Dimensions	Styles
Iowa Childhood Studies—Lewin (1937)	Style	-	1.Authoritarian 2.Democratic 3.Laissez-faire
Michigan Studies--Katz, Maccobi, Morse (1950)	Style	One-dimensional model 1. Employee-centred: Focused on employees’ motivation, training, and work relations. 2. Production-centred: Focused on technical and production aspects of work	1.Employee-centred 2.production-centred
Ohio State Leadership Studies—Halpin and Winer (1957)	Style	One-dimensional model: (Consideration and initiating structure –extremes on one continuum) Initiating structure – focus on organizing, defining relationships, giving directions, task accomplishment, and emphasising deadlines. The leader is strong. Consideration – focus on mutual trust, rapport, communication, and subordinates opinions. The leader also cares about his subordinates welfare and even helps them with personal problems and is concerned about their feelings.	1.Consideration 2.Initiating structure
Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964)	Style	Two-dimensional model(different combinations of both dimensions create styles) (Concern for production and concern for people) Concern for production- focus on quality of policy decisions, procedures, processes, quality of staff, efficiency, and volume of output. Concern for people-focus on people, people’s opinions,trust, personal relations.	1.Task management 2.Impovershed 3.Country Club 4.Middle-of-road 5.Team
Likert (1967)	Style	On dimensional model: Autocratic-democratic	1.Exploitive autocrat 2.Benevolent autocrat 3.Consultative 4.Participative
Fiedler (1967)	Contingency (situational variables key)	One dimensional model: Relationship oriented – not directive, Task oriented – more controlling and punitive.	1.Relationship- motiv. 2. Task-motivated 3 Socio-independent
Path-Goal theory: (House 1971)	Contingency (task and employees; autonomy need)	One-dimensional model: Initiation of structure and consideration.	1.Directive 2.Supportive 3.Participative 4.Achievement
Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1982)	Contingency (followers readiness)	Two-dimensional model: Relationship behaviour and task behaviour	1.Telling 2. Selling, 3. Participating 4. Delegating
Our model	Style	Two-dimensional model: Personal style (autocratic – democratic) of a person and the focus of concern (task – relation)	1.Clergyman 2.Military man 3.Politician 4.Statesman

Table 3: Differences Among Overall Assessments of Leadership Styles

	Mean	Military Man	Politician	Statesman	Clergyman
Military Man (M)	2.3	X	M<P	M<S***	M<C***
Politician (P)	2.4	P>M	X	P<S***	P<C***
Statesman (S)	3.9	S>M***	S>P***	X	S<C***
Clergyman (C)	3.5	C>M***	C>P***	C<S***	X

X= not applicable

*= p<.05, **=p<.01, ***p<.005

Table 4: Differences Among Effectiveness of Leadership Styles

	Mean	Military Man	Politician	Statesman	Clergyman
Military Man (M)	3.0	X	M>P***	M<S***	C>M
Politician (P)	2.5	P<M***	X	P<S***	P<C***
Statesman (S)	3.6	S>M***	S>P***	X	S>C***
Clergyman (C)	3.2	C>M	S>P***	C<S*****	X

X= not applicable

*= p<.05, **=p<.01, ***p<.005

Table 5: Differences Among Leadership Styles Ability to Motivate

	Mean	Military Man	Politician	Statesman	Clergyman
Military Man (M)	1.9	X	M<P***	M<S***	M<C***
Politician (P)	2.4	P>M***	X	P<S***	P<C***
Statesman (S)	4.3	S>M***	S>P***	X	S>C***
Clergyman (C)	3.9	C>M***	C>P***	C<S***	X

X= not applicable

*= p<.05, **=p<.01, ***p<.005

Table 6: Differences Among Personal Preference for Leadership Styles

	Mean	Military Man	Politician	Statesman	Clergyman
Military Man (M)	1.4	X	M<P***	M<S***	M<C***
Politician (P)	1.9	P>M***	X	P<S***	P<C***
Statesman (S)	4.1	S>M***	S>P***	X	S>C***
Clergyman (C)	3.6	C>M***	C>P***	C<S***	X

X= not applicable

*= p<.05, **=p<.01, ***p<.005

APPENDIX A VIGNETTS

Military Man

The following is a description of a manager in a firm in Russia. He is a man of command. People should do what he tells them to do. Initiative is not understood nor supported. Independent actions are a crime against the boss, because it is only he who decides who, what, when and how things should be done. He has his opinion about most things and rarely asks his subordinates about their views. He is primarily concentrated on results and doesn't care if people have to stay after work to finish tasks. However, he is very efficient at getting things done and works very hard himself. Most of his subordinates fear and respect him.

Politician

A friend of mine described his boss, who is a manager of a Russian firm as follows: "He spends much time interacting with people who share his views. I can never know what his mood will be and how I should react to him. I should always agree with him and it is hard to predict if he will approve of my actions. He normally controls my actions questioning every detail. He always tries to greatly impress people by portraying himself as a powerful but open person. He likes to demonstrate his power when someone is watching us, but when we are alone, he is warm and friendly. He writes me detailed instructions but at the same time likes to give orders to my subordinates directly just to show, who is the boss".

Statesman

The following is a description of a manager in a firm in Russia. He is very friendly with everyone in the company. He is attentive to what other people say and takes time to take their views into consideration when making decisions. If he thinks that someone else's idea is better, then he will use that idea and give its creator credit. He is supportive of people he finds interesting and competent in their field, and also to those who are open to learn new things. If he gives you an instruction he never checks whether it is done because he trusts his employees. This manager's democratic style results in a decision-making process that is viewed by most as fair, but slower, than the processes followed by some other managers. His subordinates think that he is strict but fair.

Clergyman

Here is a description of a manager in a firm in Russia. He is extremely supportive and friendly in his manner. He provides teamwork and cooperation. In his decision making he strives for consensus. When he sees someone is not feeling well, he tries to find out what is reason and provide what support he can. He likes to take care of all people around him. Employees find him reliable and often ask him for help when they need it. The main problem is that it is difficult for him to say "no". He would also like all of his subordinates have good relations with each other.

Appendix B Control Variable Regression Analysis

Politician

	Total Eval.	Effectiveness	Motivation	Personal Pref.
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
Ln Employment	-.101	-.048	.016	-.104
Age	-.105	-.059	-.012	-.163
Sex	.052	.017	.067	.016
Firm type	.003	.056	-.011	.104
R ²	.026	.010	.005	.051
Adjusted R ²	.023	.041	-.045	.003
N	101	101	101	101

*p<.05, **p<.01, *** p<.005, **** p<.001

Statesman

	Total Eval.	Effectiveness	Motivation	Personal Pref.
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
Ln Employment	-.226	-.111	-.039	-.133
Age	.048	.017	.037	-.009
Sex	-.112	-.178	-.012	.059
Firm type	-.120	-.134	-.213	-.056
R ²	.080	.066	.046	.022
Adjusted R ²	.033	.018	.003	.028
N	101	101	101	101

p<.05, **p<.01, *** p<.005, **** p<.001

Clergyman

	Total Eval.	Effectiveness	Motivation	Personal Pref.
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
Ln Employment	.013	-.035	.073	.020
Age	.088	.003	.013	.137
Sex	.041	.089	.199	.076
Firm type	.063	.083	.059	.069
R ²	.012	.016	.053	.033
Adjusted R ²	.038	.034	.005	.016
N	101	101	101	101

*p<.05, **p<.01, *** p<.005, **** p<.001

Military Man

	Total Eval.	Effectiveness	Motivation	Personal Pref.
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
Ln Employment	-.105	-.124	-.139	-.109
Age	.113	.139	.038	.183
Sex	.027	-.082	-.150	.181
Firm type	-.179	.017	.033	-.081
R ²	.045	.040	.133	.069
Adjusted R ²	.003	-.009	.089	.021
N	101	101	101	101

* p<.05, **p<.01, *** p<.005, **** p<.001