

Full Range Leadership Theory & Change Strategies

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Abstract

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This dissertation has been supervised by Henk-Jan Rebel, Ph.D., Professor of Public Affairs, Professor of Research and Professor of Knowledge Management.

The speed of planned changes in organisations challenges the qualities of managers. The objective of this dissertation is to gain insight into the influence of the Full Range Leadership Theory on the advice that organisational advisors give regarding change strategies. It is evident, from the literature, that the situation is determinant for which change strategy should be advised. Advice on change strategies utilizes the statement that which change strategy is advised is dependent on the situation in which this strategy is applied. One may conclude that the Full Range Leadership Theory forms a basis for advice regarding change strategy.

Acknowledgements

This dissertation is the final assignment of the Bachelor Integrated Communication Management. This dissertation is thus written and designed according to the characteristics of organisational research which have been discussed during the Bachelor Education Integrated Communication Management.

I have chosen to dedicate this dissertation to the working area of organisational advisors. This is a profession which I plan to practice after my study. In this dissertation, the research covers a small part of the working area of organisational advisors, mainly how they develop a change strategy.

Also I would like to take this opportunity to thank several people.

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Henk-Jan Rebel who has guided me during this dissertation and helped me structure my grand ideas and for having faith in me for the past years.

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Introduction

In 2004, the world of management was in shock; an ice cream salesman became CEO of Gucci Group. At first everyone was sceptical. However, since the arrival of that ice cream salesman in 2004, the profit of Gucci has increased by 30 percent. This is an example that for a manager it does not matter what kind of company he directs, whether he sells ice cream or designer clothes.

If managers want to achieve successful changes in an organisation, they have to take the lead, position themselves visibly and inspire their employees, according to literature. Some scientists see the resistance of the employee against change as an important source for the trouble during a change process. From a positive point of view, employees ought to have an open attitude towards change. Given that the willingness to change is crucial for the successful execution of change, it is necessary to research the factors that influence the willingness to change.

Leadership has been thoroughly studied in different contexts and theoretical foundations (Horner, 1997). Despite the vast literature about leadership and change in organisations not everyone is proficient in successfully executing a change process. According to Kotter (1996) an important factor for the successful execution of an organisational change is the operational leadership style.

In my opinion, the importance of leadership and the operational leadership style(s) have for the successful implementation of the intended changes in an organisation is interesting to research.

Research introduction

There is a general consensus in the literature that there are several paradoxes in leadership. The manager has to reach his goals and targets and also has to lead his employees effectively. Furthermore a manager has to think globally, yet act locally (Grauer, 1989). He has to change and maintain a clear overview and he has to cooperate and compete on several levels of the organisation. Moreover, the speed of planned changes in organisations has high demands with regard to the qualities of managers. Despite the knowledge about these problems, more than two-thirds of the organisational changes fail (Beer & Nohria, 2000). In order to facilitate an organisational change, organisational advisors have to aid managers during the change process.

Research objective

The objective of this research is to gain insight into the influence of the “Full Range Leadership Theory” on the advice that organisational advisors give regarding change strategies.

Problem definition

Is the Full Range Leadership Theory a basis for advice regarding change strategy?

In order to answer the problem definition, five sub questions have been formulated:

1. What is the definition of change strategy?
2. Which principles are used during the development of a change strategy?
3. What is the “Full Range Leadership Theory”?
4. Which principles are used during the “Full Range Leadership Theory”?
5. With regard to the “Full Range Leadership Theory” and the development of a change strategy, what similarities and differences in principles are there?

Theory

Change strategy is regarded as a consideration to achieve, with an optimal effect, an intended change in an organisation and in the process keeping the resistance level amongst employees as low as possible (Cozijnsen & Vrakking, 1995). In a change strategy, one does not discuss tangible interventions, timing or tasks; this is due later on (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).

Relevance

The scientific relevance of this dissertation is whether or not the “Full Range Leadership Theory” forms a basis for the development of an advice regarding change strategy. If this is the case, it is possible to develop guidelines for leadership styles as regards change strategy after future research. These guidelines aids managers to choose a leadership style as well as a change strategy that will fit the situation.

The practical relevance of this dissertation is that the research could contribute to facilitating the choice between the different change strategies.

The social relevance of this dissertation is that there will be more transparency in the development and the choice of a change strategy. People could gain more insight into the fact whether or not they have chosen the correct change strategy.

Structure of dissertation

After the introduction (chapter one) and the explanation of the research method (chapter two), the first and second sub question will be answered in chapter three. Subsequently, chapter four and five will address the concept of leadership. The third and fourth sub question will be answered in chapter six and in chapter seven; the fifth and final sub question will be answered. The final chapter, chapter eight, consists of the conclusion with the answer to the problem definition, using the answers to the sub questions and a discussion where the limitations of the research will be stated and possible comments for future research.

2. Research method

The research method used is a deductive one. This means that the research shall be initiated from existing theories and models (Baker, 1999).

The nature of the research is descriptive. The existing models and theories are described and compared in order to research differences and similarities. Besides describing, the research is also entirely theoretical, because only argumentations from the literature will be quoted. This literature study creates an overview of already published material which shall be looked upon from a critical point of view. The literature study can be divided into three parts: the general orientation, the execution of a systematic search plan and the completion with the most recent literature. This strategy shall also be used in this literature study.

The literature that is used during this research has been carefully selected on subject and relevance. In order to determine the relevance of the literature, a number of questions were formulated (Stewart & Kamins, 1993):

1. What was the objective of the study?
2. Who has collected the information?
3. Which information is collected?
4. When is the information collected?
5. How is the information collected?
6. How consistent is the information with regard to others sources?

During the literature study, notes and diagrams of multiple theories are used as a tool for writing the dissertation (Soudijn, 1991). According to Baker (1999), a high frequency of references has a positive influence on the validity. The more literature references an author/researcher uses, the higher the validity of his report becomes. In the spirit of this quote, the literature about the Full Range Leadership Theory and change strategies have been selected.

3. Change Strategy

In 1985, Pettigrew already wrote that due to economical changes strategic change management is one of the most central, practical and theoretical subjects since the 1980's. For many organisations in the European and Northern American economical context, this period is an era of environment-driven radical change (Pettigrew, 1987).

In 1988, Margerison wrote that organisational advisors were becoming more important in society. He states that nowadays successful managers and organisations are dependent of organisational advice from top level. Also Drucker (1982) states that we need, especially in this information era, the best advice and the best advisors. Margerison (1988) adds to this that no enemy is worse than bad advice.

3.1 Organisational advisor as change engineer

The term 'changer [NL: veranderaar] is often used by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004). De Caluwé and Vermaak's definition for a 'changer: everyone who takes the responsibility for the guidance during a change process (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a). An organisational advisor fits this definition.

In the literature by De Caluwé and Vermaak, the term 'changer' is used. I do not find this a suitable translation. In my dissertation I will use the term 'change engineer', because this reflects the guidance aspect better.

Twijnstra and Keuning (1995) state that the work of an organisational advisor can be viewed as: "The provision of an independent and professional advice regarding the identification and solution of organisational problems and if necessary assisting during the introduction of proposed solutions" (Twijnstra & Keuning, 1995). Twijnstra and Keuning (1995) also state that organisational advisors make recommendations regarding the actions which should be taken and help with the implementation of these recommendations.

Van Eekelen and De Caluwé (1996) have a different view on this. They state that the organisational advisor only helps with the decision making process and with the implementation. In brief, one can state that an organisational advisor, on the area of organisational change, gives advice about or aids with the development of the right change strategy and helps with implementing this strategy. When an organisational advisor is needed (during an organisational change process), he automatically takes responsibility for the guidance of a change. According to De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004), the organisational advisor then becomes a change engineer.

In this dissertation, the research does not cover the entire process of change which an organisational advisor guides, but how an organisational advisor develops an advice for the change strategy.

3.2 Definition of change strategy

According to Bennis (1987) change strategies focus on how change can be implemented in organisations. But what is a change strategy?

Cozijnsen and Vrakking (1995) regard change strategy as a direct and purposeful consideration to raise a desired change in an organisation with an optimal effect and keeping the resistance level in the process as low as possible. Cummings and Worley (2001) regard a change strategy as an action plan in order to achieve an objective (change).

Also Pettigrew (1987) utilizes a similar definition of a change strategy. A change strategy is an intended way in which a change should develop (Pettigrew, 1987).

According to the above mentioned definitions, a change strategy is a direction or way determined beforehand in order to develop change. Also from the above mentioned definitions can be deduced that a change strategy always has a planned change as its objective. Cozijnsen and Vrakking (1995) mention a desired change, Cummings and Worley (2001) an objective (change) and Pettigrew (1987) mentions an intended way in which a change should develop. So an in advance contemplated change. *Thus a change strategy is a strategy which is developed in order to realize a planned change.*

Planned change

De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) give the following definition of planned change: “The realization of objectives; as a function of a motive, context and philosophy; through a power play of actors; by following a trail in phases or steps; through communicating and meaning giving; in which the whole process is managed by conscious intervention of change engineers” (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004).

Cummings and Worley (2001) regard planned change as the realisation of a new pattern of organising developed through intended interventions.

In both definitions, there are two elements:

1. The purposeful realization of objectives (final objective, intended pattern)
2. The use of interventions

We can conclude from this that a planned change is the purposeful realization of objectives with the use of interventions.

Intervention

According to De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) the definition of intervention is: “One or a series of planned (change) activities aimed at increasing the effectiveness of the organisation”. The term ‘planned’ refers to the wish of the interventionist or change engineer to be able to influence. The term ‘effectiveness’ refers to the intended result of the change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004).

Also Cummings and Worley (2001) utilize a similar definition of intervention. According to them, an intervention is a sequence or chain of activities, actions and events with the intention to increase the effectiveness of the organisation. Thus, interventions are deliberate attempts to change an organisation or subunit to a different and more effective situation (Cummings & Worley, 2001).

From these definitions, we can conclude that an intervention is a conscious activity with the intention to accomplish an intended result (the change). Also, we can conclude that a change strategy is a way to realize a planned change.

Next, the planned change will be tried to be brought into effect with the means of interventions. As De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) state: “With the means of interventions, the change strategy is made tangible”.

3.3 Diversity of change strategies

In the literature concerning change, many theories and strategies on planned change are known. For my dissertation, I have chosen three change strategies. On international level: the theory of Cummings and Worley (2001) and on national level: the theories of Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) and De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004).

The analysis plan used to allocate these change strategies consists of two models: the three-stage process of change (Lewin, 1951) and an adapted version of the contingency theory.

In order to overcome resistance, the following stages are necessary, unfreezing, change, freezing. According to this classic model of planned change (Lewin, 1951), change is the result of disturbances in the organisation that initially provided a stable situation. When the need for change is larger than the resistance to change, the organisation shall progress from one situation to the other.

Planned change can be initiated by ‘unfreezing’ the old balance (present situation) and subsequently ‘refreeze’ the new balance (desired situation). During the unfreeze stage, people begin to realise that something is about to change. The emotions that belong to this stage are: doubt, uncertainty, denial, irritation and impatience. During the change stage, the actual change takes place because it becomes clear that needs to be done. This is the stage where people often get a good perspective on how the problem should be handled. The emotions that belong to this stage are: perspective, relief and optimism. Finally, the refreeze stage is the stage where the change is completed and secured. According to the above mentioned model, change has the characteristics of an exception: stability (freeze) is the standard, change is a deviation of that standard and requires the creation of tension (unfreeze).

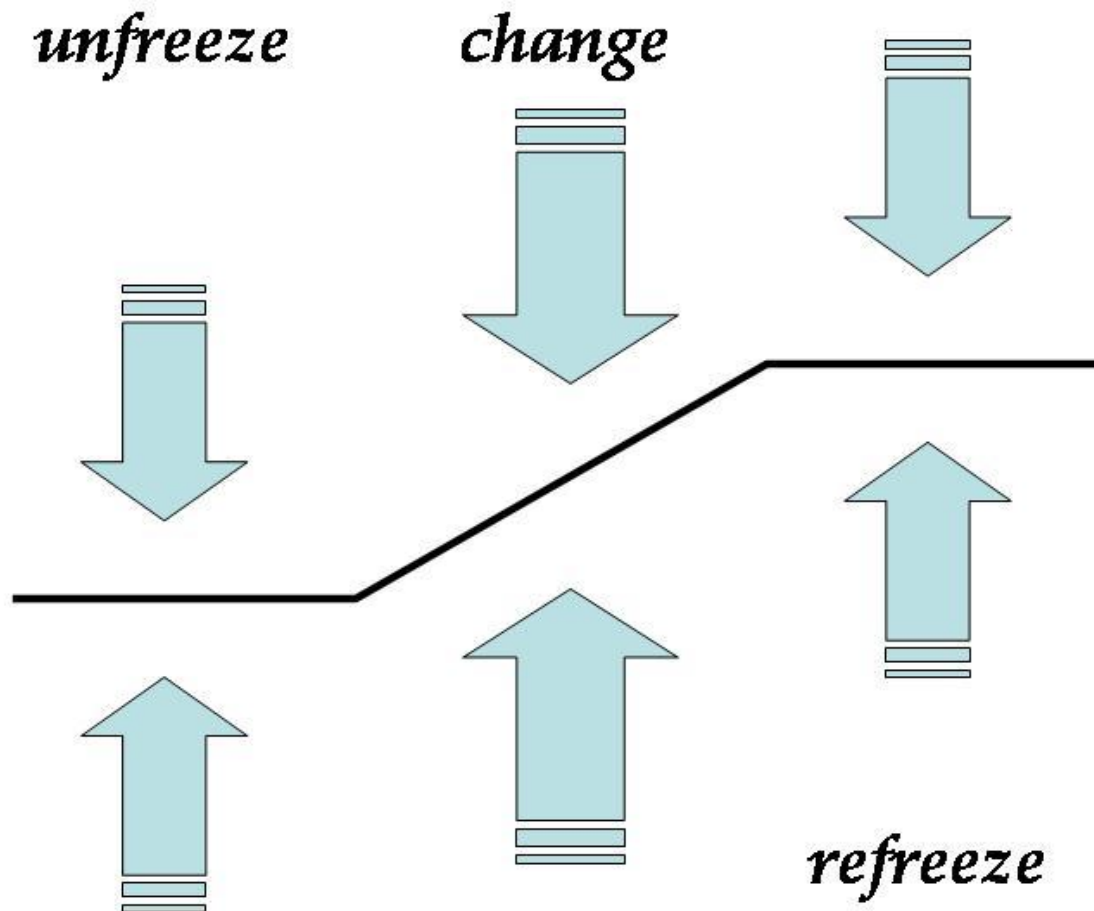


Figure 1. The three-stage process of change (Lewin, 1951)

The model concerning the adapted version of the contingency theory is a frame work consisting of four parts: input, throughput, output and context. The model is used to measure the quality of an organisation. The first three stages are in a sequenced order and the context surrounds the three stages throughout the whole process.

Context

A collection of all elements that the organisation has little or no influence on. The most important elements concern the development of the organisation and the management of this development, like the stimulus to perform, the impact of stakeholders, the organisational demographics and organisational levels.

Input

A collection of all elements that the organisation can influence to a certain extent. This concerns the tangible means, the support of employees and the experience of the change engineer.

Throughput

A collection of all elements which the organisation has complete control on. One can make a distinction between the organisational policy (liaison, equal chances, assessment etcetera) and the organisational supporting policy (management policy, financial and tangible policy, working environment etcetera).

Output

A collection of all elements that have effect on the quality of the organisation (objectives), direct and indirect. The quality deals with the work performance as well as the personal development of the employee, both short and long term.

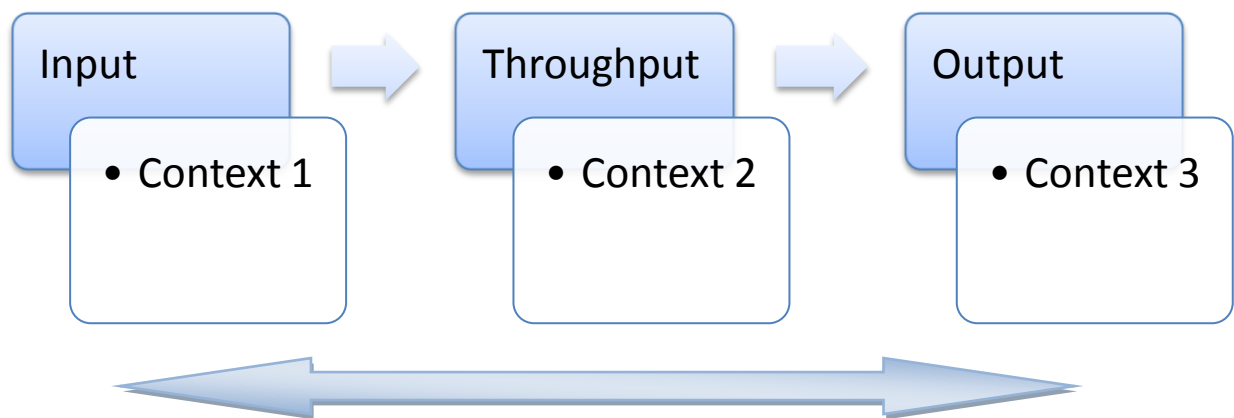


Figure 2. The adapted version of the contingency theory

3.3.1 Cummings and Worley

According to Cummings and Worley (2001), there are three change strategies or models which function as the primary basis for a general model of change strategies. These three strategies describe the activities that need to take place in order to initiate an organisational change and make it succeed.

1. Kurt Lewin

The first strategy is the model of Kurt Lewin (1951). Lewin regards planned change as an alteration of the powers that keep the behaviour of an organisation or system stable. According to Lewin (1951), every behaviour of a group or organisation at any time is a result of the powers of two groups:

- I. A group that wants to preserve the status quo
- II. A group that strives for change.

When both groups are equally strong, the actual behaviour shall persevere in what Lewin (1951) calls a state of “stationary equilibrium”. In order to change this state, one can reinforce the group that strives for change; weaken the group that preserves the status quo or a combination of both measures (Lewin, 1951). This is an example of Social Power approach.

2. Action Research model

The second strategy is the Action Research model (Lewin, 1951). The Action Research model regards planned change as a cycle in which the first study produces information that can guide a following action. After which the results of this action can be applied in order to gain information that can be used for the guidance of further actions (Cummings & Worley, 2001). According to Lewin (1951), the research is in service of the action. This interactive model of research and action requires much cooperation of members of the organisation and change engineers. It requires both data collection and diagnosis preceding the planning of actions and implementation and accurate evaluation of the results after an act of intervention.

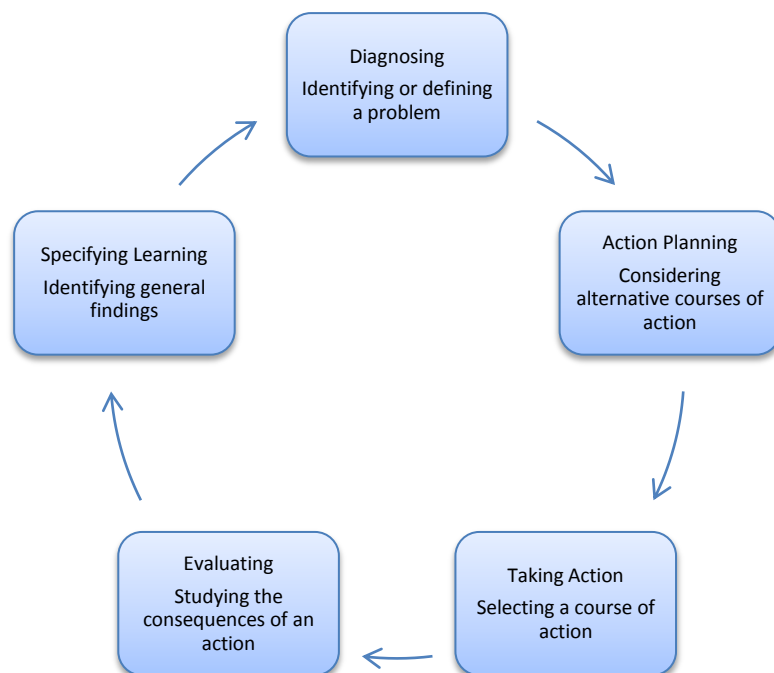


Figure 3. Action Research Model (Lewin, 1951)

3. Adjusted Action Research model

The third strategy is the Adjusted Action Research model. This model regards planned change as being a necessity that the members of the organisation have to endure in order to make the knowledge and skills their own that are needed to change the organisation (Cummings & Worley, 2001).

In this adjusted version of the above described Action Research model, the role of the change engineer is to facilitate the learning process. Both the change engineer and the members of the organisation are “co-learners” in the development of a strategy concerning the organisation, the design of interventions and the implementation and assessment of it (Weisbord, 1987). None of the groups dominates the change process.

Every participant in the process brings in unique information and expertise and the participants combine this information and expertise in order to learn how the organisation can be changed (Cummings & Worley, 2001). Members of the organisation learn how they can change and improve their organisation and the change engineer learns how he can facilitate changes in a complex organisation (Weisbord, 1987).

Cummings and Worley (2001) state that also with the Adjusted Action Research model social constructionism makes its entry in the area of planned change. This approach indicates that words and conversations determine what is important and meaningful to the organisation; change takes place when the start of new conversations produces new meaning to objectives, processes and performances (Gergen, 1995).

3.3.2 Boonstra and Bennebroek

Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) indicate that there are five prominent change strategies. These are: the Coercive Power strategy, the Rational Empiric strategy, the Negotiation strategy, the Re-education Normative strategy and the Democratic Dialogue strategy. These strategies are approaches to the context.

I. Coercive Power strategy

In the Coercive Power strategy, power is regarded as the potential possibility of a change engineer to influence an intended objective (French & Raven, 1959). In this strategy, the change engineer is an authoritarian person who explains and announces organisational change (Bouwen, 1995). This strategy is often used when an organisation is in a crisis and action is required. Change occurs using pressure, change is enforced (Boonstra, 1997).

II. Rational Empiric strategy

The Rational Empiric strategy believes that employees are rational beings who are guided by rational considerations and ideas (Greiner & Schein, 1988). Change occurs when experts exert influence on individuals in the area that needs to be changed. This is an example of persuasive communication. The Rational Empiric strategy is often used in a predictable and very structured situation where the problem is known, not too complex and the solution is within reach (Boonstra, 1997).

III. Negotiation strategy

The third change strategy is the Negotiation strategy. Change takes place due to negotiations. The objective of these negotiations is to reach an agreement that justifies the interests of all groups involved (Zaltman & Duncan, 1977). This strategy is often used in organisational change processes where groups with equal power and opposing interests are involved (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).

IV. Re-education Normative strategy

The fourth change strategy is the Re-education Normative strategy. In this strategy, patterns of actions and execution are supported by social cultural norms and by the commitment of individuals to these norms (Clegg, 1987; Lukes, 1974). Change occurs when the people involved develop new normative orientations and abandon old normative orientations and therefore change occurs in way of thinking, values and shared objectives (Chin & Benne, 1976). This strategy wants people to change through self cultivated propositions of improvement (Chin & Benne, 1976). This is an example of lifestyle conversions regarding the working environment and it is a fundamental change. The Re-education Normative strategy is often used in situations where the knowledge and experiences of employees have to be mobilised in order to improve the quality of the organisation (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).

V. Democratic Dialogue strategy

The fifth and final change strategy is the Democratic Dialogue strategy. In this strategy, research, training and action are integrated in order to create solutions for human problems (Chin & Benne, 1976). According to this strategy, change occurs when members of the organisation learn to cooperate on problem identification and formulating solutions that improve the organisation. A dialogue needs to develop between the members of the organisation (Boonstra & Vink, 1996). All possible participants of a change process have the same possibility to improve communication or to dialogue about organising and change (Greiner & Schein, 1988).

3.3.3 De Caluwé and Vermaak

De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004a) state: "There are many theories and strategies known in the literature concerning change. One approach emphasises the concept of man behind the change, while the other emphasises the level of planning of the change or the role of the change engineer."

All these approaches are boiled down to five ways of thinking about change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a, 2004b; Vermaak, 2002). Subsequently, every way of thinking is said to correspond to a colour.

De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004a) state that useful strategies are based on the domination, the guidance of one colour print: the basic colour. This implies that a change strategy is based on the perspectives of one colour. Colour thinking is used as a five colour palette (five strategies) where the change engineer/organisational advisor can make a choice which is based on the primary information that he has collected. Thus, the five colours of thinking about change are regarded as five change strategies. These colours, yellow, blue, red, green and white, will be elaborated below, because De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004a) regard these five ways of thinking as a change strategy.

1. Yellow print strategy

The Yellow print strategy is based on social political notions concerning organisations where merits, conflicts and power play an important role (Morgan, 1986). The Yellow print strategy symbolises the striving to get everybody to head in the same direction. Setting objectives, determining policies, formulating the program occurs due to the creation of the basis, uniting interests, creating profitable situations and the political power play and negotiation (Vermaak, 2002). The Yellow change trail is hard to structure and plan. It can be regarded as a negotiation arena where various interested parties are represented. Thus, change occurs when people succeed to unite interests and to create profitable situations.

2. Blue print strategy

The Blue print strategy is based on the rational design and implementation of changes. Project management plays an important role (Hammer & Champy, 1993). The change engineer can enforce the change and let the change pass on effectively. Before this, one can reason in a rational way when the change will come into effect. And this is also feasible and realisable. The way of changing is rational. “Think first and act later“ (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004b).

3. Red print strategy

The Red print strategy finds its basis in Human Relations management principles, specifically the classic Hawthorne effect - an increase in employee productivity produced by the psychological stimulus of being singled out and made to feel important (Mayo, 1933). McGregor (1960) has further developed these experiments during the Human Resource management period. Nowadays, human resource management is an expression of the original vision of Mayo (Schoenmaker, 1994). In the Red print strategy, it is expected that people change due to the start and adequate use of a set of human resource tools (rewarding, criticizing, assessments, selection, reorganisation, outplacement, promotion etcetera). The tendency of this strategy is that people are motivated to work in exchange for something (benefits, status etcetera) (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004b).

4. Green print strategy

The Green print strategy originates from action-learning theories (Kolb, Rubbin & Osland, 1991; Argyris & Schön, 1978). These theories have taken a large flight in the idea of the learning organisation (Senge, 1990; Swieringa & Wierdsma, 1990). Conceptually, change and learning are strongly linked (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a)

In the Green print strategy, it is expected that change occurs when members of the organisation are motivated to learn, when they are put into learning situations and when they are given effective ways to learn to change their behaviour. The route to the intended result is characterized by the creation of learning situations. The enforcement of change is contra productive. People need to be motivated before being brought into learning situations in order to change effectively (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004b).

5. *White print strategy*

The White print strategy came into existence as a reaction to the deterministic, mechanic and linear world view that is deduced from Sir Isaac Newton (1687). The strategy is deduced from the chaos theory or the theory of complexity. These theories are about living complex systems with a limited predictability. A central notion within the context of these theories is self organisation. Stacey (1996) defines self organisation as: “A process in which people interact according to their own values without a map of what to do or how to get there. “. The self organisation process comes down to the creation of new structures and conducts due to development, learning and evolution processes. Next, the system finds its optimal dynamic balance again (Bicker Caarten, 1998). The main idea is that an organisation develops itself and it will find the most effective way of action itself.

People and organisations change continuously. Complexity is regarded as enriching and influencing the present dynamic is a favourite approach. Guidance is not present in the White print strategy. Outside influences are limited. Change is not controlled, yet it can be facilitated or hindered. The influence possibilities are mainly in the removal of blockades that oppose change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004b).

	Unfreeze	Change	Freeze
De Caluwé & Vermaak	Yellow print strategy	Blue print strategy	
<i>Process</i>	Red print strategy	Green print strategy	
		White print strategy	
Boonstra & Bennebroek	Coercive Power	Re-education	
	strategy	Normative strategy	
<i>Context</i>	Rational Empiric	Democratic Dialogue	
	strategy	strategy	
	Negotiation strategy		

Figure 4. De Caluwé & Vermaak (process) vs. Boonstra & Bennebroek (context) based on the three-stage process of change (Lewin, 1951)

When implementing the theories of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) and Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) to the CIPO model, one can allocate the various theories to the different stages. The theory of Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) mainly concerns the context stage, the theory of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) concerns the throughput stage and the Management by Objectives theory by Drucker (1954) concerns the output stage.

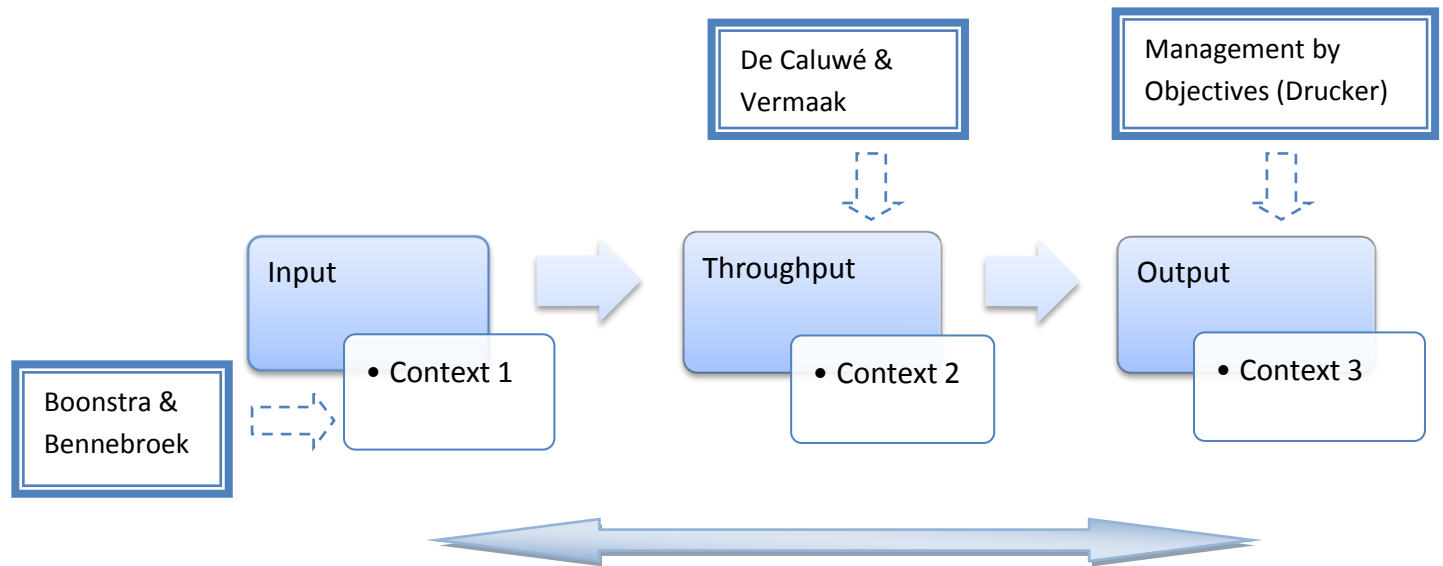


Figure 5. The adapted version of the contingency theory, including Boonstra & Bennebroek (1998), De Caluwé & Vermaak (2004) and Drucker (1954)

3.4 Choice of change strategy

De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) give six factors that lead to a 'right' choice for a certain change strategy. These factors are:

1. Objectives
2. The current position
3. The difference between current and intended
4. Resistance and blockades
5. The style of the change engineer and experience

Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) state that the cause of a change or the situation in which a change needs to occur, indicates which change strategy the change engineer should choose and advise. And they clearly indicate which strategy fits which cause or situation (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998). Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) also state that the education of the change engineer influences the choice of change strategy. Their strategies are focussed on the context of the change process.

Cummings and Worley (2001) mention four factors or contingencies that determine the choice and effectiveness of a strategy:

1. Willingness to change
2. Capacity to change
3. Cultural context
4. The capacities of the change engineer

This section shall start with the description of the six factors of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) since they give the most extended explanation of their factors that determine change.

1. The objectives

Change can be regarded as the realisation or making objectives possible (De Caluwé en Vermaak, 2004a). One can conclude that a change occurs in order to accomplish an intended result. Sometimes the idea is stripped of every controlled pretence, but yet one can still call it an objective.

Zuijderhoudt (1992) states that organisational changes are not particularly deliberately caused, but often developed from a dynamic of chaos and self construction. Zuijderhoudt does not consider the concept of a designable society. But he does indicate that it is possible to do deliberate interventions in order to influence the direction of change (Zuijderhoudt, 1992). “It is not a matter of we know where we went when we get there; before there is a change idea that is directing which is becoming more concrete while on the way and it needs to look like the actual end results” (Zuijderhoudt, 1992). One could state that every planned change is linked to a objective.

Assistance for the choice of a strategy is that it is necessary that the objectives and the strategy strengthen each other. Practice what you preach (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a). One can hardly get an objective from the White print strategy, self guidance and trying to achieve it through a power strategy (Yellow). The change strategy is also dependent of the objective.

2. The current position

The current position concerns a characterisation of the present situation. It is shaped by answers to questions like: What is the position of people in the development; what does the organisation look like. In this way, an image is shaped of the current situation (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a). The change strategy chosen has to be adjusted to this.

One could state that the colour of the strategy has to correspond to the colour of the organisation. De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004a) state that change of colour is often necessary, because the own colour could start to backfire. The stages of the colour change strategy concerns a number of contexts. Thus it is important to get a clear view of the current position in order to choose the most effective change strategy. The colour change strategy is also dependent of ‘the current position’.

3. The difference between current and intended

The difference between current and intended is regarded as the question: Improve or renew? (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a). Renewal is breaking through and discusses the thought frame (Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1974).

Improvement is doing the same thing better every time (Argyris & Schön, 1978). 'Single loop learning' aims for the perfection of routines. 'Double loop learning' concerns operational standards that are always up for discussion and adjustments. This requires a certain ambivalence: on one side a large amount of involvement and devotion is requested from self-organising groups, on the other side people need to be able to discuss existing processes and products. It requires cohesion as well as creativity and innovation (Argyris & Schön, 1974).

The importance of the difference between improvement and renewal lies in the fact which is typical for the choice of change strategy. Improvement can lead to a Blue change strategy, renewal can lead to a different colour strategy than the current dominant colour of the organisation. Improvement can be regarded as: the objective can be achieved through a strategy in which the dominant colour of the organisation is repeated. Renewal can be regarded as: the objective is not reached with a strategy based on the current dominant colour of the organisation.

The choice of a strategy is dependent on the difference between the current position and the objective. When the difference is large, this will probably lead to a renewed strategy. When the difference is insignificant, this will probably lead to a strategy in which the dominant colour of the organisation is repeated. The colour change strategy is dependent on the difference between current and intended.

4. Resistance and blockades

Watson (1969) states that resistance can be regarded as: “All powers that contribute to the stability in the personality or the social systems”. It is a normal and valuable phenomenon that probably shields us from chaos (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a). Resistance to planned change happens at three levels: individual, group and organisational level.

Resistance at individual level often consists of psychological barriers such as fear of the unknown, low appreciation tolerance, indifference of the manager, lack of trust in others, need for security, and desire for the status quo (Cozijnsen & Vrakking, 1995). Individual resistance also influences the group resistance. The individual brings along his resistance to the group processes and can influence fellow group members.

Resistance at group level is regarded as group dynamic processes. Vroemen (1995) mentions ignorance regarding the actions of others, having no norm for quality, poor decision-making, acceptance of apparent things, lack of loyalty and reduction of uncertainty (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).

Kuypers, Davies and Glaser (1986) differentiate phases of group development in which a group (temporarily) can remain, as a result that people do not function effectively nor learn to function. These phases are mentioned below:

- I. The orientation phases (who is allowed in, how to behave, why the group exists)
- II. The influence phase (who dictates what, to what extent to conform, division of responsibility)
- III. The affection phase (the level of trust, the level of significance, how to communicate)
- IV. The separation phase (when to stop, what to gain from one another, what have we learned, how to go from here)

The choice of change strategy will have to consider the phase in which the group is found (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).

Resistance at group level is often a symptom of cultural or political nature. Collective selective perception, conflicting norms and values, reaching back to ‘good old times’, conformity pressure, convictions that do not require, desire or need for change are examples of cultural nature. Threat of existing liaisons, fight for rare resources, deliberate manipulation

of information in order to prevent loss of face, fondness of power and status and mutual over-dependence are examples of political nature (Tichy, 1983).

According to De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004), change does not invoke this type of resistance to the same extent. There are four factors that contribute to the resistance to planned change.

- I. The first factor is the division of power. The more power spread, the larger the resistance, because then the change shall not be legitimized quickly. More people have a say and can oppose the change due to that fact that they hold power (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).
- II. The second factor is the lack of a clear cause or vision. With necessity, the objective necessity of the change is not important, but the perception by the people involved is. The motivation to change is not present when the people involved do not see the necessity or vision of the change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).
- III. The third factor is the extent of the change. The larger the change, the more resistance. For example, a change in a technical aspect can have consequences in other aspects. These contribute to resistance to this change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).
- IV. The fourth factor is the emotional effect of the change regarding the employees. According to Otto and de Leeuw (1994), this emotional effect on the employees increases when the change includes work methods, policy, ideology or identity. There is a causal relationship between the emotional effect of the change and the employees.

The nature of the resistance is important for the development of the strategy, because it influences the choice of strategy. Thus, the colour change strategy is also dependent of the nature of resistance.

5. Style of the change engineer

The change engineer is regarded as an organisational advisor who does not work in the organisation that wants to change. External advisors often do not consider whether another change engineer could do a better job (Vermaak, 2002). According to De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004), this should happen. Organisational advisors have preferences for and affinity with one or two approaches (colours). This refers to strengths and beliefs concerning change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a).

De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) state that organisational advisors should know all five colours in order to at least recognize the various approaches of change possible. Thus, an advisor should be able to recognize a different, yet better strategy than the one he currently beliefs in. According to Vermaak (2002), this consideration does not always take place. The personal style of the change engineer shall have influence on the choice of the change strategy.

6. Experience

Experience regarding choice of strategy can be considered as experience with the operation and recognition of the colours. Vermaak (2002) states that change engineers can change better when they improve their 'colour' recognition and make certain types of change their own. Thus, the change engineer jumps over his own shadow. In the beginning of his working life a person will often broaden himself and pick up the mentioned basic skills. After a couple of years one will search for his own style (Vermaak, 2002).

According to Vermaak (2002), a certain order of the colour strategies is customary. The Blue print strategy and to a certain extent the Red print strategy are fairly methodical and offer the change engineer a foundation. Green and Yellow print strategies have more impact on the interpersonal skills. The change engineer has to be more adequate in creating relationships, gaining trust and dares to intervene more quickly. This is the same for White print strategies where a deep pattern recognition and authenticity is sometimes indispensable (Vermaak, 2002). According to Vermaak (2002), the experience influences change and choice of strategy. The strategy is also dependent on experience.

These are the six factors that lead to a choice of change strategy (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004a; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2004b; Vermaak, 2002).

	Unfreeze	Change	Freeze
De Caluwé & Vermaak	Yellow print strategy	Blue print strategy	
<i>Process</i>	Red print strategy	Green print strategy	
		White print strategy	
De Caluwé & Vermaak	The current position	Style of the change engineer	The objectives
<i>Context</i>	The difference between current and intended	Experience	
	Resistance and blockades		
Boonstra & Bennebroek	Coercive Power strategy	Re-education Normative strategy	
<i>Context</i>	Rational Empiric strategy	Democratic Dialogue strategy	
	Negotiation strategy		

Figure 6. De Caluwé & Vermaak (process & context) vs. Boonstra & Bennebroek (context) based on the three-stage process of change (Lewin, 1951)

As mentioned at the beginning of the section, Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) as well as Cummings and Worley (2001) also mention factors that lead to the choice of the right or most effective change strategy.

Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) state that the cause of a change or the situation in which a change has to take place indicates which change strategy the change engineers should choose and advice.

- They state that in a situation of crisis where quick actions and results are desired or when the nature of the change regards the decline of the organisation, the Coercive Power strategy should be chosen (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).
- In predictable situations and when a change is desired to solve a known problem, the Empiric Rational strategy should be chosen (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).
- In the case of change in order to solve complex problems and changes that have a tender spot and where political games need to be played, the Negotiation strategy is the most useful and effective change strategy (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).
- In the case of change to increase the quality and the viability of the organisation, the Re-education Normative strategy is the most effective strategy (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).
- During constructive development and change due to a learning process, the Democratic Dialogue strategy is the most effective change strategy (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998).

The cause of a change or the situation in which a change has to take place, can be placed with the factor 'the current position' by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004).

Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) also state that the education of the change engineer and the employees influences the choice of strategy. The education determines how he/she regards change and how he/she solves problems. Experience does decrease this influence of education (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998). This can be compared to the factors 'style of the change engineer' and 'experience' by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004). The education partly determines the style of the change engineer and experience provides a different view on change and problem solving.

Cummings and Worley (2001) mention four factors or contingencies that determine the choice and effectiveness of a strategy:

1. The first factor is the willingness to change. According to Cummings and Worley (2001), during the choice of a change strategy one should always look at the willingness to change of the organisation. When this is not large or not present then one needs to determine how to increase it and one should adapt the strategy to the situation. Without willingness, a change is doomed (Cummings & Worley, 2001).
2. The second factor is the capacity to change. The knowledge and skills should be present in the organisation in order to let the change take place successfully.
3. The third factor is cultural context. Cummings and Worley (2001) have the following definition for culture: pattern of assumptions, norms and values shared by the members of the organisation. The change strategy has to fit the culture of the organisation.
4. The last and fourth factor is the capacities of the change engineer. The choice of strategy also depends on the capacities of the change engineer. How the change engineer regards change, what is his education. These all have influence on which change strategy is chosen (Cummings & Worley, 2001).

We can see that the four factors of Cummings and Worley (2001) show many similarities with the factors of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004). The two factors, 'the willingness to change' and 'cultural context', can be placed with the factor 'the current position' of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004). They all describe what the organisation looks like internally at the present.

The two factors 'the capacity to change' and 'capacities of the change engineer' of Cummings and Worley (2001) can be placed with the fifth factor 'style of the change engineer' as well as the sixth factor 'experience' of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004). The capacities of the change engineer are partly the same as the style of the change engineer. The change engineer chooses a style which fits his capacities. The capacities of the change engineer are also placed with the factor 'experience' of De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004), because the capacities of the change engineer will increase when his experience increases.

	Unfreeze	Change	Freeze
	Input	Process	Output
De Caluwé & Vermaak	Yellow print strategy	Blue print strategy	
<i>Process</i>	Red print strategy	Green print strategy	
		White print strategy	
De Caluwé & Vermaak	The current position	Style of the change engineer	The objectives
<i>Context</i>	The difference between current and intended	Experience	
	Resistance and blockades		
Boonstra & Bennebroek	Coercive Power strategy	Re-education	
		Normative strategy	
<i>Context</i>	Rational Empiric strategy	Democratic	
		Dialogue strategy	
	Negotiation strategy		
Cummings & Worley	The willingness to change	The capacity to change	
<i>Process</i>	Cultural context	The capacities of the change engineer	

Figure 7. De Caluwé & Vermaak (process & context), Boonstra & Bennebroek (context), Cummings & Worley (process) based on the three-stage process of change (Lewin, 1951)

3.5 Sub conclusion

The factor 'the current position' by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) shows similarities to the cause of a change or the situation in which a change has to take place (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998) as well as the two factors, 'the willingness to change' and 'cultural context' by Cummings and Worley (2001). They all describe the present situation of the organisation.

The factors 'style of the change engineer' and 'experience' by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004) show similarities to the influence of the education of the change engineer and the employees on the change process (Boonstra & Bennebroek, 1998). The two factors 'the capacity to change' and 'capacities of the change engineer' by Cummings and Worley (2001) correspond with both the fifth factor 'style of the change engineer' and the sixth factor 'experience' by De Caluwé and Vermaak (2004).

From the above mentioned findings in this chapter, one can conclude that a change strategy is an determined way or idea that has to bring about change. A change strategy is a vision about the way someone wants to execute change. It always concerns a planned change, regarding the fact that a strategy is formulated before a change occurs. It is always a vision on change that is planned and still has to occur.

From the above mentioned theories in this chapter, it appears that there are many change strategies. An organisational advisor has to make a choice out of the various theories when giving advice. In the literature, seven factors have been found that could help the organisational advisor make a choice or to guide him in the direction of a certain strategy.

These seven factors: *Objectives, current position, difference between current and intended, resistance and blockades, style of the change engineer, experience and cause of the change*, can be used by the organisational advisor in the development of a change strategy which he will advise.

An assumption concerning the development of a change strategy is the usage of these factors in the process of the choice of a strategy. This strategy shall fit the change best.

The second assumption concerning the development of a change strategy is that a strategy always exists of one dominant way of changing. Within the change strategy, there is enough variation present to adapt itself to the organisation in which the strategy is applied, but more often than not how the change is implemented, there is only one way possible and this implies that there is a limited vision on change regarding the education or experience of the change engineer.

My stipulative conclusion, regarding the development of a change strategy, is that change engineers do not have to focus on how to reach a consensus, but they have to focus on reflection, feedback and adaptation. By involving people with different preferences in the development and the guidance of change processes, a better balance can be realised in the overall process. Change is more than the development and the implementation of a plan. The change strategy functions as a guideline, but it must not be limited by beforehand programmed interventions which people stick to.

4. Leadership

After a thorough literature study on the subject “leadership”, one may conclude that a single definition of leadership does not exist. Due to the various backgrounds of authors, they use different ‘languages’ as references. Managers, (organisational) sociologists, psychologists and ‘hands-on’ experts also use various definitions of what tasks concern leadership.

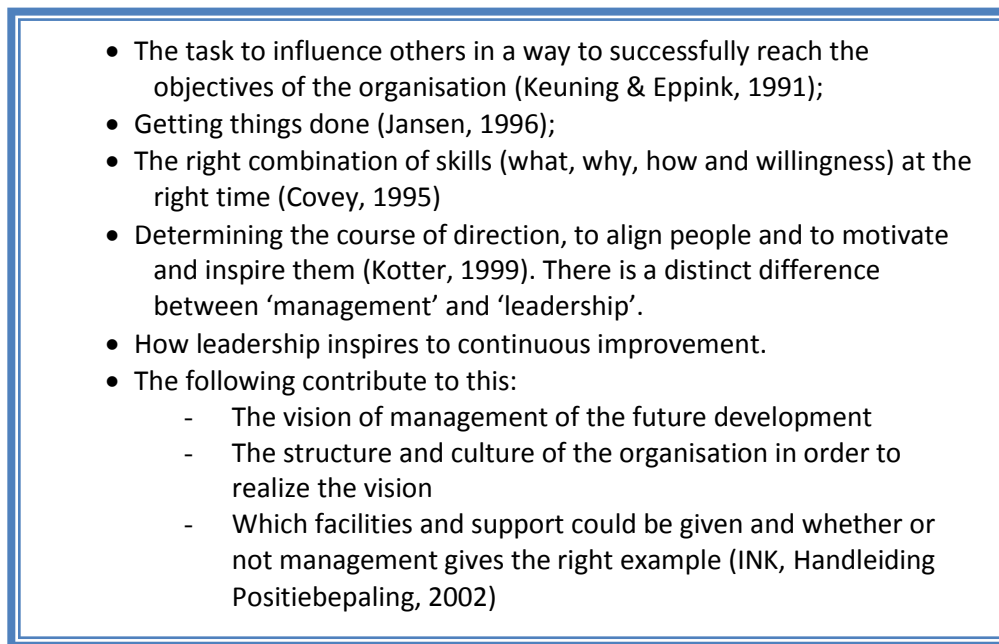
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- The task to influence others in a way to successfully reach the objectives of the organisation (Keuning & Eppink, 1991);
 - Getting things done (Jansen, 1996);
 - The right combination of skills (what, why, how and willingness) at the right time (Covey, 1995)
 - Determining the course of direction, to align people and to motivate and inspire them (Kotter, 1999). There is a distinct difference between ‘management’ and ‘leadership’.
 - How leadership inspires to continuous improvement.
 - The following contribute to this:
 - The vision of management of the future development
 - The structure and culture of the organisation in order to realize the vision
 - Which facilities and support could be given and whether or not management gives the right example (INK, Handleiding Positiebepaling, 2002)

Figure 8. Leadership task definitions

4.1 Definition of leadership

According to the Encyclopaedia of Management, 4th edition: “Leadership can be defined in broad terms as a process by which one individual intentionally exerts influence that causes others to engage in voluntary, goal-directed behaviour”. Three points about the above definition should be emphasized.

1. Leadership is a social influence process. Leadership cannot exist without a leader and a follower.
2. Leadership elicits voluntary action on the part of followers. The voluntary nature of compliance separates leadership from other types of influence based on formal authority.
3. Leadership results in followers’ behaviour that is purposeful and goal-directed in some sort of organized setting.

4.2 Linking change processes to leadership

Leadership and change are social psychological processes that are a part of the dynamics of social systems. Social interventions are involved in the process of influencing one another and when people or organisations are involved in a change process. In general, managers try to influence the behaviour of others when they focus organisational activities on realising change. Yet, by involving people with different preferences in the development and the guidance of change processes, a better balance can be realised in the overall process. Changing is more than the development and the implementation of a plan as we have conducted before. The dynamics of leadership and change become visible in organisations who are involved in a change process. The research concerning the relationships between these subjects provides insights that are relevant for the development of the level of education of the change engineer, as well as the employees and the transparency concerning the change process in general.

5. History of leadership

Leadership style is a much-discussed subject regarding the amount of literature concerning the subject. Throughout the years, many ways of thinking, models and measurement instruments have been developed, cast aside and improved. In the history of the literature concerning management leadership styles, one can recognize four main movements. Each movement has a different approach to the concept leadership style, mainly based on the views and perceptions during that specific time. The transition to the other dominant approach does not mean that the other movements are lost (Den Hartog, 1997). Many views have made a come-back or can be found in other new approaches.

5.1 Leadership movements

In the previous century, four movements have been developed that keep returning in various forms in the literature:

Scientific Management

Around 1900, Scientific Management was founded by Frederick Taylor, whose principles introduced technology with regard to the division of labour that made labour rational as well as more efficient. Taylor (1911) assumes that profit and productivity are the most important aspects to make an organisation flourish. In addition, the General Management theory by Fayol (1916) was the first to aim for an approach to the management of the entire organisation, while Taylor (1911) limited his theory to the productivity aspect. The General Management theory was meant to be an educational model in which Fayol (1916) distinguished six independent management areas: technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and guidance. The management of these areas is most important and consists of: planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. In the 1910's, Weber wrote his studies concerning organisations. Due to the fact that many of his essays were compiled after Weber's death in 1920, we do not exactly know when he has written his bureaucracy theory. Weber (191...) was the founder of the principle of the classic bureaucracy, in fact a translation of the scientific management to governmental organisations.

Human Relations

In the 1930's, the 'Human Relations' movement emerged and it is a critical reaction to Scientific Management. This view is based on the involvement of employees. The important aspects are: coherence, effort and welfare. Participation of employees is essential, it is expected that they help with finding solutions. An important contribution to this way of management was through the Hawthorne experiments by Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939). One of the summits of this movement is Rensis Likert (1961) who emphasised effective groups and effective leadership. According to Likert (1961), there are four distinct leadership systems within an organisation: System 1 or the exploitative authoritative system, System 2 or the benevolent authoritative system, System 3 or the consultative system and System 4 or the participative system. The four systems move from what is to be believed the worst leadership style to the best. This perspective suggests that certain organisations cherish certain leadership styles, although Likert did acknowledge that each system might be effective given the appropriate situation.

<i>Issue</i>	<i>System 1 “Tells”</i>	<i>System 2 “Sells”</i>	<i>System 3 “Consults”</i>	<i>System 4 “Joins”</i>
Motivation	Fear, treats/punishment, occasional rewards	Rewards and potential punishment	Rewards, some punishment, occasional	Economic rewards, complete involvement
Level of responsibility (by level)	Upper = high, Lower = less, Workers = little	Managers = high, Workers = little	Most feel responsible	Very responsible, goal oriented
Attitude towards others	Wide distrust	Subservient to supervisors, competition with	Cooperative, favourable, but some peer competition	Cooperative, trusting, confident
Satisfaction	Dissatisfaction with supervisors, organization,	Dissatisfaction to moderate satisfaction	Some dissatisfaction to moderately high satisfaction	Relatively high satisfaction
Communication	Downward; subordinates suspicious; high	Mostly downward, some upward distortion	Bidirectional, some initiative at lower levels	All directions at all levels, little distrust
Decision making	Made at top, unaware of lower level problems	Policy decisions at top, approved framework at lower	Policy and general at top, specific at lower levels	Made at all levels, management aware of lower level problems
Performance	Mediocre productivity, high turnover	Fair to good productivity, moderately high	Good productivity, moderate turnover	Excellent productivity, low turnover

Figure 9. Likert's Systems of Leadership (1961)

Human Resource management

Human Resource management developed in the 1950's and 1960's. This view emphasises the psychology and the possibilities of people. The primary assumption is that employees are individuals with different objectives and needs, yet with a common strive to contribute to the organisational process and their main impediments are low education level, insufficient training and failures. Maslow (1954) tried to explain why people act in a certain way. In his hierarchy of needs, five needs exist: physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem and self-actualisation. Work that fulfils these psychological needs, will lead to satisfaction. Particular, the nature and content of the work have to offer this possibility. In his Theory X and Theory Y, McGregor (1960) explains the way in which managers approach and treat their employees is mainly based on their vision of man. In Theory X, the manager believes that employees are lazy by nature. Thus a manager must order and command his employees. In Theory Y, the manager believes that employees are hard workers by nature. Thus a manager can leave his employees to their own devices. The principles of Human Resource management require the organisation to realise that employees need to be satisfied and motivated in order to achieve the objective. Implicit in this view is the acknowledgement of the importance of interaction.

Systems Theory

In the 1970's and 1980's, Systems Theory was developed. It can be regarded as an integration of the Scientific Management movement and the Human Relations management. Its mechanical vision tends to the Scientific Management and the acknowledgement of the complexity and the influence on people tends to the Human Relations management. The Systems Theory regards an organisation as a system which exists of different parts or subsystems. Every subsystem can be associated with other entities; a subsystem could be the employees, management activities or information flows. The entities of the subsystem 'employees' could be their needs and desires. In 1970, the Dutch Systems Group was founded by Albert Hanken, which has made an important contribution to the systems research in the Netherlands. In 1980's, the socio-technical approach was introduced by Ulbo de Sitter in the Netherlands. The socio-technical approach is derived from the Systems Theory and it aims at the improvement of the work process of the employee or organisation through adaptation or the redesign of work functions and the organisation of technical processes.

5.2 Leadership approaches

Over the years, the development of theories and the research concerning leadership has developed different emphasises. In the following sections, four approaches to leadership will be clarified: Character approach, Style approach, Contingency approach and New Leadership. The principle of the Character approach is that leaders had certain universal characteristics which made them leaders. Instead of looking at characteristics, the Style approach focussed on the behavioural style of leaders. The influence of the specific situation is the main principle of the Contingency approach. New Leadership researches the way and the extent to which leaders are capable to motivate and involve employees.

5.2.1 Character approach

Until 1940 the central belief in leadership theory was that leaders are born instead of created, thus the Character approach. People mainly looked at personal characteristics like physical appearance, skills and personality. These characteristics were regarded as stable, natural and applicable in every situation. The Character approach tried to identify and measure specific characteristics which would distinguish leaders from non-leaders in order to create a profile of the ideal leader. During this period, the emphasis lied also on the selection of the right leader (Den Hartog, 1997). Stogdill (1974) doubts the results of the Character approach. Eventually due to the lack of systematic empiric evidence, the trust in the Character approach declined. The result is the rise of the Style approach.

5.2.2 Style approach

Until 1960 the Style approach is the dominant way of thinking. The emphasis does not lay on personal characteristics of a leader, but on his/her behaviour. Selection is regarded as less important; training becomes more important (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Bryman, 1992). The most influential research is performed by researchers from the Ohio State University. They have made a distinction between the ‘consideration style’, where leaders are solicitous and are being trusted by their employees and the ‘initiating structure’, where the leader phrases precisely what the subordinates are supposed to do (Den Hartog, 1997). There is no attention for the difference in perception of leadership style of the interviewees and there were problems with the measurement of results and assumptions (Den Hartog, 1997). Korman

(1966) indicates that there is little consideration for the possibility that a leadership style is being influenced by the situation. Exactly like in other academic disciplines, during these years the Contingency approach emerges.

The Style approach relates to Likert's systems of leadership (1961).

5.2.3 Contingency approach

Since 1980 the Contingency approach has been the successor of the Style approach. A lot of criticism on the first approaches where the main point is the lack of consideration for the situation, has led to the Contingency approach. People do consider external factors, these factors could be regarded as the basis of the approach. The idea is that a leadership style can be successful in one situation while it may not be successful in another situation (Den Hartog, 1997). Different models and instruments have been developed during this period. Fiedler is one of the well-known authors, with his 'contingency model of leadership effectiveness' (Fiedler, 1967). Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977) developed the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), which was very popular, but which had little empirical foundation (Den Hartog, 1997). The most important theory of the Contingency theories is the 'Path-Goal theory' (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974). This theory describes how superiors influence the motivation as well as the satisfaction of subordinates. Also a lot of criticism can be found for this theory, especially with regard to the causality and the measurement methods (Bryman, 1992). The lack of consistent research results lead to the New Leadership approach. Nevertheless, the Contingency approach remains supported by many scientists (Bryman, 1992).

The Contingency approach can be compared to the contextual approach by Boonstra and Bennebroek (1998) and it relates to the Systems Theory.

5.2.4 New Leadership

From 1980 leadership is no longer regarded as a process of influence, but can be viewed as 'management of meaning'. It is the generic name for various different approaches like: inspiring leadership (Bass, 1985), visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989), effective leadership (Covey, 1989), emotional leadership (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002) and authentic leadership (Avolio, Gardner, Walumba, Luthans & May, 2005). The foundation of this approach can be found in a piece by Burns (1978), where he defines transactional and transforming leadership, transformational leadership is added later by Bass (1985). With regard to this, Bass (1985) is very influential and he is one of the few researchers who performed several quantitative researches in lower management. The Full Range Leadership Theory is an active result of the research by Bass. Despite the many names for the New Leadership approaches, many similarities can be found, especially with regard to the possibility of a leader to create an outstanding performance, motivation, respect or loyalty amongst employees (Den Hartog, 1997). It appears, according to Den Hartog (1997), that a trend has developed in the distinction between leadership that is focussed on business, reward and control (transactional leadership) and leadership that is focussed on trust and values like transformational leadership. According to Covey (1989), effective people have seven habits that are the foundation for their personal success and everybody can further develop these habits. Habits consist of knowledge, skill and desire, so the idea, the ability and the motivation to do something. The seven habits move through three stages: dependence, independence and interdependence. The first three habits move from dependence to independence: Habit 1: Be Proactive, Habit 2: Begin with the end in mind, Habit 3: Put first things first. The following three habits address interdependence: Habit 4: Think Win-Win, Habit 5: Seek first to understand then be understood, Habit 6: Synergize. The final habit addresses renewal and continual improvement: Habit 7 : Sharpen the saw. Qualities like Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and experience versus Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ) or Emotional Intelligence (EI) are being researched in order to determine the decisive qualities of leadership. Boyatzis (1982) researched what successful managers find most important to learn when given the chance: emotional leadership. Fourteen of the sixteen competences were emotional competences. Goleman (1995) describes emotional intelligence as the quality to recognize your own emotions as well as the emotions of others as well as the quality to effectively service emotions for yourself as well as in your relations with other people. He determines four groups of competences, the so-called EI domains. When recognizing oneself (self-awareness), we are able to recognize the emotions of others (social awareness), this leads to management: first on personal level (self-management) and secondly on group level

(relationship management). A recent movement in the New Leadership approach is the authentic leadership (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May, 2005). An authentic leader has reached a high level of authenticity in 'knowing who they are', what they believe in and what they stand for. They also act according to these norms and values. Research by Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans and May (2005) indicates that authentic leadership influences the identification of employees on a personal as well as social level, with hope, trust and positive emotions as results. These three factors influence the attitude of employees which in its turn influences behaviour. According to Rebel (to be published), the process of opinion- and decision-making is not a linear process (See figure 10 and 11 for the classical and more modern forms). In social psychology, attitude is often defined as 'enduring evaluations of cognitions'. The evaluation means that the information is measured to the presented 'factors'. Endurance means that attitudes are the result of learning processes where knowledge elements, which is always linked to 'affective' elements, are stored in the memory deposit. Every time an object or situation is presented, a (corresponding) attitude is activated. This is either a primary or secondary affective reaction according to more recent conceptions.

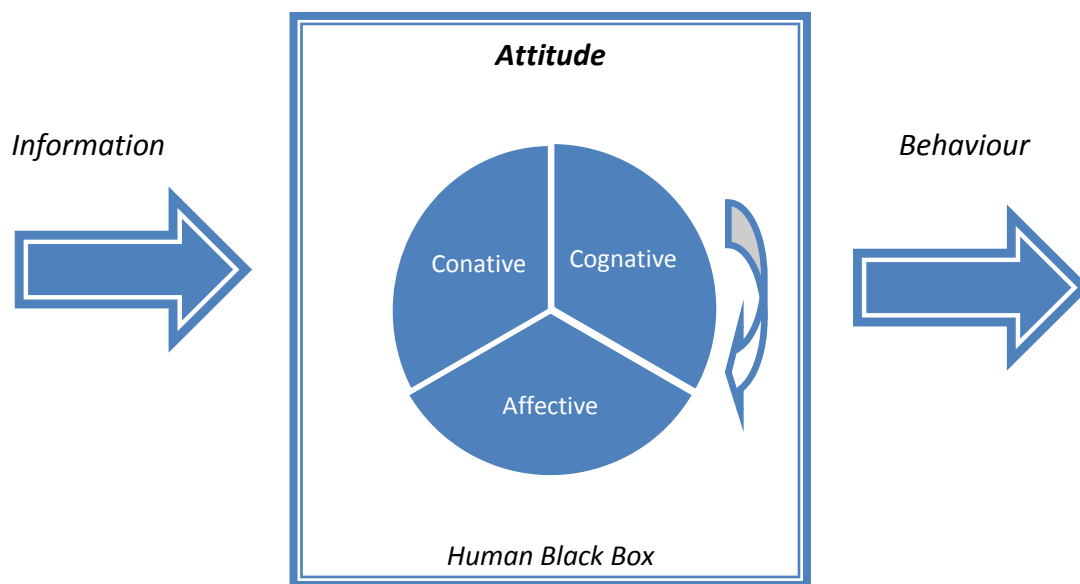


Figure 10. Classic tripartite attitude explanation for human behaviour (Rebel, to be published)

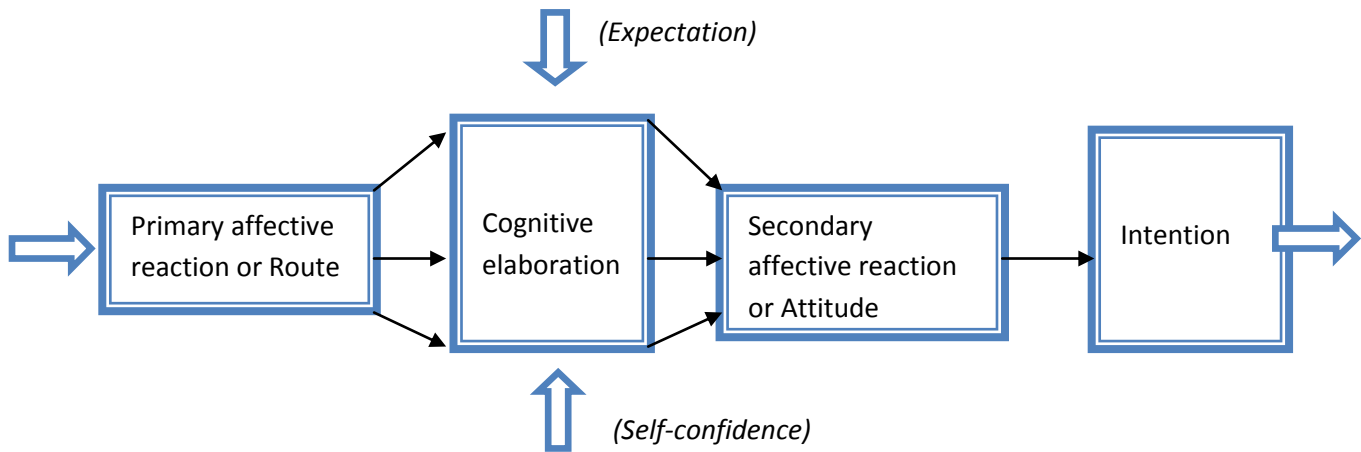


Figure 11. Classical behavioural explanation in Social Psychology (Rebel, to be published)

But, attitude is no longer a linear process from a cognitive perspective. And I will return to this matter in chapter seven, organisational leadership and change.

6. Leadership styles

It is not easy to conclude whether or not the success of an organisation is depending on the manager. There are many variables that affect the success rate of an organisation, like efficiency, service, concept, communication, performance, decision making etcetera.

Likert (1961) could be considered to be the founder of the current leadership approach. Some of the above mentioned variables are incorporated in his theory on leadership. According to Likert (1961), a thriving organisation consists of good cooperation between groups in the organization, this is stimulated by the way of leading.

6.1 Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT)

The Full Range Leadership Theory (Bass, 1985) is one of the New Leadership approaches and is one of the most influential perspectives with regard to inspiring leadership. The Full Range Leadership Theory states three types of leadership styles from active to passive.

6.1.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership limits itself to the control of contractual obligations and is usually characterised by setting objectives, monitoring and inspecting results. Burns (1978) indicates that employees receive value (benefits, status etcetera) if they do what their manager tells them to. This exchange can either be of economical, political or psychological nature and has no higher purpose besides the exchange. There is no bonding between the manager and employees. The manager determines the objectives and guides the employees within the existing organisational systems. This is also called 'maintenance leadership' (Den Hartog, 1997). This is also an example of the 'single loop learning'. This type of leadership is more suitable to maintain the status quo instead of putting change in motion and create willingness to change.

6.1.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership exceeds transactional leadership by motivating and inspiring employees to perform above expectations (Bass, 1985). The theory of transformational leadership predicts an emotional bond between employees and the organisation (House, 1977). According to Bass (1985) the change of the employees can be achieved when the manager can make the employees aware of the value of the objectives, so that employees see the use for the organisation and to adapt to the needs of the employees. It is to be expected that this type of leadership plays an important role during a change process (Schein, 1992).

6.1.3 Laissez-faire Leadership

Transactional and transformational leaders are active leaders because they actively intervene in order to reach objectives (Den Hartog, 1997). Laissez-faire leadership is a passive type of leadership. In general, the manager tries to evade responsibility and decision-making. In this situation, leadership is absent. Various researches indicate that a negative relationship exist between laissez-faire leadership and the characteristics of the employees like productivity and contentment. Nonetheless certain organisations, tasks and employees can reduce the necessity of an active form of leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). The manager with this leadership type shall display a minimal amount of complicity with the organisation (Whitt & Lippitt, 1960) and also with possible changes.

Again, the leadership style depends on the situation. In the case of laissez-faire leadership, the educational level of employees determines whether or not this type is successful. One should moderate instead of trying to lead employees with a high education. Due to their high educational level, they will understand the objectives better and they will thrive in their work, due to the lack of involvement or interference by the leader.

	Target oriented	Not target oriented
Emotional	Transformational	Laissez-faire
Non emotional	Transactional	Indifferent

Figure 12. The Full Range Leadership Theory, slightly adapted from (Bass, 1985)

6.2 Relationship between leadership styles

The transactional leadership style is often in contrast with the transformational leadership style (Den Hartog, 1997), but is also viewed as complementary to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership could also be regarded as a different form of transactional leadership (Den Hartog, 1997). Burns (1978) regards transactional and transformational leadership as two ends of active to passive leadership. On the other hand, Bass (1985) views them as separate dimensions that suggests that a leader cannot be transactional as well as transformational. Bass does agree with the relationship between the types, transformational builds upon transactional leadership, but not vice versa. Transformational leadership could be regarded as a special case of transactional leadership. The difference lies in the process how managers motivate employees and the type of objectives that are chosen (Hater & Bass, 1988). An organisation can be characterized by various sub types of leadership. According to Bass (1985) the transformational leadership style is most effective. Den Hartog (1997) indicates in her research that there is only the difference between active and passive leadership and that the difference between transactional and transformational leadership is artificial. She regards transactional and transformational leadership as two factors within the active leadership style. Nonetheless, Den Hartog (1997) chooses to use the three factors instead of the active-passive difference in the research due to the fact that it is of theoretical importance to acknowledge that difference and to distinguish the differential effect of the two active leadership styles.

6.3 The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People

Currently, Covey is the trend in leadership theory. According to Covey (1989), effective people have seven habits that are the foundation of their personal success and everybody can develop these habits further. Habits consist of knowledge, skill and desire, so *the idea, the ability and the motivation to do something*. According to Covey (1989), effective leadership can be explained with the use of three stages: dependence, independence and interdependence. Most literature concerning leadership values independence, yet most people, groups, environments and situations are interdependent. In order to become interdependent, one need to become independent, because dependent people cannot become interdependent. The first stage consists of the first three habits that are aimed at personal and individual development. They enable people to become independent. Habits 4, 5 and 6 concern the acknowledgement of mutual dependence. The realization that one needs effective

collaboration to become successful and one can contribute to the success of others. The mutual acknowledgement can lead to a better cooperation. The seventh habit concerns the development and maintenance of the other six habits as well as the ability to inspire. The ability to inspire completes the model.

The first three habits move from dependence to independence:

- Habit 1: Be Proactive
Be proactive, do not wait for others to say what to do, but start working. Take the initiative. Do not worry about things that you cannot influence, but work on thing that you can influence.
- Habit 2: Begin with the end in mind
Know what you want to achieve and work constantly to reach your destination. Determine which principles you want to utilize during the process.
- Habit 3: Put first things first
Try to reach your destination step by step. Do not try to do everything at the same time and set priorities.

The following three habits address interdependence:

- Habit 4: Think Win-Win
Do not think and act according to shortage, tolerate the success of others. Your success does not have to exist at the cost of others.
- Habit 5: Seek first to understand then be understood
Put yourself in the place of others and try to understand them. Listen to others, only then you will be understood.
- Habit 6: Synergize
Acknowledge the fact that people are different and from synergy, search for alternative solutions in order to prevent unnecessary conflicts.

The final habit addresses renewal and continual improvement:

- Habit 7: Sharpen the saw
Strive for continuous improvement. Not to subside and do not be content too soon. Remain focused.

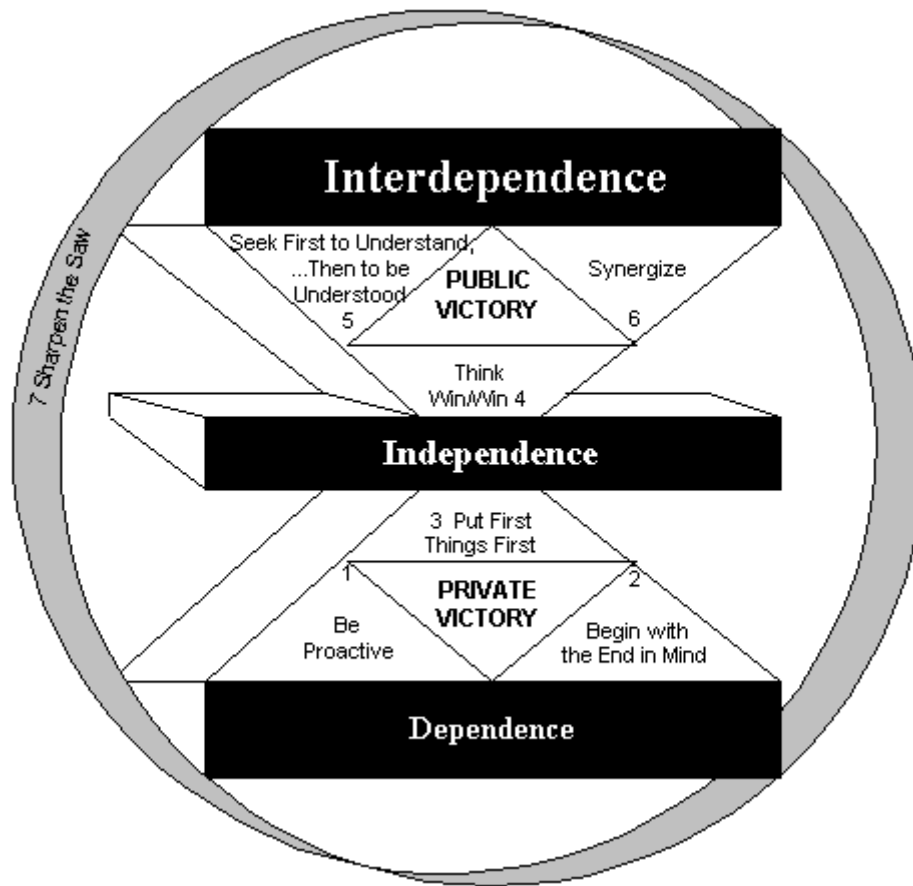


Figure 13. The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People (Covey, 1989)

Recently, Covey (2004) has introduced his eighth habit: the ability of people to live to their full potential and to inspire others to do the same. This eighth habit is an important addition to the seven habits for effective leadership.

7. Organisational leadership and change

Guiding a change process is a complex matter. Change processes demand a lot from people who work in organisations, since they have to deal with uncertainties and resistance against change (De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2002).

The research area concerning the behaviour of organisations is Organisational Behaviour. According to Kreitner (2005), organisational behaviour is defined as an “interdisciplinary field dedicated to better understanding and managing people at work”. Three levels are described: the behaviour of individuals, groups and social and organisational processes. Especially the behaviour of employees is relevant for this research.

At individual level, the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1991) appears to have a great predicting value in the explanation of the behaviour of employees. The behaviour that a person displays depends on his intention to display certain behaviour and the present possibilities that might invoke that behaviour; possibilities in it and in the environment in which he is situated. In short, a person shall display behaviour when he wants to and if it is possible.

According to Ajzen (1991), the intention to do something depends on three elements: attitude, subjective norm and perceived behaviour control:

1. Attitude: What attitude has a person regarding certain behaviour, positive/negative? This attitude is determined by a scale of factors, previous experiences, personality characteristics, the level of development of different intelligences, values.
2. Subjective norm: What norms and values are present in the groups that are important to the individual? The social pressure that a person experiences in order to display the intended behaviour in the future. In general, the reason for this social pressure are friends, family or in case of this research colleagues. People try to press their own norms and values on an individual or in case of this research the norms and values of the organisation. When colleagues are enthusiastic about the personal development, the participant shall probably also be enthusiastic to develop his behaviour in the future.
3. Perceived behaviour control: Whether a person perceives possibilities to certain behaviour, it also depends on whether he believes in his capability to display the behaviour, either due to his own skills or due to the possibilities that are created by the environment. When one believes that it is hard to fish or when one believes that is hard to get a fishing permit, the intention to fish will decrease.

Between intention and behaviour, there is also the actual possibility to display certain behaviour. In the right situation, the intention can be present, but the behaviour cannot be displayed.

According to Kreitner (2005), this model can be implemented by managers or others who want to change the behaviour of employees.

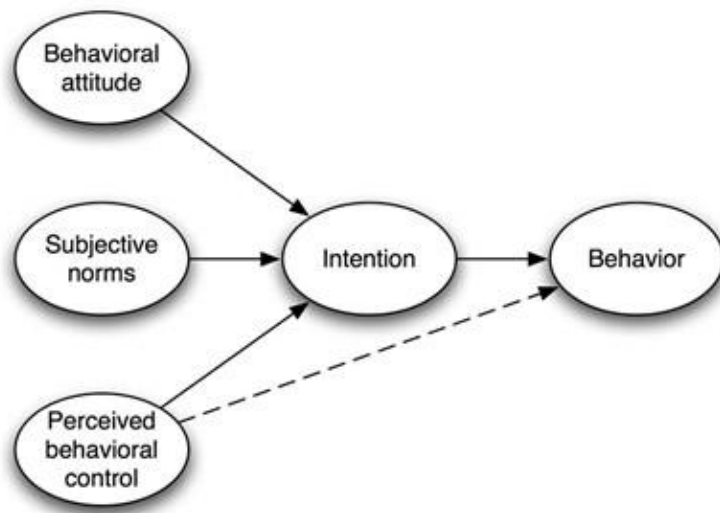


Figure 14. Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

Rebel's (to be published) model of Cognitive Explanation of Behaviour shows some similarities to Ajzen's (1991) model of Planned Behaviour. Ajzen's (1991) theory covers the social psychological approach to behaviour while Rebel's (to be published) theory covers the cognitive psychological approach to behaviour. Cognitive sciences have reached a consensus about the description of the general model of behavioural decision-making process which exists of four stages:

Perception – Evaluation – Projection – Intention —→ Behaviour

Figure 15. The general model of behavioural decision-making process

Perception represents the 'input' of a message, *Evaluation* represents the following personal considerations concerning the 'use in the light of one's own norms and values', *Projection* represents the (normative) expectation regarding the reaction of the social environment and during the *Intention* stage, the three values will be assessed: likability (the shape of the message), usability (the core message/object) and feasibility (the own behaviour regarding the object).

According to Rebel (ibid.), every stage of the first three stages does not stand on its own, but is imbedded in cognitive structures like perception systems, self-systems and role systems.

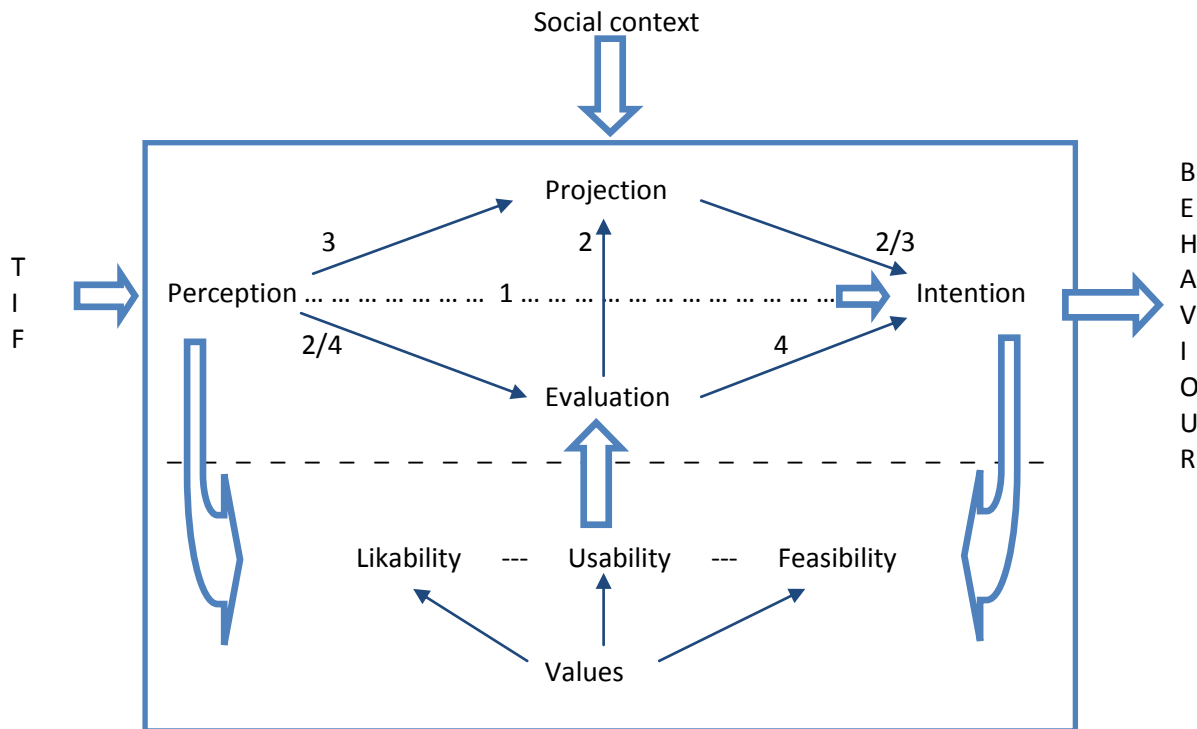


Figure 16. Cognitive Explanation of Behaviour (Rebel, to be published)

One has to determine the current behaviour and the recognition of the behaviour is decisive for the adjustment, change or ending of certain behaviour. Every situation demands its own approach.

According to Rebel (ibid.), the choice of behaviour begins with a cause, the *Perception* of a ‘total information flow’ or TIF. The following stage (*Evaluation*) compares the experience with the norms and values and thus comes to a temporary reaction. During the third stage (*Projection*) the question arises whether or not the temporary reaction will be accepted by the social environment/context. In fourth and final stage (*Intention*), all three previous stages come together and a choice of behaviour is determined. Which influence shall have the upper hand, depends on the level of introvercy (*Evaluation*) as well as extravercy (*Projection*) of the situation. Even if there is a resolve to react in the given situation, non-influential contexts can interfere with the *Intention*. Regarding the values likability, usability and feasibility are influenced by *Perception* as well as *Intention* and all values influence the *Evaluation*.

7.1 Relationship leadership styles and willingness to change

Chapters three, five and six give an overview of the research subjects that form the foundation of this dissertation. In this chapter the relationship between the leadership styles of the Full Range Leadership Theory and the willingness to change shall be discussed in order to answer the last sub question.

7.1.1 Leadership styles and attitude

The transformational leadership theories predict an emotional bond between the employees and the organisation and a perception of the emotions and motivation (House & Aditya, 1997). According to Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam (2001), transformational leadership is focused on the relationship between management and employees, where the manager motivates by stimulating involvement. Transformational leadership stimulates the feeling that the group objective is more important than the individual objective (Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001). In this situation, a direct influence of transformational leadership on a dimension of attitude can be found.

The attitude of an employee regarding a proposed change is naturally influenced by many more causes than only the style of leadership.

Transactional leadership is focused on the transaction between the employee and the manager and not on the way of functioning or the employee's development due to motivation or inspiration. Besides this, transactional leadership is more focused on the preservation of the current situation. The expectancy is that transactional shall not contribute, but also shall not harm the attitude of an employee regarding a proposed change.

Passive or laissez-faire leadership is almost the absence of leadership. A manager evades decision making. In organisations where such leaders are active, the personnel shall have to make decisions. According to Bass (1990), there is a negative connection between laissez-faire leadership and a scale of performance, dedication and attitude indicators. As mentioned in chapter 6.1.3, the leadership style depends on the situation. In the case of laissez-faire leadership, the educational level of employees determines whether or not this type is successful. Employees with a high education should be moderated. Due to the lack of involvement or interference by the leader, they will thrive in their work.

7.1.2 Leadership styles and subjective norm

Transformational leadership has to deal with inter alia the projection of an idealised vision on employees and the display that this vision is feasible (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Thus, a transformational leader shall take a positive position regarding a change, but he shall not apply pressure to cooperate with the change.

Transactional leadership is the type of leadership focussed on the transaction. The transactional leader limits himself to the control on contractual obligations and is often characterized by setting objectives, monitoring and controlling results. A transactional leader will only take action when disobedience occurs or when mistakes have taken place. Thus, this type of leadership is more suitable to keep the situation stable than to put change in motion. A transactional leader will not influence the subjective norm unless cooperation with the change is a contractual obligation. Considering the autonomy that employees have in the primary working process, it is improbable that the obligation to change is recorded. Thus, transactional leadership shall have no effect on the subjective norm.

A laissez-faire leader evades decision making and taking responsibility and thus shall pronounce no preference for or against change. The leader shall hold on to a neutral position and he will be waiting for someone else in the organisation to pronounce a preference. The combination between the start of a change, yet not actively supporting it, has a negative effect on the subjective norm.

7.1.3 Leadership styles and perceived behaviour control

Transformational leadership is about the motivation and inspiration of employees in order to have them perform above expectation (Bass, 1985). The underlying factors clearly show a relationship with the behaviour control. Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam, (2001) also state that the transformational leader stimulates by the stimulation of confidence through which the employee will be confident that he can handle the change. A transformational leader appeals to the logic and the analytical thinking of employees by challenging them to think creatively and find solutions for difficult problems (Antonakis Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Through this, the knowledge and experience of employees shall increase and the perceived complexity shall decrease. Furthermore, according to Antonakis Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003), the transformational leader shall contribute to the satisfaction of the employee by supporting them, advising and listening to individual needs. Possible uncertainties or lack of information can be prevented by this. Also Wanrooy (2001) states that the provision of information is an important side condition. The thought behind this is that professionals want to be taken seriously and thus want to be kept up to date of all matters that have influence on their work and the organisation.

Following McGregor's XY theory (1960), Burns (1978) indicates that the employees receive merit goods (salary, status etcetera) when they follow the transactional leader's instructions. This exchange can be of economical, political or psychological nature and has no higher purpose after the exchange. No bond develops between the manager and the employees. The manager is mainly engaged with the determination of objectives and the guidance of employees within the existing systems and is also called 'maintenance leadership' (Den Hartog, 1997). The guidance of the manager is characterized by 'adjustment' when people deviate from the norm. Thus, the manager is not actively busy with seeing to that the employee gets the feeling that he has enough control on the change. For a transactional leader, maintaining the level of knowledge is a matter for the employee. Since the employee is regarded as a professional who has gained knowledge during an education, it is probable that transactional leadership shall have influence on the perceived behaviour control.

Laissez-faire leaders will provide little information concerning the planned change due to the lack of involvement and the tendency of evading decision making. This will have a negative effect on how the employees experience the information provision. Due to this, the dimension 'information and uncertainty' will be negatively influenced.

7.1.4 Leadership styles and willingness to change

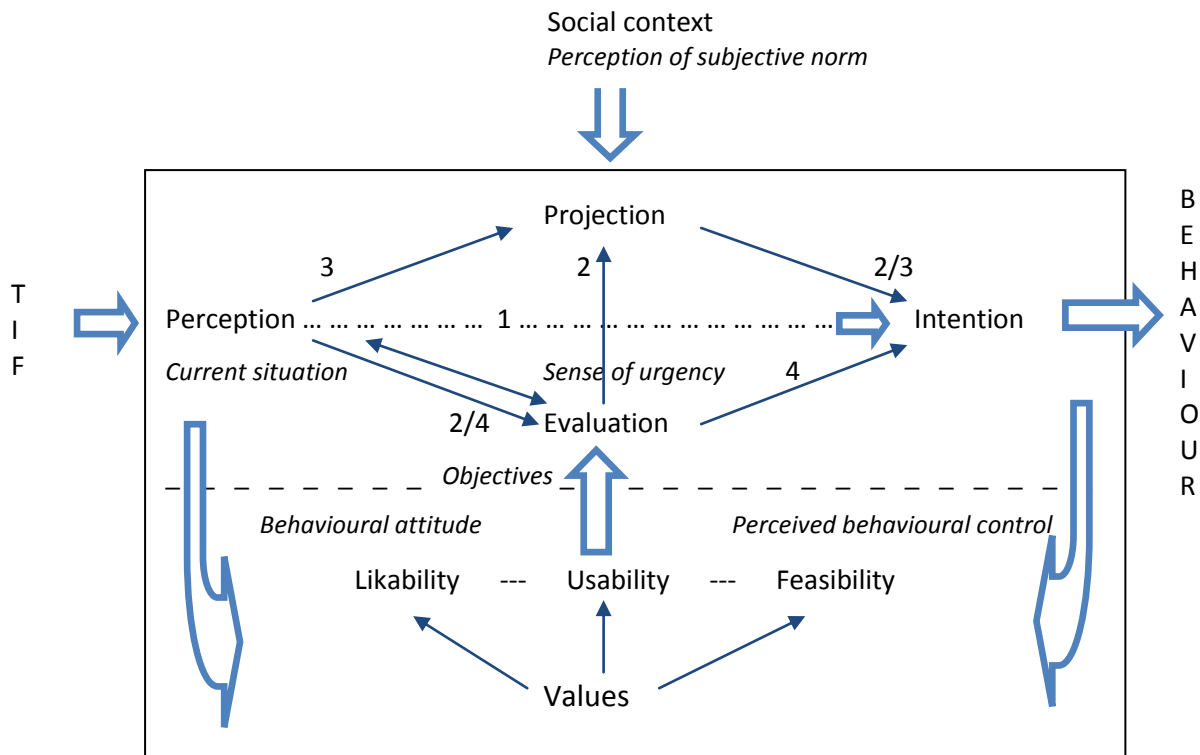


Figure 17. Cognitive Explanation of Behaviour (Rebel, to be published), adapted to the relationship between leadership styles and the willingness to change

In the beginning of this chapter, the Cognitive Explanation of Behaviour (Rebel, *ibid.*) was briefly explained. With regard to the various change strategies, I would like to compare the parts of this model to the found factors regarding the development of a change strategy. One could compare the *Perception* with the *Current Situation*. *Evaluation* could be compared to the *Objectives* and the *Sense of urgency*, in other words the desired results and the necessity to change. The *Social context* could be compared with the *Perception of subjective norm*, so the position of the leader regarding the change. Regarding the values, *Likability* could be compared to *Behavioural attitude*, in other words the attitude towards the leader and/or change. *Feasibility* could be compared to *Perceived behavioural control*, so the level of involvement of the leader. One has to determine the current behaviour ('Total Information Flow') and the recognition of the behaviour is decisive for the adjustment, change or ending of certain behaviour. Every leadership style and/or situation demands its own change strategy.

7.2 Sub conclusion

Both the leadership styles of the Full Range Leadership Theory and the willingness to change rely on the situation. The change strategy depends on the situation in which the intended change has to take place.

It is of theoretical importance to acknowledge the difference between the active-passive leadership styles and to distinguish the differential effect of the two active leadership styles (Den Hartog, 1997). There are multiple change strategies, but during an organisational change process, there is always one strategy dominant. In the Full Range Leadership Theory, one can act differently in the same situation according to the leadership style; this does not mean that the action is wrong. While during the development of a change strategy, every situation has a few appropriate change strategies to choose from.

	Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership	Laissez-faire leadership
Attitude	Relationship between employees and organisation	Preservation of the current situation	Passive leadership, employees make decisions
Subjective norm	Pro-change	No effect/keeping the current situation stable	Neutral position
Perceived behavioural control	High information provision concerning the change	Medium information provision concerning the change	Little to no information provision concerning the change

Figure 18. Relationship between leadership styles and willingness to change

8. Conclusion

This chapter starts with a feedback to the research objective after which an answer will be given to the problem definition. Finally this chapter will conclude with some comments and a reflection regarding the research.

In the beginning of this dissertation the research objective was stated as ‘gaining insight into the influence of the Full Range Leadership Theory on the advice of organisational advisors regarding change strategies’. Through the findings resulting from the answers of the sub questions, the research objective is obtained.

There are multiple change strategies, but during an organisational change process, there is always one strategy dominant. In the Full Range Leadership Theory, one can act differently in the same situation according to the leadership style; this does not mean that it is the wrong action. Change is more than the development and the implementation of a plan. The change strategy functions as a guideline, but it must not be limited by beforehand programmed interventions which people stick to. Change engineers do not have to focus on how to reach a consensus, but they have to focus on reflection, feedback and adaptation. By involving people with different preferences in the development and the guidance of change processes, a better balance can be realised in the overall process.

The other intention of this research was finding the solution to the problem definition of this dissertation. The problem definition was formulated in the following question: *Is the Full Range Leadership Theory a basis for advice regarding change strategy?*

The answer is yes. The Full Range Leadership Theory stands for taking action according to the situation and leadership style. From the literature, it is becomes clear that the situation is a determinant for which change strategy should be advised. The development of a change strategy is, according to the literature used, dependent on seven factors, which one can interpret as *the situation*. These factors can be subdivided according to Covey’s (1989) three stages of effective leadership: 1. Dependence, 2. Independence and 3. Interdependence.

1. *The Objectives, the current position and the difference between current and intended.*
2. *Resistance and blockades, the style of the change engineer and experience.*
3. *The cause of the change.*

Advice on change strategies utilizes the statement that which change strategy is advised is dependent on the situation in which this strategy is applied. One may conclude that the Full Range Leadership Theory forms a basis for advice regarding change strategy.

Concerning this answer, one should bear in mind that one principle of the Full Range Leadership Theory cannot be found in the advice regarding change strategies. It concerns the principle that there is not one best way to act, but it is a principle in Systems Theory: equifinality. From the results found in the literature, *I have found that in the case of change strategies, less value is attached to the lack of repetition of this principle in the advice regarding change strategies than to the repetition of situational thinking. Both the leadership styles of the Full Range Leadership Theory and the change strategy depend on the situation in which the intended change has to take place.*

Comments

Even though the Full Range Leadership Theory is widely accepted by scientists (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), also critics can be found. It especially concerns the dimensions of the leadership styles. Over the past years, these have been adjusted frequently. Also Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) have recently implemented a validation of the dimension structure where they can retrace the dimensions, but argue that the context factors like environment risk, gender of the leader and follower and the hierarchical level of the leader, are not or less taken into account. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) found evidence for the addition of a number of dimensions to transformational leadership, like vision and personal acknowledgement.

In short, there exists, among most scientists, a consensus about the existence of the three types of leadership styles and their characteristics. There is a debate concerning whether or not transactional and transformational leadership are complementary or supplementary as well as the division in passive and active leadership to the theory of Likert (1961) for example. Besides that, the dimension structure has been revised multiple times and it remains a source of constant research and adjustments and/or expansions.

Reflexion

At the end of this research, when one looks back on the manner how this research has been achieved, a comment regarding the research steps forward. This research was limited by the fact that it has not been researched empirically. No reconstruction has taken place of how organisational advisors develop an advice regarding change strategy.

For further research regarding this subject, it would be advisable to reconstruct change strategy advises in order to see how these advises have been developed and to see if the results found in this research add up in an empirical case study. Also one could interview organisational advisors who advise on organisational change. In order to research if they use other factors to develop a change strategy and if they let the situation determine the change strategy.

Further research could also focus on an attempt to develop a leadership theory regarding change strategy. Such a theory could only be developed after an extended empirical research like a large number of case studies and reconstructions of the development of a change strategy.

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