

Márk István Gál

**Leadership – Organizational Culture in the light of Public
Management reform models**

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Doctoral School of Political Science

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PhD thesis

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PART I. - Introduction

1. Outlining the topic and the main research questions

“In the literature we often meet with the statement that there is a relationship between leadership and organizational culture” (Gál, 2012, p.25), that they represent “two sides of the same coin” (Schein, 2004, p.10). “However the literature lacks of comprehensive, quantitative methods, based on evidence that leadership and organizational culture have an influence on each other. Furthermore there are few instances (e.g. books, papers) which give evidence that the leadership style can allow us to tell what will be the organizational culture of an organization and/or institution, or that within a certain organizational culture, what are the leadership styles which are accepted or rejected within that culture” (Gál, 2012, p.25).

Although the topic in itself may seem as too broad in scope, the aim is to start from a macro level (general view of leadership) and then to gradually focus on a particular type of leadership – which represents the main interest of this paper – which is entitled as “administrative leadership” (micro level).

Placing the topic within an administrative context, is important because if we would compare the number of scientific materials between “business” and “administrative” leadership we can see that there is a significant difference in favour of the first one, thus beside the exploration of characteristics between the two concepts (leadership – organizational culture) and their relationship, it is necessary to place this in a public management reform setting due to the fact that different reform model types are requiring different leadership styles which are influencing in a different aspect/way organizational culture.

From a methodological standpoint within the practical part of this paper in order to measure leadership and organizational culture I will mainly (only one part of the original questionnaire has been changed – see appendix 1.1) operate with the survey instrument developed by the IIAS (International Institute of Administrative Sciences) – study group on Administrative Leadership (appendix 1.2). The only change made to this instrument was in its first building block, where questions from the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) project survey were built in to get a better sense of the organizational culture in the analyzed institutions.

From a practical standpoint: the papers practical usability can be also shown by the fact if it makes leaders realize their own culture shaping (forming) effect and respectively if

they decide to change from one organization to another they can be confronted with the fact that some leadership styles are accepted, while others are less.

In spite of the fact that the increase in literature on organizational culture is less typical in our days, and leadership research is not so intensive in the contemporary “organizational literature”, the link between the two concepts and the features of their connection is still not very clear.

Because of this the aims of my dissertation are as follows:

- to reveal those characteristics of leadership – organizational culture which are indicating the relationship between the two;
- to place the leadership styles (met in practice) in a public management reform context;

In order to reach these aims a research was carried out in two different stages (although I wanted to maintain a close timeframe as possible between the two), the first which focused on public institutions – on a local level – (governments, schools, public works) in Hungary and the second stage involved public institutions in Romania. Hence a comparative study was carried out to evaluate the potential similarities and differences of administrative leadership using a comparative assessment (survey) instrument based on the IIAS-Administrative leadership study group’s questionnaire and partly using the GLOBE study.

It is without a doubt that the topic in itself comes with a great number of research questions. One of the most relevant questions is to discover “*what kind of leadership types and/or styles appear in the Hungarian and Romanian leadership practice*” (Gál, 2012). The answer to this question will lead to a list of the most common (frequently met) leadership styles which are actually used in real-life practice within the public sector in both countries. This will be obtained with the help of the 3rd and 4th “building blocks” from the questionnaire (see appendix 1) where two different approaches were used in order to have a better description of the style(s) of leadership that a certain leader uses. The first approach examines administrative leadership style according to interactions, attitude toward the external environment, etc. while the second approach focuses on the transactional versus transformational leadership is based on the MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire).

The second important question of this research is concerned with *what kind of organizational culture types can be outlined in the case of the Hungarian and Romanian public institutions* (Gál, 2012). Here I have turned to the assistance of the Globe study because in their instrument they have used a number of questions which focused on discovering the different elements of the organizational culture.

After having a list of both of the types of the organizational culture that the analyzed institutions belong to and leadership styles which appear in practice, another question arises which also carries a high level of importance especially in regards to the part of this study which focuses on the characteristics between leadership and organizational culture. The question is *does the organizational-administrative level determine what kind of style(s) should a leader adapt inside the organization*. If so, this will not only result in obtaining characteristics which are indicating a relationship between the two main concepts of this dissertation but also it can serve as a practical guidance to the leaders in the way that they will know what are the most common types of leadership which will probable results in a more favourable response from the employees.

“Based on the accepted/rejected leadership styles *can we then predict the specific characteristics of a given organizational culture?*” (Gál, 2012) This question also wishes to address the fact of whether or not there is a stronger relationship between leadership and organizational culture, than merely a random one.

2. The structure of the thesis

The structure of the dissertation is as follows. First, in the next part (**Part II**), I build the theoretical framework by discussing what we mean by leadership in general, followed by a more narrow focus on administrative leadership. Later in this chapter I will use three pillars (the past, the present, the future) which will present the most relevant theories of leadership. In **Part III** the focus shifts on the second main element of this study – organizational culture, by describing the dimensions of culture and typology set up by Charles Handy who’s approach may help us in understanding why we have been more comfortable in some organizations than others. The last element of this part is concerned about the role of leadership in culture building and evolving. Here the already mentioned GLOBE study will be presented briefly because it is seen as being a pioneer research within the field even if it focuses mainly on the private sector.

Part IV presents the public management reform models which are used inside this paper and research.

Part V contains the first part of the analysis by offering an overview first, of the IIAS-study group’s work on Administrative Leadership (of which research I am also an active member) and second, by illustrating the research model on which the research questions and hypotheses

are based upon. Finally the two cases (Hungary, Romania) are presented in-detail (description of the research, together with the results).

The last part of the paper (***Part VI***) offers a comparative summary, based on which the conclusions of the research can be drawn.

PART II. - Theoretical overview: Leadership typologies

If we take a look at any kind of a research, we will see that as a primary step you cannot avoid to review and to present the most determining literature materials on the given area. The same thing will happen in this paper because as a starting point I consider it to be necessary to present the most relevant leadership theories and aspects of an organizational culture before I move further with the analysis of the relationship between the two. This overview is not intended to be comprehensive, but rather focusing on the essence. Instead of me detailing an endless number of theories and studies - which by the way are many - this present overview wishes to focus on the most relevant theories for this study.

3. What is Leadership?

A fundamental and often repetitive (sometimes seen as an eternal) question: “What is leadership?” Examining this question a number of researchers, university professors until this day cannot seem to manage to get to a common denominator, all of this happens because a concept is given which does not have an accepted Hungarian equivalent (note: in the English language there is also a debate on how scholars tend to interpret this term). Some authors say that the leadership, as a concept and theme, appeared in the antiquity (Bass, 1990) but the social science research began only in the 1930s. If we look at the researches done on the topic over the years, we can find lots of theory, definitions and research which differ greatly, depending on how you define leadership, how you approach the leadership process, and how do you try to measure it. The research is wide-ranging, and the briefing between them is being helped by different presentation summaries which appear from time to time and they include the history of the research area and the current status of the analysis. All of this is mainly due to the fact that the notion of leadership is very complex, many scholars and researchers consider that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Yukl, 1989; Bass, 1990, p.11).

The following criteria's are the most representative for this analysis and summaries:

1. The definitions of leadership analysis and classification (Yukl, 1989). These approaches are analyzing the similarities and differences in definitions of leadership. The overviews most commonly highlight the diversity of the definitions, the heterogeneity of the multitude of definitions, the definitions of certain conceptual imprecision and the hidden assumptions behind the definitions. (E.g. Alvesson, 1996).

2. A historical overview of the development of leadership theories. (E.g. House, 1997; Bakacsi, 1996). Some authors almost always implement the historical overviews by the help of the “paradigms”; the sequence analysis of this paradigm in most cases is done with the appearance of some historical research trends. The predominant paradigms: theories related to traits management, theories that examine the behaviour of the leaders, contingency theories, “new theories” (House & Aditya, 1997; Bakacsi, 1996).
3. Dichotomies and differentiations. These overviews are also defining paradigms and these paradigms are put in pairs and they are set to analyze the similarities and differences (Yukl, 1999). Some typical dichotomies: management vs. leadership (Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 2004), task- vs. relationship-oriented, autocratic vs. participatory leadership, traditional leadership paradigm vs. new leadership paradigm (Hunt, 1999).

Besides the definition and conceptual debate which can be found in international literature; the Hungarian language, due to translation and specific terminology difficulties, constitutes the reason for diverse interpretation.

“The Anglo-Saxon roots of the words lead, leader, and leadership is *laed*” (Gál, 2012) which is equal with the words “path” or “road”. The verb *eaden* signifies “to travel”. Therefore a leader is the person who shows fellow travellers the way by setting the path which the others should/will follow. Sadly, the clarity of *leadership*’s origin is rarely matched with the clarity of meaning. Several books, papers and articles “claiming to delineate leadership proliferate, yet their conclusions can be confusing and even conflicting” (Kets de Vries, 1998). For instance the *Handbook of Leadership* (Stogdil, 1974) presents seventy-two definitions proposed by researchers between 1902 and 1967. Most leadership definitions are emphasizing the following main elements: *influence, group, aim*. Based on the high number of definitions we can affirm that leadership “from the organizational resources, deals in a distinguished way with the human resource and it is the ability of how the leader can influence, mobilize the members of the organization in order to achieve the organizational goals” (Bakacsi, 2004, p.214).

We can find other and other implicit assumptions behind the single definitions. One good example of this is, that the theories define leadership as whether an ability/a characteristic/a skill or a process (Karácsonyi, 2006, p.10). Defining it as ability puts an

emphasis on the leaders' person and thus points into the direction of the characteristic theories, while the definition as a process provides more space to the success of the contextual factors.

Some of the definitions differ accordingly whether they grasp the essence of leadership as the characteristics and behaviour of the leader or his behaviour and the different positional factors. We may find other definitions which describe leadership through the influencing ability of a leader, while others use the power of the leader and its sources as a determining viewpoint. There are definitions, according to which the leadership is not other "than a social influence process, which comes into existence without anybody calling one of the group members a leader in a group", while according to others leadership is a social integrating process, the appearance and transmission of the organizational culture, of the values residing in it and of beliefs and presuppositions (Alvesson, 1992; In: Karácsonyi, 2006, p.10).

In order of avoiding conceptual disturbances in the present dissertation I will use the term of leadership for naming the process, in course of which "an individual influences, motivates and makes capable others in order to achieve the goals of the organization" (House & Javidan, 2004).

4. What is Administrative Leadership?

What does "administrative leadership" entitle? To whom are we referring as "administrative leaders? This and several other (similar) questions have brought us to the importance and therefore relevance of this sub-chapter.

"As an important subfield of leadership, administrative leadership (Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang, 2008) refers to the leaders of public sector organizations no matter whether they are the chief executive officers or employees functioning as lead workers" (Pearce and Conger 2003). Unfortunately – as often real-life experiences show - public organizations are often slow to address new problems, are dealing with all kinds of constraints, and have short time frames – usually election to election. In order to handle these complicated issues, public leaders have to be able to start acting not only within their own organization but also with a set of other partners who can have different stakes and interests.

In placing "public" in front of leadership development, we are narrowing the scope to public service organizations and leaders. By public service we specifically mean those working in public organizations, although we recognize that expanded notions of governance

mean expanded notions of what constitutes public and who constitutes the public service (ed. Ricardo S. Morse and Terry F. Buss, 2008, p.5). Leadership for public purposes includes leading public organizations and leading in collaborative settings for the public or common good.

Another challenge in studying administrative leadership is that it is exercised in a political context, where the role of ministers plays an important part. Therefore the “authority to lead” in a public setting (organizations) is given to political functionaries and senior civil servants. On the “other side of the coin” this is the main distinguishing feature of the public service in comparison with the private sector.

The development of administrative leadership as a subfield was always trying to catch up with the field in general, but recently it started to “mature” (Van Wart, 2013).

For the sake of specification it is necessary to illustrate the different leadership types and the relationship between them – although this does not constitute a plan or a goal of this current thesis, rather it should be considered as a somewhat analytic tool which helps us to distinguish the administrative leadership (what this current paper studies) from other types (which ones are not studied in this paper) or to unpack the implicit assumptions related to generic leaders expectations.

Figure 1: Relationship between types of leadership (based on Van Wart’s graph)

GENERIC LEADERSHIP: An unconscious combination or average of values and styles preferred and demonstrated in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business leadership • Civic leadership • Political leadership • Administrative leadership 		
	Collaborative Sensibility	Competitive Sensibility
Solving Public Problems	Civic & religious leadership	Political leadership
Implementing Solutions to Meet Public Needs	<i>Administrative leadership</i>	Business leadership

We believe that public leadership is distinctive and that generic treatments of leadership are not sufficient for the public leaders navigating the “transformation of governance” (Kettl,

2002). Often leadership in public administration is based on private sector leadership theories and practice as they have several shared characteristics such as: traits, values and/or behaviours that an individual possesses; the ability of influencing (motivating) others, etc.

The OECD for example has focused greatly on the importance of public sector leadership in relation to good governance. OECD works describe the role of public leaders as: “to solve the problems and challenges faced in a specific environment. When we say we want more leadership in the public sector, what we are really looking for is people who will promote institutional adaptations in the public interest. Leadership in this sense is not value neutral. It is a positive espousal of the need to promote certain fundamental values that can be called public spiritedness.” (OECD, 2001)

Although the balance is imperfect between the literature on leadership with focus on the public sector and of that in the private sector while it heavily takes us towards the latter one, it should be noted that there is still a great amount of work in head of those who wish to journey on the sea of administrative leadership. However this also presents a challenge which this dissertation wishes to take on to a certain degree. Thus the question arises what important contributions were made to develop a public-sector leadership literature? This question is more than relevant since the answer will help us to have a general overview on the literature, plus it will take us closer to a definition of what we mean by administrative leadership. Therefore the literature should be sorted in three perspectives. This will also provide a support to the previous classification (used in fig.1).

The first perspective is the *political leadership* which focuses on political leaders. Here by “leader” we refer to “people in government with positional authority who are legislators or senior executives” (eds. Morse, R. et.al, 2007). The majority of the public leadership literature is represented by this perspective and it examines the behaviour of top government leaders (Kellerman & Webster, 2001).

The second category (public) *organizational leadership* emphasizes formal leadership within public organizations (from the line supervisor on up). A relevant scholarly work which is aimed directly at organizational leaders in the public sector is a textbook from Van Wart, entitled *Dynamics of Leadership in Public Service* (2005).

Finally the third perspective which can be labelled as *administrative leadership* – although there are some who have labelled it as “leadership for the common good” (Crosby & Bryson, 2005) focuses not so much on public “leaders”, rather it deals with the process of creating public value inside and outside of the government. Thus we can refer to

administrative leadership as a process that goes beyond public organizations and beyond formal leaders. Although formal leaders still play a determining role there is a bigger emphasis on those that lead from the “middle” (the so-called mid-level managers) as opposed to the “top” level managers.

There is no need to debate whether we can clearly delineate these three perspectives from each other or not because there is a considerable overlap among them; the important question here is really a matter of focus. The first emphasizes the political success, another the organizational, while the third one on solving public problems.

Another approach to review the existing literature on leadership is to examine the different types of theories which can be found in the mainstream literature and which managed to generate attention and acknowledgement from scholars during different time periods. The classification can be split into three “pillars”:

- the “PAST” or the traditional approaches to leadership;
- the “PRESENT” or the contemporary perspectives;
- the (possible) “FUTURE” or the next generation of leadership;

Due to the many and diverse leadership theories I will only focus (and present) on those which are relevant to this current dissertation.

5. The traditional approaches to the study of leadership

The traditional leadership paradigm theories can be grouped in the following categories:

1. Personality-theories of a leader: the characteristic of these theories is that the factors leading to successful leadership are being searched in the qualities/abilities and skills of a leader.
2. Theories that emphasize the behaviour of the leader: the particularity of these theories is that in their research they focus on an aspect of the leader’s behaviour.
3. Contingency theories: these theories are trying to put together the leader’s behaviour and various situational factors.

When reviewing the theories, besides giving a short content description I will analyze the theories under a single set of criteria. I determined the categories of criteria in a way that they contain the essential questions of leadership research. In the analysis I’m using the following criteria’s:

1. The different modes of influencing a leader (e.g. the characteristics which shape the relationship between the leader and its followers). By this category I would like to

examine whether the theory or the group of theory what states about the methods and focus of the leaders influence. A leader can influence individuals, groups or organizations either separately or simultaneously.

2. Capturing and operationalizing leadership. In this category I consider whether how do some of the theories capture and describe the essence of the leadership, how do they operationalize the concept, and how do they define leadership as a process consisting of consecutive steps.
3. Research and methods of measurement: the category helps to look through that what kind of measurement method belongs to a particular theory or to an operationalized theory of leadership concept.

5.1. *Personality-theories*

The trend that focuses on the personality of a leader was trying to find a wide variety of properties by examining the characteristics of successful leaders. Research was done on the exterior qualities, abilities and skills, social background, intelligence and the role of the personality, tasks and roles of social relations.

Before having a more detailed look into the personality-theories the following table presents the essential (defining) elements of this group of theory based on the system of criteria which was proposed earlier:

Table 1: The overview of the personality theories (based on: Karacsonyi, 2006)

Aspect/criteria	Appearance in the group of theory
The modes of influence of a leader, the relationship between leader and followers:	This theory does not address the ways of influencing. The success of leadership is being searched inside the personality of the leader, that is if the leader has certain characteristics, then based on these theories the successful leadership is guaranteed.
Capturing and operationalizing the concept of leadership, the leadership as a process	The personality theories try to capture leadership through the internal and external qualities and personality of the leader. Some of the theories are defining the concept of leadership, as a feature which the leaders have since their birth (Hewstone et al., 1995).

Research and measurement methods:	The evolution of the theories was based on speculative thinking, without theoretical and methodological soundness. The classical personality theories did not use valid and reliable psychometric tests to measure each personality – this is one reason for the failure of this research. In later theories different psychometric tests (for example CPI) were used to measure the characteristics of a leader (House & Aditya, 1997).
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The approaches which were based on the ‘*personality*’ and/or ‘*traits*’ of a leader consider that some individuals have inherited characteristics that make them appropriate for leadership, and these attributes, behaviours are the ones what makes them unique (distinguishes) from others. Early approaches of this category included “the great man theories which were based on the assumption that great leaders are born, and not made or developed during time” (Bligh, Michelle C., 2011, p.639) and they were often portrayed as being heroic, mythical. During the 20th century the theory evolved into the ‘personality’- or ‘trait’ based approaches since research has shown that leadership could be detected and studied not just at the highest levels of an organization, but also in more common settings (environments).

Thanks to the high number of research that was carried out there are traits which can be associated to leadership in a greater degree, while other traits in a lesser degree. Table 2 summarizes those traits which have been regularly connected to leadership:

Table 2: Traits and their description with strong association with leadership (based on Bligh, Michelle C., 2011)

<i>Specific Traits Associated With Leadership</i>	<i>Short description</i>
Intelligence	There is a link between intelligence and a leader’s development of (good) problem-solving skill (e.g. the ability to evaluate social situations, and to understand complex organizational matters. However it’s also considered to be important that the leader’s intellectual ability should not be too differing from that of his/her followers.

Self-Confidence	Having high self-confidence and guarantee that one's (own) vision is the right one are all helping a leader to obtain a better influence over others (to have more followers).
Determination	The ability to affirm oneself when the situation requires it, to be proactive, and to press on in difficult cases is a key element of (successful) leadership. Frequently this means to show dominance and an effort to succeed even when faced with (initial) failures.
Sociability	Leaders care about the interests of their followers and put these interests before their own. Therefore leaders work to resolve conflicts in order to maintain the group's social agreement.
Integrity	Leaders aim to be sincere and trustworthy, setting an example for others to trust them with critical decisions.

Based on all of this information, the followers of the personality theory interpreted the concept of a so-called informal leader and a number of classification and grading system has been given in order to group the personality types.

The *informal leader* does not have external power, is not declared by appointment, does not have a mandate of a leader, instead he is a person selected by members of an organization (a group) based on the adopted internal value system and he represents the norms of that group (Deák et al., 2006). It is considered essential; to recognize that this self-organization within a group is always bidirectional, i.e. while one or more persons influences the group using his leading skills, through his human behavior and gives signs openly or concealed about his leadership ambitions the group itself as a sociological unit requires the appearance of a leading personality. By analogy, it is considered to be extremely beneficial the case when the informal leader is being authorized by external reinforcement and also he is being declared by the power structure.

The structuring of *personality* is almost an unimaginably situation. The basic problem can be summarized simplistically, by the fact that the personality characteristics are flexible and it changes under the influence of many factors. Therefore, any kind of experiment is mechanistic; the human element is somewhat strange. In addition, the real problem comes from the fact that the actual practices and results vary considerably from the situation and from the interest, from the socio-metric influences within the group and depends on the age of the personality.

The researchers of the personality theory agreed that the suitability of the personality factor should be interpreted based on two large groups:

Professional maturity factor, which can be divided into subgroups:

- professional preparedness and
- situational preparedness

Psychological factors of maturity, which can be divided into the following subgroups:

- the intellectual preparedness and
- the social competence (Deák et al., 2006).

The training related to the personality and the acquiring of professional experience elements belong to the first group which serve as a background to the leaders' knowledge. The elements which can be classified to the personality abilities are belonging to the second group. Naturally, the same importance goes to both groups but when we refer to the leadership training and selection the interpretation of the second group, the categories within them and the methods of influencing the personality characteristics represent the really exciting questions.

In summary, assessing the effect of the personality theory, the following can be stated:

- Despite all the controversy and the “dead ends” in the research, there are certain personality traits and characteristics that help distinguish between the leader and a non-leader (House & Aditya, 1997).
- The theoretical results are incorporated into the future research and they serve as a basis to the development of the methodological procedures used in nowadays (Bakacsi, 2004).
- The classical personality theories are not defining intermediary factors, but later theories emphasize the strong or weak socially defined situations and the role of individual characteristics.

5.2. *Behavioural-theories*

While the personality theories approach made an attempt to determine the characteristics that distinguish the leaders of non-leaders, the behavioural approach tries to define the efficient and the non-efficient leaders and their behaviours.

A review of theories focusing on the leader's behaviour is shown in table 3. The following theories fall into this group:

- Kurt Lewin's theory of autocratic, democratic and laissez faire leadership.

- Likert's typologies of management styles.
- Tannenbaum and Schmidt – power-participation model.
- The Michigan State University model.
- The Ohio State research group's theory.
- The Blake-Mouton's managerial grid.

Table 3: The overview of the behavioural theories (based on: Karacsonyi, 2006)

Aspect/criteria	Appearance in the group of theory
The modes of influence of a leader, the relationship between leader and followers:	Theories that analyze the leader's behaviour are living with the assumption that the leader behaves in a relatively consistent way in the group led by him. This general style of behaviour (labelled as the Average Leadership Style – (Dansereau et al., 1995)) is what distinguishes the leader from its followers.
Capturing and operationalizing the concept of leadership, the leadership as a process	The theories are trying to define leadership with the help of, the leader's attention and behaviour regarding the tasks and its subordinates, and by the characterization of the leader's decisions. Although in their terminology the theories differ from each other, but the focus on the tasks and the relationship inside a group is almost always present.
Research and measurement methods:	In order to observe leaders behaviour, some researchers were using observations, interviews, factor analysis. Some trends used different measuring scales and questionnaires in order to measure the operationalized leadership behaviours. The psychometric characteristics of these measuring tools did not always meet the requirements of the tools (House & Aditya, 1997).

Lewin, Lippitt and White's results

The conclusions of Lewin, Lippitt and White on the leadership styles were based on a large number of experiments simulated on a group's task-solution experiences. They were able to identify three typical internal organization and management style: the autocratic, the democratic, and the laissez-faire.

In the case of the autocratic style, the leader forms his/her decision(s) without consulting with others. There are several instances where this style is seen as representing the best (working) solution (or management style), such as: situations where there is no need for other input regarding the decision or other instances where there is little time for group-decisions to be made.

The democratic style is characterized by a leader who includes the employees in the decision-making process, although the end result can and may vary. As a pro argument, this style can lead to better ideas and perhaps more creative solutions to a problem. Group members will also feel more involved and committed to the issue (goal), thus increasing the possibility that they will care more about the end result(s) instead of their own personal interests.

The laissez-faire (or delegative) style minimizes the “presence” of the leader in the process of the decision-making. It can only be effective in situations where group members are motivated, they’re capable to work on their own and also they have to be highly skilled.

Assessing the experiments they found that: the most effective leadership style turned out to be the autocratic one amongst the group’s acceptance (although if excessive it can lead to “revolution”). It offered the greatest experience, thus the most popular one was the democratic leadership (it can have some potential downfall as well, such as in a situation where the roles are unclear or time is of the essence than it can lead to communication failures and/or uncompleted tasks). The worst of the management styles proved to be the laissez-faire style.

Although the terminology used by Lewin and his colleagues was very popular during a period, very little additional research was inspired by it.

Likert’s typology

Rensis Likert goes further and splits the first two categories which were interpreted by Lewin and his colleagues, and thus he distinguishes four management systems: within the autocratic style, he identifies the *exploiter-authoritative* (where the decisions are imposed on subordinates, motivation is characterized by threats, there is very little room – or none - for communication and teamwork) and the *benevolent-authoritative system* (in this case leadership is manifested in the form of master-servant trust, where motivation is mainly based on rewards and there is little room for communication and teamwork).

Within the democratic style Likert identified the *consultative* (leaders have substantial but not complete trust/confidence in their subordinates, motivation is by rewards and some

involvement, there is some level of communication – both on a vertical and horizontal level - and a moderate amount of teamwork) and the *participative system* (it's seen as representing the optimum solution, where leaders have complete confidence in their subordinates, motivation is achieved by rewards - when reaching the goals which have been set in participation- and there is much communication plus a substantial amount of cooperative teamwork).

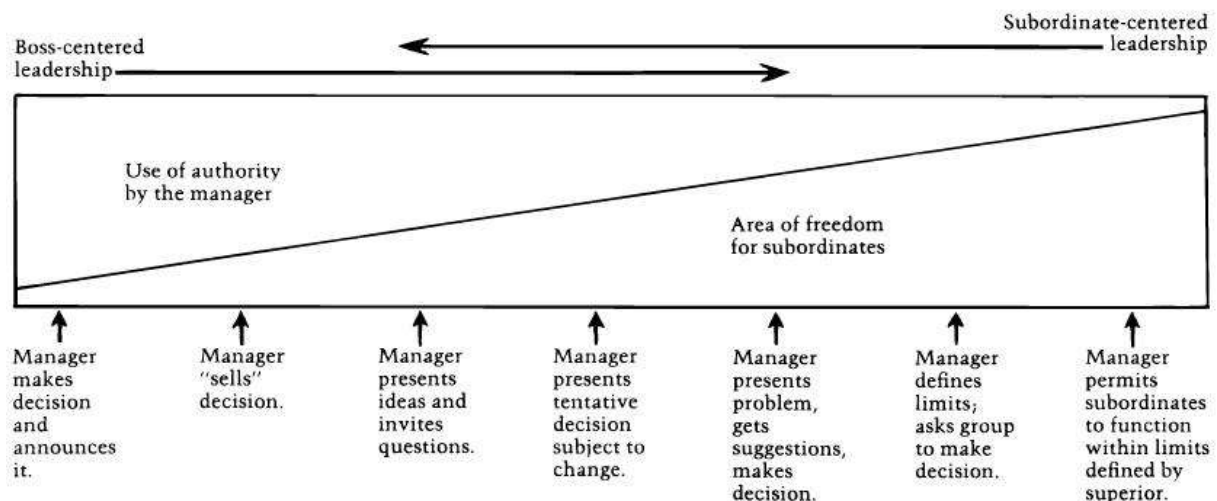
In the books of “New Pattern of Management” and in the “Human organization” Likert attempts to answer the question of: what effective managers have in common? The research has shown that four main elements can be found at each effective manager: they expect high level of performance; they are employee-oriented; (usually) they don't apply strict control and the participant management style is used as a basic principle. Likert also emphasizes that a truly effective manager in its activity must possess all the four elements in the same time. For example, if the manager is following an employee-oriented, participant style, he/she can achieve a positive work-environment, but he/she cannot reach a high level of performance, until he/she does not define the levels of performance.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's – power-participation model

Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt differentiate between the *subordinate-oriented* and the *manager-oriented* leadership. The two styles are forming a continuum, in which the transition between the two endpoints is being characterized with the help of a scale with seven grades. The grades are being indicated by the extent to which employees participate (are involved) in the decision making (Bakacsi, 2004). These are the seven grades:

- the leader makes and announces its decision;
- the leader “sells” his decision;
- the leader states his ideas and tells his subordinates to ask questions;
- the leader announces a decision, but it is possible to change it;
- the leader tells the problem, asks for proposals, and then he decides;
- the leader sets the boundaries, then asks the group to decide;
- the leader allows the group to make a decision within a broad framework.

Figure 2: Continuum of Leadership Behaviour (Tannenbaum-Schmidt, 1973, p.4)



The previously described theories of leadership style have been described and characterized depending on the degree to which the subordinates are involved in the problem-solving and decision-making processes. A common feature of these models is that they require the consultation more or less as a condition of successful leadership.

In the following section, the presented theories operationalize the leaders' attention and the direction of its behavior. Generally, each orientation is determined by two theories: the task/the group, and the relationships within the two.

The Michigan State University model

At the end of the 1940s the researchers of the Michigan State University have identified two types of leader behaviour: the job-centred and the employee-centred. The creators of this typology regarded these two types of leadership style as mutually exclusive, which means that a leader can only be job-centred or employee-centred. Further empirical studies helped the researchers in reaching the following conclusion: the employee oriented (leadership) style is generally seen as being more effective than the job-centred one (Nemes, 2007).

The Ohio State research group's theory

The researches done at the Ohio State University had come up with similar results in many ways as the Michigan studies. The separation of the two characteristics of leadership styles was also done on empirical basis, and they marked the first one as "initiating structure" and the other one as "consideration".

Based on the two previously discussed descriptions there is no doubt of a similarity between the two – between the job-centred and the employee-centred leadership styles and the initiating structure and the consideration dimensions.

Table 4: Comparison between the two leadership models of both universities (source: <http://enjoymba.blogspot.com/>)

University	Task oriented style	People oriented style
University of Michigan	Job-centred	Employee-centred
Ohio State University	Initiating structure	Consideration

Basically, the essential difference is that the Ohio researchers do not consider the two styles mutually exclusive, but they can exist side by side, to some extent they were considered in all leadership specific factors.

However the experiences regarding the effectiveness of the styles are similar. The Ohio researchers say that those leaders turned out to be successful, who have received high scores to the consideration factor, and the satisfaction of these employees was high. Those leaders were more successful who have received high values for both factors.

The Blake-Mouton's managerial grid

The two theorists designed a management matrix (1964), starting from two different aspects of the managers behaviour. Specifically: the attention paid on the production, and the attention paid towards the employees.

In this matrix, the two dimensions are spreading on a scale which is measured from 1 to 9.

The five points are being identified with a leadership style:

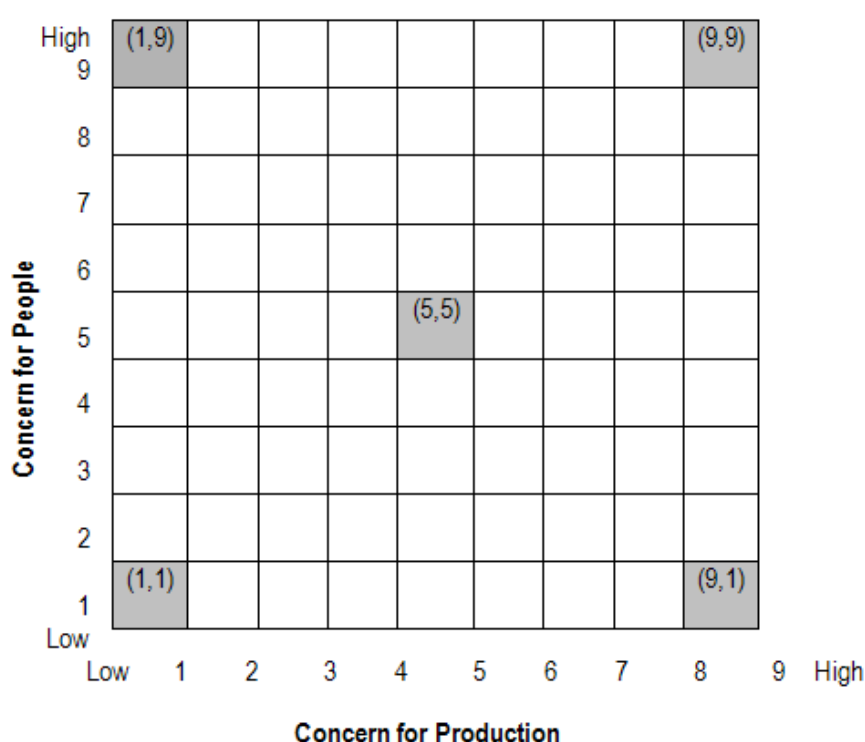
- (1,1) Impoverished (weaklings): a lazy leader who shows little effort and care for employees and goals.
- (1,9) “Country club”: it directs his focus on emphasizing the human (personal) relations within the organization, which leads to a friendly organizational climate and a pleasant work place.
- (9,1) Power-obedience (task management): in order to reach production efficiency, he organizes the working conditions in a way that human relations are becoming irrelevant.
- (9,9) Group-oriented (team) leadership: the source of work-performance comes from the alliance of the people. A common interest is defined within the

organizational goals, which creates mutual dependence, and also mutual trust and respect.

- (5,5) The status quo (previously, the “middle-of-the-road”) style: leaders applying this style try to create a balance between the goals of the organization and employees' needs. By following (to a certain degree) both organizational and individual concerns, managers who use this style wish to achieve good performance but doing so gives away a bit of each concern so that neither production nor people needs are met (Gujral, S. G., 2013, p.6)

The managerial grid is best illustrated in the following figure (fig. 3):

Figure 3: The managerial grid



The most successful leadership is the one that can pay attention to both dimensions. In this case the most effective one is the group-oriented leadership, in resolving problems and conflicts as well.

I consider the following as the most important results from the behavioural theories and researches: first, they defined the concepts of task and relationship-orientation, which was later incorporated into further developing research models and second they shifted the focus from the leaders' personality-features to its behaviour, the possibility to teach leadership, leadership development and training appeared.

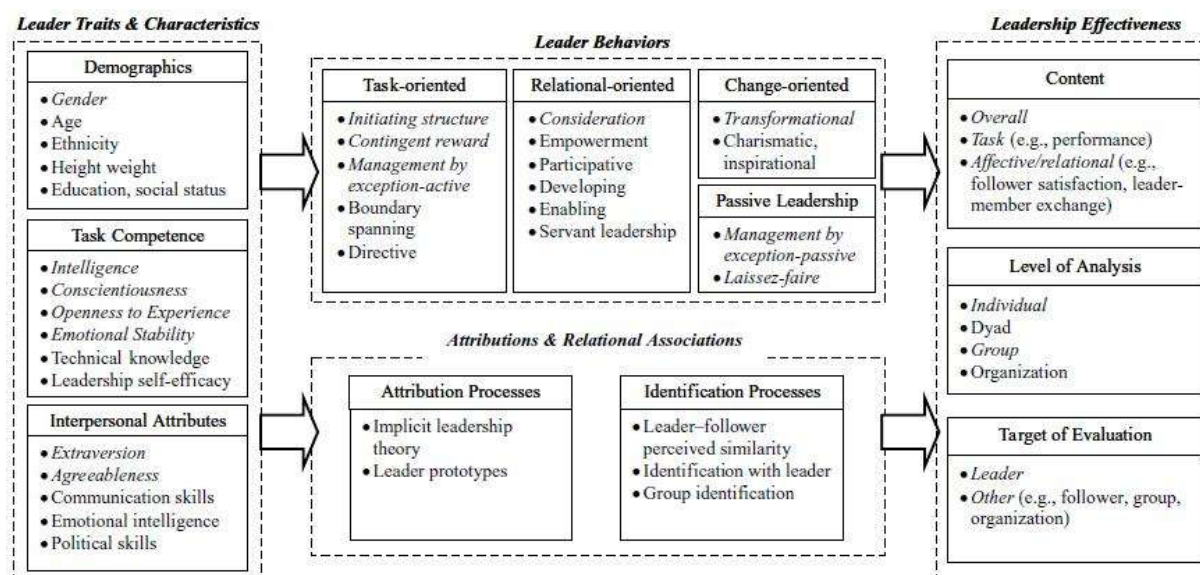
The most common criticism of the theories comes from its highly speculative nature, without theorizing the conceptual background, it is mentioned that the observations and analysis are almost exclusively lowly developed (House & Aditya, 1997).

Although previous research has proven that leadership effectiveness is influenced by both the traits and behaviours of a leader, it is still not fully understandable how these traits and behaviours complete or add one to another (Derue, S. D. et.al., 2011). Based on the literature (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002; Avolio et. al., 2003; Bass & Bass, 2008) the majority of leader characteristics can be classified into the following categories:

- demographics;
- traits connected to task competence;
- interpersonal attributes;

Similarly leader's behaviours are frequently analyzed in terms of whether the leader's focus is towards the (work) processes or towards the relational dynamics or change. Thus based on these classifications a conceptual framework can be built up which classifies the existing literature, the developed models and how leader characteristics and behaviours impact the effectiveness of leadership.

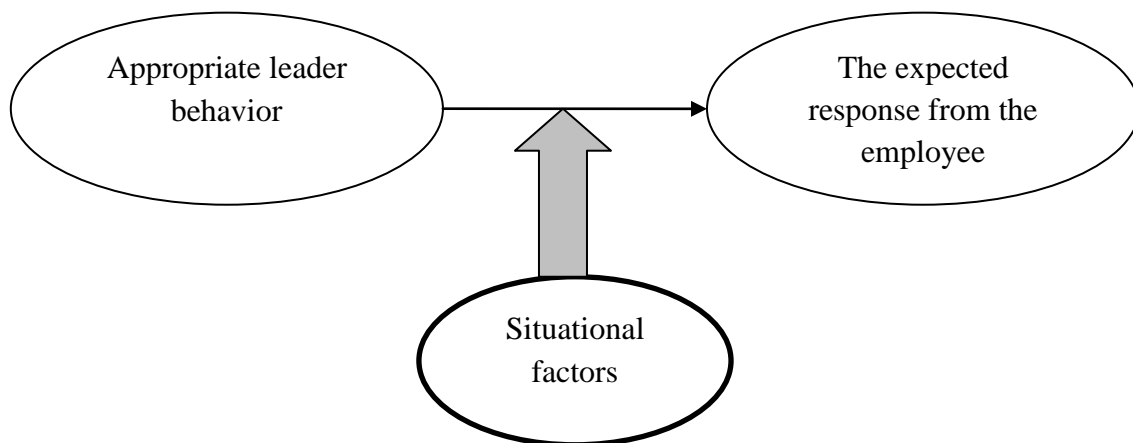
Figure 4: Integrated model of leader characteristics, behaviours and effectiveness (source: Derue, D. et.al., 2011, p.10)



5.3. Contingency-theories

The contingency theories are being characterized by putting together the leaders' behaviour with the various situational factors. These theories are using the previous studies (e.g., the dimensions of leadership behaviour) and the focus of the investigation involves the situational characteristics that may affect the success of leadership. Figure 5 illustrates the differences between the behavioural and the contingency approaches:

Figure 5: The contingency approaches of the leadership (source: Nemes, 2007)



The behavioural approach is being presented by two variables which are relatively close to each other. The starting point is being represented by the responses from the employees which are required for the appropriate leadership behaviour. For example in the case of the Michigan researchers it was assumed that the employee-centred leadership behaviour is always leading to the overall improvement of the employees' performance and satisfaction.

The contingency approaches, however are showing a third circle in the figure and they illustrate that situational factors, which must also be considered. In other words they go beyond the approach that "the leadership style can be recommended in all circumstances", by defining the requirements between the leadership style and condition. In different conditions the appropriate leadership style can also be different. The aim of the contingency theories is to define the situational variables, which leaders have to take into consideration when developing the style of leadership.

The following classification can be made on the contingency theories:

- Fiedler's LPC contingency theory
- The life cycle model of Hersey and Blanchard
- The normative decision-making theory of Vroom and Yetton

- House's path-goal theory
- The multiple connection model of Yukl
- Graen and Uhl-Bien's LMX theory

The following table presents a brief overview of the contingency theories.

Table 5: The overview of the characteristics of contingency theories (source: Karacsonyi, 2006)

Aspect/criteria	Appearance in the group of theory
The modes of influence of a leader, the relationship between leader and followers:	The contingency theories live on the assumption that successful leadership is seen in the function of the leaders' behaviour and the situational factors. According to the theories the influence of the leader can be reinforced, neutralized, replaced, or mediated by the situational factors, depending on what type of situational factors the specific model includes. A leader can influence individuals or groups, depending on how certain theories are determining the contextual factors.
Capturing and operationalizing the concept of leadership, the leadership as a process	A large part of the contingency theories define the leadership with the help of the task-oriented and the relationship-oriented leadership behaviours or with the combinations of these two. Some of the theories are being defined by the help of the leaders decisions (e.g., Vroom & Yetton), based on the relationship with the surrounding groups (LMX) or by the cognitive resources (intelligence, experience).
Research and measurement methods:	During the researches laboratory experiments, observations, questionnaires and factor analysis methods were used to develop the theories. For measuring the discussed factors, the theories which were developed used different scales and questionnaire methods.

In the reviewed literature, there is no full consensus on exactly which theories are classified as contingency theories. The above list includes almost all the major theories which are operationalizing the effective leadership through situational factors.

Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) contingency theory

Fred E. Fiedler started from the basic assumption that in different leading situations, different leadership styles are successful.

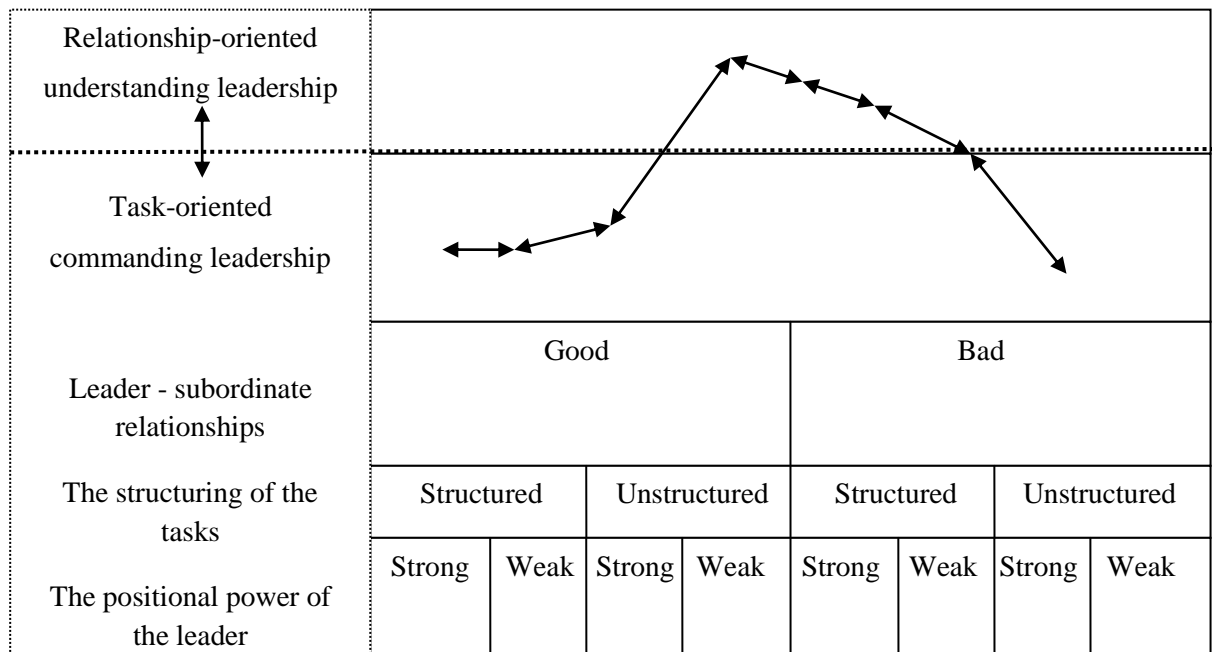
The LPC model involves the task-oriented and relationship-centred leadership styles. The former is similar to the previously discussed job-centred and initiative-structuring style, while the latter is similar to the employee-centred and to the behaviour characterized by the “consideration” sign.

The appropriateness of the two distinct styles – used by Fiedler – is being examined depending on the group-situation which defines the activities of a leader. The groups' situation is being described by three factors: the type of relationship between the supervisor-subordinate, the groups challenge regarding the structured-unstructured tasks and the leaders power (authority) coming from its position.

All in all: the best situation for a leader is being guaranteed by a positive relationship between the leader and its employees, the structured tasks and the strong power positioning. The worst situation is based on a bad relationship, unstructured tasks and weak power.

The fifth figure illustrates the combinations between leadership styles and situations. The three factors together, are showing eight possible situations, starting from the clearly positive to the clearly negative, which could lead to a different leadership style and good team performances.

Figure 6: Fiedler's LPC model (source: Fielder, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.17, No.4. December 1972. In Nemes, 2007)



Fiedler's results show that from the leaders' point of view both in favourable and unfavourable situations the task-oriented style is seen as the best option, while in intermediate, temporary and changing situations the relationship-oriented leadership style promises more success.

Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle model

Their theory is very similar to Fiedler's theory. If, in Fiedler's case, the situational (contingent) variables were represented by the leader-employee relationship, task structure and leader position, this time they are represented by what the authors call "the maturity of the subordinates". This term refers not to the maturity of each individual member of the group, but rather the nature of the subordinate group, i.e. the extent to which a group has the capacity for instrumental and psychological predisposition to carry out a specific task (Zlate, 2004). The maturity of the subordinates is the variable which the leaders try to influence, so their leadership behaviours and styles must be adapted to them. In terms of their level of maturity, subordinates may be divided into four groups arranged along a continuum:

- low maturity (M1);
- medium to moderate maturity (M2);
- medium to moderate maturity (is not identical with the previous group; subordinates have the operational capabilities required by the tasks, but are not motivated to get involved in their completion) (M3);

- high maturity (M4);

Hersey and Blanchard take the idea – from Fiedler- , of the two leadership styles of leaders; but they add to them the idea that the appropriate style for the four cases is a combination between the task-oriented and the relationship-oriented styles. Thus:

- A suitable style for M1 is the one that focuses mainly on the task-oriented style and only slightly on relationship-orientation; this is called the “telling” style.
- The best style for M2 focuses heavily on both dimensions; the leader explains the decisions, creates opportunities for clarification; this style is called “selling”.
- For the situation under M3 the suitable style is the one who is maximally focused on relationships and minimally on tasks; the leader adopts the ideas from its subordinates and involves them in the decision making; the style is “participating”.
- For the situation M4 the right style consists of minimal involvement of the leader in both directions. The leader delegates its authority, and offers the possibility to the group to make decisions and for their practical realization. The style is called “delegating”.

Figure 7: The four leadership styles



The transparency and clarity of the theory is one of the reasons that in management training this is the most often used leadership model. The theory/model of the two authors opened the way to better capture the relationship between leader and the group of employees in the act of leadership. Its merit lies in highlighting the need for leaders to be flexible in their behaviours and to adapt them to different situations (Zlate, 2004).

Vroom and Yetton's normative decision-making theory

This theory - developed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton - is seen as being both a decision-making model and a theory of leadership since it explains how leaders should make decisions.

Assuming that there's no ideal leadership style that's suitable in all circumstances, Vroom and Yetton have determined two objectives: 1) to establish the leadership styles of leaders, 2) to determine the particular situations that require the need to practice a style or another.

First, the authors carried out a typology of decision styles, by establishing two autocratic styles (AI, AII), two advisory (consultative) styles (CI, CII) and one which is a group oriented style.

These decision-making styles are then analyzed according to seven factors, three of which provide decision quality and four acceptance of it. These situational factors are:

- The required quality for decisions;
- Completeness of the leaders information, to allow him to take its own decisions;
- The degree of structuring the problem;
- The meaning of accepting the decision by subordinates for their effective implementation;
- The probability of acceptance of authoritarian decisions;
- The congruence of individual goals with the organizational goals;
- The conflict between the subordinates generated by the preferences for a solution.

Each contingent factor in the form of a question is considered in a dichotomous manner by YES or NO answers. Chaining these responses gives rise to a decision tree.

The most common criticisms of the normative decision model are (House & Aditya, 1997):

- The model assumes that the aims of the decision maker are the same with the organizational goals.
- To the application of this model special training is needed, therefore, the population to which you can apply it is confined (limited)
- The model discounts the leaders negotiation and conciliation abilities needed for a collective decision making.
- Due to the many typical and relevant criteria of the model it is not testable.

Despite all these criticisms, the model has been moved to the side of corporate practices based on leadership skills development programs.

House's path-goal theory

It originated in a suggestion formulated by Robert House in 1971 and he developed it together with Mitchell in 1974 (Zlate, 2004). This model is based upon the expectancy theory. The "path-goal" theory assumes the following ideas:

- the success of leadership results from the subordinates manifestation of expectations, the leaders tasks consisting in increasing their tastes for performance;
- the leader identifies the goals for the subordinates and the ways / roads leading to its achievement;
- the leader helps subordinates to correctly perceive the situation they are in, and to prepare themselves to reasonable expectation, and then adjusts its own behaviour to these expectations.

As we can see, the theory is both motivational and cognitive. Theory starts from the following premise: people are happy at work and will continue to work hard if they consider that the effort will lead to desired results. Hence, there are two consequences for the leader: he will have to reward their subordinates and that these awards should be contingent with specific goals; will indicate the type of behaviour to subordinates which should lead most quickly to achieve goals. This is actually the path-goal binomial.

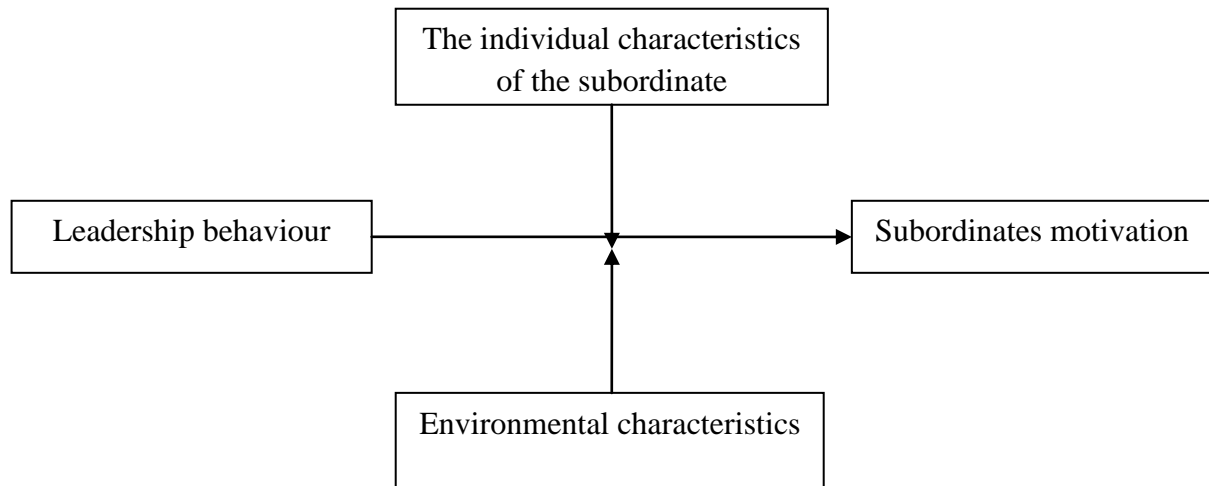
The path-goal theory contains three elements: leadership styles of leaders, subordinate characteristics, and environmental factors. House and his colleagues established four leadership styles: directive, participative, supportive and achievement-oriented.

The characteristics of subordinates refer to their experience and skills, especially to their perceptive skills and the place of control.

The environmental variables include the nature of the task, formal authority structure, group work, each of which can stimulate or coerce subordinates.

The basic design of the path-goal model is shown in figure 8:

Figure 8: The path-goal model (source: Nemes, 2007)



The path-goal theory is highly individualized in relation to all others; it tries to capture not only the role of behavioural factors in leading, but also the cognitive and particularly the motivational factors. Also, the theory brings in discussion for the first time the role of inter-individual differences in explaining the satisfaction and performance (Zlate, 2004).

Regarding the organizational implications, the theory warns about specific characteristics regarding the formation of leaders. This formation should not focus exclusively on acquiring a new behavioural style of the leader, but also on training leaders in the diagnosis and management situations and the availability of appropriate behaviour peculiarities of the situation (Jago, 1994).

Yukl's multiple connection (linkage) model

The presumption of Yukl's theory is that the group performance is determined by six factors: team effort, skills, work organization, teamwork and cooperation, the availability of essential resources and coordination with the rest of the organization. Yukl differentiates situational factors, some of which affect the above mentioned factors, while others identify the importance of certain factors in some situations. The leader influences the factors, and in the same time the characteristics of the situation are affecting him as well. Usually on short term the leader is trying to influence the mediator factors, while on long term he makes the best out of the situational factors (Yukl, 1971).

The theory tries to capture the activity of a leader in a very complex way; almost like an “everything is connected” type of model is generated. Probably the cause of the excessive complexity that the model has is the reason why it did not become particularly popular, and did not generate recent research.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory

The LMX theory is included in the contingency theories due to its only feature: the highly descriptive theory assumes that the leader develops a distinguished relationship with one part of the group members lead by him (in-group), while with the other group members this feature is not applicable (out-group).

It was originally formulated by Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) and had different adaptations over time (Graen, Planks, 1987, Graen, Uhl-Bien, 1995). At first it was called *Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory* (VLD), for than to be renamed as the *Leader-Member Exchange* (LMX). The theory starts with an idea widely accepted by other theories. Leadership effectiveness is dependent on the quality of communication between leaders and subordinates. Leaders will create two groups: an “in-group” and an “out-group” of followers. “In-group” members receive more rewards, attention and greater responsibilities. This is due to the fact that they basically operate within the leader’s inner circle. In contrast, “out-group” members are outside the leader’s circle, thus they receive less attention and fewer rewards (Lunenburg, 2010).

Unlike other theories claiming that leader effectiveness is affected by interaction with the group, LMX theory postulates that an effective leader is determined by its interaction with the group and even more so with each member of the group. The new theory takes into account in a greater extent, the interactions between individual differences, group behaviour, and the constraints of a situation. In the centre of his theoretical construction is the notion of constructed or negotiated role. If the organization’s members perform their duties according to the roles they have, then it is very important to study the nature of existing roles within an organization and, especially, the processes by which roles are defined, developed (constructed). Because the roles are sometimes defined in an ambiguous and incomplete manner, you need to know how the organization members themselves participate in defining its role (Zlate, 2004).

In short, the theory can be summarized based on the following ideas:

- the leader needs to identify those group members who are capable, motivated, dedicated to the organization goals, with a high degree of autonomy;

- individuals who possess these characteristics constitute what is called the in-group unlike the others, called out-group; the former are closer to power, while the others are far from it;
- the relationship between leader and subordinates is due to a double functionality: on the one hand, subordinates manipulate the impression that they are giving to the leader, that he would like it more and, on the other hand, leaders appreciate subordinates depending on performance, but depending on the perceived quality of their work as well;
- individuals who have skills in interpersonal relations plan is likely to become leaders and to be effective, unlike those who do not have such qualities and they probably will not become leaders – but if they do, they will be inefficient;

The idea of dynamic leadership comes to the foreground, the theory containing the necessity of behaviour change regarding the leader, in order to meet the expectations of employees. So we conclude that LMX model allows for a better direction. The model however is being criticized for three methodological weaknesses:

- 1) insufficient data obtained in empirical research;
- 2) variability scales measuring the exchange between the leaders and subordinates, none of which were subjected to a trial or a preliminary psychometric explicit validation;
- 3) the restrictive nature of the theoretical concept does not provide sufficient evidence to define the roles, they do not look as they appear and develop trade relations between leaders and subordinates (Dienesch, Liden, 1994, p.141-145, in Zlate, 2004).

Besides these criticisms, I consider the greatest merit of the theory the examination of the nature of the leader-subordinate relationship.

In order to summarize the contingency theories we can state the following:

- The contingency theories inspired the most research on leadership. The research on contingency theories drove to many and diverse results. Although these models have answered a lot of basic questions their diversity may be one of the reasons why the importance of today's leadership research is reduced.
- Many of the contingency theories have been implemented in the corporate practice these models give rise to most of the leadership programs.
- A part of the contingency models represent a starting point for the new paradigm of leadership theories. The path-goal theory is regarded as the predecessor for the value-driven and the charismatic leadership.

- The theories do not treat each case clearly, regarding the exact aspect of situational factors in the process of leadership i.e. dependent or independent variables are present.

6. Contemporary perspectives on leadership theories

The new leadership paradigm theories have emerged in the 1980s. The following authors had a meaningful role in the development of the paradigm theories: Robert House with the charismatic leadership theory in 1977, James McGregor Burns, followed by Bernard Bass who has built on Burns's work, with the transformer and entrepreneurial leadership theory, Jay Conger and Rabindra Kanungos behavioural foundations built on the charismatic leadership theory. These theories represent the beginning of the new leadership paradigm. The theories have developed, built on each other's achievements, and nowadays we can find very diverse results.

In my review I will place the following theories in this category:

- The charismatic leadership;
- Transactional and transformational leadership;

The majority of the new leadership paradigm theories are being characterized by the following:

- when comparing the new theories with the earlier rational approach theories, we can state that these new theories emphasize the emotional aspects of leadership, and on the leader-follower emotional dynamics;
- the theoretical and methodological background is much more advanced, both in the case of the leadership and in the related areas, which enables us to test and apply new process models;
- new research methods, researchers and approaches appear in the area: the cognitive science tools and methods allow for the appearance of new theories;
- in some cases, we can observe that the new paradigm theories are going back to the earlier approaches and are incorporating their results: for instance in the case of the charismatic leadership theories we can find leadership qualities, leadership behaviours and situational factors;
- the research on the theories of the paradigm did not end, there are constantly appearing reports on new findings, thus the theories are constantly changing/evolving;

The theories will be presented based on the above grouping. The charismatic leadership models and the transactional and transformational leadership theories contain many common points, and they often rely on each other. Yet the reason for analyzing the two theories separately is that these models have appeared independently of each other and began to develop, while the integration of their components began in later researches. The further development of the charismatic leadership theories, as well as the transactional and transformational leadership theories cannot be considered as a closed section, which greatly complicates the classification of further research in developing theories.

6.1. Charismatic leadership

Sociologists, historians, and political scientists have universally accepted the theory of charismatic leadership originally presented by Max Weber (1947). He first examined the social aspects of charismatic leadership, the conditions which will appear next to the charismatic leadership as contributing to the collective / social changes and the way that the personal charisma by becoming a routine is integrated into a stable social system (Karacsonyi, 2006). Weber's theory is primarily a reference and benchmark in the leadership research, one of the reasons which we can find very little studies regarding the theories empirical control.

Nowadays researchers are focusing on leaders who by "force" of their personality have a significant effect on their employees. The new approach emphasizes the inspirational role of leaders. Leaders are faced with the challenge of how to affect the mentality of the organizational members by influencing the organization's culture, by creating (new) values and by forging commitment to the organization's objectives, and strategies in order to achieve a well above the average organizational performance (see Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Tichy & Devana, 1986; In: Kets de Vries, 1998).

The new concepts argue that leaders do not need to actually hold in a number of special traits, but is sufficient for them to be perceived as possessing such characteristics. Charisma appears to represent a simple assignment; virtually it has no connection with the conduct and leader behaviours (Zlate, 2004).

Jay Conger and Rabindra Kanungro (1988) even proposed a scheme in which they present the stages (phases) of evolution of the charismatic leader. In the first stage, the leader carefully assesses the current situation to see the possibilities of change. He pays specific consideration to the needs of subordinates and organizational constraints.

In the second stage, the leader formulates a vision or a mission that discusses the current situation and that somehow suit the needs and aspirations of subordinates.

In the third stage, the leader makes subordinates to achieve the new vision, builds their confidence, and motivates them; he especially works with those, who could jeopardize the new vision.

In the fourth stage, the leader is exposed as a role model for others, giving examples of self-sacrifice, displays ostentatiously an unconventional expertise (Johns, 1998).

Subordinates perceive the leader not only after its behaviour, but also his results so that when doing assignments, they are guided by past performances of the leader in getting resounding performances.

Recent research introduces the idea of complex interaction of factors that ensure the success of charismatic leadership. One of the most known psychologists who argue strongly on the interacting components of charismatic leadership is House (1977). In essence, House's theory is applied on organizational environments and combines the personal characteristics with the behaviours of the leader and with situational factors. After his opinion in the charismatic leadership are involved four personal traits of the leader (dominancy, self-reliance, the need to influence others, convinced about the integrity of its system of ideas and beliefs) and several of the leader behaviours are designed to build favourable perceptions of subordinates (Zlate, 2004). Regarding the time of appearance of charismatic leadership, House believes that the stressful situations, uncertainty and especially the crisis periods are growing the likelihood of the appearance of the charismatic leader.

6.2. *Transactional and transformational leadership*

Research is aimed to decipher the ability of some leaders, which, through constant innovation and vision are in the front line and they're constantly changing the organization in order to prepare for future challenges.

Transactional leadership – which is also defined as “managerial leadership” – focuses on the role of control, organisation and group performance. It is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes the agreement of his followers using both compensations and punishment (Odumeru, J & Ifeanyi, G., 2013). A transactional leader aims to create clear structures where:

- work obligations and rights (requirements) are clear;
- the reward structure is transparent;

- and (formal) systems of discipline are in effect;

A general rule for this type of a leader is “management by exception” which is operating on the principle that if something is working as expected then it does not need any or further attention. This leadership type is seen as the best choice in crisis situations, as well as when certain tasks or projects have to be carried out in a specific manner.

In essence, the transformational leadership is opposed to the transactional leadership (Zlate, 2004). If, in the latter, management is conceptualized in terms of the change process based on the costs and benefits, on trade or “implicit bargains” between leaders and subordinates, the new form of management goes beyond a cost-benefit trade and it is focusing on inspiring the subordinates by the leader to obtain performance by exceeding the standards. Transformational leadership assumes the expansion of the emotional link towards the organization, by developing personal identification of the employees with their leaders, and sharing the vision set by the leader.

A transformational leader extends and revitalizes the interests of employees, generates acceptance and appreciation among subordinates about the goals of the organization and motivates people to overcome their personal interests. Thus, the new kind of leader is one who makes people act, which transforms the followers into leaders, and it can change a leader into agents of change (Bennis, Nanus, 2000).

Although at first glance transformational leadership is opposed to transactional leadership, in reality things are quite different. Some believe that transformational leadership is a specific case of the transactional leadership. The main argument brought by these authors (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992) is that transformational leadership builds on transactional, and not the other way around (Hartog, D. N. D., et al., 1997). The two are similar in that both are related to an end. What differ are the types of goals, strongly pursued by each, as well as the processes by which leaders motivate their subordinates.

A comparative analysis of transactional and transformational leadership can be found at a number of authors (e.g. House, 1996; Bass, 1998). In conclusion, we can distinguish two dimensions of transactional leadership and four dimensions of transformational leadership.

Table 6: The dimensions of transactional – transformational leadership

Transactional leadership	Transformational leadership
reward contingency (in accordance with the spent effort and with the achieved performance);	idealized influence (the leader brings the vision, he inspires pride, earns respect and trust, increases optimism);
management by exception (the leader interferes only when things do not go as planned and/or the requirements are not met;	inspiration (the leader's ability to set an example for his/her followers);
	individualized consideration (the leader helps subordinates to achieve maximum potential, it contributes to employee's psychological development; it is achieved through mentoring, coaching);
	intellectual stimulation (leader provides new ideas to determine rethinking and reassessment of the old ideas and develops the way of thinking and imagination of the subordinates);

From the above table the idea of the superiority of transformational leadership in relation to transactional (and even other forms of leadership) emerges (Zlate, 2004). Transformational leadership integrates in itself elements both from transactional-, and from the charismatic leadership as well.

The following table summarizes the positive and negative effects of transformational leadership including both the organization and the individuals (table 7), while table 8 illustrates the “clash” between the two types:

Table 7: The positive-negative effects of transformational leadership

Positive effects of transformational leadership	Potential negative effects of transformational leadership
high attachment and trust in the leader	the increased danger of addiction of the subordinates towards their leader
the desire of submission towards the leader	the weakening of interpersonal relationships between subordinates
high performance and strong motivation	greater frequency of unconventional-

	impulsive behaviors
increasing the cohesion of the groups	exacerbation of self-confidence
amplification of shared beliefs	predicaments (and even failures) in planning activities
low level of conflict	
high degree of satisfaction	
commitment to achieving goals	

Table 8: Transactional- vs. Transformational leadership (source: Odumeru, J & Ifeanyi, G., 2013, p.359)

Transactional	Transformational
Leadership is responsive	Leadership is proactive
Works within the organisational culture	Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas
Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader	Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral values
Motivates followers by appealing to their own self interest	Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first
Management-by-exception: maintain the status quo; stress correct actions to improve performance.	Individualised consideration: Each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and
	Intellectual stimulation: Promote creative and innovative ideas to solve problems

6.3. *Leadership and Management*

This sub-chapter does not represent a theory, however until today it gives room to a number of (academic) debates (and this issue will probably remain the same in the future) since there is no agreement on the two terms which carry as much overlaps (similarities) as differences. For instance Warren Bennis considers that (business) leaders feel satisfied when there is uncertainty and disorder. In exchange, Henry Mintzberg states that a manager thrives in complex and ‘puzzling’ systems in which the order is quite frequently missing (absent). If we depart from these statements – specifically that both the leader and manager work well in situations of ambiguity - than how can we distinguish the two terms from each other?

The mixing of expressions, that of (personal) leadership and management and the use of them so as if there would be synonyms has a long and illustrious history inside the leadership studies. This practice also strongly affects the determining (mainstream) literature of leadership. If we take a look back until the '30s – when researchers dealt with defining the concept – then we can observe, that the values of the industrial paradigm were taken over according to their own interpretation and leadership was made equal with good management.

Several scholars however have had serious conceptual problems as to using the two terms (leadership and management) as synonyms. These authors wrote books, chapters and articles in which they argued that leadership is not the same thing as management, but these works had little effect on the mainstream literature or on the practice of leadership itself. The union of these concepts and interpreting the leadership as good management dominated even by the end of the '80s within the leadership literature (see for instance: Bennis, 1989a; 1989b; Cohen, 1990; Janis, 1989; Kotter, 1988, Yukl, 1989; Zaleznik 1989). This industrial paradigm of leadership is still strongly present even in our days; this is why the school of post-industrial leadership is necessary to reach a compromise with this issue (Rost, 1991, 1993, p.130).

Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus have described the difference between a leader and a manager as: “managers do things well; the real leaders are doing good things” (Bennis, 2007, p. 12).

A.Zaleznik (1977) seems to be the first author who has operated separately with the term of leaders and managers. In an article entitled “*Managers and leaders: are they different?*” (2004), he viewed this difference, through a set of criteria that are based on investigation and characterization of leaders and managers, and he ended up by adding that there are major differences between the two.

Table 9: The difference between leaders and managers (source: Zlate, 2004)

Criteria	Categories of leaders/managers	
	<i>Leaders</i>	<i>Managers</i>
End/goal	It exhibits personal, active attitudes	It exhibits impersonal, passive attitudes
Conception of work	Stimulates employment, provides and creates possibilities for choosing a workplace	Coordinates, balances work. Resorts to compromise values.

Relationship with others	They are empathic, paying attention to the significance of actions and events	The less emotionally involved in relationships with others
Self-perception	Have a poorer self-identity because they are oriented toward change	It identifies the need to maintain the current order, are more conservative

C.M.Watson (1983), implemented the procedure of ‘7 S’ (strategy, structure, system, style, staff – team leadership skills – advanced skills, shared goals), and based on the obtained results he added that leaders are more firmly oriented towards the style, staff, skills and shared goals, while managers focus their attention on: strategy, structure, system.

J. Harris (1995) argued that, while leadership is involved with “establishing the vision, the main directions of action and approaches to human activity, management has the aim in the operationalization of all of the mentioned factors effectively” (Gal, 2012 p.27).

According to the present point of view they are differing concepts however a considerable overlap exists between the two. Five differential nuances are at the disposal of leadership, which we cannot find in management’s case (ed. Thomas, N., 2004, p.119):

- shows a direction;
- inspires;
- shows an example;
- it builds teams;
- it is accepted;

The best-known researcher of this approach John Kotter, formed a model based on these two roles which complement each other. According to him the manager’s challenge is seen to be focusing more on the interior (efficiency), while the challenge of the leader is more focused on the exterior (change) and is oriented towards the people (motivation).

In the case of both roles it is necessary to deal with three essential tasks:

- defining the tasks (aims);
- creating the conditions of the implementation and to ensure that the work is carried out (execution);

The most important differences between the roles of manager and leader according to Kotter:

Table 10: The most important differences between the roles of manager – leader, according to Kotter (source: Kotter, J,1990, In: Bakacsi Gy., 2004, p.204)

	<i>The role of a Manager</i>	<i>The role of a Leader</i>
Objective	Allocating planning, budgetary frameworks	Vision, change strategy
Condition insurance	Organizing, creating formal systems, human resource management	Communicates, convinces, accepts
Execution	Problem solving, control	Motivates, inspires
Success criterion	Inner efficiency, the smooth function system of the complex organization	Exterior efficiency, successful organizational change which is suitable for the challenges of the environment

From these ideas, we can state that the most relevant difference between leadership and management resides in that leadership is often associated with emotional (intellectual), visionary, proactive plans, while management specifically with the ‘action plan’. The leader is the one who examines the (possible) future, sets goals and develops different scenarios (action plans), while the manager implements these in practice.

7. The future: next generation of leaders and leadership

The world has experienced profound changes in the early years of the 21st century. Leaders today face countless number of challenges - especially the rise of the global economy and its impact on countries around the world - and they must (literally) redefine what it takes to succeed. These challenges raised key questions, such as:

- What challenges are confronting leaders in the 21st century?
- From whom are the people (citizens) expecting the vision and guidance?
- How has leadership changed to keep pace?
- What is/will be the task(s) of a successful leader?
- Will the future leaders focus on leading followers - in an organizational context – or will they be “boundary crossers” who work in collaboration with

other public sector partners, as well as those from the private and non-profit sectors?

This chapter aims to try to present suitable answers to these questions and also it carries a “forecast” kind of a characteristic by introducing the term of “global leadership”.

7.1. Twenty-first century leaders

For years, scholars have been trying to define (or describe) the nature of leadership. Today, there are driving forces which suggest that the purpose of leadership in the 21st century (rather than the definition) must be the focal point of our attention.

There is a somewhat general agreement that in the 21st century we are facing complex circumstances which require far quicker responses (or at least reaction) from the government than before, with an emphasis on more innovation, coordination and the capacity to address new, arising challenges. An important step will be utilizing our leaders to the fullest in responding to these future challenges. Being a public manager today involves much more than POSDCORB¹ and thus the training and preparation of public managers to be public leaders is essential.

Another question which arises is, how do we develop future leaders? Many things are changing (and quite fast). Just to name a few: techniques, whether the tools of technology or the structures of organizations, will inevitably change; simply listing the technology changes that have occurred during our professional lifetimes would be a simple but time-consuming exercise. Or take the process of communicating between a manager and his or her staff. The manager used to dictate a memo to a secretary who prepared a memo that the manager reviewed, signed, and then distributed to the staff. Today, the manager sits down and types a message on a computer, and it is then transmitted instantly to each member of the staff. Think of the many different human actions and interactions that something as common as e-mail has changed in office routines—the impact of technology becomes obvious” (James E. Colvard, “Developing Future Leaders”, ed. Morse & Buss, 2008, p.51). This is also the case when developing future leaders. The technology of the future, the institutional structures, and the social environment will change, but the fundamentals will not (Gál, 2013, p.76).

Leading a public organization in this century requires some new principles and practices. At the same time, there remain three simple, yet profound truths or laws about leadership that have not changed over time (Shrader, 2006):

¹ The acronym stands for Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting.

- Leadership is a matter of how to be, not how to do.
- Leaders succeed through the efforts of their people.
- Leaders build bridges.

In addition to these truths, there are basic leadership development principles and practices that are consistent with the traditional leadership development literature and are relevant and necessary for creating and maintaining a high performance organizational culture in which talented people are stimulated to reach their full potential to become global leaders (Ruth T. Zaplin & Sydney Smith-Heimbrock, “Developing Leaders in the New Age of Government”, In: Morse & Buss, ed. 2008, p.152). These are:

- start with workforce analysis;
- create a fair and nurturing work environment for a globally diverse workforce;
- demonstrate support and commitment of top leadership;
- feedback-intensive programs;

7.2. *Authentic Leadership*

One of the emerging pillars of interest in the domain has been labelled as the “authentic leadership”. The notion of authenticity has been around for a long time and we can find it in several other disciplines as well (e.g. psychology, religion). This construct of authenticity refers to remaining true to one’s self. Simply put: they know who they are and what they believe in.

Due to the fact that there is a constant shift – which has an upwards tendency – as new technologies, challenges, social demands and even competition we ought to (and should) re-think the focus on restoring confidence and hope from the public towards the institutions and to genuinely relate to all stakeholders (e.g. associates, customers, communities). If we stop for a minute and take a good, hard look at the public sector leaders in the present we don’t need to look for much information to discover that there is a very low level of trust in these leaders. Therefore there is a great need for “new” leaders who have a deep sense of determination and are true to their core values.

One issue of the Leadership Quarterly (2005) focuses on this exact topic of authentic leadership (see Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The main concept – authenticity – has been treated widely in several disciplines (e.g. philosophy, psychology, religious studies) and it can be described as “owning one’s personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs,

preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know oneself” (Seligman, 2002) and remaining true to one’s self.

What then is authentic leadership? The definition varies, but the importance of consistency in their actions and values all are emphasized. Additional aspects include positive leader values, leader self-awareness, and a trusting relationship with followers (Yukl, 2002). Luthans & Avolio (2003, p.243) defined the concept of authentic leadership as “a process that draws from both psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of the leader and associates, fostering positive self-development.” If we were to dissect this definition we can describe it as being multi-level in that it includes the leader, the follower and context especially in the way it was conceptualized. From this definition another question arises: what makes a leader authentic? What elements, characteristics make a leader an authentic one? Fortunately for us, several scholars provided us with versions of authentic leaders. First and foremost these types of leaders have a high self-awareness about their own values, beliefs, abilities and emotions. Furthermore there are certain positive core values which help to distinguish an authentic leader from other types. These are: honesty, fairness, accountability, kindness and a strong sense of optimism. These leaders do not seek the position itself for achieving status and power, but rather to express their values and beliefs.

Authentic leaders are motivated by self-improvement, thus they are less defensive and more open to learning from feedback. For someone to become an authentic leader he/she must think about the following questions:

- How well do you know yourself?
- What is your life story?
- For what do you stand?
- What do you do exceptionally well?
- How well do you know the people you lead?
- How safe do you make people feel?
- What attracts others to follow you?
- What entitles you to be a trusted leader?
- What is your typical response to change?
- Do you have the will to lead?

These questions – and more importantly the real answers to them – are helping a leader to become more self-aware of him/herself by building on his own past experiences and beliefs.

7.3. *Going Global: can global leadership be an answer?*

If leadership involves “people whose job or role it is to influence the thoughts and actions of others to achieve some finite set of . . . goals” (Gessner & Arnold 1999, In: Hollenbeck 2001), then global leadership is exerting this role on a global scale. Global leadership is about having global influence and about asking the question, “How can I impact the world?” not “How do I impact my own organization?”

When talking about a global leader a series of question arises: how should organizations (and/or institutions) nowadays choose people to be their future leaders? Are there specific qualities which can show a high potential for global leadership? How can organizations secure that those chosen will also be culturally flexible and function in a competent manner across borders? Are these ‘global leaders’ born or made?

Maybe the simplest way is to begin by identifying what global leadership is not. Let’s take for instance those CEO’s “who speak only English, depend on Hilton hotels, eat almost exclusively at McDonald’s, and drink Coca-Cola wherever they are in the world than they can hardly be considered global leaders” (Kets de Vries.& E.Florent-Treacy, 1999, pp. 9-10), no matter how bright they are in their home field. They’ll be unable to develop a feel for local markets, and they’ll have no other choice but to rely on others (e.g. outside experts) for information on what is going on in their foreign subsidiaries.

A global leader must have a global vision, looking well beyond traditional jurisdictions or identities. He / She must be able to communicate that vision across a diverse mix of people and interests and be heard (Hesselbein 2006). The vision always “flies” back onto the leader. It is understandable because the people (citizens) are expecting the vision and the guidance from their leader. And although it is worth to involve everybody in the process of developing the vision, the responsibility of creating it and maintaining it weighs heavily on the shoulders of the leader and this cannot be transferred onto others. If a vision is created, it depends on the leader whether the employees respond to it or not. The job of the leader is to stand up for his followers in accomplishing (reaching, fulfilling) the vision. For this to happen, it is necessary for us to prevent the arising obstacles, insuring guidelines, practical solutions and systems which all facilitate in following the vision and that all of this to be

demanding on ourselves and our co-leaders and on our employees as well. By doing so, the employees will serve the vision, and not the leader (Gál, 2013, p.78-79).

The main competencies of a global leader are: they need to acquire a strategic understanding of, and a broad interest in the socio-economic and political setting of the countries in which they work. They need to have a deep understanding of their (own) business (specifically one which is not too limited to their own area of expertise). They should understand what is going on in the world around them and they also need to be interested in other cultures as well (e.g. the ability to speak more than one language).

These new global leaders need to be a so-called ‘team players’, who are used to work in high-level management teams with people having a diverse cultural background. However they must also be ‘team builders’, keeping in mind that a ‘collegial’ leadership style is more suited to a global marketplace than an autocratic approach (Gál, 2012).

It is important to acknowledge that “although what’s a very effective leadership style for one country can be an extremely ineffective style for another” (Kets de Vries, 2001), because people aren’t always aware that cultural differences exist. This is particularly true of people who inhabit the larger countries, who can easily live under the illusion of splendid isolation. People from smaller countries – for reasons of survival – don’t have the comfort of this nationalism.

Over the last several years, the concept of ‘leadership core competencies’ or ‘skill sets’ has swept the corporate and governmental worlds with many organizations feeling that they must have their own idiosyncratic list. Left to their own devices, most organizations come to essentially the same conclusions about the basic fundamentals of good leadership. The basic competencies can generally be divided into two categories (see table 10): those that can be shared or delegated to others, and those that each leader, no matter what their level, must personally have.

Table 11: Universal, timeless competencies of leadership (based on David P. Campbell, 2006, p.143-158)

Competencies that can be shared or delegated	Competencies that each leader must personally have
<i>Vision</i> : establishing the general direction and attitude of the organization;	<i>Personal style</i> : by setting an example and thus creating an organizational climate characterized by optimism, competence and inspiration

<i>Management</i> : setting specific goals and focusing the necessary resources for achieving them;	<i>Personal energy</i> : creating a lifestyle which helps to undertake the hard tasks of leadership: e.g. stressful decisions, conflicts, frequent travelling;
<i>Empowerment</i> : selecting and developing followers who are dedicated to the (organization's) goals;	<i>Multi-cultural awareness</i> : having the necessary experience to work with other members of the organization who may have different cultural backgrounds;
<i>Diplomacy</i> : forging alliances with parties (both internal and external): e.g. superiors, subordinates;	
<i>Feedback</i> : receiving information from customers, employees etc. plus analyzing and sharing the results in a way that the affected stakeholders can accept it as valuable	
<i>Entrepreneurialism</i> : finding prospective opportunities, e.g. new product lines, a healthier environment, or creating new programs or projects;	

New environments demand new type of leaders. Many qualities of effective leadership (such as communicating a shared vision, focusing on results, providing customer satisfaction) will never change. However, five elements have appeared as apparently a higher importance in the future (Goldsmith, M., et.al. 2003):

- 1) Global thinking: the phenomenon of globally connected markets will become stronger and leaders will need to understand the economical, cultural and political consequences. Future leaders will have to learn how to achieve competitive advantage and the continuously evolving technology is another aspect that makes global thinking a necessity for future leaders.
- 2) Appreciating cultural diversity: e.g. the diversity of leadership style, the individual behaviours and values, etc. The ability to motivate people in different cultures will become more and more important. However it should be noted that (motivational) strategies that are effective in one culture may be insulting in another culture.

3) Developing technological savvy: many present leaders still view technological experience as important only for employees in charge with the different operations, but not for them. However over time organizations having leaders with technological savvy will have a competitive advantage over their competitors. Without it, the future of joined global partnerships would be impossible.

4) Building partnerships and alliances: the tendency of forming alliances will grow and become stronger in the future. This means to have the ability of negotiations and managing complex networks with different relationships. Future leaders will need to be less controlling; more emotionally fierce and most importantly, they have to show a willingness to share authority and decision making within the organization.

5) Sharing leadership: over time this may be considered as mandatory, and not just an option.. Leaders must also learn to establish a social construction that encourages bright, motivated and confident people to work together successfully.

The following table summarizes the constant factors (those that will never change) vs. the above mentioned changing (new) factors:

Table 12: Constant vs. Changing factors of leadership

<i>Constant factors – features of efficient leadership characteristics</i>	<i>Changing factors, which will be more important in the future</i>
Communicating a common vision	Thinking globally
Displaying integrity	Appreciating cultural diversity
Emphasizing results	Developing technological savvy
Providing customer satisfaction	Building partnerships and alliances
	Sharing leadership

The global leaders of the future will be required to have not only the professional knowledge to lead, but also the innovative and strategic mindset to maintain a competitive advantage in the industry. The pressure to continually deliver more, better, and faster results will require the global leader to rely on the intellectual capital within the organization and perhaps even outside of it.

Part III. - Theoretical overview: Organizational Culture

8. The origin of the concept: Organizational Culture

When reviewing the organizational culture I will emphasize the most relevant aspects for the research.

The concept of organizational culture got into the centre of attention of organization researchers in the '80s. This growing interest was due to three main factors:

- challenges arising from the Japanese competitors' side;
- the western (primarily American) endeavours being aimed at stabilizing the industry on a economic ground;
- the failures experienced during the alternative organization shaping experiments (like the matrix type of organizations) being aimed at exceeding the inefficient functioning of organizations;

After the appearance of the topic it got very popular, it was examined in many different aspects creating an amount of publications which is almost impossible to go over. To make matters worse, the term of culture has been the subject of debate in the last 25-28 years and there are different approaches and studies to describe culture (e.g. Hofstede, 1991; Deal and Kennedy, 2000; Martin, 2002; Cameron and Quinn, 2006; etc.). However this great number of studies also signifies the fact that the concept of culture has an important role in the academic domain. Another good reason for this growing "phenomenon": the culture plays a central part in all aspects of organizational life. It can be stated - with some exaggeration - from the literature of the organizational culture, that everybody may choose a tendency, an approach from the huge amount of publications according to their own pleasure or interest.

The culture of an organization is frequently seen as being a difficult characteristic to describe because – as we will see during this chapter – several forms of the culture are intangible and therefore cannot be seen (Jreisat, 1997).

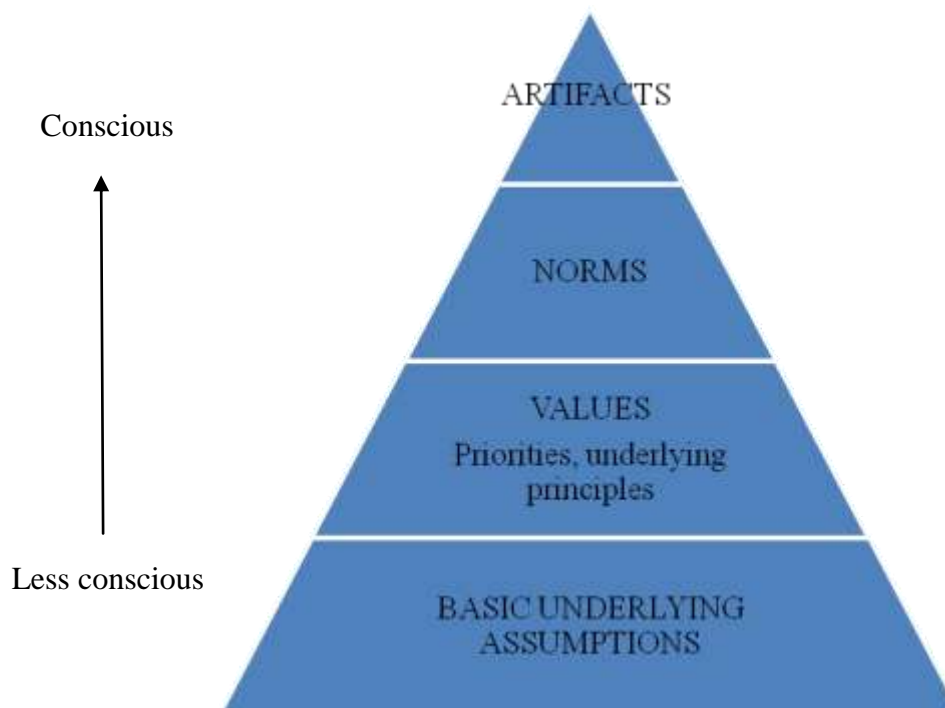
A general, broad definition of organizational culture can be described as follows: "presuppositions, beliefs, norms and a system of values which are accepted and jointly interpreted by the members of the organization" and through its stability and its systemic effect on the individual behaviour result to (a certain degree) the predictability of the individuals and organizations behaviour (Bakacsi, 2004, p. 223). In an extended view

however the visible, material factors of the organizational culture are also included such as: the typical rituals, language usage, clothing, organizational symbols, etc.

Like leadership, the term of culture also easily captures ‘everything and nothing’, thus we need a more precise understanding of how the term should be used in an organizational setting. The level of interest for organizational culture has grown significantly due to two books – Peters & Waterman: *In search of excellence* and Deal – Kennedy: *Corporate cultures* – which further intensified where the “strength of organizational culture” was presented as the key for the organizational success.

One of the most well-known scholar who dealt with the organizational culture a lot is Edgar Schein, who among other things, pointed out that organizational culture is developed by the employees and the leaders while they are trying to adapt to the exterior and interior circumstances: maintaining the approach (and “teaching” it to the new employees) that proves to be efficient in problem-solving, and rejecting all of the approaches which turned out to be useless or harmful (Schein, 2004). According to Schein the culture has four levels:

Figure 9: The four levels of culture (based on Schein)



If we wish to analyze the different levels and/or the content of this pyramid, we have to start right at the top since by the “artifacts” Schein refers to the elements which can be found at the surface of any organization (e.g. the used technology, the language, the tangible environment, etc.). According to Schein the most relevant point which should be made

regarding this level of the culture is: that it is both easy to observe, but in the same time it is very difficult to decipher (Schein, 2004).

The next two levels consist of the norms and values which predict much of the behaviour that can be observed at the artifacts level. Somewhere in-between these levels it can get difficult for an “outsider” to fully understand the culture of an organization, thus we remain with the sense that we can grasp certain pieces of the culture but still we do not have the culture as such in hand. If we wish to go to a deeper level of understanding in order to interpret the patterns, and to predict future behaviour correctly, we have to understand the category of (basic) underlying assumptions (the so-called “taken-for-granted truths”).

Other researchers believe that culture represents to an organization what personality is to an individual (Cartwright and Cooper, 1993). Therefore, they suggest that culture serves as a strength which draws organizational members together, thus creating a sense of cohesion (Schraeder et.al., 2004). More importantly being aware of the organization’s culture provides guidance which allows employees to be more supportive of the organization’s missions (Schulz, 2001). For example “organizations in the service industry, may benefit from strong cultures where the values are shared and supported throughout the organization” (Chatman and Jehn, 1994). This represents a relevant component because most public sector organizations are classified as “service industry” organizations (Schraeder et. al., 2004).

In a general sense there are some differences between private and public organizations which are mainly due to the uniqueness of the external environment which creates the boundaries and possibilities of these organizations. Nowadays, public sector organizations are facing multiple challenges and pressure in order to adapt to significant changes thanks to the external environment (Schraeder et.al., 2004). “If the culture of the public sector organizations is not adapted to better suit the environmental needs than it could easily lead to a continuation or increase in management turnover within these organizations” (Valle, 1999) (this is also valid for the private organizations as well).

9. The dimensions of culture

One of the most prominent researches (also this is the element on which this current research relies on when analyzing the elements, characteristics of organizational culture) was carried out by Geert Hofstede (Dutch psychologist) who analyzed the context of national and organizational cultures. Within this research a number of 120000 questionnaires were filled out, in more than 40 countries. In the examinations participants were assigned into two groups (leaders and employees) based on a uniform criterion system. As a result of this study the researchers found four dimensions in which certain national culture differ greatly from each other:

Power distance: presents the willingness of a culture to accept power and status differences among its members, plus it also shows the degree to which people are likely to respect the hierarchical chain and rank within the organization.

Power distance is often interpreted as a concept which has a (highly) negative effect on the organizational progress, participation (and/or empowerment) of employees. Also this construct is frequently associated with the term of collectivism. In a high power distance culture, decisions are made autocratically. On a positive note we can emphasize that decision making is much faster since there is little resistance from lower level employees, however because of the absence of this element (the input of the employees) the quality of the decisions tends to be poorer.

Individualism-collectivism: if we take a (random) look at some cultures around the world and what their assumptions are about how people relate one to another we will find some obvious differences. Thus this dimension illustrated the degree to which people are likely to choose working as individuals or working as a cohesive unit in groups. Although it is safe to say that in practice every society and organization must emphasize both the group and the individual in the way that neither makes sense without the other.

This is the dimension which can “found” both at the societal and organizational levels. Individualism focuses on individual goals that may or may not be in accordance with the organizational goals and where people are driven by the achievement of their own (personal) ambitions. Collectivism means that the goals of the organization are more important than the personal interests of the individual(s), with an emphasis on a high level of cooperation, and (group) consensus.

Humane orientation (masculinity-femininity): this dimension expresses how prevailing are the values of toughness (e.g. success and competition, assertiveness, which are

usually seen as being masculine traits) as opposed to the values of interpersonal sensitivity (e.g. concerns for relationships, caring about the weak ones, solidarity, characteristics which are connected to the feminine traits in almost every society).

Humane orientation implies accepting that people make mistakes plus the organizational (societal) members are rewarded for displaying kindness and encouragement towards others.

Uncertainty avoidance: reflects the degree to which people are likely to prefer structured versus unstructured organizational situations. Structured are situations in which there are clearly defined rules of how one should behave. Those cultures where the level of uncertainty is high can be considered as being rigid. In such cases people have a bigger tendency toward concern, anxiety, being agitated, and where this value is low people are much more flexible, looser towards different issues.

These four dimensions were later supplemented by Hofstede with a fifth dimension (based on the Chinese Values Survey carried out by Michael Bond and his colleagues):

Long-term/short-term orientation: here the culture emphasizes values associated with the future (like persistence, thriftiness, etc.) or values that focus mainly on the present. It shows the degree to which organizations adopt long-term or short-term performance horizons (Schermerhorn, et.al, 2010).

In other words this can be labelled as “*future orientation*” (from a managerial perspective) is considered to be the most important “decision variable” for all organizations since it symbolizes the problem of allocation of resources over time. The importance of the construct of “future orientation” for organizations was emphasized by numerous researchers (e.g. Ouchi, 1981; Quinn and McGrath, 1985; Bluedorn, 2000, Hofstede, 2001).

These dimensions have serious human resource management consequences, which should be worth taking into account when forming the personnel policy (table 13).

Table 13: The HR-management consequences of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions (source: Klein, B. and Klein, S., 2012, p.725)

Dimension		HR-management consequences
Power distance	High	Centralised decision making Many controllers/leaders Autocratic leadership
	Low	Decentralized decision making Few controllers/leaders

		Participative leadership
Individualism	High	The employees are watching over their own (personal) interests For poor performance the natural outcome is dismissal Individual trainings
	Low	The employees are putting the groups interest first In case of poor performance the employee receives other type of work Group trainings
Humane orientation (masculinity)	High	There are few women in the technical/expert type of activities Ambition towards maintaining of the traditional gender roles The men present themselves as being more competitive (rivalry), than the women
	Low	There are more women in the technical/expert type of activities The employees' gender does not influence the achievement of the positions The women men present themselves as being more competitive (rivalry), than the men
Uncertainty	High	The acceptance of the solutions with a technical character Strong sense of loyalty towards the employer The innovators are tied down by the rules
	Low	The solutions with a technical character are received doubtfully The employees are slightly loyal towards the employer The innovators are not tied down by rules
Long-term orientation	High	The forging of relationships and the repairmen of the markets situation are valued The good human contacts are seen as being the sources of the workplace satisfaction The later satisfaction of the needs is accepted
	Low	The results, profits attained on the short-term are valued They are not satisfied merely because of the good human contacts Their needs are expected to be met promptly

10. Organizational culture types – Charles Handy

Charles Handy (1995) is prominent for his characterization of four (dominant) types of leaders each one corresponding to a god of the Greek mythology. Handy also distinguished the fundamental types of organizational cultures that correspond to different types of organizations.

10.1. Power culture

According to Handy, Zeus could be the patron of the power culture. The organizations structure which possesses this type of a culture reminds us of the spider web, in which all power, influence and authority is concentrated in the centre. There are few formal rules and procedural regulations, minor bureaucracy, since the power centre exercises control through the persons by placing the suitable people into key positions and by having them report back to the centre. The efficiency of this type of organizations depends considerably on the belief and the trust of the members in the strength of the owner of the principal power, on how much they feel and think like he/she. This type of organizational culture has a political feature in the sense that the decisions are made mostly based on the power relations and not on a logical basis. Handy also stated that the power culture is ideal for quick decision-making.

10.2. Role culture

For the role culture Handy assigned Apollo as the patron since the two elements that serve as a driving force (essence) for this type of a culture are the logic and rationality. This type of culture can be illustrated as a Greek temple. The columns and beams of the temple represent the different functions and divisions inside an organization. As Handy describes: “the pillars are joined managerially only at the top, the pediment, where the heads of the functions and divisions join together to form the board, management committee, or president’s office” (Handy, 1985, p.44). In addition of being linked at the base of the temple, the pillars are also connected through rules and processes. The essence of the role culture consists of the fact that there is a detailed, written regulation which expands to all important areas within the organization. Efficiency is measured according to meeting deadlines and reaching the objectives. In this culture the role means that the requirements of the job description are considered to be more important than the characteristics of an individual. In addition the individual initiations, innovations and ideas are not desirable. Thus it does not come as a surprise that organizations with this type of a culture are opposed to changes. If a change in

the environment were to occur the organization would probably collapse just as the Greek temples would (or did). These kinds of organizations perceive the necessity of the change only under a longer time period, they change slowly, and only to a degree which is necessary to maintain survival.

10.3. Task culture

Organizations following the job-oriented or the so-called Athena culture see management as being focused only with the (successful) solution of problems. This can be accomplished by first locating the problem, followed by the allocation of resources (in order to fix the problem and see the results). Performance in this case is measured by the results or problems solved. This type of culture is represented as “a net”, illustrating that the organizations following this culture are drawing their resources from various parts of the organization in order to deal with the arising problems. These organizations are characterized by extraordinary flexibility and adaptability. The composition of a group (team) can change from one task to another, it can get re-organized, and in an optimal case if the group has the necessary decision making power and resources at their disposal, than they can carry out the tasks quickly and efficiently. These organizations work well, if there are enough resources, the atmosphere within the teams is good, the groups collaborate with each other and if the main value is represented by the product and/or customer orientation. A possible downfall of this type of organizations is that usually task cultures are expensive organizations and Handy argues that this stems from the fact that staffing of the organizations is handled by experts who demand their market worth. Furthermore, Handy asserts that the task cultures have a short life. The competition begins between the groups (or amongst them) if all projects do not get their share of enough material and human resources. Thus the leaders will have to step in with the use of their power to make a decision and will have to introduce certain control mechanisms instead of the previously used result based assessment. As a result the task culture will start to transform into role or power culture.

10.4. Person culture

The aim of this culture is to serve its every single member, to help the individual accomplish his/hers goal and aspiration. Handy describes this type of culture as a cluster of individual who are loosely organized in a form of a circle. The patron assigned from the Greek gods to this particular culture type would be Dionysus. This type is exactly the opposite of the previous three, since there the individual helps the organization to achieve its purpose. Here

the members of the organization are not interdependent as such if one or more members decide to exit the organization this will not cause an organizational change. The manager plays little role (if any), he can only manage by consent so a long, delayed round of negotiations can occur since every member has the right of veto.

Of course, this is not to say that Handy's classification represents the "one-best-way" approach. There were other studies conducted by using (similar) typologies and classifications, like Deal and Kennedy's four (universal) types of cultures ("tough guy/macho culture", "the work hard/play hard culture", "the bet-your company culture", "the process culture"), Scholtz (1987) identified five primary culture typologies (stable, reactive, anticipating, exploring, creative), etc. This also provides a broad overview of the variations that exist between theorists when it comes to give a description about this concept. These mainly evolved over time.

The importance of this academic understanding of the different types of culture is not that the types exist in any pure form within organisations. It's possible for organisations to display several cultural types (O'Donnell, O., Boyle, R., 2008) at the same time. The goal of this sub-chapter was to illustrate that such classifications can aid us in our understanding of predominant cultures and in addition we can determine what kind of adjustments are needed if culture is to be altered in order to support new values and methods.

11. The role of leadership in culture building and evolving

After having described what we mean by organisational culture, what are the dimensions, and different typologies of culture it is time to shift back the focus on leadership, more importantly the role that leadership has in forming and embedding culture inside an organization.

11.1. The role of the leader in framing the culture

We can only entirely understand the relationship of leadership to culture if we consider the "developmental view" of how an organization grows over time. Why? Because as organizations tend to grow and develop, so do their cultures and the leaders have a key role in forming, adjusting the culture as time goes by.

We should always keep in mind, that culture is established by shared knowledge, but it is the leader who triggers this process by stating his/her values and beliefs, at the beginning. When an organization comes to existence we usually like to give credit to its founder(s). He

or she – to be more precise their impact - represents the most important element for cultural beginnings because they not only will select the basic assignments and the environmental setting in which the organization will function, but they will also choose the members of the organization in order to achieve the established goals. A key rule in organization theory: “organizations do not form accidentally or spontaneously” (Schein, 2004, p. 226). They always have at least one (or more) goals and are created because a coordinated action of a number of people can achieve something that individual and/or personal actions cannot. So the process of culture creation must start first from creating a small group.

As an organization stabilizes (thanks to the success in achieving its primary task), . One possible way of getting their message through the organization is by having that unique personal characteristic (namely the charisma). But there are other possibilities to reach this step and these can be classified into two major categories:

- a) Primary embedding mechanisms (they have the tendency of reinforcing each other in the case when the leaders beliefs and expectations are consistent) focus on: measure, and control on a regular basis; how leaders react to urgent events and critical situations; how leaders set aside the resources which are at their disposal; teaching, mentoring and coaching; and on how they manage recruitment, selection, and promotion;
- b) The secondary connection and reinforcement systems (works only if they are “compatible” with the primary mechanisms) consist of: “structure and design of the organization; different rites and rituals; stories, myths about important events and people within the organization (mostly in the past);

With growth the distinction into different subgroups will come, and these (over time) will develop their own cultures thus sub-cultures will arise. Here one of the crucial functions of leadership is to recognize the cultural effects that will develop due to the different sub-cultures. It is up to the leader to find ways of integrating and managing these different sub-cultures.

11.2. Leaders and culture change

The degree to which culture can (and does) change relies upon the stage at which the organization currently resides. It is a given that it is easier to modify the culture if the organization is still in the growth stage, where leaders can change the organizational structures and/or processes, the way they select, promote or dismiss staff, etc. Once the

culture is in a more stable stage (over time) leaders will soon discover that their changing efforts will be strongly limited.

a) The founding stage and early expansion

This is the first stage where the founder – which should be considered as being primary – is to distinguish the organization from the (external) environment and as well from other organizations. At this stage the implications for change are still understandable. The culture in young and developing organizations is expected to be strongly conformed to since:

- those who created the primary culture are still present;
- the culture aids the organization in having an identity of its own;
- several factors of the culture are functioning as defence mechanisms because the organization in this stage still fights to build and establish itself;

Then the question remains how then does culture change in this first phase? A leader – or in this case the founder – has some change mechanisms at its disposal. For example if the organization is not under too much (external) pressure, the culture develops in small steps by continuing to comprehend what works best over time. This change contains “two processes: general evolution and specific evolution” (Sahlin and Service, 1960). General evolution involves growing complexity, diversification and higher levels of differentiation. Specific evolution – as the name suggests – “involves the adaptation of specific parts of the organization to their particular environments” (ibidem, p. 295). Also this is the system that triggers subgroups to establish different subcultures. Another mechanism of change is through insight. This is needed in order to assess the culture’s strengths and weaknesses and ultimately to help it modify the assumptions in case it becomes necessary to ensure survival of the organization.

b) Midlife stage: problems arising

Probably the most critical process occurs within this stage, since a change is almost inevitable when the founder must pass on the reigns of the organization to other leaders. Even if the new leader was close to the founder some changes will occur and these will also affect the organizations culture. During this transition phase conflicts will emerge between those who can be labelled as “conservatives” (who like and agree with the “founding culture”) and the “radicals” who would like to change the culture – or at least some elements from it. The element of danger can occur if the members of the organization overlook those elements of the culture which have lead to success and identity of the organization. If this occurs, then they will change the elements that they’ve valued in the previous stage.

At this stage there may also be strong forces towards culture spread, due to the powerful subcultures that will develop, also a highly integrated culture is hard to maintain especially in case of large organizations. This means that the strength of the midlife organization lies in the divergence of its subcultures. Leaders assess the strengths and weaknesses of these subcultures and then the entire culture should be based neutrally on one of those subcultures which can be obtained by promoting people from that subculture into power positions within the total culture (Schein, 2004). The only detriment to this change instrument is that it's very slow and therefore time consuming.

Another way to change the shared assumptions within the organization is by modifying the configuration of the dominant groups within the organization. The most frequently met example is when a new leader is brought on board as a result of a merger or an acquisition. Usually new leaders have a tendency of bringing in their own people (who share their vision) and he/she gets rid of those employees who represent the "old" ways of how things were carried out in the organization during the previous leader's time. This measure will destroy the group or the subculture that has brought to light the total culture and gradually it will start a process by which a new culture can be created.

The third change instrument stems from the development of a set of myths and legends about how the organization works. This was what Schein labelled as "espoused values". It is not unlikely that these values of the organization can be to a certain degree "out of line with the actual assumptions that govern daily practice" (idem, p. 309). In such cases myth "explosions" become significant as instruments of culture change. The advantage of this element lies in the realization by organization members that something is not functioning as it should and therefore it needs to be fixed. Hence why this is the only mechanism whereby leaders can identify when espoused values and implicit assumptions are out of line with each other.

c) The maturity stage

If success is continuously assured then a strong culture will also be created. The age of an organizations matters if culture transformation, modification is needed. If the organization had a long history of positive achievements it is unlikely to re-examine its culture. Experts, advisors can be brought in and new alternatives, approaches can be established. However if these alternatives are not suitable with the old culture then resistance will shortly follow by the members of the organizations. In situations like this, the choices for the leader are between quick, fast transformations of part of the culture – this will allow "the organization to become

adaptive” (ibidem, p. 314) to the environmental changes through some kind of “turnaround” – or the other option is to (totally) destruct the existing culture (e.g. via a merger, acquisition).

Turnarounds in most cases can only be achieved if all members of the organization are involved. If this occurs, then the dysfunctional elements of the old culture can be easily identified. In case of mergers and/or acquisitions there will inevitable be a culture “clash” since it is highly unlikely that two organizations will have the same identical culture. It is then up to the leadership to find solutions for handling this clash. The leader can choose from three possible scenarios:

- leave the two cultures as they are in order to continue to evolve in their own way;
- let one culture to gradually start to dominate the other culture;
- mixing the two, by choosing components from both cultures for the newly formed organization;

Table 14 summarizes the culture changing instruments at each stage of life of an organization.

Table 14: Culture change mechanisms (source: based on Schein, 2004, p.292)

Organizational phase/stage	Change mechanism
a) Founding and early expansion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Additional change through “general and specific evolution”; • Intuitiveness;
b) Midlife	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematic advancement from selected subcultures; • Adding (expert) outsiders; • “Explosion of myths”;
c) Maturity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Turnarounds”; • Mergers and acquisitions;

11.3. *Cross-cultural leadership: The GLOBE project*

Although most of the research on leadership during the past half century was carried out in the United States, Canada and Western Europe, interest in studying leadership in non-Western cultures has also started to increase over the past 10-15 years. The main issue focuses on the range to which leadership theories developed and tested in one culture can be generalized to other (different) cultures. As previously mentioned in chapter 7, globalization requires leaders to turn their focus on finding solutions on how to impact and handle people

who have different beliefs, norms and values. This has led to the idea of cross-cultural research on leadership (see e.g. House, Wright & Aditya, 1997). The increasing globalization of organizations requires from us to learn more about effective leadership in distinctive cultural environments.

Much of the cross-cultural research on leadership involves leader behaviour, traits and skills. Some studies examine differences in the relationship of leadership behaviour, skills and traits to outcomes such as subordinate satisfaction, motivation and performance.

GLOBE stands for “Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness” and the project consisted of a “cross-cultural” research of leadership in more than 60 different countries. These countries were selected on the basis of obtaining participants from all major regions of the world. The aim of the study was to construct an empirically based theory which illustrates “the relationships between societal culture, organizational processes and leadership” (Yukl, 2010, p. 458). The research questions which were used focused on the extent to which effective leadership is similar or different across cultures and what are the reasons in the case of differences. The concept of this worldwide research project which targeted leadership and organizational methods, procedures was created back in 1991.

The goal of this sub-chapter is not to offer an in-depth presentation of the entire project, but to summarize briefly the main elements of the probably most well-known global researches of this magnitude which have placed leadership and culture in its centre of attention. Therefore two important research questions should be presented since they are relevant for this present research. The first one deals with the extent to which there are universal beliefs about what can be considered as effective leader attributes. Researchers have asked respondents to rate the significance of several traits and skills for effective leadership. The amount for variance in mean ratings across different countries was examined, and the leader attributes that were rated nearly the same in each country were identified. This also offered the possibility to list those attributes which were considered by the respondents as being ineffective.

Table 15: Cultural beliefs about ideal leader attributes (based on Dorman et. al., 2004; In: Yukl, 2010, p.459)

Rated Effective in most cultures	Ratings varied across cultures
Visionary	Ambitious
Decisive	Cautious
Dynamic	Compassionate
Dependable	Domineering

Encouraging and positive	Formal
Excellence-oriented	Humble
Honest and trustworthy	Independent
Skilled administrator	Risk taker
Team integrator	Self-sacrificing

The second important research question focused on the cross-cultural differences on leadership beliefs and behaviour. What researchers have done at this step, was to extend the taxonomy of “value dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980, 1993) and they were able to identify nine dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation” (ibidem, p. 459). These cultural dimensions represent the core GLOBE cultural dimensions.

The researchers within the project had a difficult task on elaborating a working definition of leadership (this is quite frequent, while there is no universally agreed-upon definition within the literature) that shows their diverse viewpoints. Eventually a consensus emerged: the GLOBE definition of leadership is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members” (House & Javidan, 2004, p.15). While the term of culture – which also caused some debate for the researchers – for the project GLOBE is defined as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House & Javidan, 2004, p.15).

Part IV. - The models: NPM, NWS, NPG

The public “sector reform has been a common experience throughout the world despite its different” (O’Flynn, 2007, p. 353) shapes and forms. What is the current state of the public administration system? Where are we headed? What are our options? What could be the optimal model for our country? These are just a few questions which public administration practitioners, researchers and scholars alike are asking from time to time when a debate on public management reforms arises. Furthermore it has become important because it is strongly related to improving the effectiveness of the government in reply to the increasing and changing needs of society. This part of the thesis does not aim to present whether model “A” is better, than model “B” or model “C” is better than model “A”, rather it is focused on giving a presentation of each of these models which are at the disposal of PA practitioners who are in charge of implementing a public management reform change (if needed). Each of the models has its own strong and weak points; this will be also presented within this part of the paper. “In our days it seems that the scholarly attention has started to move away to some degree from the New Public Management and has journeyed to a realm of many debates, with possible “newcomer” models, however there is a still high amount of concern towards the reform of the public sector as a whole, with the help of a good reform model. But what makes a model to be good (or optimally ‘good enough’)? Should we just try to focus on finding one good model (one best way) or each country – based on their own peculiarities – better yet country experts should develop their own working model which takes into consideration the specific political, economical, social and cultural aspects which are characterizing a country?” (Gal, 2014, p. 65).

12. The New Public Management (NPM)

12.1. Understanding the concept of NPM

From where does this so-called ‘saviour’ of the public sector emanates? What are its origins? The movement itself began in the early ‘80s and its first experts were in the United Kingdom during the Margaret Thatcher era, but the U.S., (specifically some municipal governments) was not far behind. Later the governments of Australia and New Zealand also jumped on the NPM “ship”. Due to the success that the model had in these countries NPM soon was on the radar of most OECD countries (OECD, 1995). Therefore by “the end of the 20th century, a post-bureaucratic paradigm of public management was firmly embedded” (Gal,

2014, p. 67) in several countries. All of this reflected a tendency to break away from the classical bureaucratic administrative model. NPM has been depicted as one of the most impressive international “movements” in public management (Hood, 1998, 2000; Hood and Lodge, 2004). NPM was soon seen both as “powerful trend within public administration scholarship and practice and as well as a genuine ideological concept” (Drechsler, 2009, p. 9).

The following factors can be mentioned, as being the direct antecedents for the development of the “new public management” (Rákosa, 2002, p. 19):

- the recession which took place in the 80’s sharpened the economic competition between the three world economy centres. The existing financial difficulties, respectively the high level of governmental expenses compared to the national income played a decisive role in considerably motivating the shortening of the budgets;
- the aspects of quality and efficiency of the services came into centre stage. In parallel with the expansion of the market and globalization, the quality and the efficiency of the products in the private sector has measurably increased within a wide circle of the population. As a result to this a similar improvement was expected from the society towards the quality and efficiency of the traditional “welfare state”.
- we also have to mention the political-ideological “strings” as well. The re-evaluation of the state’s role and the increase of the influence of the private sector and its role (well funded multinational companies and the positional improvement of transnational firms);

It started from the Anglo-Saxon countries, after which - with more or less intensity - it was able to prevail everywhere in the modern civil world’s countries. The politicians also pressed for the administrative reforms, because as a result of the differentiated and quality wise more demanding social expectations, the appearing shortcomings of the public service started jeopardizing the legitimacy of the modern democracy’s political system (Jenei, 2005, p. 24).

The requirements of the economic competitiveness intensified in such a way, that the public services, the function of its rich infrastructural background and its standards was connected with the socio-economic processes as a strategically important resource of the economic competitiveness. This also meant the questioning whether the increase of the economic competitiveness will supposedly lead to a minimization of the states involvement and a decrease of its intervention (ibidem., p. 24).

The states may replace their economic margin which was lost mainly because of the globalization by establishing supra-national institutions on a European level and within these

frameworks they are capable to efficiently represent the public interest. The historical reason for the Anglo-Saxon model's development was that in these states the privately owned organizations were already in the focus of the economic developments when the market economy was starting to develop (Imre, 2011).

As a result of the economic, social and political challenges the traditional, weberian administration was transformed in its core. The modern public administration systems got under the pressure of the market requirements.

The Anglo-Saxon model traditionally dislikes the state intervention, respectively it's concerned with the free market's function (ibidem, p.4).

If we turn our attention to the NPM literature we will find it to be very amorphous, but this is somewhat expectable in an interdisciplinary, policy-oriented field. The groups of those states which represented the NPM are well-known in the Anglo-Saxon literature and a enormous amount of materials discuss the NPM model (e.g. Hood, 1991; Boston et.al., 1996; Hood, 1996; Lane, 2000; Pollitt, 1995, 2003a).

In expressing the NPM paradigm in the early '90s (O'Flynn, 2007) Hood identified the main components as follows: "hands-on professional management; explicit standards and measures of performance; greater emphasis on output controls; disaggregation of units in the public sector; greater competition in the public sector; private sector styles of management practice; and greater discipline and parsimony in resource use" (Hood, 1991, p. 4-5).

It should be noted that NPM has some common features (peculiarities) – indisputable features which are being referenced by almost every scientific material, researcher in almost all the cases – these are presented in table 16 which are complemented by some debatable elements which are mentioned by some – but not all – researchers (Hood, 1991; Nashold et al., 1995; Boston, Martin, Pallott, & Walsh, 1996).

Table 16: The characteristics of NPM (source: based on the work of Gruening, G., 2001, p.2)

Indisputable features (identified by most of the researchers)	Debatable features (identified by some of the researchers)
Budget reductions	Legal, budget and spending constraints
Accountability based on performance	The rationalization of the jurisdiction
Privatization	Policy analysis and assessment
The citizen becomes a client	Improved regulation
Decentralization	The rationalization of the administrative structures
Strategic planning and management	

The separation of supply and production Competitive spirit Performance measurement Changing management style Contracting out Bigger flexibility The separation of the politics and the public administration. Improved financial management Making use of the informational technology in a bigger measure.	Democratization and citizen participation
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Based on the argumentations presented until now, it is clear that NPM consists of a number of components. “NPM deals with the modernization of public institutions and the new forms of leadership” (Schedler and Proeller, 2000, p.14) while its aim is the states and the public administrations economic modernization. The NPM should not be mistaken for an administrative discipline or a scientific tendency rather it should be viewed as a movement of which the aims are the creation and the maintenance of an efficient public administration. “This management model is not a legal concept although it has some legal concerns” (Fábián, 2011, p.146). NPM devotes little attention to the legal regulation, actually it only shares one of its roles, namely that is should nominate the (wide) frameworks in which the efficient public administration with a new view may come true.

If we choose to operate and/or implement this model we should know its components and the tools that are at our disposal (see table 17).

Table 17: The components and tools of NPM

Components	Tools
The reduction of those who are employed by the public sector, a new staff politics model	Introduction of a performance oriented system – e.g. performance-related pays, rewards
Privatization	It can only be taken into consideration as a limited tool (first it is necessary to establish which are those tasks that should be carried out by the state)

Increasing the level of independence of the units of public administration	Decentralization
Creating similar circumstance to the market competition	Applying and executing efficiency related examinations
The improvement of the public administration's quality	Forming a competitive view; Total Quality Management
Creation of a "lean administration"	Contracting out; PPP (public-private partnership) investments;
Client oriented public administration	Understandable regulation; Deregulation of uncertain and/or redundant regulations; Easy programs; Improving the quality of administrative services; information desks ("windows") in public institutions, etc.
Separating public administration and the politics	Creating executive agencies (regarding their function should be viewed as independent units) within the ministries

When comparing the components with the available tools of NPM there is a lot more overlap than differences. This supports the claim that despite the fact that NPM undeniably has a country specific character, in its fundamental characteristics tends to be similar in all states. The essence of NPM – even if in a slightly simplistic way – is that the state is not the sole directing character for the society, but only one of its characters and thus it loses its monopoly status.

12.2. *The wave of criticism*

With every model there is bound that we will have participants who will be in favour of a particular model and another group who will be against it. NPM proved to be no exception to this rule. On the one hand critics argued with the comparison "between public administration – private sector and with the antithesis of their characteristics. In the private sector there are some concepts, processes which can be hard to interpret within the public sector such as the profit, the relationship between supply-demand, the continuous expansion or the competition" (Gal, 2014, pp. 69-70). Approaching all of this from the other direction it is difficult to insert into the managerial view terms such as the "common good" or the

category of “public interest”. The two sectors work in different environment, the area of the private sector is the market and the ownerships, while the public sectors area is the democracy and the constitutional state.

Another fundamental problem originates from the fact that the aim of the two systems differs: the private sectors aim beside the cost reduction is represented by profit maximization, while the public administration’s aim is to ensure the delivery of public services to the entire community possibly with an identical standard for every citizen.

The continental European tradition was more than against NPM, as Hesse describes it “the introduction of business approaches in PA, as advocated by NPM concepts, may well prove disastrous in systems based on a continental European tradition in which either the preconditions may not be in place or where they may be rejected due to their inherent logic” (Hesse, 1998, p.176). NPM can very well backfire if forced upon countries in transitional or developing phase. If we don’t have a well-functioning democratic administrative system in place than there is no chance of applying this model (successfully).

Ethical issues were also raised concerning NPM. Although the model gives transparency for the public sector, it might still lead to corrupt practices (Barberis, 1998) since in wealthy countries, NPM can weaken ethical standards and therefore lead to corruption. If we talk about of increased managerial autonomy in the case of NPM, than we will also bring in a “foggy” accountability thus the possibility for public managers to become corrupt will rise.

Some of the more frequently met criticisms against NPM in developing countries are:

- (as already stated) NPM does not appeal developing countries since governments may lack the required expertise, furthermore, the lack of resources and managerial capacity also prohibit the implementation of NPM reforms (Caiden and Sundaram, 2004);
- “although the NPM principle of decentralization has diffused from rich countries into developing countries, governments often retain centralized decision making” (Mongkol, 2011);
- as we know one of the basic principles of NPM is that it applies “market principles into public policy and management. The problem with this element is that developing country governments have only very little experience in the operation of markets” (Hughes, 2003);

- the difficulty of moving “to contractual arrangements for the delivery of services, because the necessary laws and the enforcement of contracts are not well established” (Mongkol, 2011);

Beside these the NPM reforms brought new dilemmas to the surface, such as:

- Where should we draw the line between the public and the private sector?
- Where do we need to draw the line between politics and administration?
- How can we enforce the minorities’ needs and their interests in the function of the public institutions?
- What is the suitable balance between centralization and decentralization?
- How is it possible to coordinate efficiently the formally autonomous (and in the same time functionally in a mutual dependence) public institutions?
- How is it possible to measure performance without having a common initial basis?

The world economic crisis which erupted back in 2008 was the final blow to NPM because it gave rock solid evidence that the administrative performance of the business sector is not necessarily better than of the governments. Without a strong state, administrative supervision the so-called harmonizing activity of the market ceases to exist.

13. The Neo-Weberian State (NWS)

13.1. From the traditional Weberian model to NWS

“We can definitely ask ourselves the question that why are we still discussing bureaucracy today (2015)? Under ideal circumstances it would make perfect sense to raise this and similar other questions since the German sociologist Max Weber wrote his rationale that described the bureaucratic arrangement as representing the ideal way of organizing public institutions in the 1930s” (Gal, 2015, p. 41). Weber’s model is treated as a descriptive version of the Taylorian-Fordist organizational model based on scientific management (Gajduszek, 2014). However if we look from the opposite side of this point of view, than we can affirm that this is exactly why we have to discuss this theory because it was used for so long, then it must mean that some of its elements are still functioning in many organizations today. But how exactly did Weber see that bureaucracy can make public administration (PA) and thus the institutions within PA to be more efficient? He basically viewed the whole work process as being organized like “a set of offices (“bureaus”) in which the civil servants were engaged in their operations under the principles of hierarchy, division of labour, with a merit selection system, using a high number of written forms, career advancement and legality. And so the

increase of rationality was obtained and with it the increase of speed, cost-effectiveness, and predictability were met, criteria's which all had a high level of need from the society" (Gal, 2015, p. 42).

Weber, while warned against the dangers and some inhumane (i.e. de-personalized) nature of bureaucracy, named this form of organization as the only adequate administrative form for the legalistic authority, which, in a historical perspective may be identified with the democratic political arrangement emphasizing the rule of law (Gajduschek, 2014).

In today's theoretical and practical organisations two governing principles exist for and against the bureaucratic organizations. The protectors of bureaucracy claim that the bureaucratic system works well just like a well oiled machine in the case of stable, big organizations.

Robbins (1983) considers that the explanation for the functioning of bureaucratic systems in modern organisations is: functional in many organizations; the successful organizations are growing, developing in size and bureaucracies work well in the case of big organisations; the slow social changes still value greatly the order; the "professional bureaucracies" appear and its forms are meeting the requirements of the informal revolution; the standardization and the strength centralization are considered such weapons of bureaucracy of which an equivalent was not found yet (Huczynski-Buchanan 1985, p. 426). The principal criticism which hit the bureaucratic organization was due to the fact of how it is not able to react quickly to the society's changing (rapidly) needs, the structural "freeze" (inflexibility) and the money scattering which follows from this.

If we take into consideration the modernisation ambitions of today's public administration we can observe that one of the European Union's objective is to cutback the bureaucracy but for this to happen there is a need for real administrative politics. Furthermore we experience that this is a lengthy process to which there is a need for social changes and a complex application of the tools/mechanisms which are at our disposal.

By now, we can definitely declare that the NPM was not able to change public administration radically neither abroad, nor in Hungary: applying the tools of NPM did not result in a new kind of public administration model neither did it bring a revolutionary breakthrough in the state organization or within its function (Lőrincz, 2007, pp. 5-7).

While the Anglo-American realm were preoccupied of developing the NPM the continental European world eventually had to shift towards some changes as well, in order to maintain with the modernisation steps in public administration. "This second group – the

continental modernizers – are much less known and they sometimes get depicted as being simply “faint-hearted” who have been slow to climb aboard the NPM “train” ” (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011, p. 118). The model which eventually emerged for this latter group was labelled as the Neo-Weberian State (NWS).

13.2. *The main characteristics of the NWS*

Since the appearance of this model several authors, scholars have dealt (are dealing) with it (Drechsler and Kattel, 2008; Lynn, 2008). Some scholars argue that the “NWS was developed in a context of concern with the” (Dunn and Miller, 2007, p. 350) shortcomings of the NPM. If we wish to simplify, NWS came to existence as a wave of criticism towards the NPM.

In their chapter titled “*An American Perestroika*”, Osborne and Gaebler stated that “the bureaucratic model worked superbly” “before 1945, in an unstable political and economical environment which was present in the USA between the World War I and the Depression and World War II. Even now, they argue that the bureaucratic model is appropriate under a range of conditions” (ibidem, p. 351):

“Bureaucratic institutions still work in some circumstances. If the environment is stable, the task is relatively simple, every customer wants the same service, and the quality of performance is not critical, a traditional public bureaucracy can do the job. Social security still works. Local government agencies that provide libraries and parks and recreational facilities still work, to a degree.” (Osborne and Gaebler 1993, pp.15–16)

This exact argument describes the essence – in a nutshell – of why NWS exists. There are some positive aspects of the bureaucratic system which can still work even today. But what exactly does NWS consist of? What are the elements that are defining or describing it? Two of the most well known administrative reform scholars Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011) summarise their description of the Weberian basis of the model in the following four points:

- “Reaffirmation of the role of the state as the main coordinator of solutions to the new problems of globalization, technological change and environmental threat;
- The declaration of the role of representative democracy (central, regional and local) as the legitimating element within the state apparatus;

- Reaffirmation of the role of administrative law in securing the fundamental principles applying to the citizen-state relationship, including equality before the law, legal security and the availability of specialized legal scrutiny of state actions;
- Preservation of the idea of a public service with a distinctive status, culture and terms and conditions” (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011, p. 118);

Discounting the “Weberian elements” the NWS contains “neo elements” as well, such as:

- “A shift from an internal orientation (bureaucratic rule-following) towards an external orientation (meeting the citizens needs);
- The addition of the role of representative democracy and a direct representation of, citizens’ views;
- Encouraging a greater orientation towards the achievement of results (e.g. in the case of the management of resources within government);
- Professionalization of the public service (shifting from a classical ‘bureaucrat’ to a professional manager who is oriented to satisfy the needs of the citizen)” (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011, p.119);

Based on these descriptions we can formulate the following attributes of the NWS:

- it accomplishes the synthesis of legalism and managerialism;
- the governmental act is based on the law and order;
- the private sector actually competes for the gaining of the qualitative community services;
- the civil sector is being co-opted in the preparation and implementation of the public policy decisions;

There are several experts (Drechsler, 2005; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004, 2011) on administrative reforms, who “refer to a specifically European perspective of bureaucratic organization based on that of Max Weber” (Dunn and Miller, 2007, p. 351) (although not entirely identical with it). This Neo-Weberian approach consists of at least four assumptions:

- “Centrality of the State: this principle would ensure that weak states have the political, organizational and managerial capacity to deal with domestic and international problems such as globalization, environmental threats, technological innovation, etc.
- Reform and enforcement of administrative law: equality for all individuals and groups before the law and protect against arbitrary and unpredictable actions by state agencies.

- Preservation of public service: maintaining the idea of a public service with a distinct status, culture, terms and conditions of employment, characteristics which are often ignored by post-socialist EU accession states where civil servants are subjected to a poor level of salary, low level of education, etc.
- Representative democracy: this principle represents a basis for legitimating, controlling and maintaining the stability of the public bureaucracy” (Bendix, 1989; In: Dunn and Miller, 2007, pp. 351-352).

By following and adhering to these attributes several conclusions can be drawn: the review of the state’s role with the aim of strengthening the state; the restoration of normativity; abolishing corruption; promoting the increase of economy; the reduction of poverty and the widening of democracy

14. The shadow of the future: New Public Governance (NPG)

14.1. Understanding New Public Governance as a “political-administrative system”

“There is a widespread and somewhat chaotic theoretical debate on what (if anything) was more “successful” than NPM, as a dominant model in the immediate future” (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011). One possible “emerging candidate” for this “title” is the New Public Governance (NPG). In this current research the NPG (Osborne, 2010) constitutes the third big model (paradigm), but it is necessary to mention that this is not the “only version of governance” (Pollitt & Hupe, 2011). The NPG is described as “the shadow of the future” – the next stage after, first, traditional public administration and, then, NPM” (Osborne, 2010, p. 6). But what exactly do we know about this notion? Can we even call it a model? If we wish to measure it empirically than first and foremost it requires a comprehension of its essential features. Sartori (1970) describes it perfectly: “measurement must always be preceded by careful conceptualization” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012, p.2).

The NPG is said to be rooted within organizational sociology and the network theory (Haveri, 2006). In this case we should stop for a moment and give an exact quote on “how one of its most vocal advocates defines it” (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011):

“it posits both a plural state, where multiple interdependent actors contribute to the delivery of public services, and a pluralist state, where multiple processes inform the policymaking system. Drawing upon open natural systems theory, it is concerned with the institutional and external environmental pressures that enable and constrain

public policy implementation and the delivery of public services within such a plural and pluralist system” (Osborne, 2010, p. 9).

As we can observe from this definition, NPG is a very broad and abstract model in itself. Although some features are specified (like the resource allocation is to be made through ‘networks and relational contracts’), “it is largely descriptive and lacking any theoretical ‘motor’” (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011, p. 123).

Probably one of the most vocal advocates of the NPG, Stephen Osborne argues that “NPG does not only imply changes in public management, but also in the very functioning of the state” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012). He proposes a systematic perspective in exchange for obtaining “the fundamentals of NPG” (Osborne 2010, pp. 415-416). This approach suggests focusing both on the internal and external environment within which “policy formulation and the delivery of public services occurs” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012).

NPG is seeking to strengthen the level of negotiation between public governments at different levels, and encourages interaction between public and private stakeholders by creating networks and partnerships. If accomplished, these relations “may help to enhance the shared capacity for problem-solving and the ability to serve innovative solutions” (Macmillan and Cain, 2006).

By now we have identified some of the essential elements of the NPG, which are: “empowered participation”, “multi-actor collaboration” and “multiple forms of accountability” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012).

These elements should not be handled as separate (main) “building blocks”, but rather as elements that are linked and mutually reinforcing each other in order to formulate a coherent governing model (e.g. by empowering “citizens and private stakeholders we can provide the condition of possibility for public governance to be based on collaborative interaction and the prospect of having real influence encourages participation”) (Smith, 2009). When it comes to developing new (and multiple) “forms of accountability through which networks and partnerships give it accounts to and are held to account by affected citizens or so-called “mini-publics” which are conditioned by active citizen participation” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012).

Suppose that NPG-style reforms have and will gain momentum and will further develop “in the foreseeable future, then what kind of political consequences and challenges does it pose to public management?” (idem, p.11) Although a relevant question, unfortunately

at present we can only give predictive answers, due to the fact that NPG is still “under works”. If NPM reforms (market oriented approach and customer satisfaction) had the effect of depriving “civil servants of their former authority, then NPG may in a certain way reinstall the authority and the level of esteem of public service professionals” (ibidem). It is important to note, that this process does not indicate a return to the former Weberian approach (where we had a more or less “untouchable authority”), rather civil servants will be motivated in their ability as “competent service providers”, having clear expectations to engage in discussions with other involved parties (private stakeholders, citizens, etc.) regarding the “form and content of the public services and on the way they are delivered” (ibidem). This also means that citizens should not “act as customers who are entitled to a service of a certain quality; they should act as empowered citizens who are willing to engage and interact with public service professionals and to contribute to the development of public service provisions” (ibidem). All this presents a totally new relationship between public administration and citizens. Again we are back to what Osborne and Gaebler stated nearly two decades ago about the mutual partnership which “was soon captured by the control and market dimensions of NPM. Now such a partnership may be more realistic not only because of a high level of dissatisfaction towards NPM, but also because new studies occur providing us with experiences of how public governance may be designed in ways that strengthen the new ways of interaction between public administrators and citizens” (ibidem, p. 12).

14.2. Public governance in a network society

This sub-chapter wishes to emphasize the systematic approach which was introduced by Osborne (2010) because nowadays we have a more fragmented state, with far more public agencies and these agencies must pay attention not only at getting their internal management systems right (e.g. human resource management, financial management), but also they have to manage their external stakeholders well in order to achieve the desired policy outcomes and a high quality of public services. As a result, creating and maintaining networks has become a key competence for the public sector and the institutions within. As Rod Rhodes (1997, p.57) described it:

“the state becomes a collection of inter-organizational networks made up of governmental and societal actors with no sovereign actor able to steer or regulate. A key challenge for government is to enable these networks and seek out new forms of co-operation”

In this case the centre question is not ‘how much state?’ but rather ‘which state?’ – where we are dealing with the state as the interaction of multiple stakeholders. But who are these multiple stakeholders? Who or what kind of groups, organizations or individuals can be a part of this? Generally we have some frequent, key actors who are likely to be involved in public governance issues, like citizens (as individuals); non-profit (civil) organizations; business; the media; public agencies and trade unions;

The mixture of the stakeholders can and “will vary depending on the policy area, the geographic area or the community concerned” (Bovaird and Löffler (eds.), 2009, p. 219). If we wish to tackle the existing problems successfully it is important to identify and prioritize the most relevant stakeholders, because not all stakeholders are equally important to a given action or policy.

Another issue that we need to be concerned about comes from the different goals and perceptions that the actors of a network can have, therefore there is a need to create some degree of alignment between the perceptions of different actors in relation to what needs to be done, which resources can be used and so on. The challenge then is to develop these processes of collaboration whereby the (sometimes vague and quite often broad) problem identifications and goals formulated by the policymakers are discussed with those problems and goals which are held by diverse (private) stakeholders, having their own stake and interest in the matter (Torfing and Triantafyllou, 2012).

This only demonstrates that even something as creating and working in networks which is desired by several administrative systems in different countries can raise several challenges and can cause difficulties for the public sector organizations. It is safe to say that “NPG poses a number of public management challenges to the political-administrative system” (idem). On the positive note, NPG carries “potential advantages in the way of being able to govern a number of societal issues in a more adequate and desirable manner than both NPM and NWS. This is mainly because of the mobilization of resources of citizens and private stakeholders through participation, collaboration and the development of new tools of governing” (ibidem). On the negative side (as previously noted) NPG-type governing also suffers from some severe “limitations because it cannot solve all societal and political problems and this could lead us to undesirable effects” (ibidem).

Administrative cultures are built-in the administrative structures. Administrative models emphasize sources of input and accountability in terms of hierarchy, the market, and networks (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2011).

The *hierarchical governance model* (often referred to as Weberian or neo-Weberian) is highlighted by elements such as laws and rules and this model views those complying with legal mandates as subject of regulation, those who receive the (public) services as authorized recipients and those who are paying for the services as taxpayers. If the system is not operating well, this type of governance may result in rigidity and a lack of commitment by the employees (Van Wart, et.al., 2012).

In the case of the *market governance model* (often labelled as the “New Public Management”) cost and competition are crucial factors in order to improve both efficiency and effectiveness. Those affected by policies are seen as customers, and those who are paying for the services as shareholders. When dysfunctional, market governance can result in increased corruption and in a decrease in public sector values (Van Wart, et. al., 2012).

The third model (*network governance model*) is based on a more collaborative environment. On the administrative level it focuses on whole-of-government perspective and here society is all about building relationships, by learning directly from those who are receiving and doing the public good and a level of responsiveness to all those participating in the governance process. When it fails to operate well it can result in a chaotic and an environment filled with conflicts among groups competing for legitimacy (Van Wart, et. al., 2012).

The three models and their characteristics are illustrated in the following summarized table:

Table 18: Three “Ideal” Models of Applied Administrative Governance (Van Wart et.al., 2012)

	Hierarchically-oriented governance	Market-oriented Governance	Network-oriented Governance
Theoretical basis	Weberian or neo-Weberian model	New Public Management	Whole-of-Government
Organizing principle	Laws and rules Taylorism	Market forces Open system	Functional networks and shared power
Guiding purpose	Compliance	Cost	Inclusion
Mindset	Regulatory	Competitive	Collaboration and coordination
Ethical thrust based on	Following the law and rules	Providing least-cost and least government	Using social values and norms, and thereby allowing

		alternatives	personal interpretation of “the good”
Relationship of government to citizens	Subjects of regulation Authorized recipients Taxpaying citizens	Customers of services and policies Citizens as shareholders	Stakeholders Involved citizens
Related leadership model	Hierarchically-based leadership	Market-based leadership	Network-based leadership
Common leadership styles	Directive and delegative styles	Strategic and achievement oriented styles	Collaborative and participative styles

As a brief summary for this chapter we can conclude that these profiles are rarely found in pure form, but they do capture useful dimensions related to functionality and accountability. Such profiles are not static, and are affected more or less by contemporary trends (e.g. financial crises).

PART V. – Research model and research questions

15. Subjective introduction

Before presenting the research model of the thesis, its questions and the hypotheses, I would like to define my personal relation to the chosen- topic and methodology.

The relationship between leadership and organizational culture has been one of my main areas of interest since my master studies. As I continuously searched and processed through materials on the topic the following aspects caught my attention:

- from a theoretical point of view I've found relatively few materials that attempted to systemically incorporate the relationship between the two concepts. However it is not at all low (little) the number of those statements, which connects the two phenomena in some kind of a context;
- quasi all researchers who are dealing with leadership and/or organizational culture mention the correlation between the two phenomena and that the two have a “big” effect on each other. In turn beside these affirmations there is rarely any kind of empirical evidence which could validate or support that there is an actual relationship (connection) between the two concepts;

My interest in my initial topic (the characteristics of “the relationship between leadership and organizational culture” (Gal, 2012)) has been replaced and complemented, with a new, more fundamental question, which aims at analyzing the connections with the public management reform models.

As a first step within the frameworks of this research my aim was to analyze the fundamental question on “the existence of a relationship between leadership and organizational culture” (Gal, 2012) and as far as possible to explore the characteristics of the relationship. During the design of the research and the theoretical foundation the question of the cause-effect of the relationship between the two concepts has arisen: at the time of planning this research I couldn't decide this question based on the lack of objective data. Presumably among the two phenomena one does not exclude the other; rather an interaction characterizes their relation.

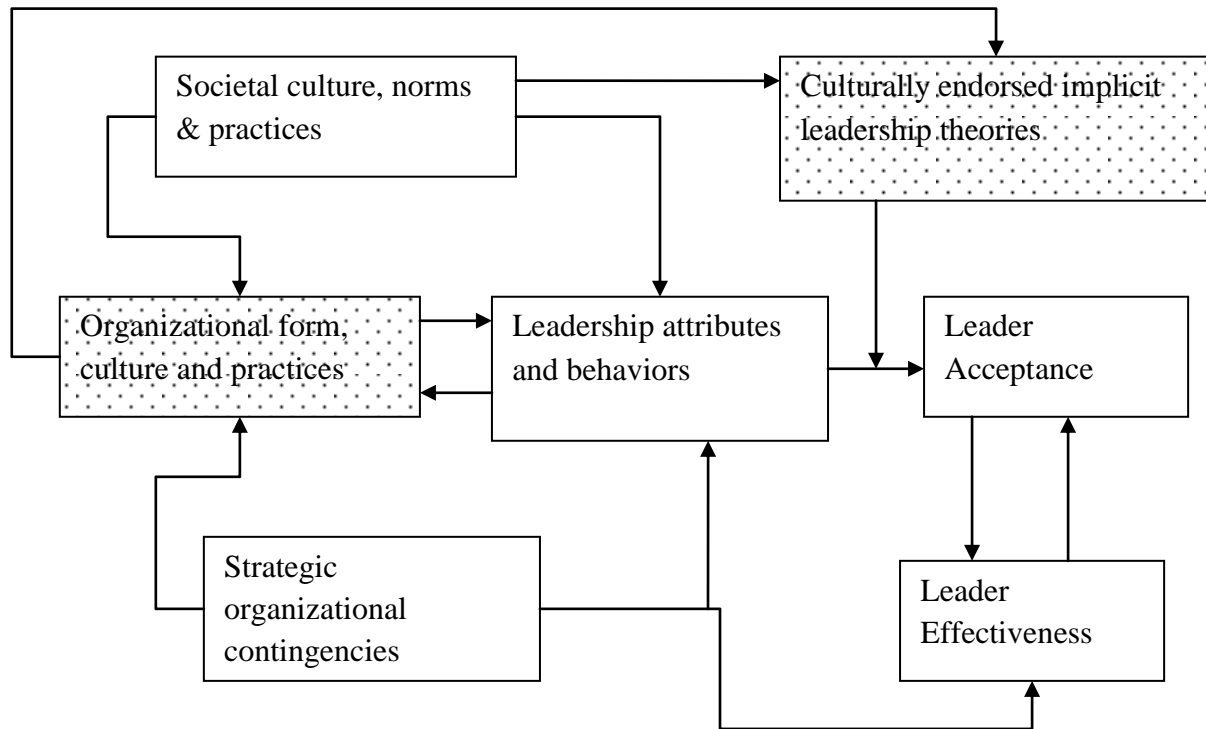
“The examination of the relationship between leadership and organizational culture is possible due to” (Gal, 2012, p.28) database of the “Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness” (GLOBE) Research Program, which undertook a 62-society study of

leadership in world perspective (House et.al. 2004). In this current research we did not use the GLOBE database; however some questions were adapted from the GLOBE survey instrument in order to assess the dimensions of culture. Nine dimensions of cultures were identified that differentiate societies and organizations. The second question concerns the range to which specific leader attributes (characteristics) and behaviours are connected to cultural characteristics. One of the most important findings of the GLOBE research was that cultures can be distinguished based on the behaviour and characteristics of the leader, which are approved by the members of the organization(s).

“The specific objectives of GLOBE include answering the following fundamental questions:

1. Are there leader behaviors, characteristics, and organizational practices that are universally accepted and effective across cultures?
2. Are there leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices that are accepted and effective in only some cultures?
3. How do attributes of societal and organizational cultures influence whether specific leader behaviors will be accepted and effective?
4. How do attributes of societal and organizational cultures affect selected organizational practices?
5. How do attributes of societal cultures affect the economic, physical and psychological welfare of members of the societies studied?
6. What is the relationship between societal cultural variables and international competitiveness of the societies studied?” (House et.al., 1999, pp.11-12)

Figure 10: GLOBE research model (source: House et. al. 2004)



In the GLOBE research model I've marked the parts which are directly involved in the framework of this research. Although the implicit leadership theories can be inferred only indirectly on the basis of the typical leader's style, it can be specified what kind of leadership style(s) do the members of a particular organizational culture consider to be desirable and which ones are rejected. This can be assumed based on the GLOBE leadership questions where the respondents evaluated the extent of the feature that promotes or inhibits the excellent leadership.

In this current research we did not use the GLOBE database; however some questions were adapted from the GLOBE survey instrument in order to evaluate the dimensions of culture.

The primary ambition of the research is to understand how administrative leadership contexts and administrative leadership itself varies in different regions of the world. Therefore a comparative study was necessary. Back in September, 2012 an "IIAS" (International Institute of Administrative Sciences) study group was formed on "administrative leadership" mainly because an international study group can bring greater consistency to the international debate on the topic and it can provide researchers to compare their countries with other countries having the same or different culture. As a member of this study group I was able to benefit of this opportunity and incorporate the IIAS survey instrument (which the study group developed) for the second phase in which the emphasis was on exploring the antecedent conditions that lead to unique administrative leadership styles observed in countries around

the world. Due to my PhD studies (in Hungary) and my previous master studies (in Romania) it was a given to collect and analyze data in these two countries, that will be useful not just for the IIAS study, but also it serves the scope for this current thesis.

16. Brief overview of the IIAS-study group on Administrative Leadership

Within the auspices of the IIAS, in September 2012 a research project was formed, having the subject of administrative leadership. “Leadership varies by situation and context, and no context is more important than cultural differences. Therefore, the study of administrative leadership is unfinished without the study of comparative administrative cultures. As Edgar Schein described it: “they are two sides of the same coin” (Schein, 2004, p. 10). In other words we can’t avoid analyzing the organizational culture, since the two concepts have a mutual effect on each other, and we can’t go past one without having to deal with the other.

The general (broad) “research question for the IIAS Study Group on Administrative Leadership is: to what degree is administrative leadership different according to administrative culture?” (Administrative Leadership study group description, <http://www.iias-iisa.org/groups/study-groups/sg-viii-administrative-leadership/administrative-leadership-description-research-agenda/>) There are four factors which help us to model both the administrative culture, and leadership preferences: historic, political, economic, and societal.

The *historic* perception of administrative culture usually follows a national approach, with studies that are mainly descriptive of the departments of government and their expansion over time (e.g. different political-administrative cooperation’s in light of diverse political administrations and reforms).

The *political* understanding to administrative culture is also based on a comparative structural view, but it aims to organize nations into identical (political) categories and then analyze the administrative characteristics within those groups of nations. It can be seen as a challenge: how to portray the political principles, different views of countries and their consequence on administrative leadership.

The *economic* understanding to administrative culture is seen universally as a functional angle. Fred Riggs (1964) was an early advocate of the modern versus traditional ways, with traditional societies being negatively affected by modern values and going through as Riggs puts it “prismatic” changes. Later this evolved into notions of countries which were

labelled as ‘developed’ and ‘underdeveloped’. A second functional approach consists on focusing elements such as accountability, transparency and rule of law. The challenge here is posed by differential needs between the developed and underdeveloped countries (Hondegheem & Van Wart, 2010).

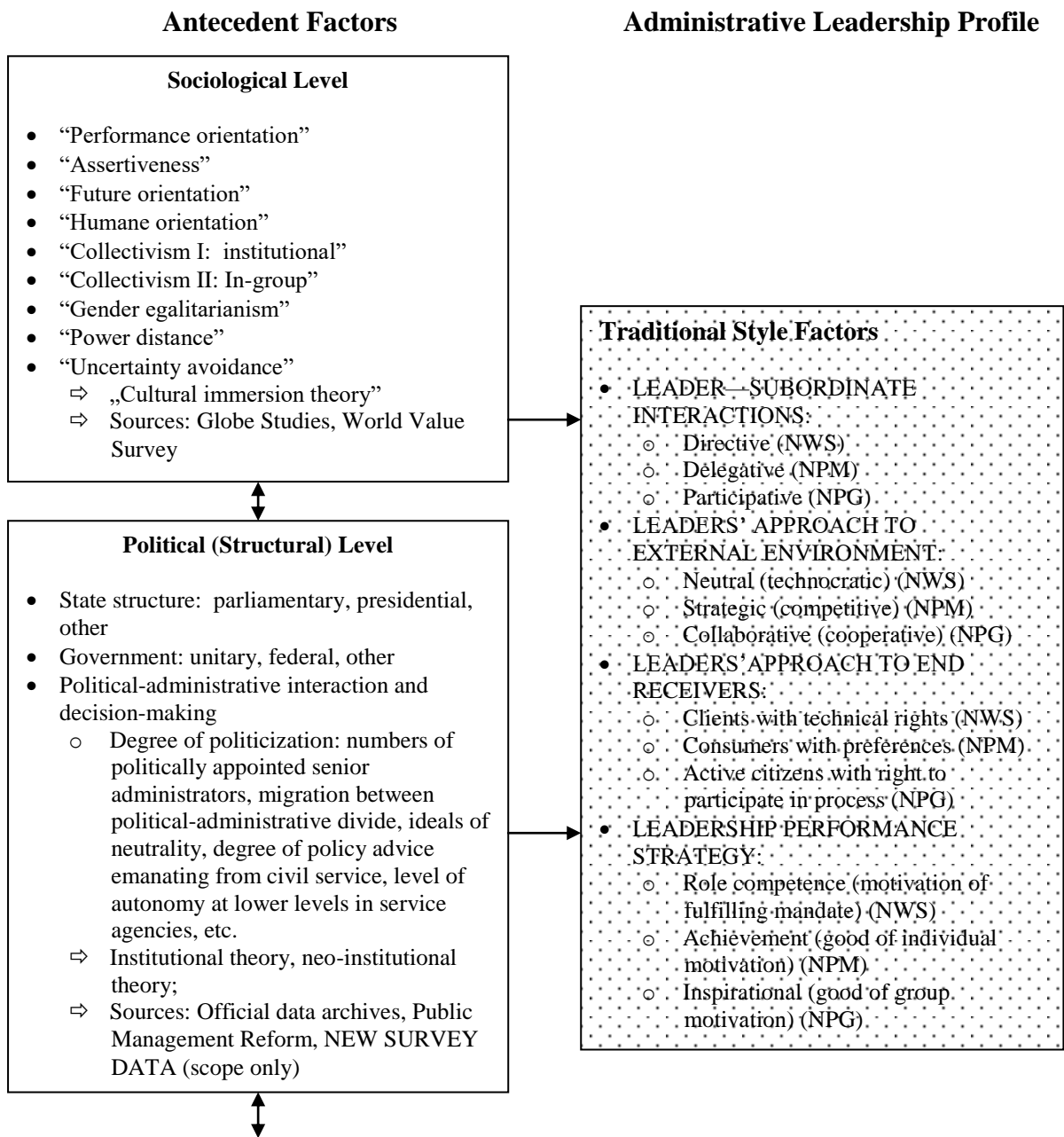
The *societal* approach comes from the research of Hofstede (1980, 2001) who studied cultural differences such as ‘collective-individualistic’, ‘diffused-specific’, and ‘universalistic-particularistic’. This approach analyzes categories of nations which share cultural aspects, and then at how this forms policies, economics and various sub-cultures. A main goal of the Study Group is to use the GLOBE model but in an administrative context.

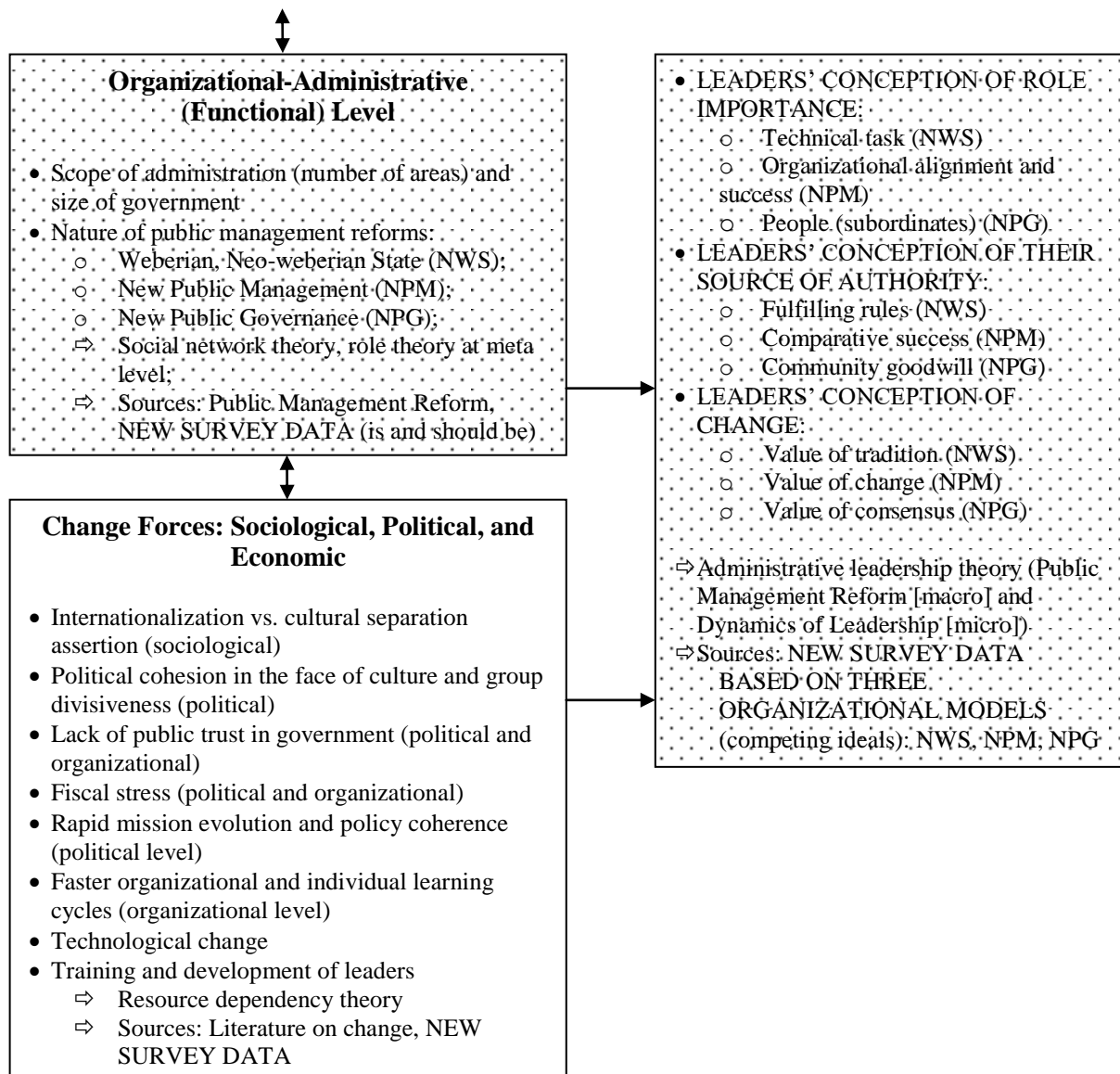
The first step towards a general, broad research on administrative culture and leadership preferences was comprised of a comparative research on training of top civil servants. By the end of 2014 a comparative book was released (“Leadership and Culture: Comparative Models of Top Civil Servant Training”) as a result of the first phase of the research. The book not only does provide information about the where, what and how of the training, but it also contains up-to-date cultural, political, economic background on several countries which were involved in the research (e.g. United States, United Kingdom, Belgium, Germany, Hungary, etc.).

The second step of this research focuses on Administrative Leadership in a cultural perspective through field research together with other comparative databases. The primary purpose of the research is to understand how administrative leadership contexts and administrative leadership itself varies in different regions of the world and to get a sense how they vary from an “average” administrative leadership style in the world. A secondary purpose is to get a better insight into the relationship between antecedents and leadership styles and competencies in a comparative framework.

The following figure (fig. 11) illustrates the theoretical model on which the IIAS research relies on.

Figure 11: Cultural Antecedents of Administrative Leadership (Van Wart, Hondeghem)



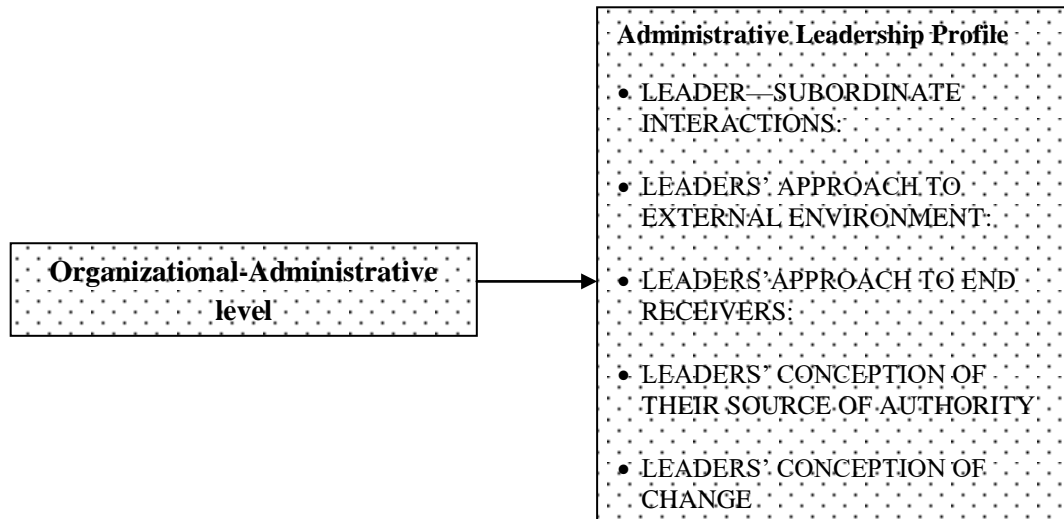


In the IIAS research model I've marked out those parts which I want to address within this present thesis (due to the constraints of the thesis). The next chapter will describe these parts, with some complementary modifications.

17. The research model of the thesis

The following figure does not illustrate all the relations from the original IIAS model, only those relations which are relevant in the present context.

Figure 12: The research model of the thesis



As you can see, figure 12 brings in front the Organizational-Administrative level from the original IIAS model, maintaining the direct connection with the administrative leadership profile. The reason for narrowing down the research of this thesis is mainly due to its length limit, but most importantly this is the element which represents the focus of this current topic. The main goal is to observe – based on the survey data – how does the organizational-administrative level effect/form the administrative leadership profile and the elements within. Therefore the aim is to obtain – via the field test (survey) – a comparative “profile” of administrative leadership and culture in Hungary and Romania which will be added to the international research database (IIAS study). The challenge is to identify both the similar (unifying) patterns and those elements which cause substantial differences. However this will also lead to a description of organizational culture and leadership (profile) characteristics. Ultimately the research can also pinpoint the significant variations in the average leadership profiles between private and public leaders which can be seen in the result of differences in purpose and structure, including the administrative appointees.

Here it should also be noted that there was another empirical research carried out in Hungary (between February-March, 2014) which included a leadership panel (40 interviews) and focused on leaders within central public administration (e.g. ministries, government agencies, and mid- and top civil servants at several county and local government agencies) (Gellén, 2015, p.36).

The three models which shape the organizational-administrative level (NWS, NPM, NPG) can be rarely found in pure form, but they do capture useful dimensions related to functionality and accountability (both playing a key role in the public sector). Given a

country-level administrative culture, various leadership styles are practiced. In order to have a better understanding regarding the research model of the thesis, for example a shift from a hierarchical style toward a more decentralized, result-oriented culture may affect (or even change) the nature of leader-subordinate relations from a preference for guaranteed goals to individually-negotiated goal setting.

17.1. Research questions and hypotheses

When defining the aims of the research first I've used – as a starting point – more general questions, from which the specific hypotheses were drawn:

Q.1) “What kind of organizational culture types can be delineated in the case of the Hungarian and Romanian public institutions? The goal with this question is to identify organizational culture types within the cultures of the two countries.

Q.2) What kind of leadership types appear in Hungarian and Romanian leadership practice?”
(Gál, 2012)

Q.3) Does the organizational-administrative level determine what kind of style(s) should a leader adapt inside the organization?

Based on these research questions the following hypotheses were formulated:

The basic research hypothesis is that administrative leadership style is positively correlated with the organizational-administrative level of a given institution.

H.1) The organizational-administrative level determines what kind of style a leader of a given institution requires.

In the present case the independent variable is represented by the “organizational-administrative level”, while the dependent variable is “leadership”. The first proposition of my research (and perhaps the most important) is that the nature of administrative reforms (which belong to the elements of the organizational-administrative level) have an effect and/or define the characteristics of the leaders of a given public institution.

H.2) Based on the leadership styles we can predict the belonging to a specific type of organizational culture and the features of that particular culture.

The core values of an organization begin with its leadership, which will then evolve to a leadership style. The employees are led by these behaviours of leaders, such that the behaviour of both parties should become increasingly in alignment. When strong consolidated behaviour, beliefs and values have been developed, a strong organizational culture surfaces.
(Yafang, T., 2011)

It is necessary to analyze this, because by doing so we can interpret whether there is a causal connection between leadership–organizational culture, and if so, between what kinds of organizational circumstances does it come true. The features of an organizational culture inside the organization serve as the dependent variable. The independent variable in this case will be the leadership styles.

H.3) Based on the styles of leadership a classification (of these styles) within the different public management reform models can occur.

Independent variable: identified leadership styles;

Dependent variable: the public management reform models;

Besides mapping out of the leadership style it is possible to establish a classification that a given public institution is closer to a certain kind of a public management reform model. Through this it is also possible to view what kinds of differences exist between the given institutions.

The first hypothesis is based on deductive mentality, on theories which already exist, while the 2nd and 3rd have an inductive features because for their demonstration I wish to use a measuring instrument.

17.2. The methodology and data collection

As previously noted in chapter 15 the measurement instrument used was a survey (see attachments) which was sent to a sample of middle managers in local government in both of the analyzed countries. Although the primary focus was on local governments other types of public institutions (schools, public works) were also involved, thus allowing the possibility of accomplishing a more comprehensive comparative research. The involved institutions were chosen partly based on pre-determined criteria, and partly on recommendations and willingness to participate.

Why middle managers and not top civil servants?

Arguments pro:

- Same target group as House study
- Higher response rate
- They are the future leaders
- Less prone to overlook administrative deficiencies and effects of bad leadership
- Far easier to get large numbers

Arguments contra:

- Different group than the one used in phase I of the IIAS study
- More difficult to define and delineate
- Relations with politics is less obvious
- Better sense of immediate challenges (change trends)

The data was obtained with the help of a survey instrument on mid-level managers perception regarding several aspects (characteristics) of administrative leadership style in their organization and on the state of their organization ('as is' vs. 'should be') which have helped in identifying the used administrative reform model and also they were asked on several items which have lead to the description of culture.

The research instrument consists of 6 building blocks: 1 block with regard to the cultural antecedents, 1 block with regard to the organizational-administrative level, 2 blocks with regard to leadership styles, 1 block with regard to competencies, and 1 block with regard to background information.

The starting point (first building block) here is based upon the work of Robert House and his associates who defined 9 important dimensions which might have an impact on leadership. These dimensions are based on "implicit notions of what is important in society (performance orientation, future orientation, humane orientation, uncertainty avoidance), how people should be organized (group and institutional collectivism), and how they should interact (assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, and power distance)" (Gál and Gellén, 2015). In the survey, we ask how the target group conceives the importance of this dimension for their organization.

The second block focuses on the three paradigms: "Neo-Weberian State, New Public Management, New Public Governance" (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011) defined as follows:

'Neo-Weberian State' (NWS):

- Core purpose: *"to modernize the traditional state apparatus so that it becomes more efficient and responsive to citizens. Businesslike methods may have a subsidiary role in this, but the state remains a distinctive actor with its own rules, methods, and culture."*
- Common mechanisms: *"authority exercised through disciplined hierarchy of impartial officials"*

New Public Management (NPM):

- Core purpose: *"to make government core more efficient and consumer responsive by injecting businesslike methods."*

- Common mechanisms: *“market-type mechanisms, performance indicators, targets, competitive contracts, quasi-markets”*

New Public Governance (NPG):

- Core purpose: *“to make government more effective and legitimate by including a wider range of social actors in both policymaking and implementation.”* Inclines on focusing on the network approach, and “self-organizing” communities.
- Common mechanisms: *“networks of, and partnerships between, stakeholders,”* horizontal (professional accreditation standards) over vertical controls (rules imposed by senior officials)

A better assessment of perceptions of the AS IS and SHOULD BE situations in regions and countries, especially in a comparative framework, can provide powerful modelling for improved recruitment, classification requirements, and training and development.

The third part of the survey instrument is based on two approaches. Approach nr. 1 examines administrative leadership style according to interactions, attitude toward the external environment, etc. The components of an overall administrative style are based on NWS, NPM, and NPG. Currently all ‘a’ answers are NWS, all ‘b’ answers are NPM, and all ‘c’ answers are NPG. In the second approach leadership is defined in “transactional” and “transformational” terms (based on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ) in order to get a sense of the dynamism of leadership no matter what the overarching administrative mindset.

In the next part (fifth building block) of the questionnaire the leadership styles are translated into leadership discrete competencies. The interest here is primarily to identify the perceived gaps in competencies between current styles and ideal styles, whatever they may be construed as.

“In terms of the number of cases being compared, few-country comparisons are found on the continuum between single-country studies and many-country comparisons” (Lor, 2010, p.14). When working with studies which comprise of a small number of cases various terms are being used. For some authors (e.g. Lijphart 1971, 1975) this is “the comparative method”; or the “comparative-cases strategy” (Lijphart 1975:163). Ragin (1987) labelled it as “case-oriented comparative methods”, while Smelser (1976) has referred to it as “the method of systematic comparative illustration”. By “illustration” he suggested that it is an additional “method, not suited for the serious task of testing hypotheses” (Lor, 2010).

“A critical question in few-country comparisons, (as it is in single-country studies) is which countries to select. In few-country studies the countries are not selected by sampling. Instead they are carefully selected for the purpose of the study” (Ragin, 1987). “When countries are selected for comparison, they should be comparable in respect of the phenomenon or theory that is primary interest in the study. Sartori (1991) has stated that entities to be compared should have both shared and non-shared attributes. They should be at the same time “similar” and “incomparable”” (Lor, 2010). These elements have served as guidelines during the phases of developing the research to be carried out within the examined countries.

Implementing a survey, especially on leadership (in public sector organizations) has been one of the toughest tasks. A public institution may have a number of reasons for not being particularly eager about letting a researcher into their organization. One of the most central issues can be that given a “profile” of a leader in charge of a public sector organization may become widely known could possibly alter the genuine authenticity of the given answers to the questions found in the survey instrument. Still the decision was that we’ve sent out a formal invitational letter to the institutions in which we’ve described the purpose of the international research and that our focus was on mapping out the administrative leadership styles met in practice given a certain cultural perspective. In the end, the decisive factor was the personal acquaintance of my supervisor, who kept good relations with the Public Policy department of the university and offered support, plus willingness to manage the administration of the survey instrument on a local level. This turned out to be indispensable in order to get proper access, however it also carried some risks. On the positive side, besides the great deal of help in managing the administration of the survey (sending them out to the organizations involved, following up on the process, gathering the completed questionnaires and grouping them by organizations) allowed for an easy and time saving access to valuable data.

Given the magnitude of this research I do not intend to display a national situation with a general validity, but rather confine the study to certain cities’ local governments and institutions. Since my topic does not intend to present a description in the two countries between the leadership styles and organizational cultures, but rather to concentrate on the relationship between the two concepts and their characteristics. An important ambition of the research project is thus to make a contribution to the improvement of administrative leadership.

The research was carried out between March – June, 2014 in Hungary and May – August, 2015 in Romania. In order to obtain a solid ground for comparison the cities were chosen in such a way, that they share a certain number of similarities (demographical size, population size, etc.) plus geographically each of them are relatively close to the border between the two countries. The involved cities in Hungary were: Debrecen, Eger and Miskolc, while in Romania the survey was carried out on a national level (due to the low amount of responses). Thus the database which was used to the analysis can't be considered to be a representative sample. The database contains 212 answers from 4 types of institutions in Hungary (Mayor's Office, Local Governments, schools and public works) and 189 responses also from 4 types of institutions (City Halls, County Councils, Prefect's office and County School Inspectorates). The used sampling method was nonprobabilistic and the subjects were mid-level managers (in both cases).

The following chapters (18 and 19) will present the results in a descriptive way, which will be followed by the comparative part (part VI) and the conclusions which can be made based on the data obtained from the survey instrument.

18. The case of Hungary

Hungary is an independent, democratic republic located in the Carpathian Basin of Central Europe. It is bordered by Slovakia to the north, and moving clockwise, Ukraine, Romania, Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, and finally, Austria to the west. Its geographical area consists of 93,030 kilometres, and its 2011 census population was 9,937,628.

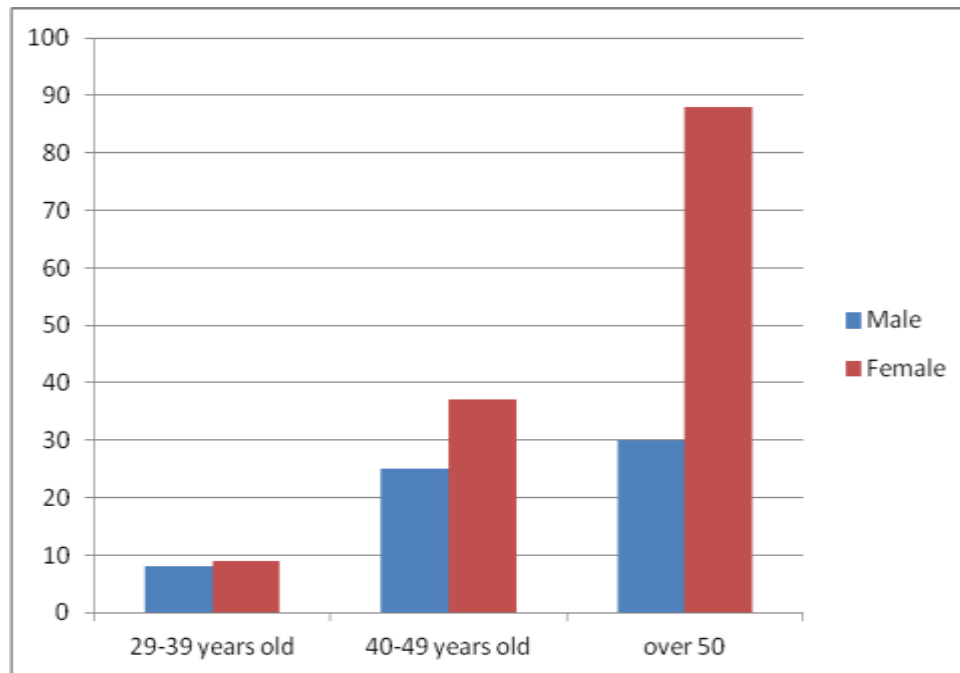
The Republic of Hungary is a democratic constitutional state, and a member of the European Union. Since amending its constitution in 1989, it is a parliamentary republic. The prime minister is "head of a government" system and the president is the ceremonial head of state. Executive power is held by the government and legislative power is practiced by a unicameral parliament. The president is elected every five years by the 386 member National Assembly. The prime minister is chosen based on the proposal/recommendation of the president and by obtaining the majority of votes from the members of parliament. The prime minister leads the government's sessions as *primus inter pares* ('first among equals'). "The president appoints and/or dismisses ministers based upon the prime minister's proposal. The local-governmental system is composed of two tiers: at the upper tier are the nineteen

counties and the capital city of Budapest and, at the lower municipal tier, almost 3,200 local governments run by elected councils” (Verhoest et al. 2012, p.289).

The Hungarian public sector employs almost one quarter (21.23%) of the available labor force. These employees are classified into the following major categories: civil servants – and from 2010 on, government civil servants – (2.59%), and public employees (18.64%), and these employees work in a number of fields (e.g. teaching, health care, management, and administration for the state or local government). Civil servants are those who work in the offices of central and local government, while public servants are those employed in budget organizations (Gajduschek, 2004).

As previously mentioned the research in Hungary was carried out between March-June, in 2014 and three cities were involved: Debrecen, Eger and Miskolc. Our focus was mainly on local governments and several other types of public institutions (e.g. schools, public works) in order to have more clusters for comparison. Thus a total number of 212 completed questionnaires were filled out, by mid-level managers (see the list of institutions in the appendixes). The data was processed using SPSS-software and the results here will be illustrated using descriptive statistics. “The descriptive statistics were used on the database containing specific data from the respondents” (Gál, 2012). From the total number of received questionnaires, the majority consists of women (N=144), while the number of male mid-level managers was represented by a smaller size (N=64) and there were some few instances where we have missing data (N=4). Considering the distribution of their age (see fig.12 where we also have some missing cases (N=15)) the youngest was 29, while the eldest was 65 years old.

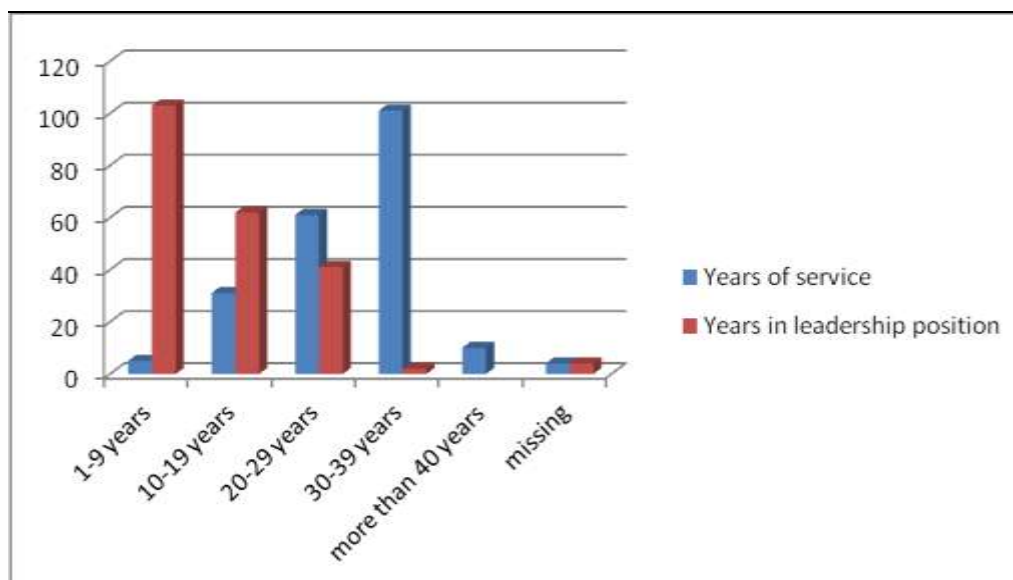
Figure 13: The distribution of the sample according to age groups and genders (N=197)



The distribution of the respondents sample according the level of education shows that there is an overwhelming majority of those who have college (40,6%) and university degree (50,5%). However this was expected in the case of mid-level managers, who should have higher level of education than those who are in a lower position within an organization.

We also asked about the number of years that they have served. The obtained data is of more importance when this is compared to the number of years spent in leadership position (fig.13). If we discount the category who served more than 40 years, we can see that there is an inverse correlation between the amount of years in service and the number of years spent in leadership position. While the number of years of service gradually increases, the number of years in leadership position decreases. The majority of the respondents (N=103) have been in a leadership position between 1-9 years, while most of them were actively working for over 30-39 years (N=101). This can also mean that the most of the years spent in an executive position has lead them to gradually start to work their way up on the “hierarchical ladder”

Figure 14: Comparison between years of service and years in leadership position (N=212)



From a comparative view between the public-private sectors it is relevant to observe whether there were fluctuations/changes between working in the two different types of sectors. Almost half of those who have completed the survey have already worked at some time in the private and/or the non-profit sector, but this is not to say that it is a good/bad answer type of situation, on the contrary the experiences that they have accumulated in these sectors can be beneficial for their work in the public sector.

Table 19: Worked in private or non-profit sectors as well

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	71	33,5	34,0	34,0
	No	138	65,1	66,0	100,0
	Total	209	98,6	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,4		
Total		212	100,0		

We assumed that one of the most defining factors is the level of pay (and this is true no matter the type of sector that someone is working in). The results here can help us to establish a relation between this item and that of whether or not they would recommend the public service as a field of work for their own children however the results did not confirm our initial assumptions.

Table 20: Does your level of pay affect your perception of the public service * Would recommend public service to your children Crosstabulation (N =206; missing N = 6)

Count		Would recommend public service to your children		Total
		Yes	No	Yes
Does your level of pay affect your perception of the public service	Yes	46	33	79
	No	93	34	127
Total		139	67	206

Table 21: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,994(b)	1	,025		
Continuity Correction(a)	4,334	1	,037		
Likelihood Ratio	4,937	1	,026		
Fisher's Exact Test				,032	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,969	1	,026		
N of Valid Cases	206				

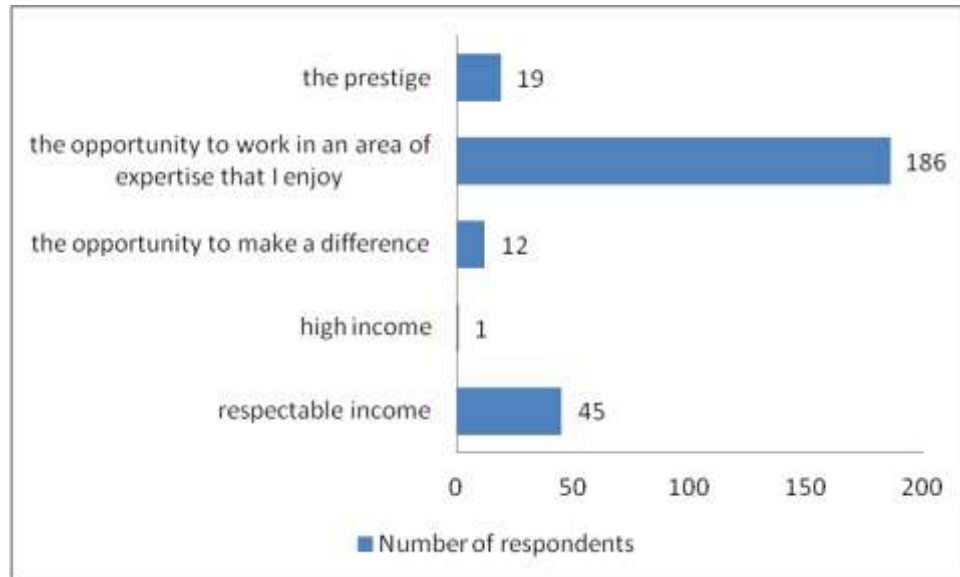
a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25,69.

The analysis was done using cross tabulation and since the value of the Asymp. Sig. is higher than 0,05 there is no significant relation from a statistical view. Plus we can see that 93 of the respondents are not affected by their level of pay in regards to their perception towards the public sector and would recommend public service for their children as well. This is strengthened by the group of respondents who agree that the level of pay affects their point of view, but 46 of them would be in favour of recommending public service for their children and only 33 would advise against it. If the level of pay is not necessarily affecting the majority of the participants involved in the research than we considered that seeking out the motivational factors for opting to work in the public sector can help both the researcher and the reader to understanding what are the deciding factors for a civil servant to choose to work in the public sector. Each of the respondents could opt for more than one choice from the following: respectable income, high income, the opportunity to make a difference, the opportunity to work in an area of expertise that I enjoy, the prestige.

The most important factor in working in public service was found to be “the opportunity to work in an area of expertise that I enjoy” (186 respondents), while the second most rated option was the “respectable income” (45 respondents).

Figure 15: The most important factor in working for the public service



In the first part of the survey, we asked how the target group conceives the importance of the dimension of culture for their organization.

“Culture defines an organizations’ performance, acting as a base from which leaders may control a member’s future actions. It can also act as a negative force, inhibiting new change away from previous, unfavourable behaviours. Developments in the administrative culture of Hungary, particularly since its reforms of the early 1990s, have met with this duality. On one hand, the new government inherited a vigorous culture shaped over decades, the alteration of which is a difficult, slow process. On the other hand, there is a pressing need to develop a values system, which, alongside managerial tools, can facilitate successful adaptation to a dynamically changing environment, ease challenges that did not previously exist, and encourage competitive behaviours” (Gál and Gellén, 2015, p.92).

As a reminder the included culture dimensions were the following:

“Future orientation” I, II: reflects the degree to which organizations are emphasizing activities such as planning, investing in the future, etc.

“Individualism/collectivism”: we can describe individualism as a preference “in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves, while collectivism reflects the degree to which individuals express loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations” (Hofstede, <https://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html>).

“*Humane orientation*”: reflects the degree to which individuals in organizations (or societies in general) encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic and kind to others.

“*Power distance*”: can be described as the degree to which members of an organization expect and agree that power should be unequally shared.

All of the culture dimensions have their origins in the dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1980).

The first question related to the accepted norm within the organizations reflects exactly this previous point.

Table 22: In this organization the accepted norm is

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1 planning for the future	80	37,7	37,9	37,9
2	68	32,1	32,2	70,1
3	44	20,8	20,9	91,0
4	13	6,1	6,2	97,2
5 we don't make plans for the long term	6	2,8	2,8	100,0
Total	211	99,5	100,0	
Missing System	1	,5		
Total	212	100,0		

The percentages from the table above show that the majority of the respondents (37,7% respectively 32,1%) view their organization as a place where they not only emphasize planning for the future but this also suggests that they are encouraging and not inhibiting change. This is also supported by the fact that most leaders (38,2% and 30,7%) consider that planning ahead ensures the road to success for their organization.

Table 23: In this organization the road to success is

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1 planning ahead	81	38,2	38,8	38,8
2	65	30,7	31,1	69,9
3	45	21,2	21,5	91,4
4	13	6,1	6,2	97,6
5 accepting the current situation	5	2,4	2,4	100,0
Total	209	98,6	100,0	
Missing System	3	1,4		
Total	212	100,0		

Another relevant aspect (or if you wish element) of organizational culture is represented by institutional collectivism (House et.al., 2004). We can label collectivism as the

tendency of the people to “think of themselves as parts of different collectives and subject their behaviour to norms and obligations which are imposed by these collectives” (Vadi et.al., 2002). These collectivistic attitudes can also influence organizational behaviour. “Cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism can either interfere with or modulate organizational culture through different channels. For instance, they may become manifest in managers’ preference for allocating organizational rewards or in employees’ preference for receiving them” (Vadi et.al. 2002). Table no. 24 presents the view of the leaders on how they perceive group loyalty inside their organization:

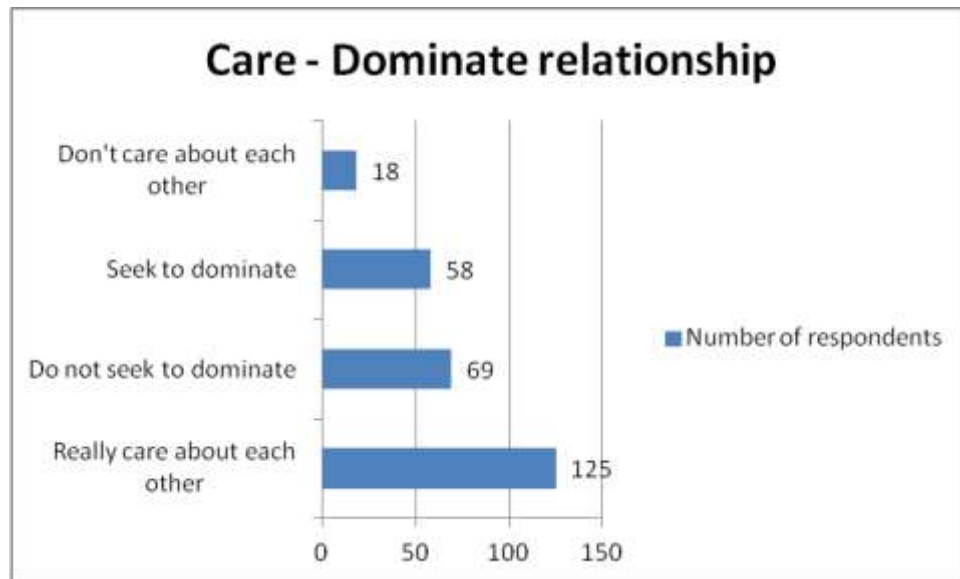
Table 24: In this organization the executives consider that group loyalty is important even at the expense of individual goals

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1 strongly agree	55	25,9	25,9	25,9
2	100	47,2	47,2	73,1
3 I can't decide whether to agree with that	31	14,6	14,6	87,7
4	23	10,8	10,8	98,6
5 strongly disagree	3	1,4	1,4	100,0
Total	212	100,0	100,0	

A number of 155 (out of the total of 212) respondents agreed with this statement which means that loyalty towards the group(s) is expected from the employees.

Humane orientation was also in the focus of this research. With some level of adaptation from House & Javidan (2004) we can define humane orientation as “the extent to which members of a society are fair, generous, friendly and kind to others” (Grove, 2005). The question is on whom we refer to by others because people have a tendency to behave and differently based on who their “counterpart” is. One way of distinction is if we make a contrast between “in-group” and “out-group” members. In this case “the “in-group” members belong to the same faction as oneself does (e.g. every school children who are in class 9 B all are part of the same class) while “out-group” members are part of a faction other than one’s own (e.g. foreigners have a different nationality than oneself)” (Schlösser, 2006, p.14). We examined “humane orientation” in general, and were interested in the fact of how much members care about each other all this in contrast with the fact of how much they seek to dominate each other within their group.

Figure 16: The relationship between caring and dominating (N=143, N= 127)



In figure 16, those respondents were included who answered option 1 or 2 (“really care about the other person”/”seek to dominate”) and those who checked options 4 or 5 (“don’t care about the other person”/”do not seek to dominate”). The obtained result offers the information that in most cases people in organizations care about each other and accordingly they do not seek to dominate. However it should also be noted that there was a significant number of answers (68 in the case of the caring – not caring issue and 85 related to the domination aspect) who could not decide or did not want to choose between the two extremes.

One of the most important aspects which can help us not only in describing the culture of an organization, but it can also present some hints about the leader itself are offered by the power distance. Hofstede describes “power distance” as “the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally”. In cultures where we have significant “differences in power between individuals, organizations will typically have more layers and chain of command is felt to be more important” (Dickson, et.al., 2003, p.737). In our research we have asked the question on what is expected from the employees: whether they have to obey without any questions asked or they are allowed to question their leaders if disagreement exists.

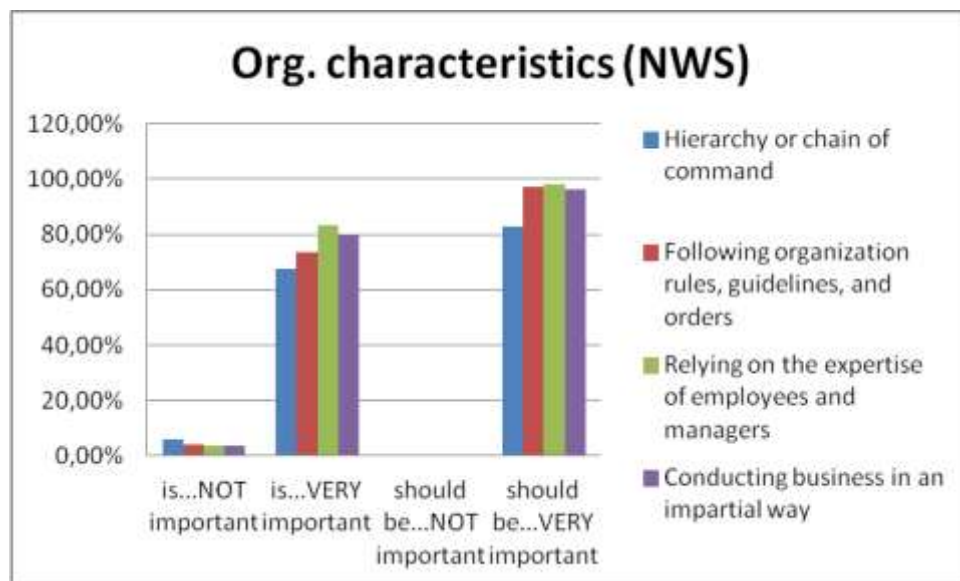
Table 25: In this organization it is expected from the subordinates to

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 obey the leader without any questions	4	1,9	1,9	1,9
	2	14	6,6	6,6	8,5
	3	38	17,9	17,9	26,4
	4	79	37,3	37,3	63,7
	5 to ask questions from their leader when disagreement occurs	77	36,3	36,3	100,0
	Total	212	100,0	100,0	

The answers show an increasing number of responses towards the option number “5”. This also means that the leaders are opened to suggestions before making a decision and/or they welcome the input of their employees which in the end takes us back to the first two questions on culture (see table 22 and 23) where we saw that planning for the future and planning ahead were aspects which characterized the culture of the organizations.

The second part of the survey focuses on perceptions of the current situations on several characteristics of organizations. As mentioned in the 17.2 section the emphasis will be placed on the three paradigms (NWS, NPM, and NPG). The first four characteristics are reflected by the NWS, the second four by the NPM, while the last four can be described as being characteristic to the NPG. The fact that we asked mid-level managers to select the importance of these characteristics regarding their importance in terms of the “current” organization and the organization in the “ideal” serves as a comparative measure.

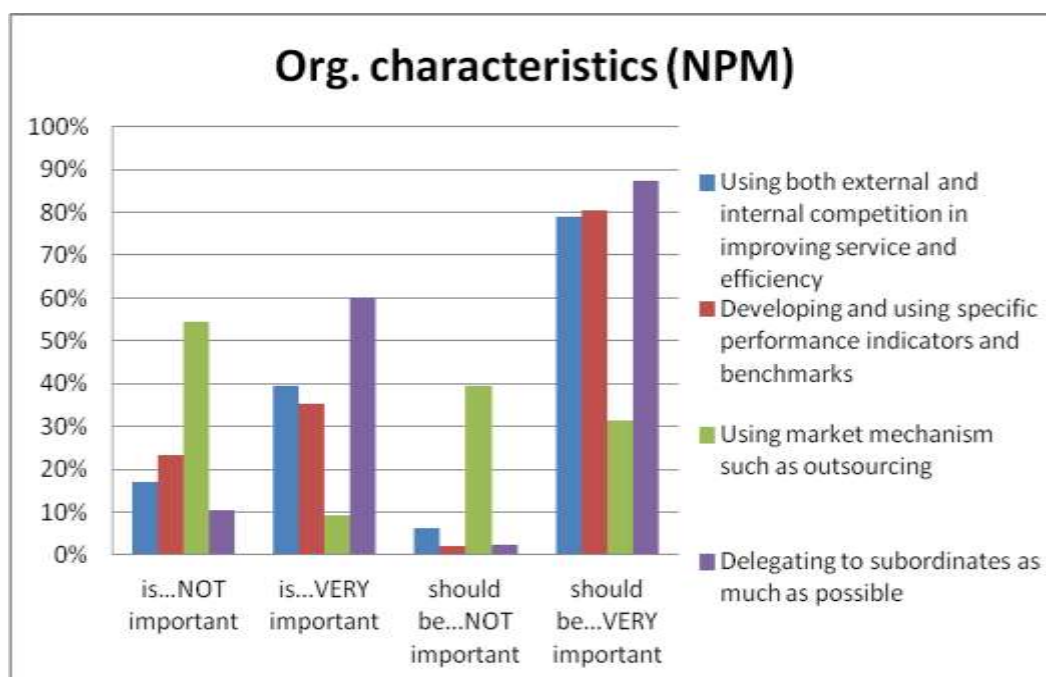
Figure 17: Organizational characteristics (NWS)



There is a direct relation between the “as IS” and the “SHOULD be”. In other words the current situation coincides with the desired situation. In each case we have added the percentages between option 1 and 2 (in the case for “not important”) and between options 4 and 5 (for the “very important”). The missing percentages were not so significant (e.g. in the case of importance of a hierarchy or chain of command 26,4% chose option 3 – this representing the in-between situation – for the current situation, while 16,8% chosen this option for the ideal situation).

In the case of the NPM characteristics the answers show a more contrasting results (see figure 18). However the results strengthen the fact that organizations in Hungary still have deep roots towards the NWS – mainly because of its historical background and the effects of the traditional weberian model - although it is desired (“should be” cases) to have characteristics such as implementing both external and internal competition within the institutions in order to raise the level of efficiency and the quality of public services or development of performance indicators.

Figure 18: Organizational characteristics (NPM)

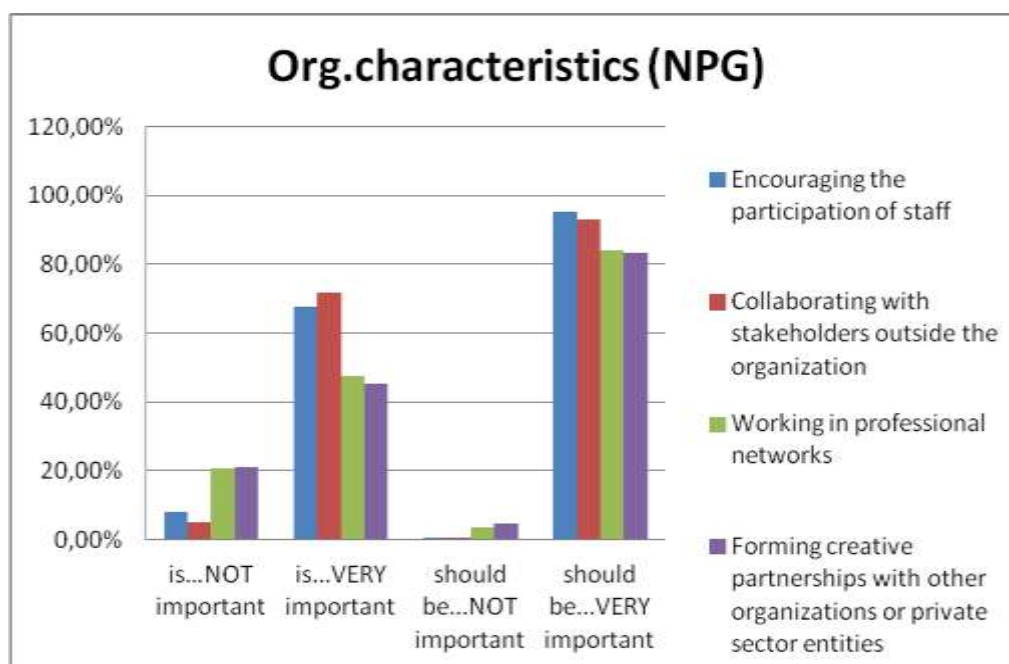


One of the characteristics stands out from the rest – “using market mechanism such as outsourcing” – the possible reason for this is that these mechanisms are still not frequent, nor desired by the local level of administration (54,4% of the respondents considered it as being not important for their organization, nor it is desired to be important, 39,5%, although 31,3% considers that it should be very important). The question – in this case – remains open as to

whether or not the implementation of market mechanism would benefit local level administrators or not. Another aspect which came to our attention was the number of missing responses (a possible reason for this was due to the fact that several mid-level managers did not know how to handle these questions since they were considered as being uncommon to the administrative practice): for instance the use of market mechanisms such as outsourcing has a missing value of 21 respondents.

Finally the last four characteristics are corresponding to the NPG model. Based on the results (see figure 19) it seems that a network approach is favoured in more than 50% of the organizations and/or there is a high need for it. In order to make the government more effective and legitimate other parties (business-type of organization, NGO's and other stakeholders) are being involved in both policymaking and implementation. While in the current state of the organizations a percentage between 45,2% - 71,7% see the NPG characteristics to be of high importance, almost all of the respondents (between 83,5%-95,4%) believe that these elements should be of maximum importance for their organization. Therefore the tendency of moving towards a more opened, flexible system is present.

Figure 19: Organizational characteristics (NPG)



The analysis of the three “pillars” of public management reform models has lead to a certain level of “clash” between models, but especially between the NWS – NPG. One of the main questions in most CEE countries has been the eagerness of “having modern management systems without previously establishing a solid base for democratic development” (Randma-Liiv, 2008, p.4). Without having basic PA frameworks, there has already been – and there still

is – a continuous pressure to reform management practices. In our research it is safe to say that by now NWS has gradually replaced the old Weberian model mainly because isolation is impossible in the contemporary world. The results also offer a solid ground for this “clash” between the models, since both NWS and NPG characteristics are considered as being very important for the organizations and also they should be very important as well. It is not the mission of this paper to take sides, but it should be noted that NPG raises “a number of public management challenges to the political system. This is due to the mobilization of resources of citizens and private stakeholders through participation, collaboration and also due to the enhancement of the motivation of public employees” (Torfing and Triantafillou, 2012). Secondly, the “NPG-type governing also carries serious limitations because they cannot solve all societal and political problems thus they will inevitably lead to some undesirable effects” (idem). However this balance (or better yet the lack of) should not discourage us in taking on these threats in order to “harvest” the advantages of NPG and the fact that the results from the questionnaire also show a demand and definite presence of NPG characteristics in organizations is more than encouraging.

As previously mentioned (see sub-chapter 17.2 about the methodology and data collection) the third part of the survey instrument focuses on leadership based on two approaches. The first approach helps us to make connection between the leadership style and the public management reform models, while the second approach defines leadership in transactional and transformational terms.

As in the previous part (organizational-administrative level) here too (first approach) questions were based on judgements about what is currently important in leadership and what should be in an ideal situation. The first approach consists of the elements which can be found in the model of the thesis (Traditional style factors).

- Leader-subordinate interactions (e.g. directive, delegative, or participative):

Table 26: Leader-subordinate interactions (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) Guidance and direction	107	50,5	51,0	51,0
	b) Delegation to subordinates	34	16,0	16,2	67,1
	c) Joint decision making with employees	69	32,5	32,9	100,0
	Total	210	99,1	100,0	
Missing	System	2	,9		
Total		212	100,0		

A little more than 50% view that in their organization the interactions between leaders and subordinates relies on a directive approach (NWS),, while 32,5% have described this relation as being participative (NPG). This is in accordance with the tendencies described in the second part of the survey (the characteristics of the Organizational-Administrative level). There is only a minor distinction between these results and the ones on the “should be” state. Here 47,8% would see that a joint decision making should be considered as most commonly used, while 42% considered that the directive relationship should be desired.

- Leaders’ approach to external environment (e.g., neutral-technocratic, strategic-competitive, collaborative):

Without any questions in regards to the leader’s approach to the external environment 79,2% of respondents believe that this characterized by a collaboration between the parties. This is also being enforced by the results of the “ideal” state, where 93,3% wish to see this type of relationship to occur between the organization and its external environment.

Table 27: Leaders' approach to external environment (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) Limited interaction with the external environment	32	15,1	15,2	15,2
	b) Competition with other organizations for resources	11	5,2	5,2	20,4
	c) Collaboration with the external environment	168	79,2	79,6	100,0
	Total	211	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		212	100,0		

- Leaders’ approach to end receivers: (e.g., clients, consumers, or active citizens). By end receivers we refer to those who are provided a service such as education, benefits, or use of a facility; however it does not include those who are recipients of regulation.

Table 28: Leaders' approach to end receivers (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) As a legally entitled person/entity	41	19,3	19,6	19,6
	b) As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible	95	44,8	45,5	65,1
	c) As a participant I the delivery (possibly policy) process	73	34,4	34,9	100,0
	Total	209	98,6	100,0	
Missing	System	3	1,4		
Total		212	100,0		

In this case leaders view end receivers as consumers (44,8%) or a certain public service and they (the organizations) should offer their services as to meet the demands of their consumers as much as possible. The “should be” state accumulated 47,3% of the answers for this NPM style. The second most often choice reflects the NPG style both in the “as is” (34,4%) and the “should be” (40,1%) situations.

- Leaders’ conception of their source of authority (e.g. legal, pragmatic, or communal perspectives):

This element represents a particular interest to this research since it is in direct relationship with the leader-subordinate relationship (at least in most of the cases one defines the other). Since we have already presented the results for the most common type of relationship between the two, it goes without saying that in most of the cases (63,7%) leaders see their source of authority deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs. The “should be” situation is also supporting the current state with only minor differences (57% agree that this should be the source of the authority).

Table 29: Leaders' conception of their source of authority (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs	135	63,7	65,2	65,2
	b) Deriving from the achievement of comparative success	45	21,2	21,7	87,0
	c) Deriving from the goodwill of the community	27	12,7	13,0	100,0
	Total	207	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	5	2,4		
Total		212	100,0		

- Leaders' conception of change (e.g., valuing tradition, change, or consensus):

Another element that defines leadership style/practice based on administrative structures is represented by the leader's conception of change. Here we have an element which can be found both when analyzing the organizational culture and the perception of leaders towards change. It was already presented in this chapter (see table 22 and 23) that planning for the future and planning ahead are both characteristics of the organizational culture which were dominant among the respondents (69,8% and 68,9%).

Table 30: Leaders' conception of change (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) Maintaining traditions and loyalty	46	21,7	22,2	22,2
	b) Valuing innovation and reorganization	96	45,3	46,4	68,6
	c) Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large	65	30,7	31,4	100,0
	Total	207	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	5	2,4		
Total		212	100,0		

In both situations ("as is" and "should be") the dominant aspect reflects the valuing of innovation and reorganization (NPM-like approach) (45,3% and 49,8%). Since leaders view citizens as customers and that they should meet their needs as much as possible when offering their services to them it is no surprise that in order to guarantee a highest level of public services innovation and change (constant or periodic) are in order to reach a constant improvement.

- Leaders' interaction with politicians

Administrative leadership styles also will be affected by the degree of bureaucratic policy-advising power, especially at senior ranks. Political control over administrators will be strengthened in many cases by increasing the number of politically appointed executives over administration or personal staff for policy advisement (Van Wart, Hondeghem). The effects of political systems on administrative ones are important (Rosenbloom, 1993).

Table 31: Leaders' interaction with politicians (IS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) Loyal implementer of policy	47	22,2	22,9	22,9
	b) Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager	134	63,2	65,4	88,3
	c) Policy developer in partnership with the community	24	11,3	11,7	100,0
	Total	205	96,7	100,0	
Missing	System	7	3,3		
Total		212	100,0		

63,2% of the respondents view leaders as being a relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager when interacting with politicians. We have similar results in the “should be” case – there, 69,1% agree with this view. This does raise a question mark since currently, “Hungarian public administration most closely approximates the European continental model, having adopted numerous elements from other larger, established systems over the last two decades, while at the same time striving to conserve and continue its historical traditions” (Gál and Gellén, 2015). Although this result may symbolize the “balance” between the NWS – NPG type of reform models which was described were the analysis was presented of the second part of the survey (characteristics of the Organizational-Administrative level).

The second approach on leadership is based on the “Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which measures a broad range of leadership types from passive leaders, to leaders who give (conditional) rewards to followers, to leaders who transform their followers into becoming leaders themselves” (Bass and Avolio, 2015). The assessment contains the following leadership behaviours:

- transformational leadership consists of: “idealized attributes”; “idealized behaviours”; “inspirational motivation”; “intellectual stimulation”; and “individualized consideration”;

- the elements of transactional leadership: “contingent reward”; “management-by-exception” – active;
- passive/avoidant (“management-by-exception” – passive; “laissez-faire”);

In our research each statement (“question”) that was used in the questionnaire corresponds to a certain type of a dimension, as follows:

Factor 1: Idealized influence: 25, 32, 39

Factor 2: Inspirational motivation: 26, 33, 40

Factor 3: Intellectual stimulation: 27, 34, 41

Factor 4: Individualized consideration: 28, 35, 42

Factor 5: Contingent reward: 29, 36, 43

Factor 6: Management-by-exception: 30, 37, 44

Factor 7: Laissez-faire leadership: 31, 38, 45

As a reminder the dimensions of “transformational” leadership are:

- idealized influence (the leader brings the vision, he inspires pride, earns respect and trust, increases optimism);
- inspirational motivation (indicates the leader’s ability to set an example for the subordinates);
- intellectual stimulation (leader provides new ideas to determine rethinking and reassessment of old ideas and develops the way of thinking and imagination of subordinates)
- individualized consideration (the leader helps subordinates to achieve maximum potential, it contributes to employee’s psychological development; it is achieved through mentoring, coaching);

Figure 20: Factor 1 - Idealized influence

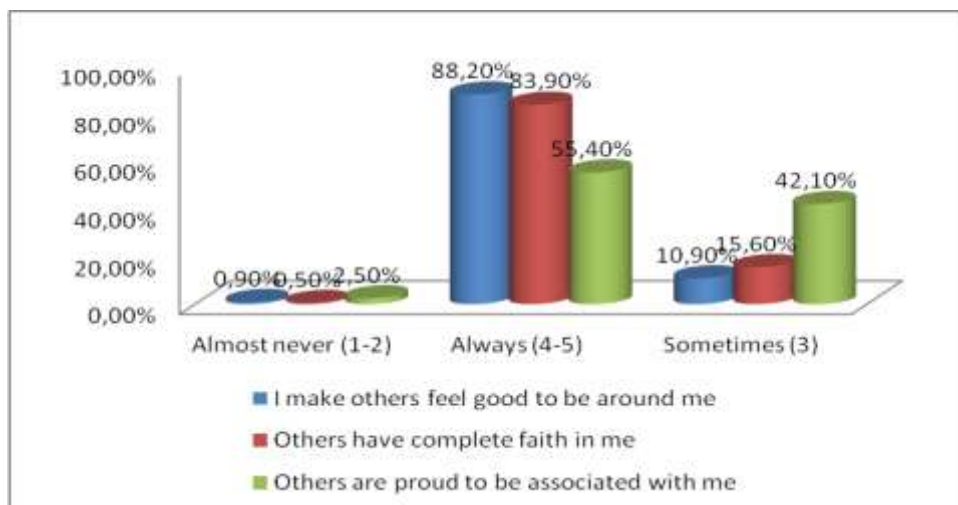


Figure 21: Factor 2 – Inspirational motivation

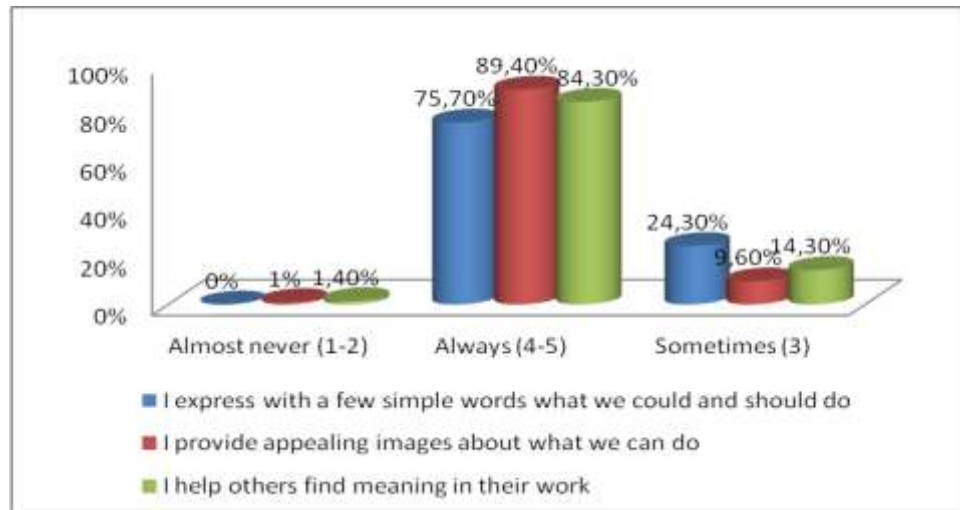


Figure 22: Factor 3 - Intellectual stimulation

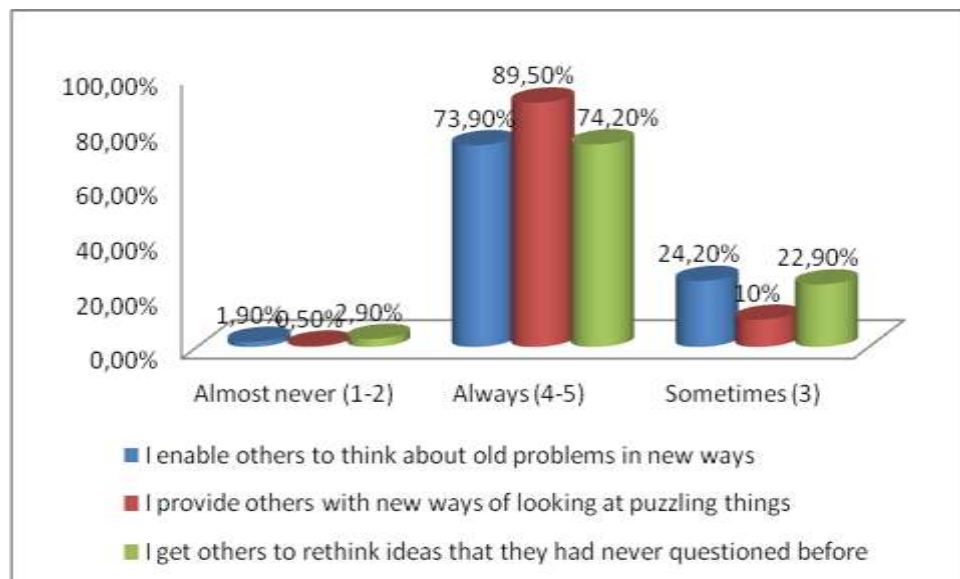


Figure 23: Factor 4 - Individualized consideration



Each of the four types that correspond to transformational leadership has received a high amount of responses.

Robbins described transactional leadership as: "leaders who lead primarily by using social exchanges for transactions" (Robbins, 2007, p.475). The transactional leadership dimensions are:

- "reward contingency" (in accordance with the spent effort and with the achieved performance);
- "management-by-exception" (the leader doesn't interfere unless when the standards and goals are not met);

Figure 24: Factor 5 – Contingent reward

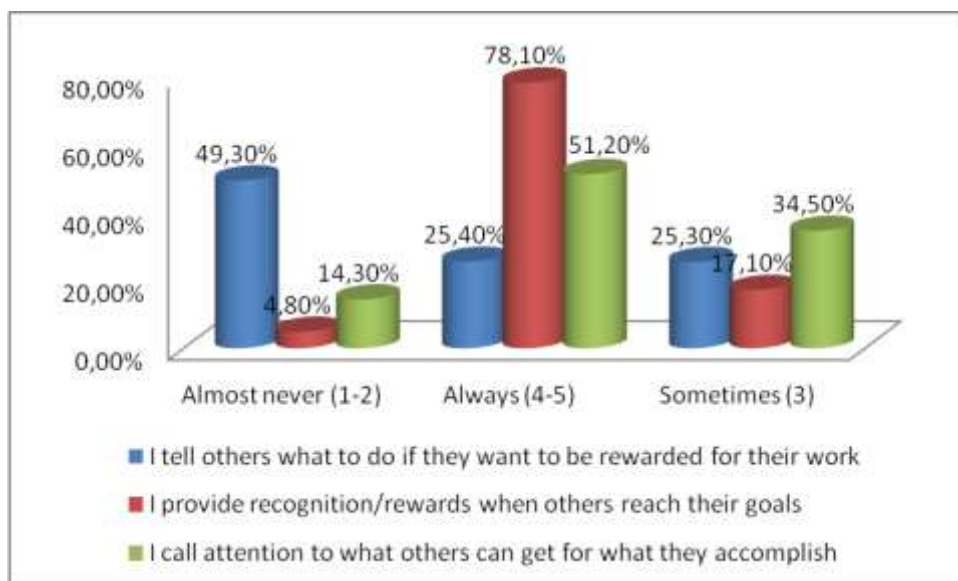
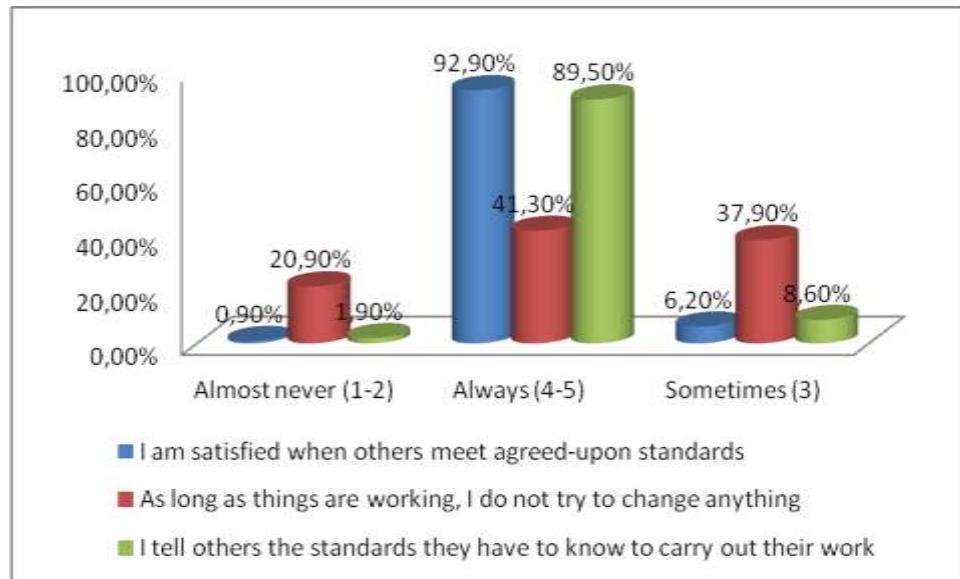


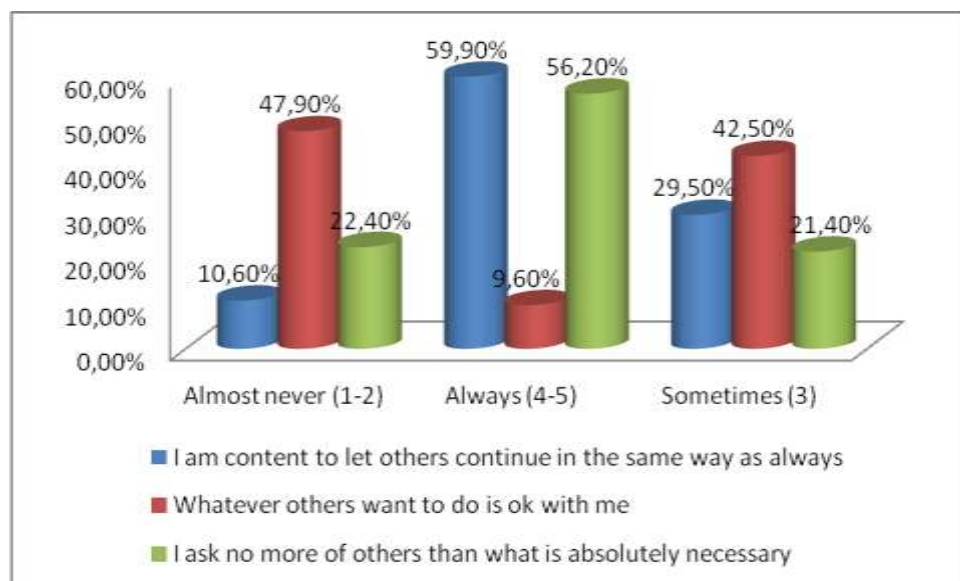
Figure 25: Factor 6 – Management-by-exception



Despite the fact that that we received high percentages of responses for some items belonging to transactional leadership they were not that constant as in the case of the transformational dimension.

Finally passive/avoidant leadership remains in the form of the laissez-faire dimension. Robbins (2007) explained the laissez-fair style as "Abdicates responsibilities avoid making decisions" (p. 475). Laissez-faire „is uninvolved in the work of the unit. It's difficult to defend this leadership style unless the leader's subordinates are expert and well-motivated specialists, such as scientists" (Mondy & Premeaux, 1995, p.347).

Figure 26: Factor 7 – Laissez-faire leadership



In this second approach it is more difficult to make a clear and precise distinction of whether transformational, transactional or even the laissez-faire leadership style for that matter, is the one that characterizes the leadership style in Hungarian public institutions. However we argue that the more common ground (majority of the answers) was found in the dimensions belonging to the transformational leadership. While this type of leadership carries many positive effects, unfortunately it can also contain some negative effects as well (see sub-chapter 6.2 on “transformational” and “transactional” leadership).

The next part of the survey includes some common leadership competencies. With the help of the survey we wanted to find out which competencies are the ones that need to be enhanced via training in the organization in which the respondents operate. We have asked the respondents to rate each competency (using a Likert-scale, where 1 = not important at all; 2 = rather not important; 3 = more or less important; 4 = important; 5 = very important to improve through training) based on their judgements on how important a certain competency is for them to be improved by training. Table no. 32 illustrates the means that each of the competencies has received. It shows the most important competencies which should be improved are following: strategic thinking (4,54), communication skills (4,45) and building trust (4,29).

Table 32: Order of importance - One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Performance enhancement techniques	208	3,97	,848	,059
Leading people	207	3,95	,752	,052
Strategic thinking	205	4,54	,630	,044
Building coalitions	204	3,56	,877	,061
Leading change	204	3,93	,836	,059
Building trust	206	4,29	,685	,048
Communication skills	209	4,45	,733	,051

19. The case of Romania

Romania is placed in the “geographical centre of Europe (south-east of Central Europe), to the north of the Balkan Peninsula, half way between the Atlantic coast and the Urals. It is host to the Carpathian Arch, and the lower course of the Danube (1075 km) down

to the Black Sea” (National Institute of Statistics, <http://insse.ro/cms/en>) (the Romanian coastline is 245 km).

“Romania is a sovereign, independent, unitary and indivisible national state; while the form of government is a Republic, according to the Constitution of Romania, adopted in 1991, and modified in 2003. It is organised according to the principle of separation and balance of the legislative, executive and judicial powers. The legislative power is represented by the Parliament of Romania, with two chambers, comprising of the Senate (137 members) and the Chamber of Deputies (314 members). 18 additional places in the Chamber of Deputies are reserved for the representatives of national minorities” (Matei, 2009, p.12).

“The executive power is represented by the Government which is led by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by the President of the state. Based on the constitutional provisions and laws (Law no. 370/2004 for election of the President of Romania and Law no. 373/2004 for election of the Chamber of Deputies and Senate), the President, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate are elected by universal, equal, direct, secret and free election. It should be noted that although the mandate of the Chamber of Deputies and Senate is for a term of 4 years, since 2004 the mandate of the President has been modified from 4 to 5 years” (idem).

“Judicial power is represented by courts of law, Public Ministries, and the Superior Council of Magistrates. The territory is organized administratively into towns, communes and counties. Some towns are declared municipalities, according to the provisions of the law” (ibidem).

“The total number of public positions within county councils, local councils and other public authorities has seen an increase from 40,69% in 2003 to 45,35% in 2006, reaching 58,282 civil servants in 2006” (National Agency of Civil Servants, Report on management of civil services and civil servants on 2006, Bucharest, 2007). This growth was explained by the efforts in view of decentralisation; bringing public administration closer to its citizens (citizen-friendly approach).

“The ratio between executing and leading public positions is 9 to 1, in accordance with the maximum limit of 12% for leading public positions, stipulated in the Law no. 188/1999 on the Statute of Civil Servants” (Matei, 2009, p.25).

Table 33: Administrative organisation of Romanian territory, on December 31, 2012 (source: National Institute of Statistics <http://insse.ro>)

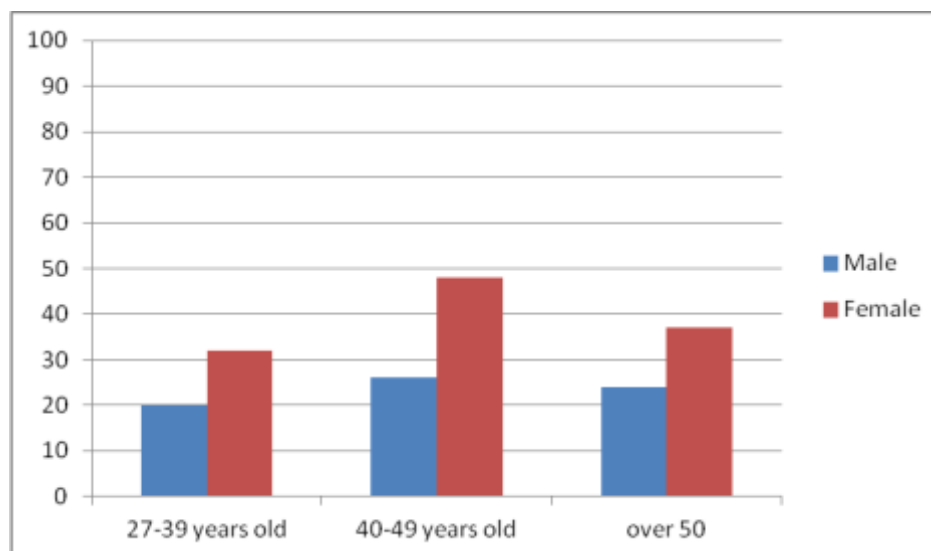
Macro-region Development region County	Total area (km ²)	Number of towns and municipalities	of which: municipalities	Number of communes	Number of villages
Total	238391	320	103	2861	12957
Macro-region 1	68259	100	35	760	3588
<i>North - West</i>	34159	43	15	403	1800
Bihor	7544	10	4	91	430
Bistrita-Nasaud	5355	4	1	58	235
Cluj	6674	6	5	75	420
Maramures	6304	13	2	63	214
Satu Mare	4418	6	2	59	220
Salaj	3864	4	1	57	281
<i>Center</i>	34100	57	20	357	1788
Alba	6242	11	4	67	656
Brasov	5363	10	4	48	149
Covasna	3710	5	2	40	122
Harghita	6639	9	4	58	235
Mures	6714	11	4	91	464
Sibiu	5432	11	2	53	162
Macro-region 2	72612	81	28	861	3862
<i>North - East</i>	36850	46	17	506	2414
Bacau	6621	8	3	85	491
Botosani	4986	7	2	71	333
Iasi	5476	5	2	93	418
Neamt	5896	5	2	78	344
Suceava	8553	16	5	98	379
Vaslui	5318	5	3	81	449
<i>South - East</i>	35762	35	11	355	1448
Braila	4766	4	1	40	140
Buzau	6103	5	2	82	475
Constanta	7071	12	3	58	189
Galati	4466	4	2	61	180
Tulcea	8499	5	1	46	133
Vrancea	4857	5	2	68	331

Macro-region 3	36274	57	17	551	2110
<i>South - Muntenia</i>	34453	48	16	519	2019
Arges	6826	7	3	95	576
Calarasi	5088	5	2	50	160
Dambovita	4054	7	2	82	353
Giurgiu	3526	3	1	51	167
Ialomita	4453	7	3	59	127
Prahova	4716	14	2	90	405
Teleorman	5790	5	3	92	231
<i>Bucharest – Ilfov</i>	1821	9	1	32	91
Ilfov	1583	8	-	32	91
Bucharest Municipality	238	1	1	-	-
Macro-region 4	61246	82	23	689	3397
<i>South – West Oltenia</i>	29212	40	11	408	2070
Dolj	7414	7	3	104	378
Gorj	5602	9	2	61	411
Mehedinti	4933	5	2	61	344
Olt	5498	8	2	104	377
Valcea	5765	11	2	78	560
<i>West</i>	32034	42	12	281	1327
Arad	7754	10	1	68	270
Caras-Severin	8520	8	2	69	287
Hunedoara	7063	14	7	55	457
Timis	8697	10	2	89	313

In some contrast to the Hungarian research, in Romania the level of research did not focus solely at local level, but on the national level as well. This was mainly due to the relatively low amount of responses (total number of respondents 189). Due to the low level of respondents this certainly can't be seen as relevant for the national level; however it can still serve as a fair comparison to the data which was gathered in Hungary and thus the comparative part can be seen as (equally) balanced. The survey was carried out online and on an anonymous basis, between May – August 2015. Also some adjustments were made to the original survey instrument; however the relevant questions – for the research in this thesis – are still present.

From the total number of received questionnaires, the majority consists of women (N=118), while the number of male mid-level managers was represented by a smaller number (N=70) and there was one case where we have missing data (N=1). Considering the distribution of their age (see fig.27 where we also had one missing case (N=1)) the youngest was 27, while the eldest was 68 years old.

Figure 27: The distribution of the sample according to age groups and genders (N=188) (RO)



The distribution of the respondents sample according to the level of education shows that there is an overwhelming majority of those who have obtained their masters degree (65,6%) and this is followed by those who have their university degree (22,8%). The comparison between the years of service – years in leadership position was not possible to carry out since there was a very high amount of missing cases concerning the number of years of service (N= 169). However the decreasing tendency – which was observed in the case of Hungary – of those who have been in a leadership position for the longest was similar in the Romanian sample as well (1-9 years: frequency – 103; 10-19 years: frequency – 42; 20-29 years: frequency – 10; 30-39 years and more than 40 years summed up 2 respondents – one for each variable; the number of missing cases (N= 25)).

The following table presents the results on whether the respondents have previously worked in the private and/or non-profit sector(s):

Table 34: Worked in private sector

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3	1,6	1,6	1,6
YES	84	44,4	44,4	46,0
NO	102	54,0	54,0	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

Table 35: Worked in the non-profit sector

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	1,1	1,1	1,1
YES	28	14,8	14,8	15,9
NO	159	84,1	84,1	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

The majority (44,4% and 84,1%) of the respondents were not employed in the other relevant sector which can also imply that there is a significant level of loyalty (or other motivational elements) towards remaining in the public sector. One of the possible elements can be seen in the level of payment and whether or not the respondents are satisfied with it or not and how would this affect them in recommending the public sector as a work field for their children.

Table 36: How would you rate your wage in your currently held position? (1-5 scale, where 1 = not at all satisfied/5 = very satisfied)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	29	15,3	15,6	15,6
2	35	18,5	18,8	34,4
3	60	31,7	32,3	66,7
4	41	21,7	22,0	88,7
5	21	11,1	11,3	100,0
Total	186	98,4	100,0	
Missing System	3	1,6		
Total	189	100,0		

There was no clear consensus on the matter even if there is a little pull towards the positive level of satisfaction.

Table 37: Would recommend public service to your children (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3	1,6	1,6	1,6
YES	108	57,1	57,1	58,7
NO	78	41,3	41,3	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

Even if there was 33,8% of those who are not satisfied with their current level of pay more than half of the answers (57,1%) indicate that they would still recommend working in the public sector for their children.

There few instances of researches “regarding organizational culture in Romania: e.g. at national level a study was carried out by Interact and Gallup Romania in 2005 and that aimed to analyze the way Romanian values effect managerial methods based on the five cultural dimensions of Geert Hofstede. According to these results, Romanian organizational

culture is characterized by low power distance, femininity, average individualism, high uncertainty avoidance and average long term orientation” (Macarie, et.al, 2011, p.3). The question that we can ask ourselves is: are these outcomes valid for public institutions too? As in the case of the Hungarian descriptive part (see chapter 18) the first question is related to the accepted norm within the organizations. It is clear from the results, that long-term plans do not characterize the organizations thus there is already one element which is in contrast with the results of the Gallup research.

Table 38: In this organization the accepted norm is (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 we don't make plans for the long term	59	31,2	31,4	31,4
	2	84	44,4	44,7	76,1
	3	24	12,7	12,8	88,8
	4	19	10,1	10,1	98,9
	5 planning for the future	2	1,1	1,1	100,0
	Total	188	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		189	100,0		

These results are also supported by the fact that the road to success is seen in accepting the current situation ‘as is’ (42,6% chose option “2” which is closest to this element) and not in planning for the future.

Table 39: In this organization the road to success is (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 accepting the current situation	31	16,4	16,5	16,5
	2	80	42,3	42,6	59,0
	3	46	24,3	24,5	83,5
	4	27	14,3	14,4	97,9
	5 planning ahead	4	2,1	2,1	100,0
	Total	188	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		189	100,0		

As previously noted the Gallup Romania research indicated an average level of individualism. When we analyze an organisation based on its orientation towards individualism we refer to the “degree of linkage a society cultivates” (Hofstede) amongst its

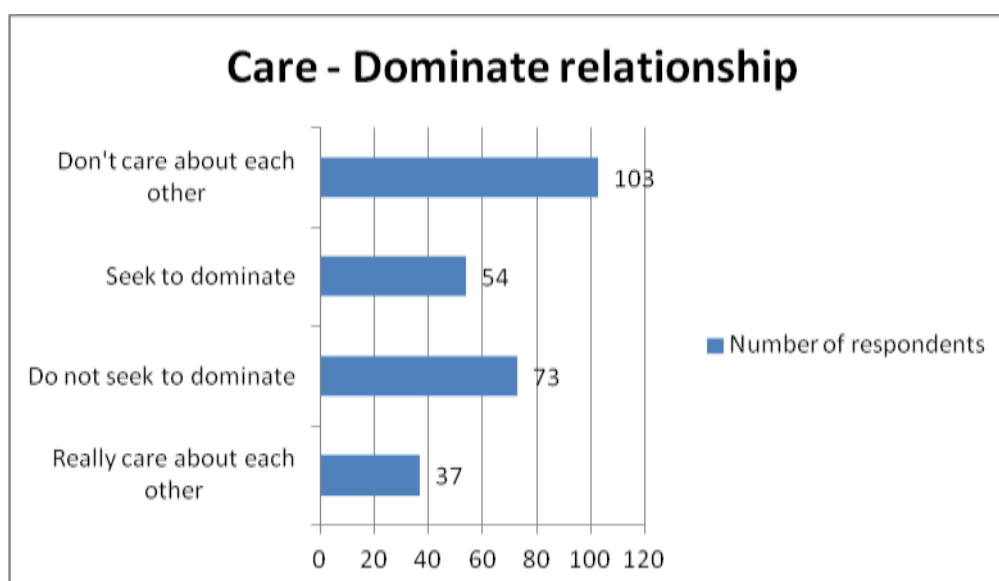
members. In this current research a number of 50 respondents (out of the total of 189) were indecisive on the issue, however 49 respondents moved towards option 5 which indicates a strong agreement on the fact that leaders accentuate group loyalty even at the detriment of personal (individual) goals which show a shift from individualism towards collectivism.

Table 40: In this organization the executives consider that group loyalty is important even at the expense of individual goals (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	12	6,3	6,4	6,4
	2	43	22,8	22,9	29,3
	3	50	26,5	26,6	55,9
	4	49	25,9	26,1	81,9
	5 strongly agree	34	18,0	18,1	100,0
	Total	188	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		189	100,0		

Humane orientation is playing a key part in describing a culture of an organization (be it public or private). The following figure illustrates the contrast between how much do the employees care about each other and on whether or not they seek to dominate each other within their group. The results were calculated in the same way: in both instances the number of respondents were added (those who chose option 1 + 2 and those who chose option 4 + 5; e.g. people “don’t care about each other” $89+14 = 103$; “really care about each other” $26+11 = 37$, and the remaining respondents opted for option “3” (48)).

Figure 28: The relationship between caring and dominating (N=140, N= 127)



The results do not coincide with the expected outcome. Although we do have a high number of respondents who agreed with the statement that they don't care about each other (103) however we can't observe the same level of agreement when it comes to the tendency of domination within their group. It is also worth mentioning that we have 48 respondents who either could not decide and/or did not want to choose as to whether they do or don't care about each other and 59 where does who remained indecisive in relation to the domination aspect.

The power distance indicates the character of the culture towards the lack of balances amongst us. Power Distance is seen as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, <https://geert-hofstede.com/romania.html>). Romania scores relatively high on this dimension (if we add option 4 with 5 which expresses that it is expected from the employees to fulfil their tasks without any questions asked, we receive a percentage of 62,2%) “which means that people accept a certain hierarchical order in which everybody has their own place and which needs no further justification” (idem.). This also reflects that centralization is popular and the ideal “boss” is an autocrat who tells the subordinates what to do. This is in accordance with the first question on culture – on the accepted norm – where we saw that there is no room for long-term plans (see table 38).

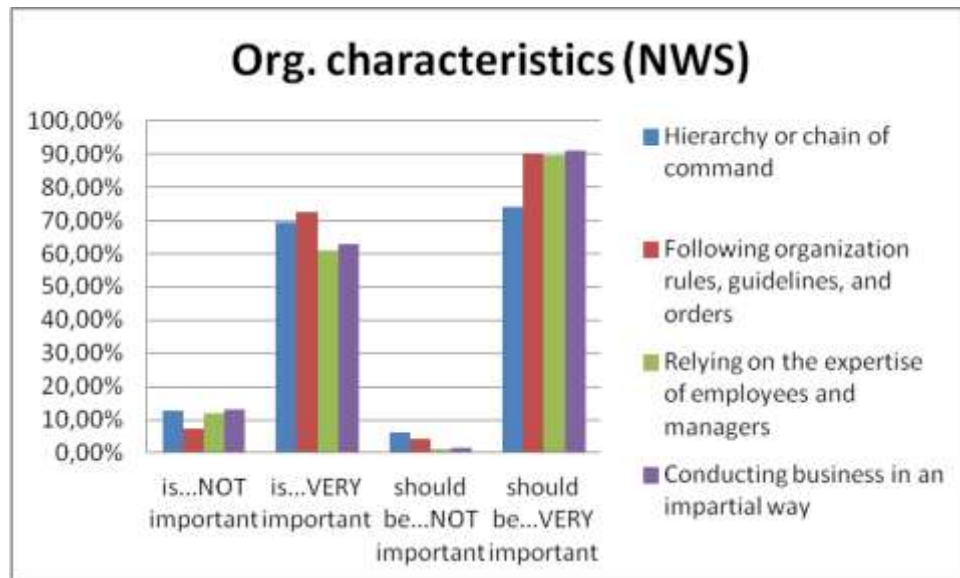
Table 41: In this organization it is expected from the subordinates to (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 to ask questions from their leader when disagreement occurs	8	4,2	4,3	4,3
	2	17	9,0	9,0	13,3
	3	46	24,3	24,5	37,8
	4	64	33,9	34,0	71,8
	5 obey the leader without any questions	53	28,0	28,2	100,0
	Total	188	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		189	100,0		

The second part of the survey focuses on perceptions of the current situations on several organizational characteristics with an emphasis on the three paradigms (NWS, NPM, NPG). Each paradigm contains four questions in the ‘as is’ – ‘as should be’ relationship.

These two reflect the current status of the organizations and how it would look in the ideal situation, thus we have a strong ground for comparisons.

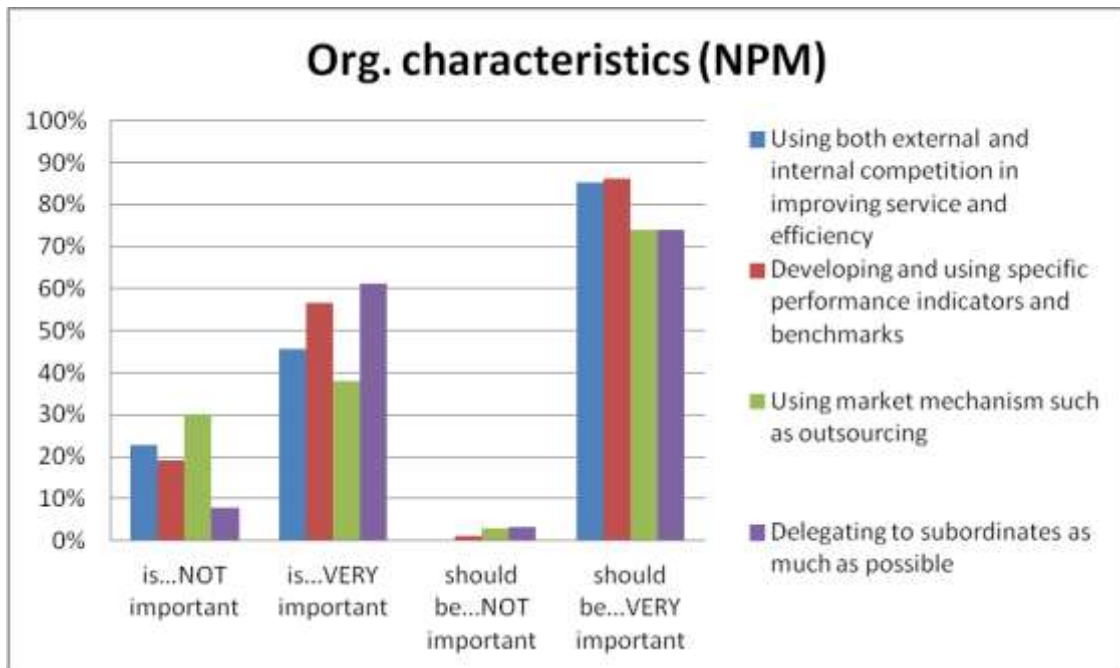
Figure 29: Organizational characteristics (NWS) (RO)



We can observe a direct relation between the “as IS” and the “SHOULD be” states, which means that the current situation coincides with the desired situation. In each case we have added the percentages between option 1 and 2 (in the case for “not important”) and between options 4 and 5 (for the “very important”). The missing percentages were not so significant (e.g. the importance of the “hierarchy or chain of command” 15,9% chose option 3 – this representing the in-between situation – for the current situation, while 14,3% chosen this option for the ideal situation).

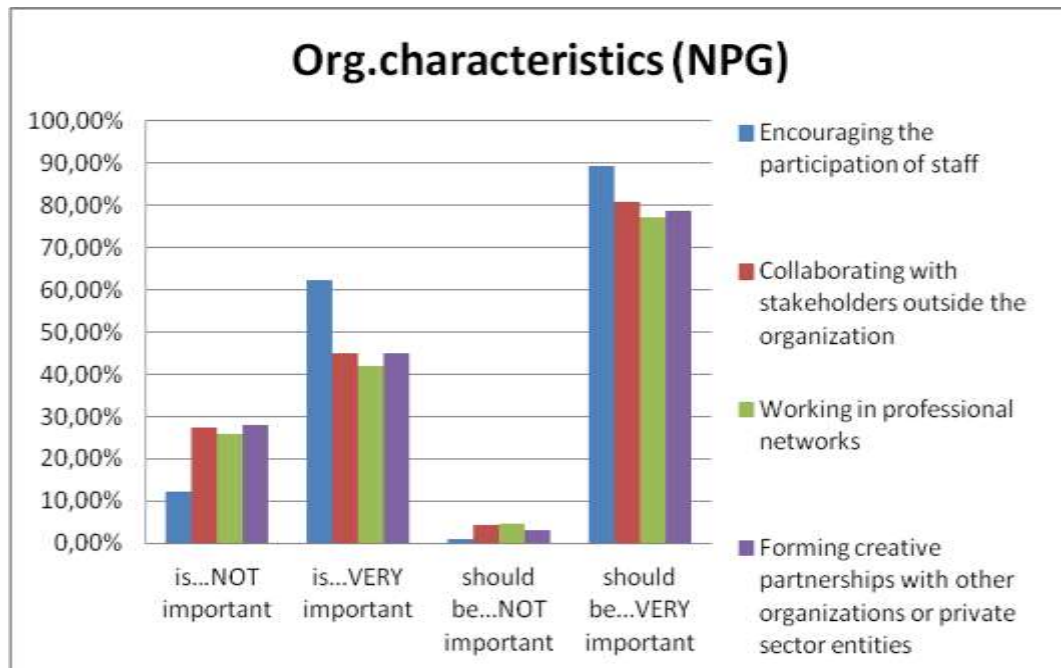
The following four characteristics have served us in describing the NPM paradigm. Here we received a lower percentage describing the current situation inside the organizations, however they are highly desired (answers range between 74%-86,20%). The number of respondents who opted for option 3 was not that high (between 6,9% - 29,6%), while the number of missing cases is between 4-12 respondents).

Figure 30: Organizational characteristics (NPM) (RO)



The last four characteristics describe the NPG. It seems that in the present state public institutions do not have a strong relation towards the elements which belong to the NPG although more than 77% of the responses indicate that these factors should be important. In conclusion we can state that the organisations function based on more of NWS elements – which probably derive from the influence of the former socialist system - and somewhat on NPM elements – due to the ongoing transformations - with a desire to move towards NPG in the future.

Figure 31: Organizational characteristics (NPG) (RO)



The third part of the survey assesses how the institutional component of leadership functions inside the organizations. There are no right or wrong statements - this was why it was important that the respondents offer answers which are closest to the reality. As in the previous part (organizational-administrative level) here too (first approach) the questions were based on judgements about what is currently important in leadership and what should be in an ideal situation. The majority of studies which were conducted during the years of transition have shown a preference towards the CEOs and subordinates for a leadership style which tends to be autocratic (Edwards, Lawrence, 2000).

- Leader-subordinate interactions (e.g. directive, delegative, or participative):

Table 42: Leader-subordinate interactions (IS) (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	13	6,9	6,9	6,9
a) Guidance and direction	50	26,5	26,5	33,3
b) Delegation to subordinates	96	50,8	50,8	84,1
c) Joint decision making with employees	30	15,9	15,9	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

Half of the respondents (50,8%) view the interactions between the leader – subordinates as being based on delegation (NPM approach). This is in accordance with the results received in a previous part of the survey (Organizational – administrative level) where the element of delegating received the highest score. There is a difference in the preference of the respondents when it comes to the ideal state, where we have 46,5% who believe that this should be based on joint decision making (NPG) and only 34,9% agree that delegation should be the defining element in the desired case.

- Leaders' approach to external environment (e.g., neutral-technocratic, strategic-competitive, collaborative):

This was the first element which did raise some question marks because 55% agreed that the relationship with the external environment is currently based on collaboration (NPG) – in part this could explain why it got a high score on the “should be important” scale, but does not reflect the characteristics of an autocrat type of a leader – and only 31,2% opted for a limited interaction with the external environment. There was an even higher score for collaboration (76,7%) for the ideal case.

Table 43: Leaders' approach to external environment (IS) (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	11	5,8	5,8	5,8
a) Limited interaction with the external environment	59	31,2	31,2	37,0
b) Competition with other organizations for resources	15	7,9	7,9	45,0
c) Collaboration with the external environment	104	55,0	55,0	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

- Leaders' approach to end receivers: (e.g., clients, consumers, or active citizens).

Table 44: Leaders' approach to end receivers (IS) (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a) As a legally entitled person/entity	96	50,8	50,8	50,8
	b) As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible	57	30,2	34,1	85,0
	c) As a participant in the delivery (possibly policy) process	21	11,1	15,0	100
	Total	174	92,1	100,0	
Missing	System	15	7,9		
Total		189	100,0		

The majority of leaders view end receivers as a legally entitled person (50,8%) and the 'should be'/ideal state has shown the same results but with a lesser amount of percentages (38,1%).

- Leaders' conception of their source of authority (e.g. legal, pragmatic, or communal perspectives):

The way of how a leader perceives its own source of authority can help us in explaining the elements that they use to define their interactions with their subordinates. In the case of Romania we had the delegation as a defining element for the current state, and joint decision making for the ideal state.

Table 45: Leaders' conception of their source of authority (IS) (RO)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		14	7,4	7,4	7,4
	a) Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs	114	60,3	60,3	67,7
	b) Deriving from the achievement of comparative success	34	18,0	18,0	85,7
	c) Deriving from the goodwill of the community	27	14,3	14,3	100,0
	Total	189	100,0	100,0	

We can observe similarities and some differences as well. One of the similarities could be that as in the case of the leader – subordinate interactions, here too we had differing results between the 'as is' and 'should be' states.

Table 46: Leaders' conception of their source of authority ('SHOULD BE') (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	16	8,5	8,5	8,5
a) Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs	43	22,8	22,8	31,2
b) Deriving from the achievement of comparative success	64	33,9	33,9	65,1
c) Deriving from the goodwill of the community	66	34,9	34,9	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

On the side of differences first here we found that over 60% of the responses have indicated that the leaders see their source of authority as deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs (NWS approach) while they base their interactions on delegating (NPM) and it is unclear on whether they consider their authority deriving from the achievement of comparative success or from the goodwill of the community in the ideal case.

- Leaders' conception of change (e.g., valuing tradition, change, or consensus):

Change inside an organization is a "must" and therefore the leader has to have some kind of conception based on which he/she decides to deal with change in order to maintain the right direction. The role of change varies among public executives, from not very important to being a key personal role, to being an important role but as a facilitator rather than as the major change-agent. In the part where we dealt with the aspects of the culture we've seen that planning ahead (16,4%) and long-term plans (11,2%) was not that common within the respondents.

Table 47: Leaders' conception of change (IS) (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	14	7,4	7,4	7,4
a) Maintaining traditions and loyalty	58	30,7	30,7	38,1
b) Valuing innovation and reorganization	74	39,2	39,2	77,2
c) Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large	43	22,8	22,8	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

The table above shows that there is a very minimal distinction (a percentage of 8,5%) between maintaining traditions and loyalty and valuing innovation and reorganization. This is a good example when you try to take the positive elements from two different reform models and mix them together.

- Leaders' interaction with politicians

There are many ways that leaders can see their roles with politicians from that of a policy subordinate, an independent implementer or enacted policy, to an aide in the policy community in which politicians are just one set of important actors.

Table 48: Leaders' interaction with politicians (IS) (RO)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	12	6,3	6,3	6,3
a) Loyal implementer of policy	82	43,4	43,4	49,7
b) Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager	51	27,0	27,0	76,7
c) Policy developer in partnership with the community	44	23,3	23,3	100,0
Total	189	100,0	100,0	

43,4% of the answers indicate that the leader is merely the loyal implementer of policies when interacting with politicians. This strengthens the historical roots of the administrative system in Romania however the “should be” state (probably) presents the desire of administrative leaders for changes to take place, giving them a bigger role in this “relationship”, since 47,1% consider that the leader’s interaction with politicians should be seen as a policy developer working in partnership with the community.

After having seen the results on the institutional component of leadership in the Romanian institutions, we turn our focus on the behavioural component. This second approach uses the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). In the research each statement (“question”) that was used in the questionnaire corresponds to a certain type of a dimension, as follows:

Factor 1: Idealized influence: 3, 7, 9, 12

Factor 2: Inspirational motivation: 6, 15, 22

Factor 3: Intellectual stimulation: 1, 5, 19

Factor 4: Individualized consideration: 10, 18, 20

Factor 5: Contingent reward: 8, 11, 21

Factor 6: Management-by-exception: 13, 14, 16

Factor 7: Laissez-faire leadership: 2, 4, 17

Figure 32: Factor 1 - Idealized influence (RO) (N= 189; Missing = 3-2-2-3)

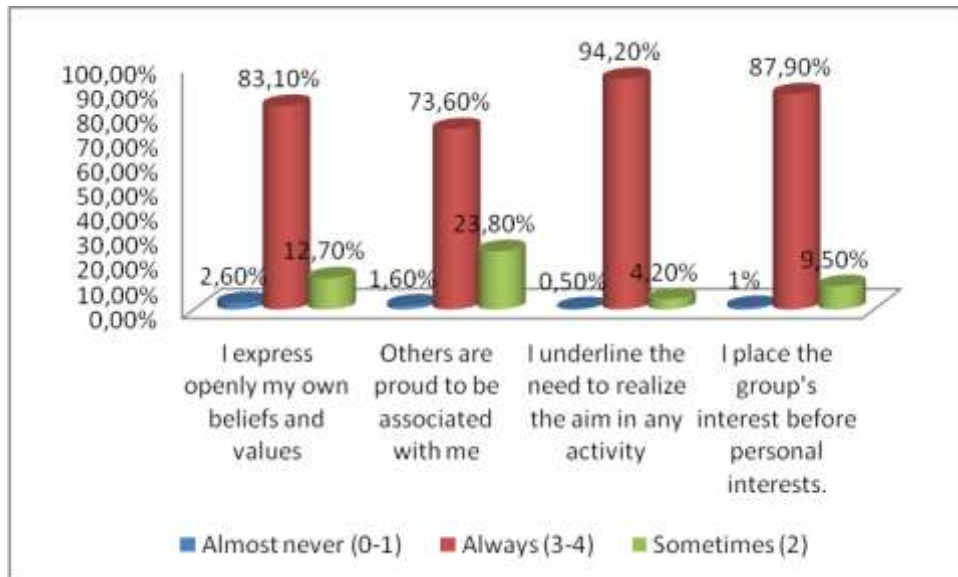


Figure 33: Factor 2 – Inspirational motivation (RO) (N= 189; Missing = 2-2-3)

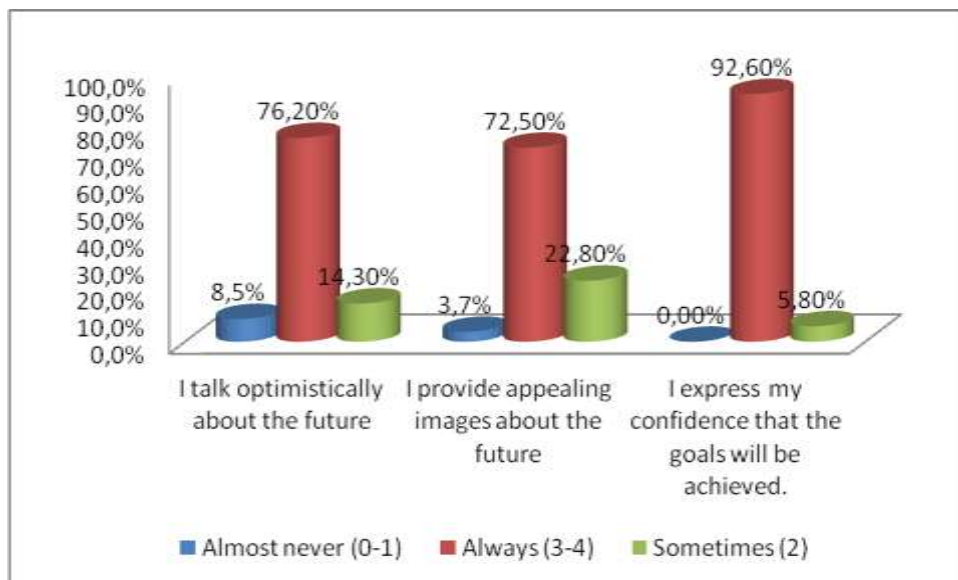


Figure 34: Factor 3 - Intellectual stimulation (RO) (N= 189; Missing = 3-2-3)

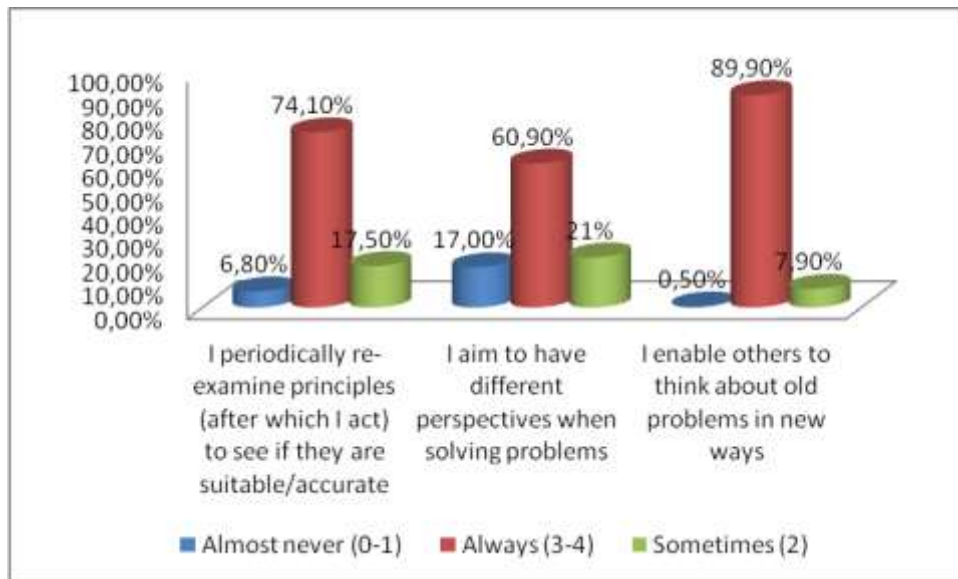
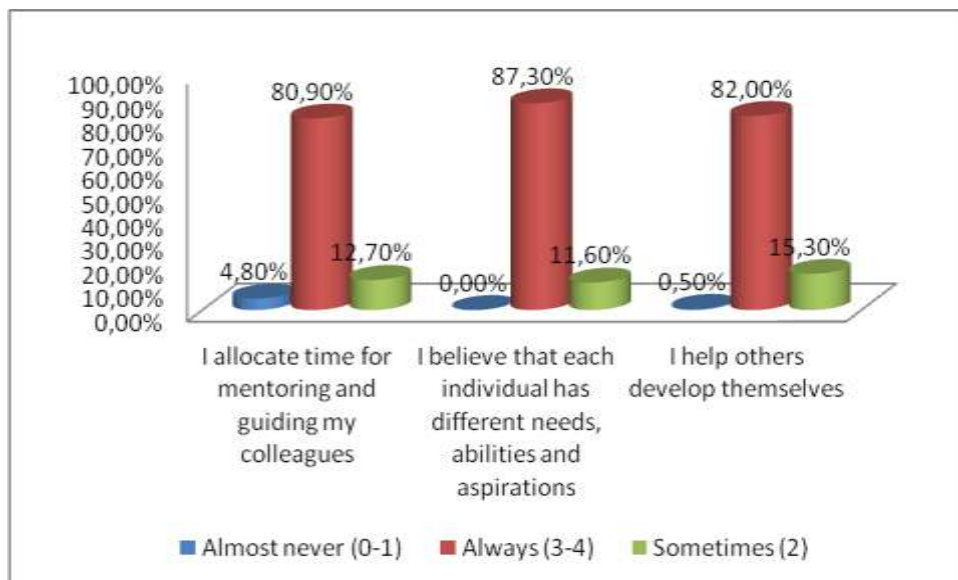


Figure 35: Factor 4 - Individualized consideration (RO) (N= 189; Missing = 3-2-4)

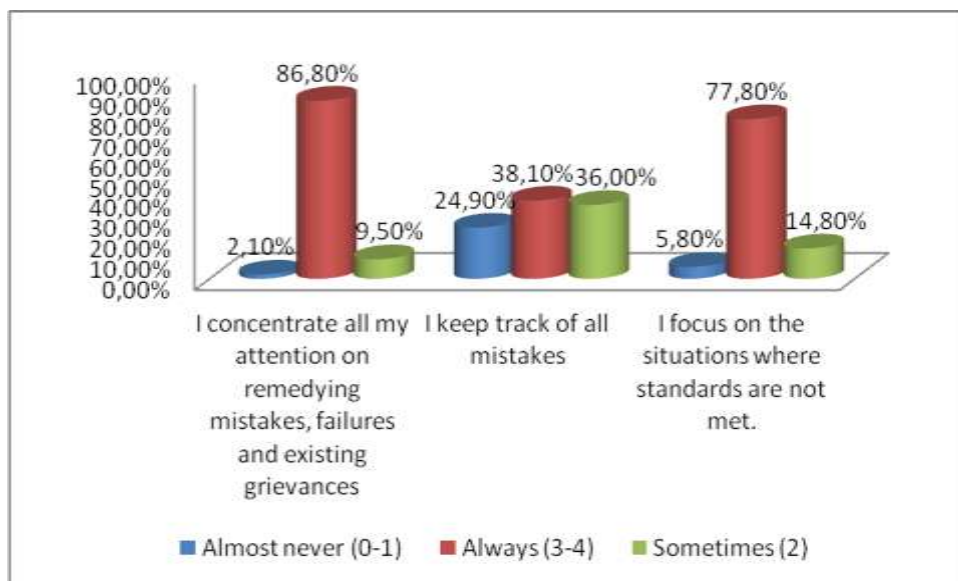


Each element of the four factors have received high percentages (between 60,9% - 94,2%). This means that always (or almost always) the majority of the leaders identify themselves with transformational leadership. The following two figures illustrate the responses obtained to the elements which can be identified with the transactional leadership.

Figure 36: Factor 5 – Contingent reward (RO) (N = 189; Missing = 3-4-3)

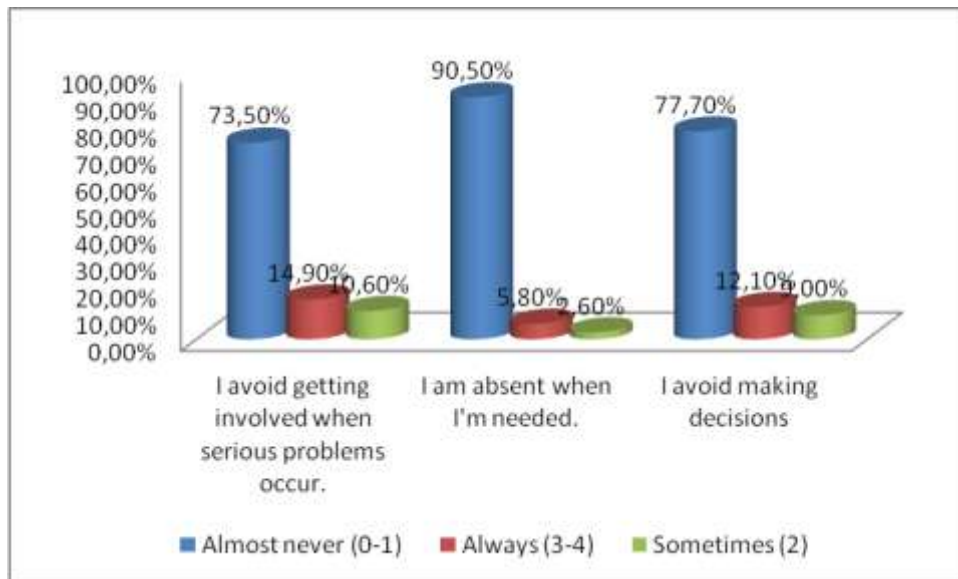


Figure 37: Factor 6 – Management-by-exception (RO) (N = 189; Missing = 3-2-3)



It would be a mistake to entirely rule out the existence of transactional leadership, since here we also had elements which scored highly, although there was one element from each factor which does not characterize the leaders that often. The final dimension – Laissez-faire leadership – and its elements are described in figure 38:

Figure 38: Factor 7 – Laissez-faire leadership (RO) (N = 189;Missing = 2-2-2)



After reviewing the data and results for “transformational”, “transactional” and “laissez-faire” leadership we can conclude that transformational leadership characterizes the leader in Romania but they also use elements from the transactional leadership as well.

The last section of the survey proposes to identify which professional competencies should be developed during the career, through development programs and training. We have asked the respondents to rate each competency (using a Likert-scale, where 1 = not important at all; 2 = rather not important; 3 = more or less important; 4 = important; 5 = very important to improve through training) based on their judgements on how important a certain competency is for them to be improved via training.

Table 49: Order of importance - One-Sample Statistics (RO)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Performance enhancement techniques	185	4,52	,676	,050
Leading people	184	4,53	,635	,047
Strategic thinking	184	4,55	,607	,045
Building coalitions	184	4,30	,777	,057
Leading change	182	4,44	,608	,045
Building trust	183	4,53	,618	,046
Communication skills	184	4,66	,560	,041

The most important competencies which should be improved are: communication skills (4,66), strategic thinking (4,55) and leading people (4,53) / building trust (4,53).

PART VI. - Comparative analysis

After seeing the descriptive statistics in the case of the two analyzed countries, this chapter will present the results with a comparative approach (note: this is not to say that e.g. “A” country is doing better, than “B”, nor that leaders in country “B” are using better leadership styles than leaders in country “A”). The goal of this chapter is to illustrate and to show the common and uncommon elements and characteristics which can be identified in the two cases.

This will be structured in three parts (such as the three main components of the thesis): organizational culture, the public management reform models (based on the organizational – administrative component) and the leadership style.

Since we are just starting to comprehend how the role of culture affects leadership and organizational processes, many research questions remain yet unanswered (e.g. to what extent organizational culture influence the expectations of individuals regarding the role of leaders and subsequently their behaviour? To what degree will leadership styles differ in accordance with distinctive cultural values?). We do not have exhaustive answers to these – and similar - questions – although the goal of the thesis is to shed some light on these aspects - however developments have been reached in a number of areas (see for instance House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). As previously described in chapter 7, due to “increased globalization of organizations and increased interdependencies among nations, the need for a better understanding of cultural influences on leadership has never been greater” (House, et. al. 1999).

From a theoretical and scientific “perspective, compelling reasons exist for considering the role of organizational culture in influencing leadership and therefore the organizational processes as well” (House et.al., 1999, p.6).

The fundamental components investigated in the current research were five characteristics of cultures, which can be “operationalized as quantitative dimensions” (House et.al., 1999, p.24):

- (1) Future orientation I: Accepted norm,
- (2) Future orientation II: Road to success,
- (3) Individualism/collectivism,
- (4) Humane Orientation,
- (5) Power Distance.

“These dimensions were selected based on the review of the literature relevant to the measurement of culture in previous studies” (House et.al, 1999) (e.g. GLOBE).

The following table summarizes the results obtained from the questionnaires in the two countries. The answers which indicate the highest percentage of responses, were included which illustrate the direction towards the organizations are headed and thus the characteristics of the organizational culture can also be extracted.

Table 50: Organizational culture characteristics (comparative)

Organizational culture (attributes)	Countries	
	Hungary	Romania
Future orientation I. - the accepted norm is	planning for the future (69,8%)	we don't make plans for the long-term (75,6%)
Future orientation II.- the road to success is	planning ahead (68,9%)	accepting the current situation (58,7%)
Individualism/collectivism – group loyalty vs. individual goals	Group loyalty is important (strongly agree = 73,1%)	Group loyalty is important (strongly agree = 43,9%*)
Humane orientation – care-dominate relationship	Really care about each other (58,9%) – do not seek to dominate (32,5% responses)	Don't care about each other (54,4%) – do not seek to dominate (38,6%)
Power distance – what is expected from subordinates	ask questions from their leaders when disagreement (73,6%)	obey the leader without any questions (61,9%)

* 26,5% remained indecisive on this issue

In an organizational setting future orientation means that the organization is fitted to meet future (environmental) changes and therefore it is also considered to be an important leadership attribute and can also be connected with better performance.

Whereas in Hungary the organizational culture is perceived as future-oriented, meaning that organizations have a tendency towards creating a flexible and adaptive environment, with highly motivated employees and visionary leadership is emphasized. In Romania we observed just the opposite phenomenon. This means that the majority of organizations have a shorter strategic orientation, possibly with inflexible managers.

In Hungary 73,1% of the questioned subjects have strongly agreed that group loyalty is seen as being more important, than the individual goals. In the case of Romania we obtained the same outcome, although with a lower level of responses 43,9%. These answers are characteristic to a collectivist view and it should be noted that this represents the first element where similarities occurred between the two countries.

In this study we have contrasted the results of people caring for each other with the desire of seeking to dominate each other within the organization. In Hungary the results indicate a high level of humane orientation. Whereas in Romania this is not entirely the case (even if the majority of the respondents have indicated that people in general do not seek to dominate, a higher level of answers was obtained which shows that most of the people do not care about each other).

The characteristics of organizations that have high and low humane orientation include the following:

Table 51: High-Low Humane orientation characteristics (based on House et al, 2004; In: Grove, 2005)

High humane orientation organizations	Low humane orientation organizations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the interests of others is more important; people are driven primarily by a need for belonging and affiliation; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One's own self-interest is more important; people are motivated primarily by a need for power and material possessions;

The findings concerning the dimension of power distance are interesting mainly because they did not confirm our original assumption (which was that this will be similar in both of the countries and it will be rooted in the administrative traditions characteristic in Hungary and Romania). Based on the results we can observe the characteristics of these organizations that have high and low power distance:

Table 52: High-Low Power distance characteristics (based on House et al, 2004; In: Grove, 2005)

High power distance organizations	Low power distance organizations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> power seen as providing social/organizational order; upward organizational mobility is limited; resources available to only a few; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> power linked to corruption and coercion; upward organizational mobility is common; resources are available to almost all;

• information is localized;	• information is widely shared;
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As presented in table 50 we've encountered more differences than similarities related to the characteristics which help us to outline the organizational culture. In the Hungarian cases the organizational culture can be characterized as:

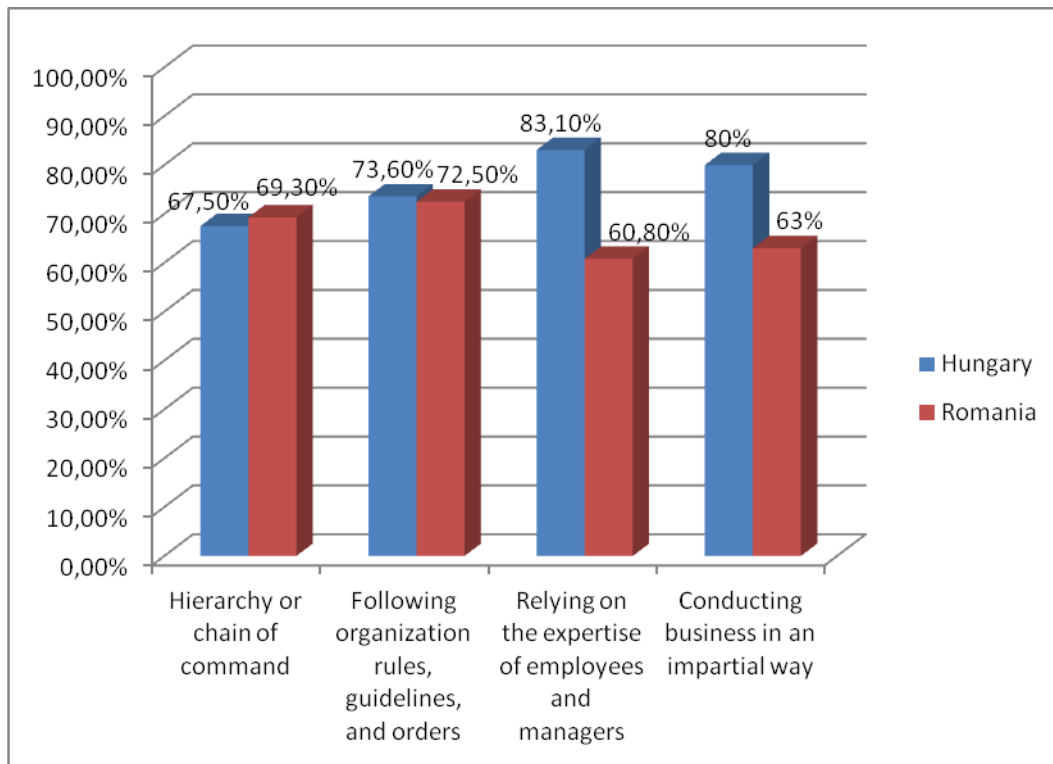
- having a relatively high level of future orientation (the average score for future orientation practices was 2.04 – for future orientation I – and 2.02 – for future orientation II on the 1-to-5 scale),
- a relatively high level of collectivism (mean = 2.15 on the 1-to-5 scale),
- the humane orientation is higher than lower (with an average on caring about the other person of 2.34 and a mean of 3.05 for seeking – not seeking to dominate) and
- a relatively low level of power distance (having an average score of 4 on the 1-to-5 scale).

Whereas the organizational culture in the analyzed Romanian public institutions has the following characteristics:

- low level of future orientation (average score of 2.05 for future orientation I, and 2.43 for future orientation II),
- a somewhat higher level of collectivism than individualism (mean = 3.27), with
- a relatively low level of humane orientation (2.63 average for not caring about the other person and a mean of 2.89 not seeking to dominate) and
- a relatively high level of power distance (average of 3.73).

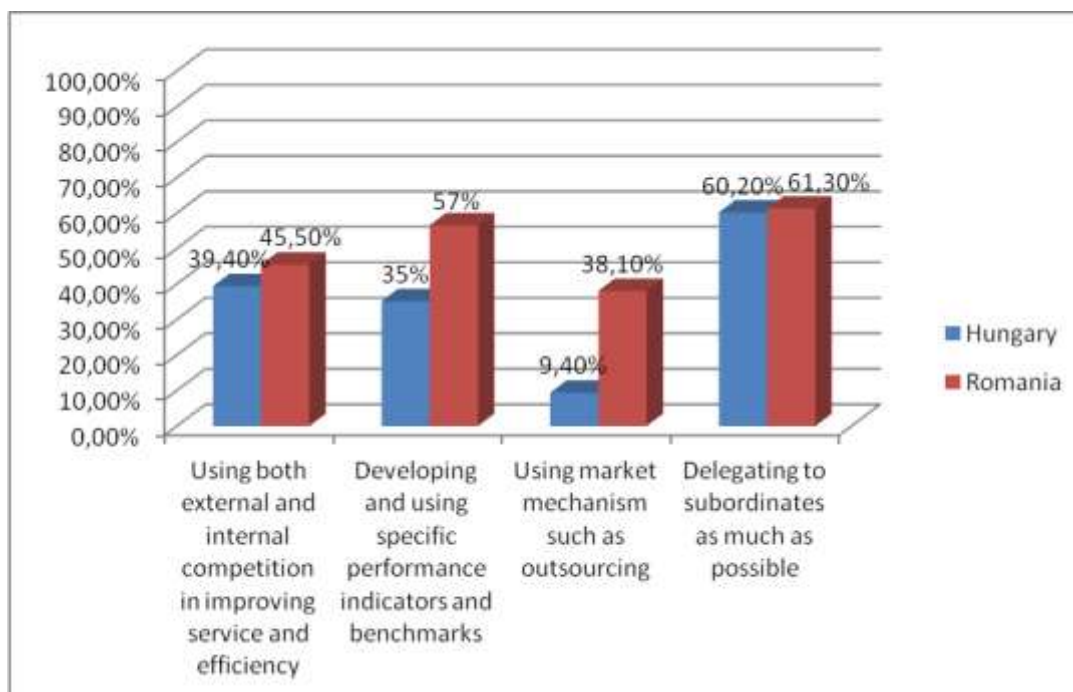
In the following figure the results for three “ideal” models will be presented in a comparative way, first in the present (‘as is’) state, followed by a second graph which will consist of the desired (‘should be’) environment.

Figure 39: NWS – characteristics rated as “very important”



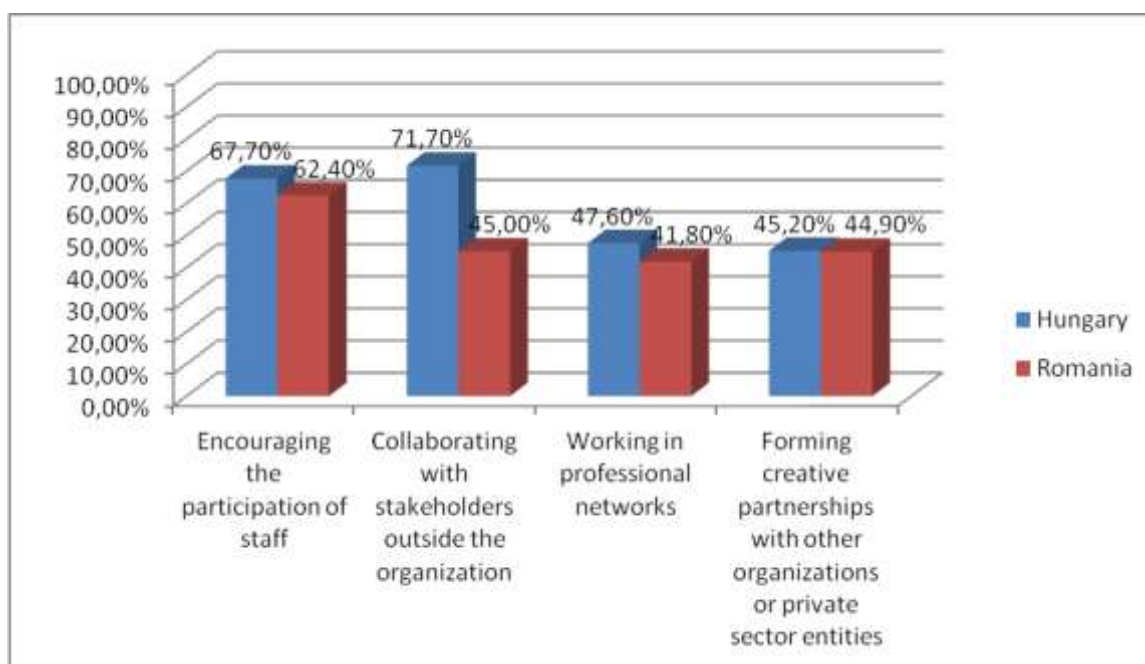
There were only two instances where the differences were notable (“relying on the expertise of employees and managers”; “conducting business in an impartial way”); the first two characteristics had similar results.

Figure 40: NPM - characteristics rated as “very important”



The correlation in the case of the second model was not that strong (in comparison to the NWS), since much lower percentages indicate that elements defining the NPM are being viewed as very important. We have two characteristics which resulted in similar outcomes, while other two have lead to more notable differences (the development and use of specific performance indicators and benchmarks; the use of market mechanisms).

Figure 41: NPG - characteristics rated as “very important”



“Collaborating with stakeholders outside the organization” has resulted in significant differences, while the other three characteristics of the NPG model have shown strong similarities.

Comparing the findings we could state that the organizations in both Hungary and Romania find that NWS is still seen as being the driving force, but we should not rule out other possibilities since the ‘should be’ state could also give us a better acceptance of the “organizational-administrative” level which is desired by the leaders.

Figure 42: NWS – characteristics rated as “should be” important

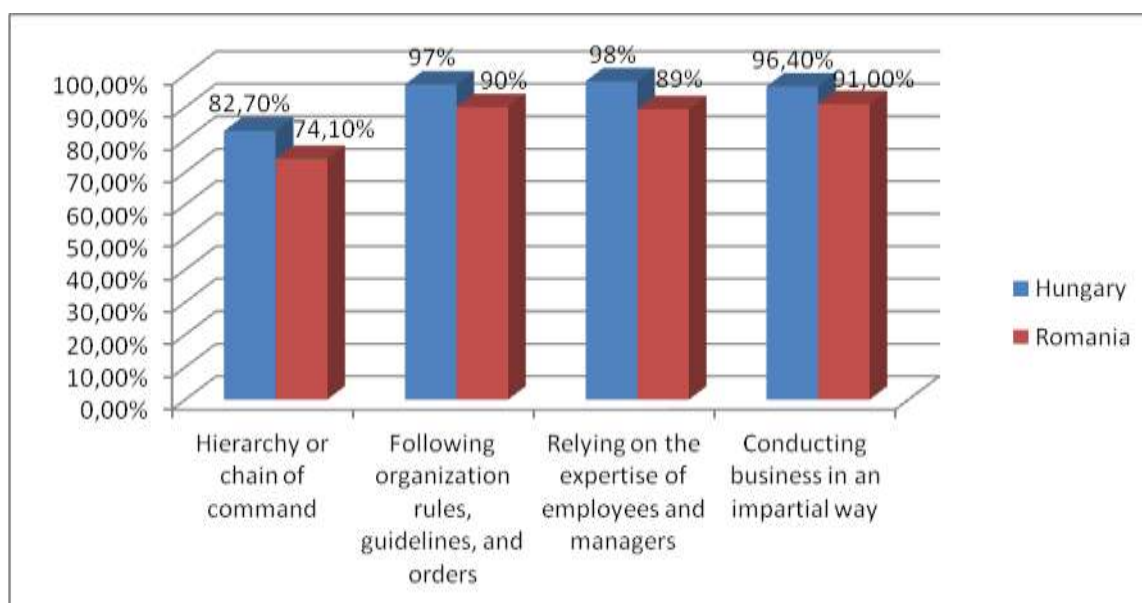


Figure 43: NPM – characteristics rated as “should be” important

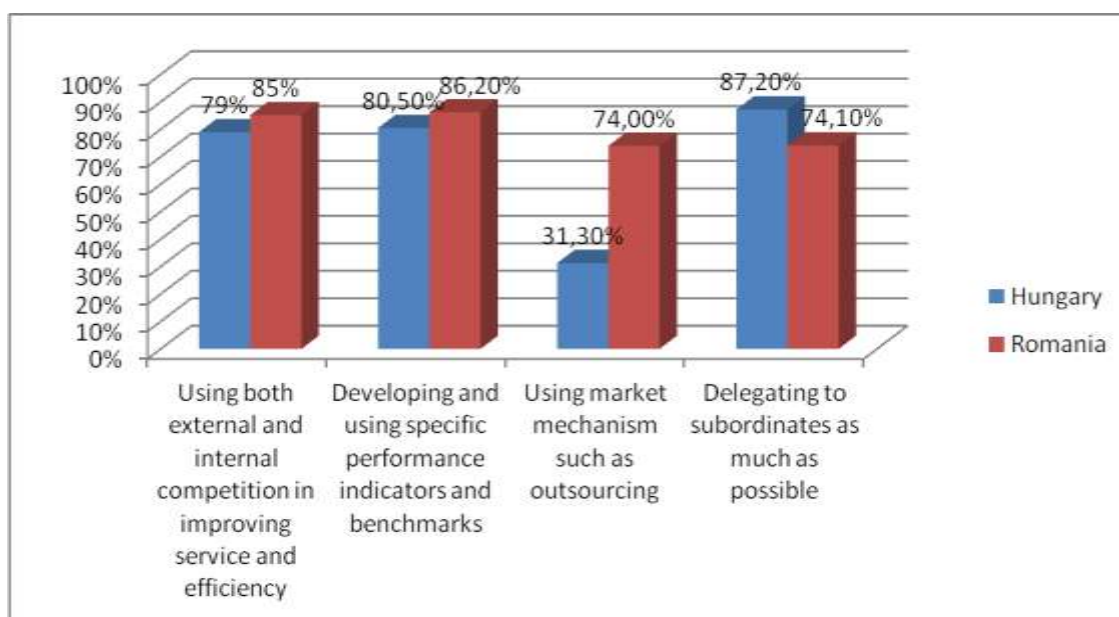
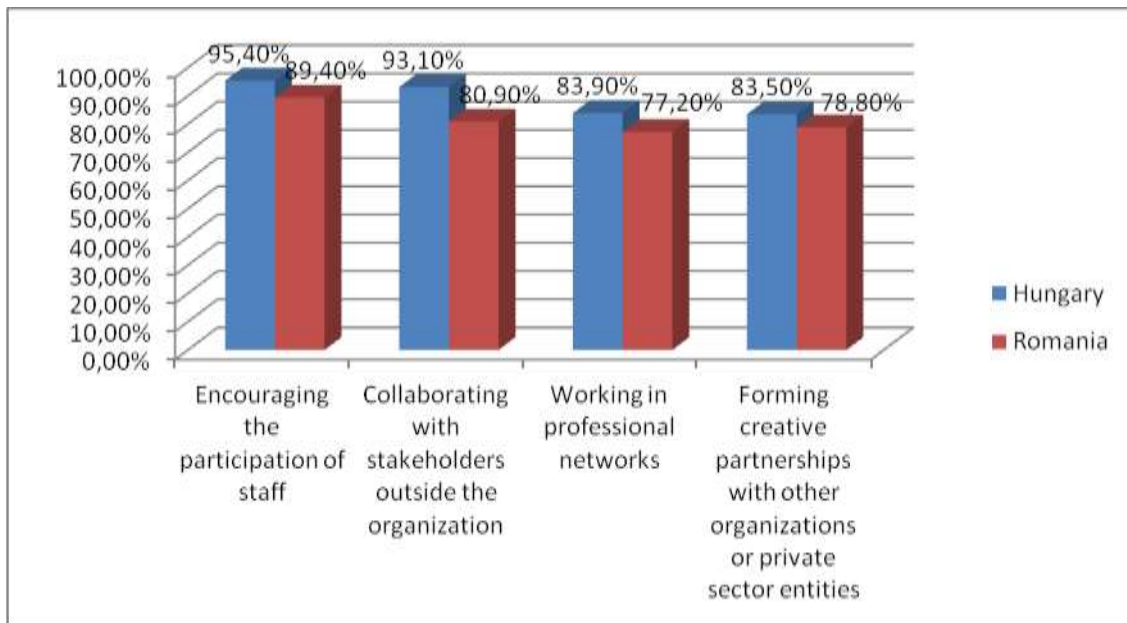


Figure 44: NPG – characteristics rated as “should be” important



These figures are very important especially because they demonstrate just how much the overall governance paradigm at any given time can be described essentially as a moving object. And while the results show that at the moment NWS is still regarded as the governing model, the future indicates a definite shift towards something else, which at the present it seems to be a very difficult task to define or even describe (large amount of percentages almost to every characteristic), but this shows a strong indication that NPG and even market aspects will continue to expand.

The institutional component of leadership corresponds to the traditional style factors which are a part of the research model of this thesis (see figure 12). Before reviewing the results in a comparative manner, it should be noted that each of the answers correspond to one of the three “ideal” models, this making possible to demonstrate hypothesis nr. 3 (based on the styles of leadership a classification (of these styles) within the different public management reform models can occur).

- Leaders-subordinate interactions:
 - Directive (NWS);
 - Delegative (NPM);
 - Participative (NPG);
- Leaders’ approach to the external environment:
 - Neutral (technocratic) (NWS);
 - Strategic (competitive) (NPM);

- Collaborative (cooperative) (NPG);
- Leaders' approach to end receivers:
 - Clients with technical rights (NWS);
 - Consumers with preferences (NPM);
 - Active citizens with right to participate in process (NPG);
- Leaders' conception of their source of authority:
 - Fulfilling rules (NWS)
 - Comparative success (NPM)
 - Community goodwill (NPG)
- Leaders' conception of change:
 - Value of tradition (NWS);
 - Value of change (NPM);
 - Value of consensus (NPG);

Table 53: Leadership style 'as is' – approach 1 (comparative)

Traditional style factors	Leadership style	Hungary	Romania
Leaders-subordinate interactions	Directive	51%	53,1%
	Delegative	16,2%	28,8%
	Participative	32,8%	18,1%
Leaders' approach to the external environment	Neutral (technocratic)	15,2%	33,1%
	Strategic (competitive)	5,2%	9,8%
	Collaborative (cooperative)	79,6%	57,1%
Leaders' approach to end receivers	Clients with technical rights	19,6%	53,5%
	Consumers with preferences	45,5%	32,8%
	Active citizens with right to participate in process	34,9%	13,7%
Leaders' conception of their source of authority	Fulfilling rules	65,3%	62,9%
	Comparative success	21,7%	20,4%
	Community goodwill	13%	16,7%
Leaders' conception of change	Value of tradition	22,2%	33,1%
	Value of change	46,4%	41,7%
	Value of consensus	31,4%	25,2%

Since our attention was not solely on leadership in general, but administrative leadership as well, an additional factor was added: the leaders' interaction with politicians.

Leaders' interaction with politicians	Loyal implementer	22,9%	45,5%
	Empowered manager	65,4%	29,1%
	Developer in partnership with the community	11,7%	25,4%

The most frequently met leader in the Hungarian cases can be characterized as being directive with its subordinates, collaborative towards the external environment (note: interesting contrast if comparing the leaders' behaviour inside-outside of the organization), views end receivers as consumers with their own preference(s), sees its own source of authority deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs, who values change and considers his/her role (when interacting with politicians) as a empowered operational manager. The leadership style is quite heterogenic (3 characteristics belong to the NPM, while 2 to the NWS) which means that there is a "transition state" shifting away from the NWS, towards the NPM model.

Leaders in the Romanian sample can be described as being also directive with their employees, collaborative with the external environment, view end receivers as legally entitled persons/entities, sees its own source of authority in fulfilling rules, they value change (note: contradictory with the future orientation dimension of organizational culture), and view themselves as loyal implementers of policy when interacting with politicians. Based on this description, the leadership style - considering the majority of the characteristics (4 out of the total of 6) - indicates a belonging to the NWS model.

Table 54 serves as a glimpse towards the future by presenting the results for the 'should be' state.

Table 54: Leadership style 'should be' – approach 1 (comparative)

Traditional style factors	Leadership style	Hungary	Romania
Leaders-subordinate interactions	Directive	42%	37,5%
	Delegative	10,1%	13,2%
	Participative	47,9%	49,3%
Leaders' approach to the external environment	Neutral (technocratic)	1,9%	5,6%
	Strategic (competitive)	4,8%	15,1%
	Collaborative (cooperative)	93,3%	79,3%

Leaders' approach to end receivers	Clients with technical rights	12,6%	41,1%
	Consumers with preferences	47,3%	30%
	Active citizens with right to participate in process	40,1%	28,9%
Leaders' conception of their source of authority	Fulfilling rules	57%	25,6%
	Comparative success	21,7%	36,7%
	Community goodwill	21,3%	37,7%
Leaders' conception of change	Value of tradition	8,2%	7,5%
	Value of change	49,8%	38,5%
	Value of consensus	42%	54%
Leaders' interaction with politicians	Loyal implementer	7,4%	11,5%
	Empowered manager	69,1%	38,4%
	Developer in partnership with the community	23,5%	50,1%

The findings from the table above illustrate that there is a desire towards a change of leadership attributes and behaviour. In Hungary the perceived need is between NPM and NPG (3 characteristics belong to NPM, while 2 to NPG) which can signify a movement towards the network oriented model. Whereas in Romania the situation is obvious (5 out of 6 characteristics) the styles which describe NPG as being the most important.

As previously stated the second approach aimed at the behavioural component of the leadership style. For this the MLQ served as a measuring tool, although there were different items (to a certain degree) used in Hungary and Romania, but both aimed at measuring the three leadership styles: “transformational”, “transactional”, and “passive-avoidant”.

First we've compared data for the transformational leadership style, based on the four factors which describe this style. In the following tables we've calculated using the “one-sample T test” the means for each of the factors. Each statement was rated using a Likert-scale (where 1 = “almost never”, and 5 = “always” – in the Hungarian survey instrument, and 0 = “almost never”, and 4 = “always”) in Romania.

Table 55: One-Sample Statistics – Transformational leadership (Hungary)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I make others feel good to be around me	212	4,00	,520	,036
Others have complete faith in me	211	4,05	,627	,043
Others are proud to be associated with me	202	3,60	,706	,050
I express with a few simple words what we could and should do	210	3,96	,666	,046
I provide appealing images about what we can do	209	4,27	,669	,046
I help others find meaning in their work	210	4,08	,666	,046
I enable others to think about old problems in new ways	211	3,90	,696	,048
I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things	209	4,26	,652	,045
I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before	210	3,87	,693	,048
I help others develop themselves	211	4,11	,734	,051
I let others know how I think they are doing	210	3,92	,737	,051
I give personal attention to others who seem rejected	209	3,97	,733	,051

Table 56: One-Sample Statistics Tranformational leadership (Romania)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I express openly my own beliefs and values	186	3,30	,794	,058
Others are proud to be associated with me	187	3,00	,762	,056
I underline the need to realize the aim in any activity	187	3,49	,608	,044
I place the group's interest before personal interests	186	3,42	,733	,054
I talk optimistically about the future	187	3,03	,915	,067
I provide appealing images about the future	187	2,94	,787	,058
I express my confidence that the goals will be achieved	186	3,48	,608	,045
I periodically re-examine principles (after which I act) to see if they are suitable	186	2,89	,906	,066
I aim to have different perspectives when solving problems	187	2,63	1,209	,088
I enable others to think about old problems in new ways	186	3,28	,632	,046
I allocate time for mentoring and guiding my colleagues	186	3,13	,818	,060
I believe that each individual has different needs, abilities and aspirations	187	3,47	,698	,051
I help others develop themselves	185	3,18	,704	,052

All four factors scored highly which indicates a strong presence of the transformational leadership in both countries.

The findings for the “*contingent reward*” and the “*management-by-exception*” factors which belong to the transactional leadership are summarized in the following tables:

Table 57: One-Sample Statistics – Transactional leadership (Hungary)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work	201	2,54	1,265	,089
I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals	210	4,03	,847	,058
I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish	203	3,47	,961	,067
I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards	211	4,52	,657	,045
As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything	211	3,28	,957	,066
I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work	209	4,29	,703	,049

Table 58: One-Sample Statistics – Transactional leadership (Romania)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I present in clear terms who is responsible for achieving certain performance standards	186	3,15	,829	,061
I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish	185	2,60	1,094	,080
I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals	186	3,63	,567	,042
I concentrate all my attention on remedying mistakes, failures and existing grievances	186	3,31	,757	,055
I keep track of all mistakes	187	2,21	1,030	,075
I focus on the situations where standards are not met	186	3,03	,885	,065

When comparing the results with the transformational leadership we can state that transactional leadership is not that often met in practice (except the management-by-exception factor in Hungary which gathered an average of 3.28-4.52).

The passive-avoidant leadership is the least preferred style among respondents (especially in Romania):

Table 59: One-Sample Statistics – Passive-avoidant leadership (Hungary)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I am content to let others continue in the same way as always	207	3,72	,995	,069
Whatever others want to do is ok with me	209	2,47	,893	,062
I ask no more of others than what is absolute necessary	210	3,48	1,175	,081

Table 60: One-Sample Statistics – Passive-avoidant leadership (Romania)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I avoid getting involved when serious problems occur	187	1,05	1,165	,085
I am absent when I'm needed	187	,49	,832	,061
I avoid making decisions	187	,90	1,085	,079

The used samples and research methods were suitable in identifying the similarities and (in some instances the significant) differences, but the obtained results (from the survey) can be mostly used to interpret possible patterns, but not as a general phenomenon in the examined countries.

A brief summary of the most important research results can be found in the table above:

Table 61: Q and A

Research questions	The empirical results of the research
Q. 1. What kind of organizational culture types can be delineated in the case of the Hungarian and Romanian public institutions?	<p>Within the analyzed Hungarian and Romanian organizations we identified some features which can help in defining the culture of the organizations.</p> <p>In Hungary, these were: “<i>planning for the future</i>”, “<i>planning ahead</i>”, “<i>group loyalty</i>” is important, people care about each other and “<i>do not seek to dominate</i>” and they’re allowed “<i>to ask questions from their leaders</i>” when disagreement occurs</p> <p>In Romania: they “<i>do not make plans for the long-term</i>”, “<i>accepting the status quo</i>”, “<i>group loyalty</i>”, people “<i>don’t</i></p>

	<i>care about each other”, but they “do not seek to dominate” and they should “obey their leader without any questions asked”</i>
Q.2. What kind of leadership types (attributes, styles, and behaviours) appears in the Hungarian and Romanian leadership practice?	<p>The Hungarian leadership style can be described as: <i>directive, collaborative</i>, views end receivers as <i>consumers with preferences</i>, it’s source of authority lies in <i>fulfilling rules, values change and often applies transformational leadership and occasionally transactional leadership</i></p> <p>The Romanian leadership style can be described as: <i>directive, collaborative</i>, views end receivers as <i>clients with technical rights</i>, it’s source of authority lies in <i>fulfilling rules, values change and often applies transformational leadership</i></p>
Q 3. Does the organizational-administrative level determine what kind of style(s) should a leader adapt inside the organization?	<p>For Hungary we can’t offer a clear positive answer – since the dominant model (at the moment) is seen in the NWS, but the leadership styles have shown a slight advantage towards the NPM model.</p> <p>In Romania the org.-adm. level does determine the leadership style(s) (NWS)(strong relation between the model and the characteristics of the leadership style met in practice)</p>

The third research question also affects the first hypothesis of the paper (the organizational-administrative level determines what style of leader a given institution requires) which was only demonstrated in the Romanian case. Therefore this hypothesis did not prove true.

“So where does all of this lead us in terms of the current organizational context? What should be clear by now is that post-bureaucratic organization requires a new kind of alliance between leaders and the led. Today’s organizations are evolving into federations, networks, clusters – basically almost anything but pyramids with their obsolete top-down leadership. It will go to the leader who can incorporate the cultural differences and knows that diversity is the best hope for long-term survival and success”. (Bennis, 2000; In: Gál, 2012, p.33)

The title of the thesis was deliberately provocative but, hopefully, not too misleading. The (existing) literature along with the results of the research has shown that there is a need for a new kind of leadership ('should be' instances from the questionnaire focusing on the leadership style).

Although leadership research has made a great progress, the concept itself still remains somewhat elusive. This indicates that more work should be carried out focusing on the relevance of leadership which plays a crucial role – especially nowadays – in a time when totally new sets of challenges have arisen in Europe (e.g. the migration crisis) leaders and leadership have become the centre of attention.

“Meeting these criteria, a number of issues feature consistently on the research agenda of the future. Many of them address challenges growing out of the exponential rate of change in this age of transformation:

- The role of leaders as catalysts of change needs further exploration. All too many organizational transformation efforts fail, at great cost to people and society.
- As mergers, acquisitions, and strategic alliances become increasingly common” (Gál, 20012, p.33) especially in the light of globalization, more focus should be allocated to the (cross-cultural) dimensions of leadership.

As for a possible future research, emphasis should be placed on the fact that “leaders do not work alone, they need followers” (Gál, 2012) who are not just willing and able to share his/her vision but they also “partners” with the leader in the quest of fulfilling the goals of the organization. This future research will address this collaboration with searching for answers on the following questions:

- “Followership needs to be given a more prominent place in leadership research. How, for example, do followers manage their leaders?
- Further research needs to be devoted to the question of how leadership can be distributed throughout the organization. What can be done to get the best out of the most people? Given the increased reliance of organizations on creativity and innovation, what can leaders do to stimulate this process? What can leaders do to be more effective in a teaching” (Gál, 2012, p.34) (or even mentoring) role? What are the accepted and/or rejected leadership styles?

Also there is much more room for improvement and/or deepening and possibly widening the scope of the research (e.g. top civil servants should also be involved in order to have a complete view on the characteristics of organizational culture and to get a more accurate

leadership profile). A secondary focus might (could) be on gathering and comparing quantitative data both from the leaders of the organizations and extending the circle of the respondents to the employees in order to obtain results on the accepted and/or rejected leadership styles (which are the preferred and least preferred styles) furthermore such a research could also bring together a common ground on how the culture (and its elements) is seen by the two groups (leaders – subordinates).

Regarding our current understanding on a complex term such as leadership it should be noted that the characteristics of leadership can only be fully understood if we analyze them through all the other explanatory dimensions mentioned in the IIAS model (societal-, political level and change forces). Therefore a particular promising future research option would be, in my view to focus on these other dimensions.

As we know “leaders fulfill many different roles in people’s imagination. They are catalysts of change; they are seen as an example; they are objects of identification; and they are scapegoats when things go wrong. Leaders are also prone to hubris. As Napoleon once said “glory is fleeting, but obscurity lasts forever”. All leaders are vulnerable to the darker sides of power. The most effective leaders, however, are the ones who know how to balance action with reflection by using self-insight as a restraining force when the sirens of power are signaling” (Kets de Vries, 1998; In: Gál, 2012, p.34).

Below follows an overview of my thesis’s contribution to academic knowledge:

- according to my present knowledge, no comprehensive paper has been written which aimed at finding characteristics of leadership and organizational culture with a focus on the organizational-administrative level in Hungary and Romania;
- although administrative leadership is considered to be an important subfield of leadership (Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang 2008) which refers to the leaders of public agencies, no matter whether they are the chief executive officers or employees functioning as lead workers (Pearce and Conger 2003) it is still under-researched therefore I do hope that my thesis will contribute to the questions raised by leadership theories;
- the empirical data which was obtained in the research will contribute to the international IIAS study group on administrative leadership; also the research gives the opportunity to compare not just the two countries which were analyzed but on the long term they can also be compared with the world culture profile as well;

- generalizability is an eternal issue (especially) in regards to quantitative studies. Since this aspect turned out to be a challenge when it comes to asking administrative leaders about the way they lead their organization is not just difficult because leadership is a soft notion and therefore hard to grasp, but also there is a high possibility that some of the public leaders (mid-level managers in particular) may show themselves in a better light; however I am confident that the current research findings do make a contribution to a deeper understanding of the relationship between leadership and organizational culture within the dimension of organizational-administrative level;
- the length of the thesis allowed for a detailed description of not just the present states in which the mid-level managers see their organization, but also for the desired states which open a whole new set of possibilities for future research;

APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Research Questionnaire (based on the original IAS survey) implemented in Hungary

DOCTORAL SCHOOL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SUB-PROGRAM

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RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

The assessment of the relationship between Leadership and Organizational Culture

Introduction:

This research aims to obtain broader, more accurate information, about the relation between organizational culture and leadership. The questionnaire, which we are asking you to fill out, takes up about 20-25 minutes of your time.

The results of the research will be used in my dissertation and the nature of this questionnaire is anonymous!

We would appreciate if you could be a part of this research by completing this survey, thus helping us in advancing further with this research

In order to obtain accurate data, we urge you to read carefully, the instructions of how to answer the different types of questions; these can be found at the beginning of each question groups!

I. Organizational culture: within your organization

Instructions:

In this section, we're curious to find out your opinion about the norms, values and beliefs inside the organization that you work in. It is IMPORTANT to keep in mind, during the phase when you answer the questions, to focus on the fact of how things are in your organization and not on the fact of how it should be.

There are no right or wrong answers and the answer is no indication of the fact that the organization is good or bad.

We ask that you answer the questions by circling the answer that best reflect your formed opinion!

1. In this organization the accepted norm is:

1	2	3	4	5
planning for the future				we don't plan for the long term

2. In this organization the regularity and consistency are emphasized, even at the expense of experimentation and innovation.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree		I can't decide whether to		Strongly disagree
		agree with that		

3. In this organization the road to success is:

1	2	3	4	5
planning ahead			to accept the events as they	
			occur	

4. In this organization the persons influence is mainly based on:

1	2	3	4	5
the ability of the organization			the power resulting from	
and the contribution to it			the position	

5. In this organization the executives consider that the group loyalty is very important, even at the expense of individual goals.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree		I can't decide whether to		Strongly disagree
		agree with that		

6. In this organization the people in general:

1	2	3	4	5
really care about the other				don't care about the other

7. In this organization the people in general:

1	2	3	4	5
seek to dominate				do not seek to dominate

8. In this organization the pay and reward system is designed to maximize:

1	2	3	4	5
the individual interests				the common interest

9. In this organization it is expected from the subordinates to:

1	2	3	4	5
obey their leaders without any			ask question from their	
questions			leaders, if they do not agree with him	

10. In this organization the most work is precisely defined with few unexpected events:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree		I can't decide whether to		Strongly disagree
		agree with that		

II. Organizational – Administrative level: within your organization

Instructions:

Following are 12 characteristics of organizations. How important are these characteristics in terms of the CURRENT organization and your organization in the IDEAL? Please assess in each case that how typical a given point currently is in your organization and in what kind of measure should it be important for the organization.

	NOT IMPORTANT			←→	VERY IMPORTANT	
1. Hierarchy or chain of command:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Following organization rules, guidelines, and orders:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Relying on the expertise of employees and managers:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Conducting business in an impartial way:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Using both external and internal competition in improving service and efficiency:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
6. Developing and using specific performance indicators and benchmarks:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
7. Using market mechanism such as outsourcing:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
8. Delegating to subordinates as much as possible:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
9. Encouraging the participation of staff:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	
b. should be...	1	2	3	4	5	
10. Collaborating with stakeholders outside the organization:						
a. is...	1	2	3	4	5	

- | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| b. should be... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
11. Working in professional networks:
- | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. is... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. should be... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
12. Forming creative partnerships with other organizations or private sector entities:
- | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. is... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. should be... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

III. Leadership style (approach nr.1)

Instructions:

The following questions about leadership style are based on judgments about what is currently important in leadership and what should be.

We ask that you mark the one answer at each question which is the most typical at your organization and the one that *should be* most important.

13. Leader-subordinate interactions: Leaders interact with subordinates in many ways and in different situations, but what is the most common tone used in your organization?
- a. Guidance and direction;
 - b. Delegation to subordinates;
 - c. Joint decision making with employees;
14. Which leader-subordinate tone *should be* most commonly used by leaders?
- a. Guidance and direction;
 - b. Delegation to subordinates;
 - c. Joint decision making with employees;
15. Leaders' approach to external environment. External environment refers to other public sector organizations, interest groups, community groups and others. What is the most common approach to external leadership in your organization?
- a. Limited interaction with the external environment;
 - b. Competition with other organizations for resources;
 - c. Collaboration with the external environment;
16. What *should be* the most common approach to external leadership in your organization?
- a. Limited interaction with the external environment;
 - b. Competition with other organizations for resources;
 - c. Collaboration with the external environment;
17. Leaders' approach to end receivers. End receivers refer to those who are provided a service such as education, benefits, or use of a facility. This question does not refer to those who are recipients of regulation. In your opinion, what approach is most typical in your organization related to end users?

- a. As a legally entitled person/entity;
 - b. As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible;
 - c. As a participant in the delivery (possibly policy) process;
18. In your opinion, what approach *should be* the most typical in your organization related to end users?
- a. As a legally entitled person/entity;
 - b. As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible;
 - c. As a participant in the delivery (possibly policy) process;
19. Leaders' conception of their source of authority. Leaders' ultimate source of authority can be conceived of in legal, pragmatic, or communal perspectives. In your opinion, what is the most common perspective?
- a. Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs;
 - b. Deriving from the achievement of comparative success;
 - c. Deriving from the goodwill of the community;
20. In your opinion, what *should be* the most common perspective of the source of authority?
- a. Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs;
 - b. Deriving from the achievement of comparative success;
 - c. Deriving from the goodwill of the community;
21. Leaders' conception of change. The role of change varies among public executives, from not very important to being a key personal role, to being an important role but as a facilitator rather than as the major change-agent. In your opinion, what is the most common conception of change?
- a. Maintaining traditions and loyalty;
 - b. Valuing innovation and reorganization;
 - c. Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large;
22. In your opinion, what *should be* the most common conception of change?
- a. Maintaining traditions and loyalty;
 - b. Valuing innovation and reorganization;
 - c. Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large;
23. Leaders' interaction with politicians. There are many ways that leaders can see their roles with politicians from that of a policy subordinate, an independent implementer or enacted policy, to an aide in the policy community in which politicians are just one set of important actors. In your opinion, what is the role that top civil servants play in your organization?
- a. Loyal implementer of policy;
 - b. Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager;
 - c. Policy developer in partnership with the community;

24. In your opinion, what *should be* the role that top civil servants in your organization play?

- a. Loyal implementer of policy;
- b. Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager;
- c. Policy developer in partnership with the community;

IV. Leadership style (approach nr.2)

Instructions:

The following question provides a description of your leadership style. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your followers, clients, or group members

	ALMOST NEVER					ALWAYS				
25. I make others feel good to be around me.	1	2	3	4	5					
26. I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.	1	2	3	4	5					
27. I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.	1	2	3	4	5					
28. I help others develop themselves.	1	2	3	4	5					
29. I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	1	2	3	4	5					
30. I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.	1	2	3	4	5					
31. I am content to let others continue in the same way as always.	1	2	3	4	5					
32. Others have complete faith in me.	1	2	3	4	5					
33. I provide appealing images about what we can do.	1	2	3	4	5					
34. I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	1	2	3	4	5					
35. I let others know how I think they are doing.	1	2	3	4	5					
36. I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.	1	2	3	4	5					
37. As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	1	2	3	4	5					

38. Whatever others want to do is ok with me.

1 2 3 4 5

39. Others are proud to be associated with me.

1 2 3 4 5

40. I help others find meaning in their work.

1 2 3 4 5

41. I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.

1 2 3 4 5

42. I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.

1 2 3 4 5

43. I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.

1 2 3 4 5

44. I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.

1 2 3 4 5

45. I ask no more of others than what is absolutely necessary.

1 2 3 4 5

V. Leadership competencies

Instructions:

Rate what LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES do you think should be enhanced through TRAINING in your agency by level of importance. In the course of your assessment set up an order of importance. Every single competence can only get one (X) mark.

	Not important at all	Rather not important	More or less important	Important	Very important to improve through training
46. Performance enhancement techniques such as performance indicators					
47. Leading people					
48. Strategic thinking					
49. Building coalitions					
50. Leading change					
51. Building trust					

52. Communication skills					
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VI. Background information

Finally we would like to ask some questions regarding you. These questions are important because they help to reveal that different types of people respond in different ways to the questionnaire. We will not use this information to identify individuals!

Your:

53. Age:

54. Gender: Male ____ Female ____

55. Your highest level of education:

56. Years of service:

57. Years in leadership position:

58. Have you worked in private or non-profit sectors as well? YES NO

59. Would you recommend public service to your children? YES NO

60. Does your level of pay affect your perception of the public service? YES NO

61. The most important factor for me in working for the public service is (check all that strongly apply): respectable income, high income, the opportunity to make a difference, the opportunity to work in an area of expertise that I enjoy, the prestige;

**Thank you for your time, answers and your patience
to complete this questionnaire!**

Appendix 2. Research Questionnaire (based on the original IIAS survey) implemented in Romania

RESEARCH ON ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

Romania

Purpose

The present study aims to analyze the leadership component in terms of four dimensions: societal values, politico-administrative components, leadership style and skills. The main objective is to understand how the 4 dimensions interact to provide a comprehensive pattern of leadership.

This study is conducted in several EU countries, the target population is represented by people in leadership positions within public institutions.

The study is funded by the **European Commission and is part of an extensive research at EU level, and will represent an important source of input for the future European reform proposal of the civil service. The national study on Romania is conducted by the Faculty of Political, Administrative and Communication Sciences, Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca.**

The survey takes about 12 minutes. All responses are confidential, results are presented only in aggregated, averaged formats. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer as honestly as possible.

1. Societal values

Instructions: In this section you are asked to comment on a series of statements on society in general. There are no wrong answers, so it's very important to express your honest opinion. Using a scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 means strongly disagree 5 strongly agree), mark the number that corresponds to your position on the following statements:

1. In Romanian society orderliness and consistency are stressed, even at the expense of experimentation and innovation.				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
2. In Romanian society, expectations and social norms are stated clearly and in				

detail so that citizens know what is expected of them.				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
3. In the Romanian society, it is expected from employees:				
Ask question from their leaders, if they do not agree with him				Obey their leaders without any
1	2	3	4	5
4. In Romanian society, power is:				
Distributed throughout society				Focused on the top of the society
1	2	3	4	5
5. In this organization the executives consider that the group loyalty is very important, even at the expense of individual goals				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
6. The economic system of the Romanian society is built to maximize:				
Individual interest				Collective/common interests
1	2	3	4	5
7. In Romanian society, children take pride in individual accomplishments of their parents.				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
8. In Romanian society, parents take pride in individual accomplishments of their children				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

9. In Romanian society, boys are more encouraged than girls to attain a higher education				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
10. In Romanian society, who is more likely to occupy a leading position / high?				
Men				Women
1	2	3	4	5
11. In the Romanian society, people in general are:				
Insecure / distrustful in them				Self-confident / confident in them
1	2	3	4	5
12. In the Romanian society, people in general are:				
Do not seek to dominate				Seek to dominate
1	2	3	4	5
13. In the Romanian society, people in general:				
Accept the events as they occur				The plan ahead for the future
1	2	3	4	5
14. In the Romanian society in general people put more emphasis on:				
Don't plan for the long term				Planning for the future
1	2	3	4	5
15. In Romanian society, young people (students, pupils) are encouraged to strive to continuously improve performance				
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
16. In Romanian society, people are rewarded for outstanding performance				
Strongly				Strongly agree

disagree				
1	2	3	4	5
17. In the Romanian society, people in general:				
Don't care about the other				Really care about the other
1	2	3	4	5
18. In the Romanian society, people in general are:				
Insensitive towards others				Very sensitive towards others
1	2	3	4	5

2.1 Political-Administrative Relations

In this section you are asked to assess the relationship between the political and administrative sphere. There are no wrong answers, so it's very important to express your honest opinion.

How do you assess the relationship between politicians and top civil servants on a scale from 1 to 5 (circle the number or mark with an X):

Civil servants are confidants of the politicians and are consulted on any matter of public policy				Civil servants are consulted (by politicians) in a limited way, only on technical issues related to their expertise
1	2	3	4	5
Patronage oriented relationship - politicians expect civil servants to be loyal and sensitive to the needs expressed by them				Merit-oriented relationship – politicians expect public servants to be primarily loyal to the law and the rules and legal procedures
1	2	3	4	5
The relationship between politicians and civil servants is often characterized by conflicts				The relationship between politicians and civil servants is based on collaboration
1	2	3	4	5
Politicians have a decreased respect towards public servants				Politicians have a high degree of respect for civil servants.
1	2	3	4	5
Politicians have low trust in civil servants				Politicians have more trust in civil servants
1	2	3	4	5
The public policy is a predominantly political process, in which the political				The public policy is a predominantly administrative process, in which the legal

criteria prevail				criteria and procedures specific to government prevail
1	2	3	4	5

2.2 Administrative Structure

The next section examines 12 key elements which describe the public administration structure. Please rate the importance of these elements to your organization. The questions concern the situation in the present (how things are now) and the ideal situation (as it should be ideally).

How important are the following elements of the administrative structure on a scale of 1 - (not important) to 5 (very important)

		NOT important				VERY important
1. Hierarchy or chain of command	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
2. Following organization rules, guidelines, and orders	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
3. Relying on the expertise of employees and managers	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
4. Conducting business in an impartial way	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
5. Using both external and internal competition in improving service and efficiency	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
6. Developing and using specific performance indicators and benchmarks	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
7. Using market mechanism such as outsourcing	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
8. Delegating to subordinates as much as possible	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
9. Encouraging the participation of staff	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
10. Collaborating with stakeholders outside the organization	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
11. Working in professional networks	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5
12. Forming creative partnerships with other organizations or private sector entities	is	1	2	3	4	5
	should be	1	2	3	4	5

3. Leadership style

This section assesses how does the institutional component of leadership function. There are no right or wrong statements therefore it is very important to provide answers as close to reality. We ask you to assess both the current situation and the ideal situation.

1. Leader-subordinate interactions: Leaders interact with subordinates in many ways and in different situations, but what is the most common tone used in your organization?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. Guidance and direction;	a. Guidance and direction;
b. Delegation to subordinates;	b. Delegation to subordinates;
c. Joint decision making with employees;	c. Joint decision making with employees;

2. Leaders' approach to external environment – external environment refers to other public sector organizations, interest groups, community groups and others. What is the most common approach to external leadership in your organization?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. Limited interaction with the external environment;	a. Limited interaction with the external environment;
b. Competition with other organizations for resources;	b. Competition with other organizations for resources;
c. Collaboration with the external environment;	c. Collaboration with the external environment;

3. Leaders' approach to end receivers – end receivers refer to those who are provided a service such as education, benefits, or use of a facility. In your opinion, what approach is most typical in your organization related to end users?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. As a legally entitled person/entity;	a. As a legally entitled person/entity;
b. As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible;	b. As a client whose needs must be as fully met as possible;
c. As a participant I the delivery (possibly policy) process;	c. As a participant I the delivery (possibly policy) process;

4. Leaders' conception of their source of authority – leaders' ultimate source of authority can be conceived of in legal, pragmatic, or communal perspectives. In your opinion, what is the most common perspective?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs;	a. Deriving from laws and legally endorsed programs;
b. Deriving from the achievement of comparative success;	b. Deriving from the achievement of comparative success;
c. Deriving from the goodwill of the community;	c. Deriving from the goodwill of the community;

5. Leaders' conception of change – The role of change varies among public executives, from not very important to being a key personal role, to being an important role but as a facilitator rather than as the major change-agent. In your opinion, what is the most common conception of change?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. Maintaining traditions and loyalty;	a. Maintaining traditions and loyalty;
b. Valuing innovation and reorganization;	b. Valuing innovation and reorganization;
c. Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large;	c. Achieving change through consensus among public organizations and the public at-large;

6. Leaders' interaction with politicians – There are many ways that leaders can see their roles with politicians from that of a policy subordinate, an independent implementer or enacted policy, to an aide in the policy community in which politicians are just one set of important actors. In your opinion, what is the role that top civil servants play in your organization?

Current situation	Ideal situation
a. Loyal implementer of policy;	a. Loyal implementer of policy;
b. Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager;	b. Relatively autonomous/empowered operational manager;
c. Policy developer in partnership with the community;	c. Policy developer in partnership with the community;

3.2 Analysis of leadership style

The following question provides a description of your leadership style. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your followers, clients, or group members.

	Never 0	Rarely 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Always 4
1. I periodically re-examine my principles (after which I act) to see if they are suitable / accurate.....	0	1	2	3	4
2. I avoid getting involved when serious problems arise.....	0	1	2	3	4
3. I express openly my beliefs and values.....	0	1	2	3	4
4. I am absent when I'm needed.....	0	1	2	3	4
5. I aim to have different perspectives when solving problems.....	0	1	2	3	4
6. I talk optimistically about future.....	0	1	2	3	4
7. Others are proud to be associated with me.....	0	1	2	3	4
8. I present in clear terms who is responsible for achieving certain performance standards.....	0	1	2	3	4
9. I stress the need to realize the aim in any activity.....	0	1	2	3	4
10. I spend time mentoring and guiding my colleagues.....	0	1	2	3	4
11. I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.....	0	1	2	3	4
12. I put the group's interest before personal interests	0	1	2	3	4
13. I concentrate all my attention on remedying mistakes, failures and existing grievances.....	0	1	2	3	4
14. I keep records of all mistakes.....	0	1	2	3	4
15. I build a appealing vision of the future.....	0	1	2	3	4
16. I focus on the situations where standards are not met.....	0	1	2	3	4
17. I avoid making decisions.....	0	1	2	3	4
18. I believe that each individual has different needs, abilities and aspirations.....	0	1	2	3	4
19. I determine colleagues to analyze problems from multiple points of view.....	0	1	2	3	4
20. I help others to develop their strengths.....	0	1	2	3	4

21. I express my satisfaction when colleagues perform their tasks / achieve goals..... 0 1 2 3 4
22. I am confident that the goals will be achieved..... 0 1 2 3 4

4. Leadership competencies

This section aims to identify what professional skills should be developed through training and development programs.

To what extent do you consider the following knowledge, skills or abilities should be developed through training or professional development programs, taking into account the specifics of your business.

Competencies/abilities/skills	Not important at all	Rather not important	More or less important	Important	Very important to improve through training
Performance enhancement techniques such as performance indicators					
Leading people					
Strategic thinking					
Building coalitions					
Leading change					
Building trust					
Communication skills					

Demographics

Age: _____

Gender: Male____ Female____

Years of service: _____(no. of year)

Years in leadership position: _____(no. of year)

Have you worked in private or non-profit sectors as well? YES NO

Your highest level of education:

Would you recommend public service to your children? YES NO

How would you rate your level of satisfaction with the work you are doing at present?

1) Not at all satisfied with what I do.....2.....3.....4.....5) Very satisfied with what I do

How do you assess your salary for you current position?

(1-5, 1=not at all satisfied/5=very satisfied): _____

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