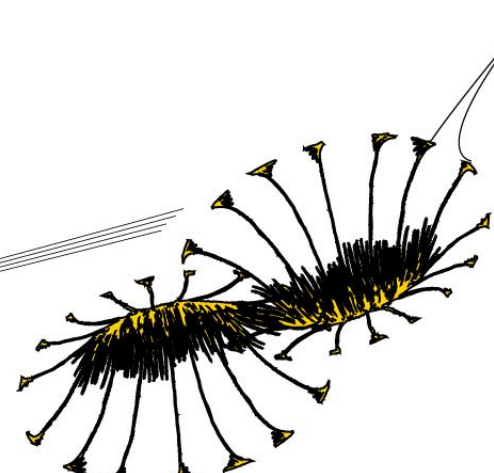


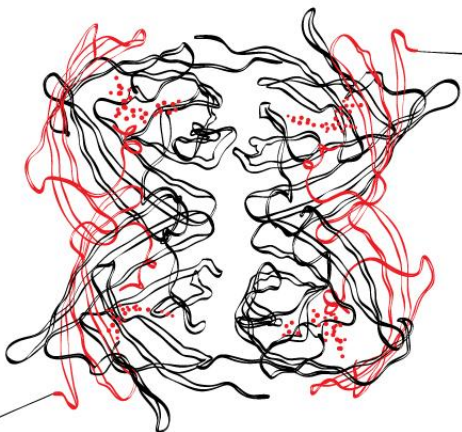


VALUES AND LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

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Abstract

The awareness of different leadership styles and preferences is important in all situations where groups are to achieve targets. Leadership styles have been widely researched for the private sector. However, this range of research is, up to now, lacking in the public sector. Regardless of the sector, leaders need to fulfill certain attributes according to the situation, environment, and expectations. Being able to choose the right leader or the most successful education for managers it is essential to understand how leadership preferences differ among public sector organizations. These insights enable leaders to predict leadership preferences based on organizational norms and values. The present study investigated the influences on employee's leadership preferences in the public sector and sought to obtain evidence for different leadership preferences in the Netherlands. Secondly, the present study examined the predictability of leadership preferences by means of organizational values. Using adapted versions of the CLT Scale of the GLOBE study and the PVQ-21, an empirical study was conducted with a sample of forty-five university employees and fifty-two municipality employees. The results indicate that charismatic/value based leadership is the most effective leadership style for both organizations. However, differences can nonetheless be observed between the two types of public sector organizations. Distinguishing between different organizations within the public sector and a management capable of addressing these differences are vital when adapting leadership styles, new values or new goals in a successful manner.

Keywords: *Leadership, public sector, leadership preferences, values, organizational culture, municipality, university, The Netherlands*

Introduction

The power of leaders becomes more and more important in the present society. In times of globalization the rate of change seems to increase each day. Organizations need to adapt constantly to the fast changing environment; not only the focus of media or customer's expectations challenge the status quo but also economic and political constraints imposed through, for example, the financial crises. Therefore, a central concern in organizational life is the need to be flexible and to adapt quickly to environmental changes (Zorn, Page & Cheney, 2000). Especially in times when financial resources are restricted and trust is diminishing leadership must be more effective than ever. Employees need to be motivated and their trust needs to be gained.

Therefore, a successful leader has "the ability [...] to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success to the organization of which they are members" (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p.5). How powerful a leader is depends on the perception of others (Lord & Maher, 1991; Maurer & Lord, 1991; Pfeffer, 1977). The categorization process in which the person is matched against an abstract image of the ideal leader is called leader categorization. The more a target person represents the follower's prototype, the easier it becomes that someone can be recognized and categorized as a leader and the more favorable the responses towards that leader will be (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Gerstner and Day (1994) found evidence that subordinates' perceptions of the leader significantly influence the outcomes of the leadership process.

To choose the right leader or the most successful education for managers, it is essential to understand how leadership preferences differ among public sector organizations and being able to predict leadership preferences based on organizational values and norms. The present study investigated the influences on employees' leadership preferences within the public sector and sought to obtain evidence for different leadership preferences in the Netherlands. The other purpose of this study was to examine the predictability of leadership preferences by means of organizational values. Before the study will be described in more detail, findings in the literature on the topic will be discussed.

Leadership

The term "leader" is defined in many different ways. Some studies, for example, indicate individual leadership traits (e.g. Northouse, 1997; Stogdill, 1948), while others

describe different leadership styles and behaviors (e.g. Burns, 1978; Kotter, 1990). For centuries the field of leadership has been an area of great interest for scholars. However, the field of leadership is nowhere near to being fully explored.

Historically, scholars presumed leaders are born and not made. The 'great man' thesis dominated the nineteenth century. The more extreme proponents of this theory hold that history is changed and shaped by great men. If great man were suddenly incapacitated history would be different, Nietzsche and other philosophers stated. The idea of born leaders was also reflected in the trait theories of the earliest 20th century, which propose that leadership is linked to particular traits and characteristics. Northouse (1997), who reviewed several studies of leadership characteristics and traits, summarized the most common traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. People like to think of leaders as special kinds of people, who are born as these and are able to do extraordinary things. However, the idea that one particular leader will be effective across all situations and all followers has been criticized by many scholars in recent years. Many scholars turned away from the trait theories and style theories (e.g. Theory of Leader-Member Exchange) to an approach that emphasizes the match between the style of the leader and the characteristics of the situation. Fiedler and Garcia (1987) describe the contingency theory in this context. This theory suggests that leaders should adapt their behavior to the constraints of the situation. The theories described before emphasize the characteristics and the style of the leader and the situational constraints. With his book 'Leadership' (1978), Burns changed the leadership research dramatically. He demonstrated the broad research of transactional leadership and the lack of research on the field of transformational leadership. This view is consistent with the idea of the non-experimental community, which emphasized plenty of (transactional) managers and the deficit of (transformational) leaders, who can motivate and stimulate their followers (Zaleznik, 1977). Transformational leaders are leaders, who create change in major processes. The charismatic qualities and compelling vision of a transformational leader should reenergize the various industries of America and stimulate followers far beyond expectations (Burns, 1978). This was necessary after the economic shocks of the 1970's, where a higher level of customer focus and productivity was needed. In the last years, research mainly focused on the followers' perception of leadership. Research in the field of implicit leadership theories (ILTs), for example, takes a follower-centric perspective (Lord & Maher, 1991; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2006). However, most of the leadership research concentrates on the private sector and disregard the public sector almost completely.

Leadership in the Public Sector

The integration of transactional and transformational leadership types and the follower-centric theories were seen as a great advancement over the field's narrow focus. However, these changes have not been reflected in the public sector literature. The amount of research conducted on the public sector only represents a fraction compared to existing research on the private sector research.

The track record of the Public Administration Review (PAR), established in 1940 and one of the top-rated journals in the field (Vocino & Elliot, 1984), can be one indicator of the amount of research in this field. Van Wart (2003), who did an informal content analysis of the PAR journal since its inception 61 years ago, found 25 articles, in which leadership was the explicit focus of the article. There was only a handful of empirical research on leadership the last 50 years (Van Wart, 2003). However, the PAR is only one source and the history of the public sector leadership literature is more than that. In the 1950's several leadership studies in the administrative sector were published (e.g. Bernstein, 1958; Selznick, 1957) and in the following twenty years the tradition of studying administrative leaders continued (e.g. Corson & Shale, 1966). The introduction of the transformational leadership in the 1980's was mirrored in the public sector literature as well (Lewis, 1980), but did not change the development of research as dramatically as in the private sector. The mainstream literature is much more focused on an integrative approach of leadership since the economic shocks of the 1970's and the resultant new economy. This reformation was not as necessary in the public sector as in the private sector and therefore, the public sector lagged behind by nearly one decade to investigate into integrative models. In the 1990's and in 2000 the literature on this topic varied a lot. Numerous studies focused on civic leaders or local or national policy makers. Furthermore, most studies concentrated on specific elements of leadership.

Not only has the history of mainstream leadership research and the public sector literature differed in the definitions of the phenomenon but also in the perspectives of research compared to private sector leadership research. Rusaw defined public leadership "(...) as an interhuman process of identifying, defining and carrying out goals using democratically sanctioned norms and behavior." (2001, p.4). Comparing his definition to the one by House and his colleagues (2004) mentioned above, both define leadership as an interhuman process to accomplish certain goals. However, in the public leadership literature not the effectiveness and the success are the major elements, but the identification of goals

and the democratic norms. A leader in the public sector has to represent the organization to external interests and combines the pluralistic interests to one vision. The followers are not only the subordinates, but also other interests groups as taxpayers, governmental agencies and legislators, who all have different ideas and expectations of their leader.

Now it becomes clear that the public leadership widely varies from the private sector leadership. But the assumption of a uniform leadership pattern in the public sector cannot be accepted either. The organizations within the public sector have different aims and they are related to different entities. So in this study the differences within the public sector will be indicated. One of the biggest differences could be expected between administrative organizations, like municipalities, and universities. The municipality is not related to the enterprise itself, but to the authority of law, whereas the law in organizations, like universities, has lower priority. Both organizations are contingent upon public funds, the university, however, can influence the amount of funds by successful research, student marketing, and other representation events. The image and reputation of the organization and the identification with the own organization is much more important for the university than for an administrative organization. Due to these differences within the public sector the assumption of diverging values and leadership preferences between the organizations in the public sector can be made.

Values

Values are beliefs appertaining to desirable end states, which transcend situations, guide the evaluation of behavior or events, and are in a hierarchal relation to each other forming a system of value priorities (Schwartz, 1992). A common instrument, Schwartz's Value Survey, is based on Schwartz's value theory (Schwartz, 1992). The theory rests upon the assumption that values are cognitive representations of important goals, which have to coordinate actions. Therefore, someone's goals and priorities influence the way how an individual perceives the environment and deals with other people. The ten values of Schwartz (1992), power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, conformity, benevolence, tradition, universalism and security, are derived from three requirements of the human condition: needs of the individual as biological organism, requirement of social interaction, and survival and welfare needs of the group. The values form a two-dimensional space of two fundamental human problems (Schwartz, 1992). The first dimension "Conservation versus Openness to Change" emphasizes the conflict between the goal to preserve the status quo and

the norms, which provide certainty on the one hand and the motivation to act on one's own interests on the other hand. The second dimension "Self-Transcendence versus Self-Enhancement" describes the conflict between concern for the welfare of others and concern for individual outcomes.

According to Schwartz (1992) these dimensions of values can be found in all cultures. However, several studies prove that values differ between cultures (e.g. Schein, 1990; Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, Harris & Owens, 2001). The three universal requirements of the human condition, as defined by Schwartz (1992), imply that the values differ between different groups. Collier (1989) describes culture as the identification with a group and their shared symbols, experiences, meanings, and behavior. Therefore, not only the borders of a country can define a culture, but also a belief or organization can cause the internal consistency. Schein (1990) argues that culture consists of three fundamental levels: observable artifacts, values, and basic underlying assumptions. Culture is a pattern of ideas and assumptions, discovered and developed by a group, that have worked well enough to be considered as valid and the correct way to think, perceived and felt. Each culture has its own ideas and values which are approved and operated during conflicts and problems. Values between cultures, defined by nationalities as well as by organization membership, differ (Hofstede, 1980). In addition to that leadership perceptions and preferences vary between cultures as well (e.g. House et al., 2004).

Leadership preferences

Just like values deviate in different cultures, so do leadership preferences and practices. Through the process of implicit comparison of the target person and the ideal prototype leader, leaders are actually perceived as leaders. If leaders are aware of the subordinates' ideal leader prototypes, they are able to match the team members' prototype and, consequently, they are capable of leading their followers more effectively (Lord & Maher, 1991). Shaw (1990) states in his theoretical work leadership is a cultural phenomenon and O'Connell, Lord and O'Connell (1991) wrote that culture influences the content about effective leadership attributes. Diverse prototypes with different traits exist across different countries examined by Gerstner and Day (1994) in their empirical research. Even in research, which compared European countries with similar political backgrounds, significant differences in leadership prototypes were found (Brodbeck et al., 2000). Due to these

findings, it can be concluded that culture has a strong influence on the perception of effective leadership.

Regardless of the variety of leadership prototypes identified in numerous studies, different leadership styles have been identified. One of the most widely used and valid definition of leadership styles are based on the GLOBE questionnaire. The study was conducted in 62 different countries and found six leadership styles (House et al., 2004):

- *Charismatic/value-based leadership*: the ability to motivate, inspire and expect high performance from others by firmly holding on to core values.
- *Team-oriented*: emphasizes loyalty and collaboration among team members and a common goal.
- *Participative*: the degree team members are able to participate in the decision-making process by giving input and feedback.
- *Humane-oriented*: stands for supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity.
- *Autonomous*: refers to independent, individualistic and self-centric leadership.
- *Self-protective*: focuses on ensuring safety and security of the individual and is a self-centered and face-saving approach.

The GLOBE studies found that people from Germanic Europe look for a charismatic, participative, and autonomous leader, people from Latin America, however, prefer a leader, who is charismatic, team-oriented, and self-protective (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque & House, 2006). Furthermore, Javidan et al. (2006) revealed that the charismatic/value-based leadership is generally reported to contribute to outstanding leadership.

It becomes evident in the literature, that significant differences in the understanding of good leadership between cultures exist. The mental representations of attributes that people implicitly have to distinguish between leaders and non-leaders depends on the field of leadership (Lord, Brown, Harvey & Hall, 2001) and differs between cultures (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1993; Gerstner & Day, 1994; House et al., 2004). The perception of leadership is crucial for the success of influencing, motivating, and enabling others.

Present study

Research has been conducted in the field of cultural differences with the focus on leadership preferences as well as on different value patterns. However, most of the studies concentrate on very different geopolitical regions or different clusters within Europe (Gerstner & Day, 1994; House et al., 2004; O’Connell, Lord & O’Connell, 1990), inhibiting the use of the variable “culture” for a cross-country study as well as an in-depth study of the effect of culture in the public and private sector in one country, as nuances of culture have not been sufficiently defined by existing studies. The use of the variable culture in the context of countries, private- and public-sector makes it difficult to find the finer differences between various cultures. Due to this, a study is needed for the comparison of different organizational cultures and different leadership preferences within the public sector in one country. As described before the organizations within the public sector widely differ. Due to the fact that vast differences expected between the university and the municipality, these two organizations will be analyzed in the present study. The employees of the municipality work in bigger groups and pursue different objectives, while the university stimulates its employees to work in small creative groups with less hierarchy. Most of the university employees share a similar educational background and hence collaborative objects are much easier to disseminate. In addition, the bigger goal of academic research and education pointing the way ahead in a much clearer fashion than the various aims of the municipality. Based on these conditions, literature and already conducted research the following research hypotheses can be made and will be tested:

H1: The employees of the university score significantly higher on all leadership style preferences than the municipality employees

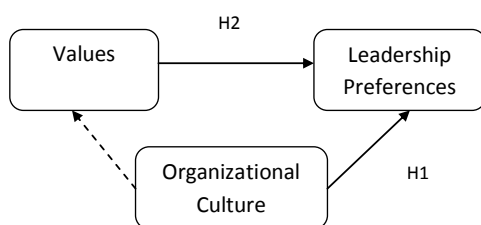


Figure 1. The relationship between Values, Organizational Culture and Leadership Preferences

The influence of Schwartz’s values on the leadership preferences is not studied yet and will be analyzed in a more detailed way assuming the existing theories. The ten values of

Schwartz can be assigned to one or two of GLOBE's six leadership styles. Due to this, a more detailed model of the values and the related leadership styles can be made. Figure 2 conceptualizes the expected relationship between the ten values and the six leadership styles. The arrows represent the positive correlation between the values and the respective leadership style. The charismatic/value based leadership style refers to the ability to motivate and inspire people by holding on to core values. People, who rate achievement as an important value, seeking personal success in conformity with social standards, want to be stimulated and praised by their leader to reach this success. The value tradition concentrates on respect and acceptance of the ideas and customs a culture imposes on the individual. The value-based leadership would support this thinking and inspire to act according to the traditional ideas of the culture. The value stimulation describes the drive for excitement and novelty. An employee, who rates stimulation as an important value, would set great value upon charismatic/value-based leadership.

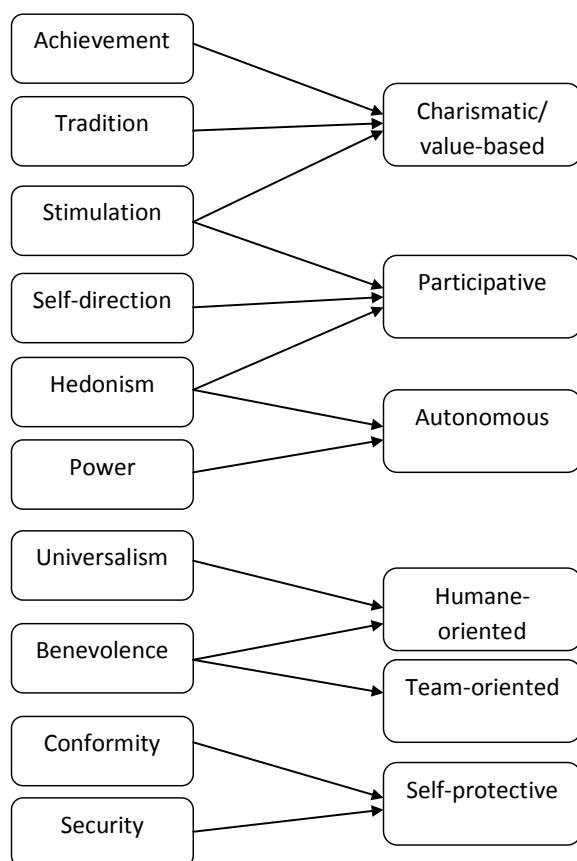


Figure 2. The hypothesized connection between Schwartz's theory and the GLOBE leadership styles

Nevertheless, an employee who rates stimulation highly also wants to participate in the decision-making process and give some input or feedback, so that the variety and excitement in his life will not decrease. In addition to that, self-direction and hedonism cause participative leadership preferences. The employees who put value on the independence of thinking, freedom, and creativity need leadership where they can participate in the decision-making process. The employees, who mainly would like to satisfy one's own needs, would on the one hand choose a participative leadership style when they think of being led, but on the other hand they would choose the independent and individualistic leadership style, the autonomous, when they lead. The employees who rate the value power highly would also choose for the autonomous leadership style, in which they can control and dominate people and resources. The humane-oriented leadership style would be chosen by employees, who value universalism and benevolence. The protection and tolerance of the welfare of all people would only be considered in the humane-oriented leadership style. Benevolence, caring for the well-being of people with whom one stays in personal contact, however, can cause two different leadership preferences. This aspect would be considered in the humane-oriented, the considerate and supportive leadership, as well as the team-oriented leadership, which emphasizes collaboration and loyalty among the team members. The values conformity and security are only related to the self-protective leadership style, a self-centered and face-saving approach, which is focused on ensuring safety and security of the individual. Both values concentrate on the security of the individual and face-saving actions. Due to this theoretical combination of theories, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H2a: The preference of the charismatic/value-based leadership style can be predicted by achievement, tradition and stimulation, but not predicted by any of the other values.

H2b: The preference of the participative leadership style can be predicted by stimulation, self-direction and hedonism, but not predicted by any of the other values.

H2c: The preference of the autonomous leadership style can be predicted by hedonism and power, but not predicted by any of the other values.

H2d: The preference of the humane-oriented leadership style can be predicted by universalism and benevolence but not predicted by any of the other values.

H2e: The preference of the team-oriented leadership style can be predicted by benevolence, but not predicted by any of the other values.

The leadership style self-protective will not be included in this study. The GLOBE study indicates that this leadership style is viewed negatively in the Netherlands. These findings also are supported by the research of Hofstede (2001). The Netherlands scored low on the masculinity dimension, which correlates with the self-protective leadership style (score=14) and can therefore be described as a feminine society. It emphasizes the importance of supportive management and involvement. Managers need to aspire a consensus and value equality. Also the importance of solidarity and negotiation explains the refusal of the self-protective leadership style, which is self-centered and face-saving. Due to the rejection of the self-protective leadership style, the values conformity and security will not be measured either. The following model represented in Figure 3 will be used in the present study.

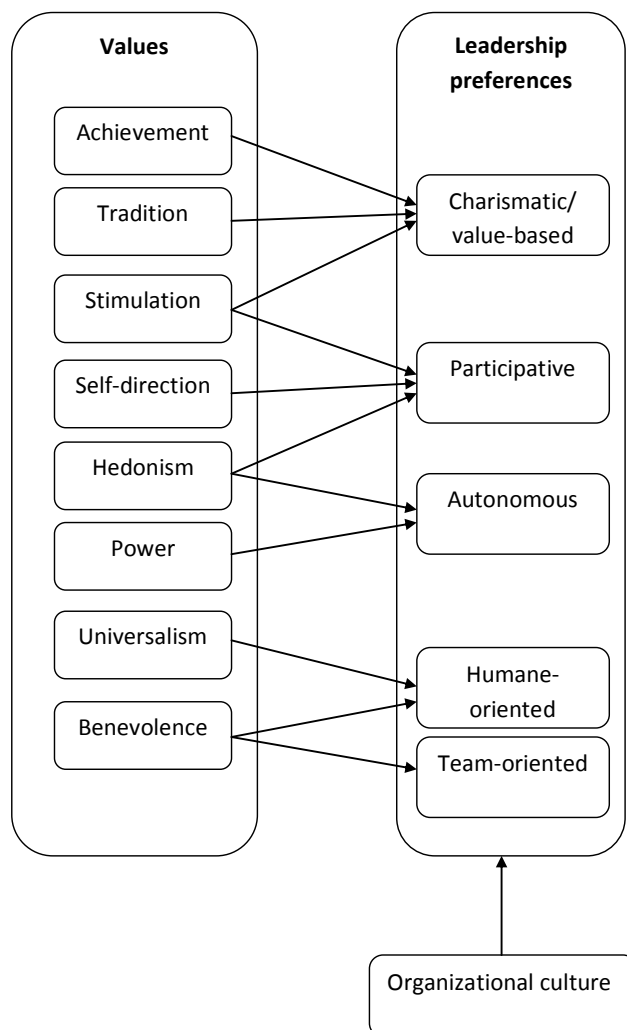


Figure 3. The tested model

Method

In this section the research method of the executed study will be explained. First, the population will be defined and the participants of the study presented. Then, the materials used to measure the values and the leadership preferences will be explained and the procedure of the research described.

Procedure

After an initial meeting with the contact persons at the organizations, the employees of the university and the municipality received the online survey. The participants first got a short introduction explaining the purpose of the study. When participants finished reading the introduction, they were asked about their personal and educational background. To identify the organization the participants are employed at, they could choose between two responses: university or municipality. After choosing either option, the subjects were presented with a short scenario, in which a situation was described they needed to settle in during answering the survey. The situation, which the subjects received, outlined the problem of budget cuts and the need of adjustments in the organization. The situation should have been seen as an accurate description of their own situation within the organization. The participants were asked to answer all the questions with this situation in mind, thus all participants answered the survey ensuing from the same situation. Subsequently, the participants received the GLOBE culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT) Scales and the Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ). At the end of the survey the subjects got the possibility to fill in their email address to win one of four cinema vouchers.

Instruments

Leadership preferences. The participants answered 52 items of the GLOBE culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT) Scales. The instrument measures characteristics and behaviors that contribute to or inhibit outstanding leadership. In the current study, as shown in table 1, Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 for the charismatic scale, 0.83 for the team-oriented scale, 0.70 for the humane leadership scale, 0.82 for the participative scale were measured after rejecting three items. For the autonomous scale 0.61 was obtained. The confirmatory factor analysis could be found in appendix A. The item pool of this questionnaire originally consists of 112 behavioral and trait descriptors with brief definitions. In this research only 52 items for the five leadership styles of the original item pool were

used. In GLOBE’s pretest only 75 items could reliably be connected to the six identified leadership styles. In addition to that, nine items were sorted out based on a reliability analysis done in previous research (Möllmann, 2012). Furthermore, the construct of self-protective leadership is rejected from the questionnaire as explained in the theoretical framework. The participants rated the items e.g. ‘Diplomatic = Skilled at interpersonal relations, tactful’ on a 7-point scale from “this behavior or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader” to “this behavior or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader”.

Table 1
Scales with amount of used items and Cronbach’s alpha

Scales	Used items	Cronbach’s alpha
Charismatic/value based	21	0.96
Team oriented	20	0.83
Humane	4	0.70
Participative	3	0.82
Autonomous	3	0.61

Values. The subjects received 17 questions for eight values of the Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ). The PVQ, which consists of a male and a female version, is designed to be more concrete than its precursor, the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS). The instrument measures the same ten constructs (Power, Achievement, Hedonism, Stimulation, Self-direction, Conformity, Benevolence, Tradition, Universalism and Security) as the SVS but the values are indirectly measured with 40 items (Schwartz, 1992). As the name implies the Portrait Value Questionnaire uses persons, portrayed in terms of their goals, as stimuli and asks the respondents to compare these persons to themselves, by checking one of the six labeled boxes (very much like me – not like me at all). Research proves that the PVQ is more contextualized and caused fewer difficulties than the SVS (Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, Harris & Owens, 2001). The PVQ exists in two different versions, the original PVQ-40 (full version) and PVQ-21, as applied in the European Social Survey (ESS). The shortened version of Schwartz’s measurement instrument measures the same ten values as the PVQ-40. The PVQ-21 is used successfully in the ESS and allows for measuring the Schwartz’s values in a shorter way. For that reason the PVQ-21 was used in the present study with the exception of the value security and conformity, as explained in the theoretical framework. In addition to

that, the items were changed into sex-neutral items like ‘Being very successful is important, likes to impress other people’, with the result that male and female respondents filled in the same 17 items. In the current study, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was 0.72. In this case a factor analysis was set aside as each value was only paired with two or three items.

Participants

Employees of two different organizations in the public sector participated in this study. Half of them are working at the university and the other half are employees of a municipality. One-hundred-three employees of the university and one-hundred-ninety-eight employees of the municipality opened the questionnaire. Forty-five employees of the university and fifty-two of the municipality filled-in the whole questionnaire. Employees of all ages, educational levels, and positions within the organizations were asked to fill in the questionnaire. On average the age of the participants was 41 with a standard deviation of 11.53. Overall, 40.53% of the participants were males and 59.47% females.

Results

Leadership preferences

In order to get an idea of the leadership preferences in both organizations, table 2 shows mean scores of the leadership preferences in both organizations. The charismatic/value based leadership style scores the highest with a mean of 5.60 (SD = 0.99). The means of humane leadership style (M = 4.83, SD = 0.99) and the team-oriented leadership style (M = 4.74, SD = 0.67) are close to each other. These two leadership styles are also significantly correlated with each other, $r_s = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$. The leadership style autonomous is less preferred with a mean of 4.38 (SD = 1.64) and the participative scored by far the lowest among the five leadership styles (M = 2.36, SD = 1.35), which indicates that this leadership style has the lowest preference.

To test the first hypothesis an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the leadership preferences scores for the municipality and the university. On average, charismatic leadership is significantly preferred by the employees of the university (M = 5.85, SD = 0.54) compared to the employees of the municipality (M = 5.38, SD = 1.21; $t(97) = 2.44$, $p < 0.05$). The team-oriented leadership style also scored significantly higher at the university (M = 5.03, SD = 0.46) than at the municipality (M = 4.49, SD = 0.72; $t(97) = 4.29$, $p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference in humane scores for employees of the university (M = 5.85, SD = 0.54) and the municipality (M = 5.38, SD = 1.21; $t(97) = -0.10$, $p = 0.92$). The mean scores of the autonomous (M = 4.53, SD = 1.58; M = 4.28, SD = 1.69; $t(97) = 0.773$, $p = 0.44$) and participative leadership styles (M = 2.43, SD = 1.24; M = 2.30, SD = 1.44; $t(97) = 0.64$) do not significantly differ between the two organizations either. Based on these findings the expectation of differences between organizations within the public sector (H1) is partly supported according to the leadership preferences.

Table 2

Average ratings of leadership style preferences of employees in the university and the municipality; higher ratings indicate greater preference for the respective leadership style

Leadership preference	Organization	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Charismatic/value based	University	45	4.56	7.00	5.85*	0.54
	Municipality	54	1.60	6.79	5.38*	1.21
	Total	99	1.60	7.00	5.60*	0.99
Humane	University	46	2.50	7.00	4.80	0.87
	Municipality	54	2.00	6.75	4.82	1.08
	Total	100	2.00	7.00	4.83	0.99
Team-oriented	University	45	4.40	6.60	5.03**	0.46
	Municipality	54	2.35	5.75	4.49**	0.72
	Total	99	2.35	6.60	4.74**	0.67
Autonomous	University	55	1.00	7.00	4.53	1.58
	Municipality	67	1.00	7.00	4.28	1.69
	Total	122	1.00	7.00	4.38	1.64
Participative	University	45	1.00	6.67	2.43	1.24
	Municipality	54	1.00	6.67	2.30	1.44
	Total	99	1.00	6.67	2.36	1.35

Note. * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Leadership preferences and organizational values

To test the second hypothesis, the relationship between values (as measured by the PVQ-21) and the preferred leadership style (as measured by the CLT) was investigated using Spearman rank order correlation. There was a significant negative correlation between charismatic/value based leadership and benevolence, $r_s = -0.21$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$, and universalism, $r_s = -0.20$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$. There was also a significant negative relationship between humane leadership and benevolence, $r_s = -0.24$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$, hedonism, $r_s = -0.20$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$, and tradition $r_s = -0.24$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$. Participative leadership was significantly negatively related to the importance of power, $r_s = -0.20$, $n = 97$, $p < 0.05$. The correlation analysis confirms none of the hypotheses (H2a – e) referring to the relationship between the values and the leadership style preferences.

Table 3

Correlation between the leadership styles and the organizational values (n = 97 excluded cases list wise)

	Charismatic/ Value based	Humane	Team-oriented	Autonomous	Participative
Achievement	-.078	.094	-.170	-.013	-.197
Benevolence	-.212*	-.240*	-.131	.055	.129
Hedonism	-.111	-.203*	-.001	-.098	.084
Power	.060	-.059	.125	-.013	-.207*
Self-Direction	-.165	-.015	.189	-.021	.054
Stimulation	-.016	-.046	.199	-.067	-.117
Tradition	-.015	-.244*	-.080	-.029	-.067
Universalism	-.201*	-.046	-.024	-.009	.127

Note.* $p < 0.05$

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to assess the ability of the Schwartz values and the type of organization to predict the leadership style preferences (H2a – e). The organization variable and the values, which should predict the particular leadership style preference, were entered in step 1. Following this, the values, which should not predict the preference of this leadership style were entered in step 2. The results of all analyses are shown in table 4. The implicit parts of the second hypothesis (H2a – e), which refer to the relationship between the values and the leadership style preferences, are confirmed for all five leadership styles, whereas the explicit part is only confirmed for the team-oriented leadership style. Benevolence and the kind of organization predict the preference for the team-oriented leadership style.

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Evaluating Predictors of Leadership Style Preferences

Dependent	Model	Measures	R	R ²	ΔR^2	ΔF
Charismatic	1	Achievement, Tradition, Stimulation, Organization	0.25	0.06	0.06	1.49
	2	Self-direction, Hedonism, Power, Universalism, Benevolence	0.38	0.14	0.08	1.62
Participative	1	Stimulation, Self-direction, Hedonism, Organization	0.28	0.08	0.08	1.91
	2	Achievement, Tradition, Power, Universalism, Benevolence	0.41	0.17	0.09	1.94
Autonomous	1	Hedonism, Power, Organization	0.15	0.02	0.02	0.68
	2	Achievement, Tradition, Stimulation, Self-direction, Universalism, Benevolence	0.18	0.03	0.01	0.18
Humane	1	Universalism, Benevolence, Organization	0.24	0.06	0.06	2.12
	2	Achievement, Tradition, Stimulation, Self-direction, Hedonism, Power	0.44	0.11	0.14	2.80
Team-oriented	1	Benevolence, Organization	0.39	0.15	0.15	8.37**
	2	Achievement, Tradition, Stimulation, Self-Direction, Hedonism, Power, Universalism	0.48	0.23	0.08	1.32

Note.* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Additional Analysis

To get a deeper insight in the differences and analogies of the two organizations the differences between the values were analyzed. The mean scores of the measured values are shown in table 5. The value power is rated as most important by all respondents with a mean of 4.56 (SD = 0.86). Tradition scored on average 4.01 (SD = 1.01), followed by achievement (M = 3.62, SD = 1.13), and stimulation (M = 3.45, SD = 1.162). The other four values scored

less than three on average: hedonism ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.06$), self-direction ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 0.92$), universalism ($M = 2.34$, $SD = 0.83$), and benevolence ($M = 2.32$, $SD = 0.85$).

Conducting an independent-samples t-test showed significant differences of some values between the two types of organizations. A significant difference in the mean scores of the achievement values between the university ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 1.10$) and the municipality ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.10$; $t(95) = -2.56$, $p < 0.05$) were observed. The mean scores of hedonism differ significantly between the two organizations which means that university employees rated the value significantly higher ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 1.07$) than the employees of the municipality ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 0.98$; $t(95) = 2.94$, $p < 0.05$). On average, self-direction is less important in the municipality's ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 0.81$) than in the university's ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 0.97$) work environment. Also the value of stimulation is rated significantly higher by employees of the university ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.11$) than by employees of the municipality ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.16$; $t(95) = 2.39$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5

Average ratings of values of employees of the university and the municipality; higher ratings indicate greater importance of the value.

Values	Organization	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Achievement	University	45	1.00	5.50	3.30*	1.10
	Municipality	52	2.00	6.00	3.89*	1.10
	Total	97	1.00	6.00	3.61*	1.13
Benevolence	University	45	1.00	5.00	2.30	0.96
	Municipality	52	1.00	4.00	2.34	0.76
	Total	97	1.00	5.00	2.32	0.85
Hedonism	University	45	1.00	6.00	3.32*	1.07
	Municipality	52	1.00	5.50	2.71*	0.98
	Total	97	1.00	6.00	2.99*	1.06
Power	University	45	2.00	6.00	4.57	0.74
	Municipality	52	3.00	6.00	4.55	0.95
	Total	97	2.00	6.00	4.56	0.86
Self-Direction	University	45	1.00	6.00	2.61*	0.97
	Municipality	52	1.00	4.00	2.12*	0.81
	Total	97	1.00	6.00	2.35*	0.92
Stimulation	University	45	1.50	5.50	3.74*	1.11
	Municipality	52	1.00	6.00	3.19*	1.16
	Total	97	1.00	6.00	3.45*	1.16
Tradition	University	45	2.00	6.00	3.86	1.02
	Municipality	52	1.00	5.50	4.14	1.00
	Total	97	1.00	6.00	4.01	1.01
Universalism	University	45	1.00	5.00	2.38	0.89
	Municipality	52	1.00	4.67	2.31	0.78
	Total	97	1.00	5.00	2.34	0.83

Note.* $p < 0.05$

Due to the differences of age and number of employees they manage two additional analyses were conducted. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was used to test for value differences related to the time of working for the organization. The employees were divided into five groups according to the duration duration of their employment at the

organization the organization; Group 1:1-2 years (n = 22), Group 2: 3-5 years (n = 27), Group 3: 6-10 years (n = 15), Group 4: 11-20 years (n = 20), and Group 5: >20 (n = 14). The importance of hedonism ($F(4, 91) = 4.27, p < 0.005$) significantly differed across the five groups. Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons of the five groups indicate that only the fifth group ($M = 3.71, SD = 1.19$) differs significantly from the third ($M = 2.57, SD = 0.62$) and fourth group ($M = 2.50, SD = 0.99$).

And a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the number of employees they manage on the leadership preferences. Participants were divided into four groups according to the number of employees they manage (Group 1: zero (n = 62); Group 2: 1-19 (n = 21); Group 3: 20-49 (n = 6); Group 4: 50 and above (n = 7)). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.01$ level between charismatic/value based and team oriented leadership style scores for the four management groups: $F(3, 84) = 8.68, p < 0.01$; $F(3, 84) = 11.17, p < 0.01$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.2 for the charismatic/value based scale and 0.3 for the team-oriented scale. Post-hoc comparison using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean score on the charismatic/value based scale from Group 3 ($M = 3.96, SD = 2.05$) was significantly different from Group 1 ($M = 5.75, SD = 0.67$), Group 2 ($M = 5.78, SD = 0.77$), and Group 4 ($M = 5.80, SD = 0.21$). Also, the mean score on the team-oriented scale from Group 3 ($M = 3.46, SD = 0.98$) was significantly different from Group 1 ($M = 4.83, SD = 0.51$), Group 2 ($M = 4.92, SD = 0.98$), and Group 4 ($M = 4.85, SD = 0.17$). The other groups did not differ significantly from each other.

Conclusions and Discussion

This study investigated the differences of leadership preferences within the public sector as well as the link between leadership styles and organizational values in the public sector. This research contributes to leadership in the public sector literature by showing the leadership preferences within the public sector and demonstrating the importance of distinguishing between organizations in the public sector, such as a municipality and a university.

Conclusions

Hypothesis 1, which states that significant differences of leadership preferences can be found between different organizations within the public sector, was confirmed in this research. The leadership preferences differ significantly between the municipality and the university. The university scored higher on the charismatic/value based leadership style as well as on the team oriented leadership style. This can be explained by the different environments of the two organizations. The university needs to distinguish itself from competitors and has to earn prestige to receive money and students (De Boer, Enders & Leisyte, 2007). Therefore, employees of the university know their common goal and have much more distinct preferences than the employees of the municipality, who have several different goals. In addition to that, the employees of the municipality ranked the humane leadership style on the second place, whereas the respondents of the university prefer the team-oriented leadership style more than the humane leadership style. An explanation for this can be that the employees of the university have one common goal and they like to reach this common goal in teams and with a team oriented leader.

However, both organizations prefer the charismatic/value based leadership over the other leadership styles. Previous research also detected environmental sensitivity and the ability of inspiration and visioning, which are also quality of charismatic leadership, as important attributes of a successful leader (Conger, Kanungo & Menon, 2000; Fiol, Harris & House, 1999). In addition, both organizations are in a change period due to cuts in the finances and changes in the organizations. Several studies indicate that charismatic leadership is needed in situations of change (House & Aditya, 1997; Tichy & Devanna 1986). Additionally, the need of trust during times of change is extremely high (Schneider, Brief & Guzzo, 1996) and the behavior of a charismatic/value based leader creates trust and generates

self-sacrificial behavior by the employees (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). The employees are in need of an energizing and envisioning leader in this difficult situation.

The scores of the charismatic/value based and the team-oriented leadership style also differ significantly between the groups that were made according to the amount of employees they manage. The managers, who manage 20-49 employees, had a lower preference for both leadership styles mentioned above and in turn preferred the humane leadership style the most. This shows that the group, which manages and is managed by others, has different needs and preferences. They appreciate supportive and considerate leadership, which also includes compassion and generosity. The lower preference for charismatic/value based leadership and for team-oriented leadership can be explained by the different interests they need to represent. They cannot concentrate on one value pattern or one team, hence they try to support both sides.

Just as with leadership styles, similarities and differences can be found when it comes to values in the two environments. Power, stimulation, and tradition are the most important values in the two organizational cultures. This means that the aim of gaining social status, prestige, and control are most important in the two organizational cultures, closely followed by the importance of excitement and variety in life. The acceptance of the customs and ideas a culture imposes are also important for all respondents. The values achievement, hedonism, self-direction, and stimulation differ significantly between the two organizations. Again, the employees of the university rated all of the values higher than the employees of the municipality. The clearly defined goal of the university and the similar background of the employees, who partially studied at the university, can explain this phenomenon as well.

However, there are differences in the importance of hedonism between the groups that were made according to the duration the employees work for the organization. The employees who have been working for the organization for more than twenty years think that hedonism is more important than the employees who have been working for the organization for six to twenty years. The employees, who are almost new to the organization, are more interested to satisfy one's own needs because of the lacking sense of affiliation with the organization. After a few years the employees built loyalty with the team and the organization and the own needs become less important. However, after a long time with the same organization one's needs become more important again and the employees seek to satisfy their own needs.

The second hypothesis, which consists of five sub-hypotheses, predicted the relation between certain values and leadership styles. This hypothesis could not be fully confirmed by this study. The values which should predict a respective leadership style preference did not correlate with each other. Only one leadership style could be predicted as hypothesized and shown in the hierarchical multiple regression analyses. Benevolence and the kind of organization predict the preference for the team-oriented leadership style. However, the other findings indicate that some values correlate negatively with leadership style preferences. Charismatic/value based leadership negatively correlated with benevolence and universalism, which means the more important benevolence and universalism become the less is the charismatic/value based leadership style preferred and vice versa. Universalism and benevolence both concentrate on the welfare of the people and not on the values and prestige of an organization, which prevail in the charismatic/value based leadership style.

The participative leadership style is preferred by cultures which rate the value of power low. Employees, who are involved in the decision-making process at their organization, feel that they are an intrinsic part of their work place and can influence its direction. On the other hand, working in an organization where control and dominance prevail, things like prestige become more important than participation. Hence, the participative style can only prevail where prestige is less important.

Another negative correlation exists between the humane leadership style and the values tradition, hedonism, and benevolence. The humane oriented leadership stands for supportive leadership, which includes consideration, generosity as well as compassion from both those who lead and those who are being led. Hedonism on the other hand, seeks to satisfy the needs of the individual itself (Schwartz, 1992). Given this, it becomes clear that the objectives of both styles are quite opposite. Whereas the humane style supports all, hedonism only seeks to meet the needs of one. As indicated above, humane leadership style refers to supporting and taking into consideration the needs of those leading and those being led. Tradition, however, is a conservative value, which impedes change. Tradition will always maintain what has proven to be good in the past, it will take into consideration what has been considered in the past (Schwartz, 1992), but will not be able to support new developments within the organization as well as external developments having an impact on the structures within the organization, as the humane leader has to do. Looking at these features of the two styles, it is evident that the humane style and tradition do not follow the same objectives, which explains their negative correlation. Given the definitions of both

benevolence and the humane leadership style, the negative correlation as indicated in table 3 cannot be explained.

Managerial implications

The study indicated that the charismatic/value based leadership style is not only in the profit-oriented sector as proven by the GLOBE research the most preferred leadership style, but also in the public sector. Previous research (Bass, 1996; House et al., 2004) supported that charismatic/value based leadership is the closest to the perception of the ideal leadership. Consequently, charismatic/value based leadership is the most effective leadership for both organizations. Due to this, managers in the public sector should be trained and supported to develop the attributes of a charismatic leader. Previous research confirmed the positive effect of charismatic leadership training (Frese, Beimeel & Schoenborn, 2003). Furthermore, the most important values, power, tradition, and stimulation should be kept in mind during the training and situations of change. The importance of striving to gain prestige and seeking for novelty should be used to encourage and animate the employees and managers for change. The importance of tradition can be an issue during time of change, when the management takes this important value into account, they can anticipate and address implications of change in a more responsive and successful way.

In this study the first leadership preference and the three most important organizational values were the same for the two organizations, however, differences were observed between university and municipality. The results suggest that the employees of the university have a more distinct common goal. Following this, distinguishing between different organizations within the public sector is important when adapting leadership styles, new values or new goals. Not only should the management use a well-defined approach, but also in the literature about the public sector this should be applied.

Directions for future research

Improvements of this study are related to the way data was collected and interpreted. The CLT of House and his colleagues (2004) is long and needs extensive time investment from the respondents. This questionnaire should be shortened to get more complete questionnaires and more data. The large amount of items at the charismatic/value based leadership scale could accommodate to the length of the other leadership style scales. In a future research project a balance of validity and number of items should be found. When the

questionnaire is shortened, another study with more organizations in the public sector is necessary to obtain general results for the entire public sector, for example hospitals and water authorities. With a larger number of organizations the divergences as well as analogies in the public sector can be demonstrated and the importance of the differentiated approach would be proven. In addition to that, most employees who participated in this research studied at the university, which is not representative for the whole public sector, only for the higher-level public sector. This can be explained by the choice of instrument. The questionnaire was supplied in English, which is not the mother tongue of the participants, so higher educated respondents filled in the questionnaire and this might also have caused potential miscomprehensions. In another study the instrument should be submitted in the respondent's mother tongue. In addition, the PVQ was conceptualized for cultures defined by nationality and not organizations. Although Schwartz (1992) states, these dimensions of values can be found in all cultures, it is possible that the questionnaire is not valid to compare organizational cultures. Before the next study will be conducted to explore the relationships between the values and the leadership style preferences in more detail, the validity of the PVQ in an organizational context should be studied. The current situation of the organizations could influence the results. As described before, the changes in the public sector in the Netherlands may influence the results of this study significantly. The measured values should be independent of the situation (Schwartz, 1992) whereas the leadership preferences could change during a period of change (House & Aditya, 1997). Therefore, a second study over several years is needed to compare and strengthen the present results and interpretations. It would then be possible to look at the development of the preferences and differences in the public sector. These recognized shortcomings could encourage researchers to define their future research agendas.

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Appendix A

Table A. Varimax rotated component loadings of the CLT scale

Leadership style	Scale	1	2	3	4	5
Charismatic	Decisive	.74		.40		
	Inspirational	.60	.53	.36		
	Integrity	.44	.75			
	Performance oriented	.63		.46		
	Self-Sacrificial	.90				
	Visionary	.56	.50	.44		
Humane	Humane orientation	.75	.32			
	Modesty					.96
Team-oriented	Administratively competent			.88		
	Collaborative	.54	.43	.44		
	Diplomatic	.41	.51	.59		
	Malevolent		.89			
	Team integrator	.47	.59	.51		
Participative	Autocratic		-.90			
Autonomous	Autonomous				.96	