

**"UNDERSTANDING THE LEADER-STRATEGY
INTERFACE: APPLICATION OF THE
STRATEGIC RELATIONSHIP INTERVIEW METHOD"**

by

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N° 91/06/OB

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Printed at INSEAD,
Fontainebleau, France.

3/4/90 leadstr.kdv.

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APPLICATION OF THE STRATEGIC RELATIONSHIP INTERVIEW METHOD**

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ABSTRACT

The argument that leaders substantially affect organizational outcome is presented. In order to better understand the leader/strategy/environment interface, however, the question of what leaders do has to be supplemented with why they are doing it. It is argued that the assessment of a leader's preoccupations will make for more effective human resource planning by facilitating the match between leader and organization.

Unfortunately, the accurate assessment of a leader's preoccupations is still in its infancy. To fill the gap, this paper proposes a research methodology based on the clinical concept of transference, i.e., repetitive, consistent patterns of interaction which are unique to each individual. The Strategic Relationship Interview Method (a derivative of the Core Conflictual Relationship Theme Method as developed by Luborsky and his collaborators) is introduced as a relatively simple way to capture the essence of leadership. Using the Strategic Relationship Interview Method (SRIM), one systematically identifies the central relationship patterns of key executives by analyzing and scoring specific narratives. In order to illustrate its application, an example is given of the SRIM using as "text" the statements made by an entrepreneur.

The Leader: Marionette or Great Man?

A great deal of controversy exists in management literature about whether leaders really make a difference in the running of organizations (Liebersohn & O'Connor, 1972). Population ecologists (Hannah & Freeman, 1977), resource dependency theorists (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), or attribution theory advocates (Calder, 1977; Lord & Smith, 1983; Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich, 1985) argue that factors other than leadership affect organizational performance. According to these researchers leadership explains very little of the variance in performance. Obviously, if this point of view is taken to the extreme, leaders turn into marionettes led by forces over which they have very little or no control.

In direct opposition to this point of view we find the "great man" orientation to leadership (Bass, 1981). Proponents of this research outlook (which has gone through various transformations over time) argue that, because of certain unique personality characteristics leaders greatly affect the levers of change and transformation (MacGregor Burns, 1978; Tichy & Devanna, 1986); according to them, leaders are the ones who make things happen. Unfortunately, this point of view may be somewhat one-sided. In this case insufficient attention is paid to the role of the followers and of situational forces.

Most likely, the "truth" lies somewhere in between. As Gupta (1984) very appropriately argues, "...the discretion available to a G M [general manager] should be expected to vary across organizational contexts and across performance criteria" (p. 400). Leaders' characteristics, followers, and situational forces all affect organizational performance. Obviously, a complex process of interaction exists between leader, organization, and environment.

Drawing from studies of the top executive-organization interface, Miller and Toulouse (1986) support this point of view. For example, they recognize the contingent nature of the process when they conclude that the relationship between the leader's personality and the environmental context will be especially strong in smaller companies and dynamic, unpredictable, and changing environments.

What complicates the leadership question even further, is that in the leader-strategy interface, bounded rationality becomes the rule (March & Simon, 1958). It has become increasingly clear that a leader's ability to handle complex decisions is subject to certain cognitive limitations.

Realizing the importance of environmental forces as well as the human limitations present in rational choice has led to increasing evidence showing that leaders do substantially affect

organizational outcome (Miller, Kets de Vries & Toulouse, 1982; Gupta & Govindarajan, 1984; Miller & Toulouse, 1986; Beatty & Zajac, 1987). This strategic choice orientation to leadership (Andrews, 1971; Child, 1972; Bowman, 1986), somehow replaces the great man outlook and negates the claims of the population ecologists, the resource dependency theorists, or the extreme attribution theory advocates. It is also defended by practitioners (Business Week, 1980). The strategic choice orientation argues that strategies very much reflect the idiosyncracies of the decision makers. According to Don Hambrick (1989):

Biases, blinders, egos, aptitudes, experiences, fatigue, and other human factors in the executive ranks greatly affect what happens to companies...As a result, if we want to explain why organizations do the things they do, or, in turn, why they perform the way they do, we must examine the people at the top."(p.5)

Although there is increasing consensus for Hambrick's conclusion, the specifics are very much in question. Exactly what are the relationships between the top managers and their strategies; which dimensions would be used to characterize both; what is the direction of causality at work; and under what conditions are the relationships strongest?

Some efforts to look at these inter-relationships have occurred. Consequently, a considerable number of conceptual models matching leaders to strategies have come to the fore (Wissema, Van der Pol & Messer, 1980; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984, 1986; Szilagyi & Schwerger, 1984; Gupta, 1984; Herbert & Deresky, 1987; Smith, Mitchell & Summer, 1985).

Limitations of Previous Studies

Although we welcome the increased recognition of the importance of the leader in strategy making, the existing research studies have their limitations. To take a few examples: researchers such as Guth & Taiguiri (1965) have suggested some very abstract managerial types with the implication that they might influence strategy. They did not, however, tell us which type of strategies were related to their different kind of leaders. In the Wissema, Van der Pol and Messer study (1980), behavioral characteristics such as conformity, sociability, activity, pressure to achieve, and style of thinking are selected. According to the authors, these characteristics -- in different configurations -- make up six strategic archetypes which are matched with six strategies. How the authors arrive at these behavioral characteristics is, however, never made clear. Moreover, we can go one step further and question, whether these characteristics really reflect the essence of an individual's personality. Leontiades (1982) proposed eight types of managers and related them to the nature of

diversification. In his model (1982) a distinction is made between a steady state and an evolutionary philosophy of management, each consisting of four prototypes. Unfortunately, Leontiades does not really develop the relationship between these prototypes and the various strategy-type activities. Hambrick & Mason (1984) have limited themselves to the potential role of leader demographic characteristics in shaping the organization. Herbert and Deresky (1987) propose four distinct generic strategies and make conjectures about the kind of personality factors necessary to implement each one. Interesting as this study may be, the linkage between the various strategies and the personality dimensions remains tenuous. The authors do not really describe the logic behind the selection of certain skills and personality orientations.

Indeed, there have been a host of conceptual pieces relating individual leadership dimensions to those of strategy, but much fewer empirical studies. A number of researchers (Miller, Kets de Vries & Toulouse, 1982; Gupta & Govindarajan, 1984; Miller & Toulouse, 1986), however, have made an empirical attempt to link personality with strategy. Personality dimensions such as locus of control, need for achievement, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, and willingness to take risks were selected and related to strategy and structure. From a conceptual point of view these studies are a step in the right direction. The emphasis in field research has been on unidimensional aspects of personality rather

than core themes. One can question whether the use of a few standard personality dimensions suffices to grasp the complexity and richness of character and a CEO's preoccupations (Kets de Vries & Perzow, 1989). Furthermore, one can have reservations about the reliability and validity of data based on self-reports.

Another contribution to a better understanding of the link between leader, organization, and environment has been made through ethnographic, observational studies (Carlson, 1951; Stewart, 1967; Mintzberg, 1973; Kotter, 1982.) Although this body of literature has opened our eyes to the richness and complexity of the leader-strategy interface, it may be argued that these studies have not gone far enough. In carefully monitoring various managerial roles they have remained at a purely descriptive level. The reason why leaders do certain things has been left largely unanswered.

A more ethnographic approach to the study of strategic decision making has been the analysis of the shared language of top managers (Sapienza, 1987). Although one can praise Sapienza's efforts in trying to find relationships between top management's imagery and its strategy, one can lament the lack of clinically based conceptual models, themes, concepts, and interpretations, leading not surprisingly (in spite of a seven months' effort) to relatively trivial findings. Unfortunately, Sapienza does not explore the reasons why certain executives come up with specific

images.

Valuable as all these studies may be, they do not answer the question of why leaders take certain action. If we want to reach a better understanding of the match between leader and organization we must now go beyond responding to what leaders do and explore why they are doing it.

Integrating Descriptive and Analytical Approaches

Kets de Vries and Miller (1984, 1986) have taken a more analytical clinical orientation and generated a set of complex hypotheses about relationships between different leadership styles, each style's predominant motivating fantasy, the emerging organizational culture, and the strategy and structure of the overall organization. In their conceptualizations, "fantasies" refer to complex and stable psychological structures that underlie observable behavior (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984). These hypotheses have been tested by Noel (1984, 1988), who observed and interviewed a number of CEOs over an extended period of time. His study is a first systematic attempt to supplement the question of what leaders do with the "why" they are doing it. Noel concludes that each CEO enacts (Weick, 1970) a very idiosyncratic product which he calls the strategic core. The core is a set of activities and communication patterns that a CEO sets in motion; it is central to the existence of the organization, its mission,

and purpose. His work highlights the way in which issues or persons gain importance in organizations because of some kind of match with the underlying preoccupations of the CEO. Noel argues that each CEO is possessed of a "magnificent obsession," a certain Weltanschauung which is relatively rigid and which explains why certain activities are central to the strategic core. He demonstrates that these magnificent obsessions play a central role in strategy making.

Although Noel's work is a commendable attempt to integrate the descriptive with the analytical and is much richer than the previously cited studies, his research methodology poses problems. The main one is that his study is very difficult to replicate, primarily because of its extremely time consuming nature. Obviously, it is very hard to find executives willing to collaborate in research of this kind. Thus, for reasons of practicality, other methodologies have to be found to understand a leader's main preoccupations and the linkages to strategy making without sacrificing richness of content. It is the objective of this paper to propose a research methodology that is relatively simple and reliable but captures the essence of leadership in order to better grasp the role of the leader in a strategy-making context. Understanding a leader's preoccupations will make for more effective manpower planning by facilitating the match between the leader and the organization.

The Centrality of Transference in Leadership Research

The "royal road" to the understanding of a CEO's preoccupations to paraphrase Freud -- the diagnosis of his or her style -- goes through the transference. Transference is a term known foremost in the clinical setting. It refers to the interface between therapist and patient and can be described as a confusion in time and place. Transference patterns have an early origin and derive from the kind of relationships which develop between parents and children. It can be described as the projection or displacement upon another person of unconscious wishes and feelings originally directed toward important individuals in childhood (Greenson, 1967; Langs, 1976; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984). Transference is the determining factor in understanding an individual's style. In the therapeutic setting transference reactions offer the therapist an opportunity to observe in the here and now the patterns of interaction which are unique to the patient. In response to Freud's question about the importance of transference Jung is said to have replied, "It is the alpha and omega of treatment," to which Freud responded, "You have understood" (Storr, 1979).

As early as 1912 Freud argued that each individual possesses "...what might be described as a stereotype plate (or several such), which is constantly repeated -- constantly reprinted afresh -- in the course of a person's life" (pp. 99-100). In studying

individual patients he was struck by the consistency of this pattern over time. Freud's insight led the way to understanding that the accurate assessment of transference patterns in psychotherapy is the key to successful intervention and change. The identification of transference patterns becomes the shortcut to an individual's major preoccupations and will facilitate comprehension of behavior and actions.

From quite a different perspective, the political scientist Nathan Leites (1951) introduced the concept of the "operational code," meaning those rules of conduct and norms of behavior that are relatively stable. To some extent one can look at his operational code as a derivative of transference patterns. It "...can serve as a useful 'bridge' or 'link' to psychodynamic interpretations of unconscious dimensions of belief systems and their role in behavior under different conditions" (George, 1969, p. 195). Leites even went so far as to apply his operational code not only to individuals but also to nations at large.

The notion of "stereotype plates" was also recognized by the pioneer in the development of the analysis of symbolic statements, Henry Murray (1938), who, from his studies of human lives, concluded:

Experience was to teach us that, though the reasons for many of the subject's responses were mysterious and much of his

past entirely out of reach, it was possible to find in most individuals an underlying reaction system, termed by us unity-thema, which was the key to his unique nature. I say "key" because if one assumed the activity of this unity-thema many superficially unintelligible actions and expressions became, as it were, psychologically inevitable. A unity-thema is a compound of interrelated -- collaborating or conflicting -- dominant needs that are linked to pressures to which the individual was exposed on one or more particular occasions, gratifying or traumatic, in early childhood...

As soon as we realized the force of the unity thema its importance... began to dawn upon us. For if every response is the objectification of an aspect of a particular personality and the most fundamental and characteristic determinant of a personality is a unity-thema, then many responses cannot be fully understood except in terms of their relationship to the unity-thema... (pp. 604-605)

Murray tried to operationalize the identification of these unity themas through his Thematic Apperception Test -- analyzing narratives in response to fictional scenes depicted on cards.

A more recent and very promising approach to teasing out a person's main preoccupations (influenced by Murray's work) has been developed by Luborsky and his associates (Luborsky, 1984;

Luborsky et al, 1985; Luborsky & Crits-Cristoph, 1985; Luborsky, Crits-Cristoph & Mellon, 1986; Luborsky, Crits-Christoph, Minz & Auerbach, 1988). Luborsky introduced a system for assessing central relationship patterns by analyzing narratives and looking at consistencies across narratives. The primary data used in what he calls the Core Conflictual Relationship Theme Method (CCRT) is short episodes related in psychotherapy sessions. In contrast to the Thematic Apperception Test where fictional stories are used, Luborsky's approach may be more appropriate since real, personal episodes are dealt with: the researcher is, consequently, closer to the primary data. In applying their system Luborsky and his co-workers discovered that the focus on specific narratives (with the obvious advantage of being less time consuming) did not entail a significant loss of information.

In order to operationalize a system of scoring, transcripts of these narrative episodes are given to a number of independent judges who are asked to identify three components within each episode: the person's main wishes, needs, or intentions vis-a-vis the other person in the narrative (W); the responses of the other person (RO); and the responses of the self (RS) (Luborsky et al, 1986). In summarizing their system, Luborsky and his collaborators argue that "...the steps in the CCRT method represent a formalization of the usual inference process of clinicians in formulating transference patterns" (Luborsky & Crits-Christoph, 1985, p. 13). One may add that studies of CCRT

application have shown remarkable agreement in CCRT scoring among the judges.

The Luborsky method has been used in clinical settings and there has been excellent correspondence between the tranferential relationships that emerged in long term therapy between patients and their therapist, and the relationships between these patients and other people that emerged in the CCRT interviews (Luborsky, Crits-Christof & Mellon, 1986; Luborsky, Crits-Christoph, Minz & Auerbach, 1988). The same critical themes emerged in both settings, attesting to the validity of the instrument. Also, there was excellent inter-rater reliability among the coders of clinical sessions ($r=.88$) (Levine & Luborsky, 1981). The patients' primary wishes were manifested in 80 percent of their CCRT relationship episodes, secondary wishes were manifested only 16 percent of the time. Finally, the CCRT wishes were very stable over a one year period, indicating that core aspects of personality were indeed being tapped (Luborsky & Crits-Cristoph, 1985).

We see the CCRT method as a supplement to structured interviewing, not as a replacement for it. But CCRT has some very real advantages. First, it reliably elicits the core relational themes that are so fundamental to personality, and have so many implications for behavior. Second, it also reliably systematizes this information by bringing to bear a number of independent

coders and rigorous scoring protocols. Third, while it may be more difficult to get cooperation from subjects for the CCRT than for a simple questionnaire, the method goes much deeper to uncover core wishes. Moreover, it does not involve as much embarrassing probing as structured interviews, whose reliability is often suspect.

Given the advantages of this approach to understanding behavior, Luborsky and his associates wanted to make the method available to a wider audience for research purposes. They wished to go beyond a purely psychotherapeutic setting and develop "...a new method that would elicit relationship anecdotes in the course of any interview situation, not just in psychotherapy" (1985, p. 4). They therefore developed, what they called, the Relationship Anecdote Paradigm Method (RAP). According to them, the CCRT and RAP approaches provide comparable results. Given this widening scope, an obvious application of the RAP approach is the study of leadership and strategy, where it presents an opportunity to develop a much better understanding of strategy-leadership content issues.

The Effect of Core Personality Themes on Strategy and Structure

It might be useful to suggest some specific relationships between

leader personality themes and the strategies and structures of their organizations. Luborsky, Crits-Christoph and Mellon (1986) have suggested that although the details of transferential themes are unique, some very common themes surface with great regularity: the core wishes that may typically emerge among executives are such themes as the desire to assert one's independence and autonomy, to dominate others; to be in control; to be close to and open to others; to be noticed, respected, recognized or seen as special; to achieve and be successful; to be helped and cared for by others; to get back at or to hurt others; and to give in, submit and be passive.

Some of these themes may relate to aspects of strategy, structure and decision making as follows: Those who express a wish for control are expected to require greater certainty in their firm's operations. They will therefore collect and process more information before making decisions, eschew risk taking, make use of control devices such as budgets, plans, and cost centers, and be reluctant to branch into unfamiliar areas, they are unlikely to want to do much innovation as this is rather risky and uncertain. These tendencies are rather consistent with Porter's (1980) focussed cost leadership strategy and the defender strategy of Miles & Snow (1978).

On the other hand, executives who express a wish to dominate are likely to try to exercise control over other firms in their

industries -- they may vie actively for market share using aggressive advertising and distribution strategies, and they may try to range broadly in their industries, diversifying into promising areas of the market. They will also tend to centralize authority and to move boldly. These tendencies are consistent with Miller's (1986) marketing differentiation strategy, a variant of Porter's (1980) differentiation strategy.

The wish to be open to others may induce managers to set up highly consultative structures in which close collaboration and teamwork are encouraged and bureaucracy is avoided. Such structures are particularly useful to implement strategies of innovation (Burns & Stalker, 1961). These include the prospector strategies of Miles and Snow (1978), and the innovative differentiation strategy of Miller (1986) -- again a variant of Porter's (1980) differentiation strategy.

Finally, the wish to be seen as special, as being recognized may also translate into a diversification strategy -- one that draws attention to a firm and its leader in the marketplace. These tentative hypotheses are summarized on Table 1

TABLE 1

PERSONALITY THEME, STRUCTURE AND STRATEGY

<u>Core Wish</u>	<u>Strategy and Structure</u>
1. To be in control	Modest risk taking Desire for much information

	Cost control, budgets, planning Focussed cost leadership Defender strategy
2. To be domineering	Broad scope (low focus) Takeovers Risk taking Marketing Differentiation
3. To be open to others	Collaborative structures Participative decision making Prospector strategy
4. To be recognized	Diversification Acquisitions

It seems then, that personality themes may give rise to organizational configurations (Miller & Friesen, 1984) -- the latter representing constellations of interdependent elements of strategy, structure, culture and decision making style.

We do not expect the relationships of Table 1 to hold with equal strength in all settings. There are a number of conditioning factors that are likely to come into play. For example, the relationships are much more likely to hold where leaders have much power in their organizations; where they have much opportunity and occasion to change strategies; and where firms are small enough for the CEO's personal influence to be strong.

Note also that the relationship between a CEO's personality and the strategy of his firm may be bi-directional, with executives shaping their strategies, and firms selecting for CEO's those whose personalities match existing strategies. However,

personalities tend to be rather enduring, and to the extent that CEOs have much power in their organizations, their personalities will help shape strategy rather than the other way around.

The Strategic Relationship Interview Method

The strategic relationship interview method (SRIM) is a system (really an outgrowth of the CCRT) designed to help the researcher uncover a leader's main preoccupations and strategic orientation. In order to facilitate the gathering of material about strategic orientation specific instructions are given by the interviewer (see Appendix). In short, the leader is encouraged to tell three or four narratives relating to each of three categories:

- 1) Parents, spouse, lover, children, friends or other important people in their private sphere.
- 2) Subordinates.
- 3) Other stakeholders such as board members, bankers, customers, suppliers, competitors, union members, or government officials.

For the purposes of assessment diversity in the narratives is important. Also, the period of the narrator's life during which these episodes take place should vary. He or she should be

encouraged to recount incidents from both present and past in order to allow the researcher to arrive at a complete assessment of his or her preoccupations. In addition, in order to facilitate the rating process, it is desirable for the incidents to be rather specific. The task of the assessors is to identify the themes that repeat themselves by rating wishes, needs, or intentions, responses from others and responses from self. The frequency with which certain themes occur will signal certain preoccupations and give insight into strategic orientation.

Example of the SRIM

An example of the application of the SRIM follows. For the purposes of demonstration the narratives have been condensed. The subject of investigation is a very visible European entrepreneur who is running an extremely successful enterprise. Three narratives are presented. In the first narrative the entrepreneur talks about a Mr. X, a former business associate. The second narrative concerns the entrepreneur's mother, and the third has to do with his dealings with Mr. Y, his new managing director (he himself holds the position of chairman).

In the first episode we can see how the entrepreneur receives an unusual business proposal which gets him quite excited but also makes him anxious. It is clear that it offers an excellent opportunity to pursue his desire for recognition. However, quite

a few people he deals with appear to be critical of this unconventional venture and, in his opinion, become unhelpful and interfering. Their intrusion makes us alert to his main wish to assert his independence and autonomy, which is also central to episodes two and three.

TABLE 2

EXAMPLE OF CONDENSED NARRATIVES AND TYPICAL SCORES

Relationship Episodes	Inferences about W, RO, and RS
<hr/>	
<u>Object: Mr X (a former associate)</u>	
"I received a friendly telephone call from X who had a wonderful idea for an unusual business venture"	RO: Treats me respectfully RS: Feeling happy, excited
"I got interested since I had a real chance to succeed in something quite exciting"	RS: Feeling self-confident
"My associates thought I was foolhardy and a megalomaniac to get into this venture"	RO: Critical, disapproving
"I had sleepless nights because of lack of time to get the venture off the ground"	RS: Feeling anxious
"I had to get personally involved in a major public relations campaign to publicize the venture"	RS: Being assertive W: To be recognized
"I had to get rid of X, he wasn't delivering"	RS: Being assertive RO: Being unhelpful, uncooperative
"X tried to block the appointment of my people on the board; he wants to put me in a corner"	RO: Interfering W: To assert my independence and autonomy

Object: Mother

- "My mother is trying to get me involved in one mad idea after another" RO: Interfering
- "She would say, 'When are you going to do something useful with your life'. She then told me to invest in this whacky project in France. I let it be, after all, she is my mother, but I must admit that I was quite annoyed" RO: Critical
RO: Domineering
RS: Being frustrated
W: To assert myself
- "I would sometimes like to put her in her place" W: To assert myself
- "She would say that nothing is impossible, the only person making it happen is yourself" RO: Being concerned
W: To assert myself
- "She also told her friends that one day I would be Prime Minister" RO: Being supportive

Object: Mr Y (new managing director)

- "My 'cottage industry' days were over. I had to get more financial expertise" RS: Feeling less confident
- "The first thing he told me was that I needed more capital to get the American operation up and running" RO: Dominating
- "Y helped me in my negotiations with banks to arrange flotation on the stock exchange" RO: Being Supportive
- "I told him I didn't want any non-executive director on the board" RS: Fear of control
W: To assert my independence and autonomy
- "Y can be rather nitpicky telling me that I shouldn't do certain things" RO: Dominating

Ten similar episodes were collected from our entrepreneur. After studying the narratives, three assessors were asked to specify the

wishes, the responses from others, and the responses from self in each episode -- as we did in our example. The frequency with which each assessor noted a given sentiment was subsequently summarized in a table in which responses from the self and from others are also classified in "negative" and "positive" categories. The frequency tallies as reflected in Table 2 highlight the entrepreneur's main preoccupations.

TABLE 2
SRIM SUMMARY OF NARRATIVES*

Assessor	1	2	3
<hr/>			
<u>Wishes, Needs, Intentions</u>			
To assert oneself (independence and autonomy)	15	13	11
To be recognized	5	6	4
<u>Responses from Object</u>			
N (
E (Dominating, intruding, interfering	9	8	11
G (
A (
T (Critical, disapproving	4	5	5
I (
V (
E (Unhelpful, inconsiderate	3	4	4
P (Supportive, reassuring	4	6	8
O (
S (Respectful	3	6	8
I (
T (Helpful, cooperative	4	8	5
I (
V (Being concerned	5	6	3
E			

Responses from Self

N (Dominated, fear of control	7	9	10
E (
G (Feeling less confident	4	6	3
A (
T (Feeling anxious	3	5	4
I (
V (Obligated	4	3	3
E (
(Frustrated	3	2	4
P (Being assertive	9	12	13
O (
S (Feeling self-confident	6	9	10
I (
T (Feeling happy	6	8	9
I (
V (Feeling close to others	5	7	6
E			

* 10 Narratives are scored.

The scores underline what was already obvious in our analysis of the first three episodes: the main preoccupation of this person is to assert his independence and autonomy. A secondary preoccupation centers around the wish to be recognized. It appears that other people are considered to be dominating and sometimes as critical or unhelpful. However, others are not just seen as being negative. There are quite a few people who are perceived as supportive, respectful, helpful, and concerned, factors which must be a great source of strength and confidence to this individual. But despite these positive impressions one thing is clear from the frequency distribution and that is that this person experiences a strong fear of control. Feelings of obligation and frustration

also play a role in his personality make-up as demonstrated in his leadership behavior. He responds to these sentiments mainly with assertiveness. Finally, we can note how his feelings of self-confidence oscillate. Although as a rule he exudes self-confidence, happiness, and a sense of community with others, at times, in spite of his cockiness, he is less confident and anxious.

This individual's personality make-up and major preoccupations explain his venturesome behavior. Our executive has a great need to assert himself and seeks recognition through bold moves in the business realm. He is a risk taker (but within bounds) and follows an aggressive acquisition and diversification strategy. His personal endorsement of his products has made him a familiar face throughout the country. In spite of having gone public with his company, his fear of control is indicated by the fact that he has kept a majority position in the business. It is interesting to note how his sense of obligation mixed with his feelings of being close to others has come out in the open through his involvement in a number of social causes.

An individual with this personality make-up is obviously not suited for a traditional enterprise. Rules, regulations, and other constraints are anathema to him. His forte is the entrepreneurial mode. When he cannot assert himself, frustration follows. His venturesome behavior may be detrimental at a

certain phase of growth of the enterprise. For example, given his fear of control, does he have the willingness to subject himself to the financial discipline that comes with accountability to shareholders? Will he accept the constraints put upon him by his new managing director? Will he be able to delegate sufficiently with the increasing complexity of the enterprise? Given his need to be in the limelight will he be able to plan for management succession? We can predict from his SRIM scores that these issues will be problematic.

Concluding Remarks

The above example demonstrates how, by using the Strategic Relationship Interview Method, we can not only can systematize responses but also retain the complexity of an individual's personality make-up. In a fairly simplified way we can obtain very rich data. It permits us to go beyond mere observation and creates awareness about "deep" structure. The interpretation of the preoccupations behind symbolic statements will be of great help in better understanding the leader-strategy interface.

Another supporting argument for the use of this method is that in studies comparing self-report of main preoccupying themes with clinician-based identification, the individuals interviewed varied greatly in their ability to self-report (Luborsky & Crits-Christoph, 1985). The subjects being studied had difficulty

in discriminating between themes of more or less importance to them. Moreover, in responding to certain "loaded" questions, specific defenses (of which the person was not necessarily aware) became operative, causing serious distortions. Exclusive reliance on self report and questionnaire studies for the generation of data may therefore be fraught with problems.

The SRIM approach is a promising avenue for the further exploration of the links between leadership and strategy. It should be seen as a useful complement to the more traditional interview process. Its application allows for an additional level of complexity. This does not mean that it is an easy solution. Accurate assessment necessitates a considerable amount of skill and clinical insight, which are not developed overnight but take time and effort. We believe, however, that great rewards, in the form of richer and more accurate research output, await those scholars who are willing to make this effort.

APPENDIX

Instructions Given to the Interviewee

Understanding relationships is critical to our study of leadership and the strategy-making process. Please tell me about some incidents or events, each involving yourself in relation to another person. Each should be a specific incident. Some should be current and some old. For each one tell:

- 1) when it occurred;
- 2) the other person involved;
- 3) some of what the other person said or did and what you said or did; and
- 4) what happened at the end.

The other person might be any family member, friend, subordinate, or other person you have business dealings with. It just has to be a specific event that was personally important to you or that created a problem for you in some way. We will tape at least twelve of these incidents. Spend about three minutes (but no more than five) in telling each one. We will let you know when you come near to the end of five minutes. This is a way to tell us about your relationships. Make yourself comfortable as you would with someone who wants to get to know you. (Adapted from Luborsky & Crits-Cristoph, 1985, pp. 9-10).

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90/32 SM	Srinivasan BALAK- RISHNAN and Mitchell KOZA	"Information Asymmetry, Adverse Selection and Joint-Ventures: Theory and Evidence", Revised, January 1990.	90/43 FIN	Robert KORAJCZYK and Claude VIALLET	"Equity Risk Premia and the Pricing of Foreign Exchange Risk", May 1990.
90/33 OB	Caren SIEHL, David BOWEN and Christine PEARSON	"The Role of Rites of Integration in Service Delivery", March 1990.	90/44 OB	Gilles AMADO, Claude FAUCHEUX and André LAURENT	"Organisational Change and Cultural Realities: Franco-American Contrasts", April 1990.
90/34 FIN/EP	Jean DERMINE	"The Gains from European Banking Integration, a Call for a Pro-Active Competition Policy", April 1990.	90/45 TM	Soumitra DUTTA and Piero BONISSONE	"Integrating Case Based and Rule Based Reasoning: The Possibilistic Connection", May 1990.
90/35 EP	Jae Won PARK	"Changing Uncertainty and the Time-Varying Risk Premia in the Term Structure of Nominal Interest Rates", December 1988, Revised March 1990.	90/46 TM	Spyros MAKRIDAKIS and Michèle HIBON	"Exponential Smoothing: The Effect of Initial Values and Loss Functions on Post-Sample Forecasting Accuracy".
90/36 TM	Arnoud DE MEYER	"An Empirical Investigation of Manufacturing Strategies in European Industry", April 1990.	90/47 MKT	Lydia PRICE and Wilfried VANHONACKER	"Improper Sampling in Natural Experiments: Limitations on the Use of Meta-Analysis Results in Bayesian Updating", Revised May 1990.
90/37 TM/OB/SM	William CATS-BARIL	"Executive Information Systems: Developing an Approach to Open the Possibles", April 1990.	90/48 EP	Jae WON PARK	"The Information in the Term Structure of Interest Rates: Out-of-Sample Forecasting Performance", June 1990.
90/38 MKT	Wilfried VANHONACKER	"Managerial Decision Behaviour and the Estimation of Dynamic Sales Response Models", (Revised February 1990).	90/49 TM	Soumitra DUTTA	"Approximate Reasoning by Analogy to Answer Null Queries", June 1990.
90/39 TM	Louis LE BLANC and Tawfik JELASSI	"An Evaluation and Selection Methodology for Expert System Shells", May 1990.	90/50 EP	Daniel COHEN and Charles WYPLOSZ	"Price and Trade Effects of Exchange Rates Fluctuations and the Design of Policy Coordination", April 1990.

90/51 EP	Michael BURDA and Charles WYPLOSZ	"Gross Labour Market Flows in Europe: Some Stylized Facts", June 1990.	90/63 SM	Sumantra GHOSHAL and Eleanor WESTNEY	"Organising Competitor Analysis Systems", August 1990
90/52 FIN	Lars Tyge NIELSEN	"The Utility of Infinite Menus", June 1990.	90/64 SM	Sumantra GHOSHAL	"Internal Differentiation and Corporate Performance: Case of the Multinational Corporation", August 1990
90/53 EP	Michael Burda	"The Consequences of German Economic and Monetary Union", June 1990.	90/65 EP	Charles WYPLOSZ	"A Note on the Real Exchange Rate Effect of German Unification", August 1990
90/54 EP	Damien NEVEN and Colin MEYER	"European Financial Regulation: A Framework for Policy Analysis", (Revised May 1990).	90/66 TM/SE/FIN	Soumitra DUTTA and Piero BONISSONE	"Computer Support for Strategic and Tactical Planning in Mergers and Acquisitions", September 1990
90/55 EP	Michael BURDA and Stefan GERLACH	"Intertemporal Prices and the US Trade Balance", (Revised July 1990).	90/67 TM/SE/FIN	Soumitra DUTTA and Piero BONISSONE	"Integrating Prior Cases and Expert Knowledge In a Mergers and Acquisitions Reasoning System", September 1990
90/56 EP	Damien NEVEN and Lars-Hendrik RÖLLER	"The Structure and Determinants of East-West Trade: A Preliminary Analysis of the Manufacturing Sector", July 1990	90/68 TM/SE	Soumitra DUTTA	"A Framework and Methodology for Enhancing the Business Impact of Artificial Intelligence Applications", September 1990
90/57 FIN/EP/ TM	Lars Tyge NIELSEN	Common Knowledge of a Multivariate Aggregate Statistic", July 1990	90/69 TM	Soumitra DUTTA	"A Model for Temporal Reasoning in Medical Expert Systems", September 1990
90/58 FIN/EP/TM	Lars Tyge NIELSEN	"Common Knowledge of Price and Expected Cost in an Oligopolistic Market", August 1990	90/70 TM	Albert ANGEHRN	"Triple C': A Visual Interactive MCDSS", September 1990
90/59 FIN	Jean DERMINE and Lars-Hendrik RÖLLER	"Economies of Scale and Scope in the French Mutual Funds (SICAV) Industry", August 1990	90/71 MKT	Philip PARKER and Hubert GATIGNON	"Competitive Effects in Diffusion Models: An Empirical Analysis", September 1990
90/60 TM	Peri IZ and Tawfik JELASSI	"An Interactive Group Decision Aid for Multiobjective Problems: An Empirical Assessment", September 1990	90/72 TM	Enver YÜCESAN	"Analysis of Markov Chains Using Simulation Graph Models", October 1990
90/61 TM	Pankaj CHANDRA and Mihkel TOMBAK	"Models for the Evaluation of Manufacturing Flexibility", August 1990	90/73 TM	Arnoud DE MEYER and Kasra FERDOWS	"Removing the Barriers in Manufacturing", October 1990
90/62 EP	Damien NEVEN and Menno VAN DIJK	"Public Policy Towards TV Broadcasting in the Netherlands", August 1990	90/74 SM	Sumantra GHOSHAL and Nitin NOHRIA	"Requisite Complexity: Organising Headquarters- Subsidiary Relations in MNCs", October 1990

90/75 MKT	Roger BETANCOURT and David GAUTSCHI	"The Outputs of Retail Activities: Concepts, Measurement and Evidence", October 1990	90/87 FIN/EP	Lars Tyge NIELSEN	"Existence of Equilibrium in CAPM: Further Results", December 1990
90/76 MKT	Wilfried VANHONACKER	"Managerial Decision Behaviour and the Estimation of Dynamic Sales Response Models", Revised October 1990	90/88 OB/MKT	Susan C. SCHNEIDER and Reinhard ANGELMAR	"Cognition in Organisational Analysis: Who's Minding the Store?" Revised, December 1990
90/77 MKT	Wilfried VANHONACKER	"Testing the Koyck Scheme of Sales Response to Advertising: An Aggregation-Independent Autocorrelation Test", October 1990	90/89 OB	Manfred F.R. KETS DE VRIES	"The CEO Who Couldn't Talk Straight and Other Tales from the Board Room," December 1990
90/78 EP	Michael BURDA and Stefan GERLACH	"Exchange Rate Dynamics and Currency Unification: The Ostmark - DM Rate", October 1990	90/90 MKT	Philip PARKER	"Price Elasticity Dynamics over the Adoption Lifecycle: An Empirical Study," December 1990
90/79 TM	Anil GABA	"Inferences with an Unknown Noise Level in a Bernoulli Process", October 1990			
90/80 TM	Anil GABA and Robert WINKLER	"Using Survey Data in Inferences about Purchase Behaviour", October 1990	<u>1991</u>		
90/81 TM	Tawfik JELASSI	"Du Présent au Futur: Bilan et Orientations des Systèmes Interactifs d'Aide à la Décision," October 1990	91/01 TM/SM	Luk VAN WASSENHOVE, Leonard FORTUIN and Paul VAN BEEK	"Operational Research Can Do More for Managers Than They Think!," January 1991
90/82 EP	Charles WYPLOSZ	"Monetary Union and Fiscal Policy Discipline," November 1990	91/02 TM/SM	Luk VAN WASSENHOVE, Leonard FORTUIN and Paul VAN BEEK	"Operational Research and Environment," January 1991
90/83 FIN/TM	Nathalie DIERKENS and Bernard SINCLAIR-DESAGNE	"Information Asymmetry and Corporate Communication: Results of a Pilot Study", November 1990	91/03 FIN	Pekka HIETALA and Timo LÖYTTYNIEMI	"An Implicit Dividend Increase in Rights Issues: Theory and Evidence," January 1991
90/84 MKT	Philip M. PARKER	"The Effect of Advertising on Price and Quality: The Optometric Industry Revisited," December 1990	91/04 FIN	Lars Tyge NIELSEN	"Two-Fund Separation, Factor Structure and Robustness," January 1991
90/85 MKT	Avijit GHOSH and Vikas TIBREWALA	"Optimal Timing and Location in Competitive Markets," November 1990	91/05 OB	Susan SCHNEIDER	"Managing Boundaries in Organisations," January 1991
90/86 EP/TM	Olivier CADOT and Bernard SINCLAIR-DESAGNE	"Prudence and Success in Politics," November 1990			