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Leadership competencies for implementing planned organizational change

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Abstract

The importance of leadership in all of an organization's processes is critical, since it would shape and define the way in which the organization and employees will react and act during these processes. One such process is that of organizational change. The present study reviews theory on leadership, organizational change and their relation ;the main goal of the study is to define and present the necessary leader competencies that will facilitate organizational change.Regarding the methodology, a secondary survey via critical literature review took place in order to be identified leadership competencies that are required to implement planned organizational changes.The main conclusion is that there is interdependence between leadership and change . Change requires leaders that are capable of altering their leadership styles in order to accommodate the required competencies and allow for the seamless implementation of the planned change. It can not be singled out a leadership style with respect to the implementation of change, but rather a combination of different leadership styles each adding a required competence.

Keywords: Leadership, Organizational change, Leader competencies

1. Introduction

The meaning and the importance of leader's contribution for the success of project is of decisive importance, especially leadership competencies for implementing planned organizational change in an existing enterprise is crucial. Workers must be persuaded for the need of the change, most of the times when changes take place in a company the workforce are suspicious for their job, and they are reluctant to accept, adopt and be motivated for the accomplishment of the change. The effectiveness of the leadership depends on the leaders personality and his/her efficiency. But what is this characteristic of a manager personality which makes him/her successful?

When a change takes place some activities must be performed, the workers have to be persuaded for the need of the change and accept it, they must be motivated to support and implement the change, and after that the project has to be evaluated for the implementation of change. In the literature the main question presented is whether leaders who are more effective at task-oriented behaviors or leaders who are more effective at person-oriented behaviors are the more effective for the management of the change to be implemented. Should the leader not present the required competencies, the implemented change may meet adverse increased resistance by the workers, requiring therefore increased efforts for it to be achieved or may be in danger to fail completely. Therefore the leader's competencies are in the cornerstone of organizational change and its successful facilitation in an organization. Because of the fact that the competence of a manager takes important role for the achievement of a change the present study focuses on the examination of how the leader's ability and behavior could contribute to organizational function and change. The relevant literature is abundant with different surveys that aim at depicting the leader's competencies that would facilitate organizational change. As such the present study aims at defining these competencies by reviewing the relevant data presented in the literature and determine the most important ones, based on their level of mention in the literature.

The study research questions are the following:

Research Question 1: Which competencies must a leader present in order to implement organizational change?

Research Question 2: Are there specific leadership styles that are more suited to implement organizational change?

Research Question 3: Which of the required competencies are the most important, based on the literature review?

Research Question 4: Are leadership and organizational change two separated terms, or are they interdependent?

The study is organized as follows: The relevant theory regarding organizational change and leadership styles is presented in the second and third chapters respectively. The methodology for the presented research is presented in the third chapter of the study. The fourth chapter of the study presents the discussion of the relative findings in the survey. The study then closes with its conclusions.

2. The Change Management

Oakland (2003) determined the existence of a reverse link between the successful change and the breadth of official organizational change programs. In order to succeed in change, the key was determined to be the alignment of employees, roles and responsibilities to the characteristic of the organization itself (such as its processes). In order for the progress of change to take place, the organization must focus on its activities rather than abstract concepts (Atkinson, 1994, p. 6) .

The organization's staff must be involved in the process of change via the alignment of processes and starting with the vision & mission of the organization, analysis of critical success factors & key processes is the way to involve staff in a process of change. Many change programs do not work because they begin with the effort to change the knowledge, attitudes and beliefs of individuals. The theory shows that changes in these areas will lead to changes in the behavior of the whole organization (Oakland, 2003).

According to Hersey & Blanchard (1998) and Figure 1, change in knowledge is easier and requires little time to achieve compared to changes in attitudes, individual behavior, or even changes in team behavior (Chute, 2001). In Figure 1, as long as one moves from a smaller circle to a larger one, the difficulty and the effort that needs to be made to change, as well as the time required to be wasted, is increasing. In the smallest circle (knowledge), relatively little time is needed and the degree of difficulty is relatively small. As we move to the largest circle (group behavior), the time and the degree of difficulty change. What is often required is almost the opposite process based on the recognition that people's behavior is largely determined by the roles they adopt. If new responsibilities are created, new roles in the team

and a process-oriented environment for them, a new situation will develop that will draw their attention to work in these processes. This will change the mindset (Oakland, 2003, Figure 1).

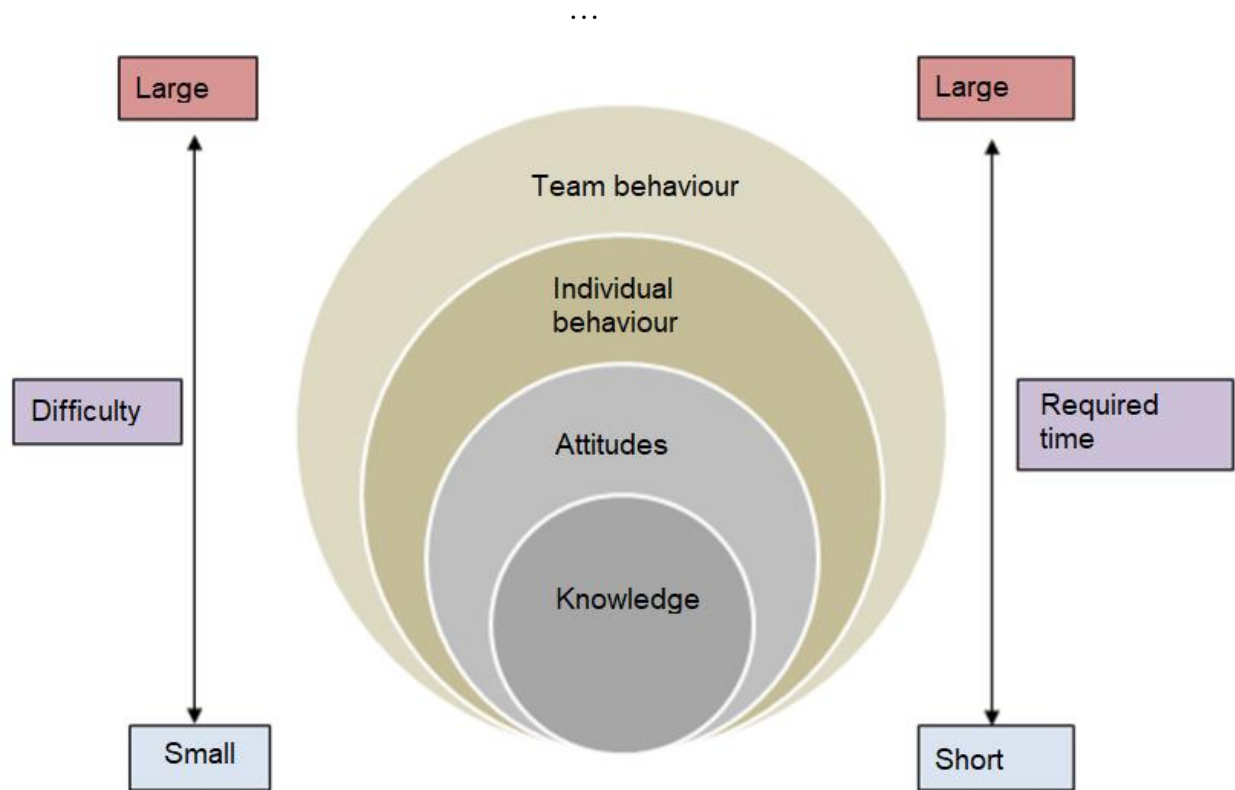


Figure 1 Analogy of time and difficulty in achieving change (in four levels). Source: (Adapted from) Hersey P. & Blanchard K. (1988, p. 341).

If any of these elements are absent, the overall quality that brings about the changeover process will collapse. Collaboration is especially critical as far as continuing with change. In the event that the progressions are to be made in quantifiable terms, close collaboration between the important offices and groups is fundamental (Oakland, 2003). Furthermore, commitment is a key component for the high levels of cooperation, activity and exertion required to comprehend and effectively go through with the procedure in many associations (Atkinson, 1994). Whenever the change is to take place, the following are assured (Pearce, 2007):

- ensuring adequate initial planning;
- providing support;
- staff engagement;
- engagement;

- taking into account the impact on team members;
- identifying and addressing resistance to change,
- communication,
- use of management tools,
- evaluation / assessment of change,
- avoiding traps.

The following steps must be taken to make the change (Hellriegel D. & Slocum J., 1992; Chytteri, 2001; Zavlanos, 2006):

- i. Identify the need for change.
- ii. Diagnose & explain the need for change within the group to overcome negative reactions to change.
- iii. Schedule the change process (goals, size & change areas) and engage people affected by it in scheduling.
- iv. Make change, monitor & support.
- v. There is feedback and communication between people about the effectiveness of change.

People don't react the same to the procedure of change. Figure 2 presents a sample of individuals with various view of a proposed change. The dispersion in Figure 2 is ordinary, which implies that around the average has a similar likelihood in symmetrical qualities. The chart and rates are demonstrative. By far most of individuals are amidst the appropriation and are more traditionalist. The individuals who move (from the middle) a little to one side of the "bell" shroud their response through their lack of care. The individuals who move (from the inside) a little to one side of the "bell" are attempting to pick up something before joining the procedure of change. "Pioneers" control change, while "saboteurs" respond to it and undermine it. The double arrow of Figure 2 in the territory of careful (amidst the "bell" and left) shows the propensity of the general population in this gathering to move left or right (Mustakis, 2012).

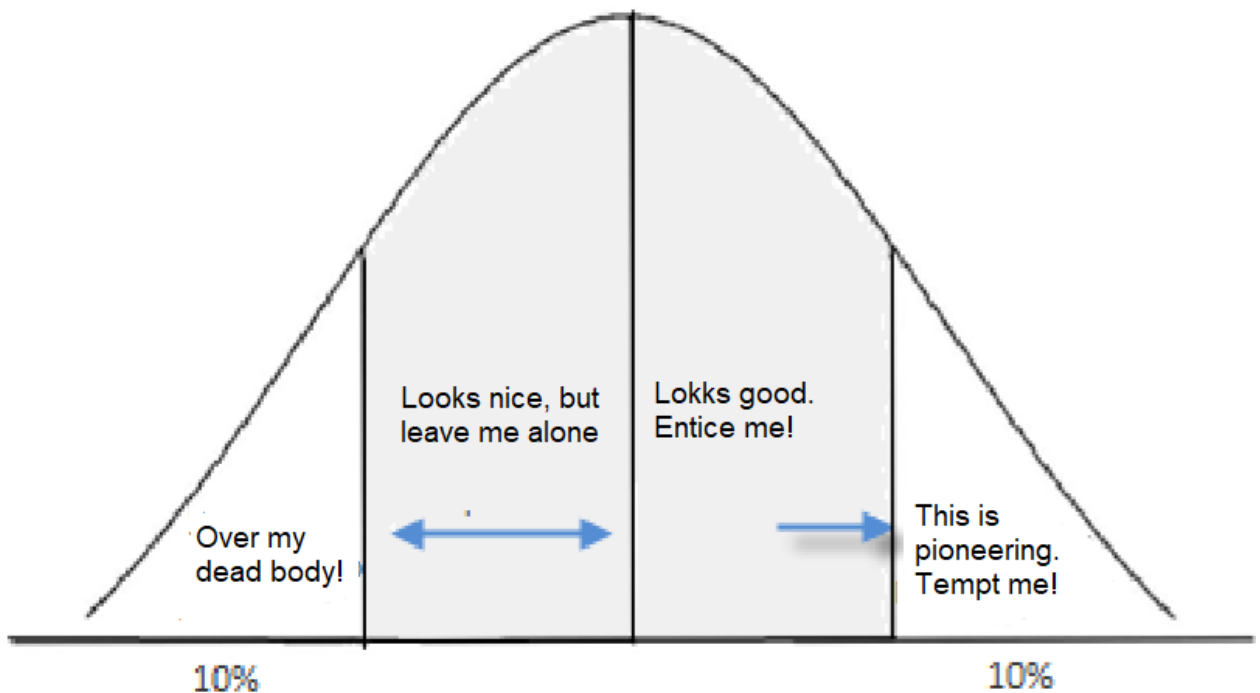


Figure 2 The usual distribution of individuals in their predisposition for change. Source: (Adapted from) Mustakis B. (2012, p. 157).

2.1 Definition of culture

Campbell et al. (2004) reported that Stacey (1996), believed that the organizational equivalent of mentality is a person's personality. These researchers also define the mindset of any group of people as the whole of the beliefs, customs, practices and ways of thinking that they share with each other as they exist and work together. This is a set of hypostudy that people simply accept unquestionably as they interact with each other. At the visible level, the mentality of a group of people takes the form of ritual behavior, symbols, myths, stories, sounds and objects. When considering mentality within a business, it must be understood that the attitude is scaled to three basic levels, which affect multinational management.

The three above-mentioned levels of attitude appear in a series of influences, according to which the national culture holds the most dominant position, representing the wider mentality of the people within the political limits of the population. Business culture focuses mainly on how values, rules and beliefs affect business operations. As defined by Cullen and Parboteeah (2001), corporate mentality leads people to the right and acceptable ways of doing business in a society. On the other hand, occupational culture and organizational

culture highlight features adopted by specific professional groups, such as lawyers, doctors, physicians or members of the organization, respectively (Sales, 2006). Finally, multinational culture represents the wider mentality of people of different nationalities. The culture is either an asset or a liability in an enterprise. It is not so important that a job has been successfully executed, especially as a concept in local government, but how was executed. It is very important that the impact on how individuals & groups assume the next responsibility and how the experience affects the same individuals. The knowledge gained from this experience will influence the organization's attitude as well as future levels of productivity (Marc & Farbrother, 2003)

2.2 The importance of organizational culture

Organizational culture is important because it can also affect all aspects of organizational activities. The allegory of human personality can help make this understandable. Some people's personalities are motivated, intense and exciting. Others are boring, tiring, abusive and tend to avoid the risk. These personality traits will affect all aspects of the lives of these people (Jantjies, 2008).

The same goes for the "personality" of an organization. Organizational culture can have an impact on:

- the motivation of employees;
- the income of staff;
- the morale of workers and goodwill;
- efficiency and productivity;
- work quality;
- the nature of workers and working relationships;
- attitudes of workers at work;
- innovation and creativity.

It is important that management understands the organizational attitude for the analysis of the strategic position of the organization and the implementation of the strategy (Campbell et al., 2004). According to Thompson (2005), when organizational culture conflicts with some aspect of the organization's direction, performance objectives or organization strategy, it becomes an obstacle. Hence the grounding of organizational attitudes to core values and

ethical principles brings a significant positive effect on the performance of organizations (Sales, 2006, p. 61).

An organizational culture where core values and ethical principles are rooted in the actions and attitudes of the organization's staff:

- Announces the organization's good intentions and validates the integrity of its behavior and activities.
- Directs the employees of the organization to do things right from the start.
- Establishes corporate consciousness and provides benchmarks for measuring the relevance of specific actions, decisions and policies (Jantjies, 2008).

2.3 Change organizational culture

Marc and Farbrother (2003) argue that services and products can be considered the core of businesses, organizations, institutions and local government. However, culture is the driving force. The attitude affects the commitment and enthusiasm of the staff. It also directly affects the outcome and efficiency of an organization, as well as the health and flexibility of the workers. The willingness of the people within the organization to accept changes is a prerequisite for the implementation of the IOP (Laszlo, 1999). According to Struckman and Yammarino (2003, p. 11), factors contributing to organizational change form the following function are the categorization of change activity (Miller & Friesen, 1982; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985), the way the organization can behave in order to prepare for upcoming change (Daniels & Mathers, 1989; Hall et al., 1993), the process through which the organization can make the change by formulating the implementation strategy (Huy, 2001; Leifer et al., 2001), the obstacles to change (in every level of the organization) (Jaffe & Scott, 1998; Piderit, 2000) and the relative dimensions of time in the study of change (Chan, 1998; Arthur & Aiman-Smith, 2001).

This expression suggests that there are four different research flows in the field of organizational change (kind, readiness, process and inertia) in relation to time. In the course of time, these currents should be defined and described both theoretically and methodologically (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996; Orlikowski, 1996; Angle & Van De Ven, 1989). The advantage of this notation is that it gives an insight into the relationships between the different factors that contribute to organizational change. An organization must know what it has to do to begin behaving properly (readiness factors), so that the implementation

of the change (process) is done as smoothly as possible, actively solving the physical force of inertia (the resistance). This notation contains the factor of readiness and links it to other factors that will (or will not) bring change. This, however, is not a new concept (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996; Pettigrew et al., 2001). However, its contribution is worthwhile. It should be noted that Struckman and Yammarino (2003, p. 38) also used the following organizational change function:

$$\text{Organizational change} = f [(type + readiness + process + resistance) / (time)] \quad (1)$$

Figure 3 illustrates the model of the change pyramid. This model depicts the range of changes an organization may wish to adopt. At the bottom of the pyramid are the changes that are easier to carry out in an organization, resulting in a lower level of discomfort from employees. These, lower level changes, are less time-consuming and require less cost to implement. On the contrary, changes made at a higher level in the pyramid require considerable time to be spent and larger investments (Burtonshaw - Gunn, 2008)

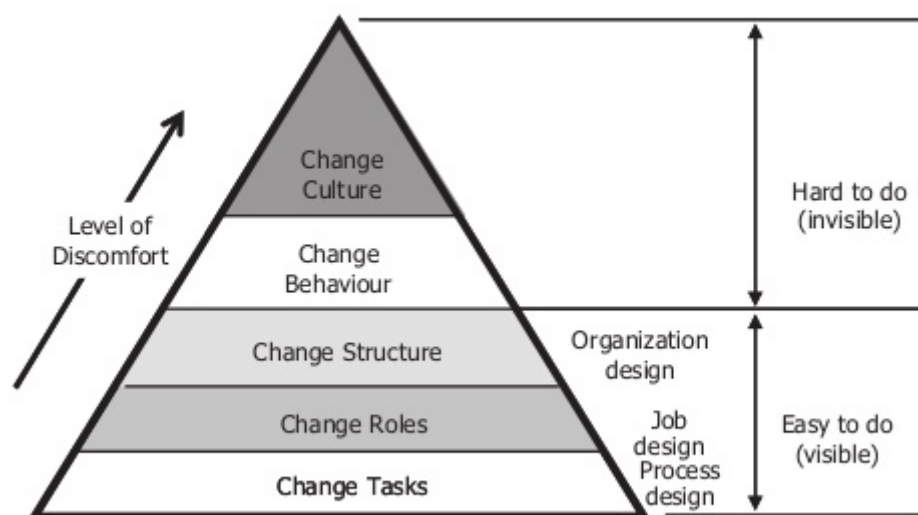


Figure 3 The pyramid of change. Source: (Adapted by) Burtonshaw - Gunn S. (2008, p. 21).

2.4 Types of Organizational Change

In the bibliography, there are plenty of reports about the types of organizational changes depending on the extent, content, source, frequency, process, and reason (preventive or repressive) for which they are made. When changes are made on a limited scale, they are evolutionary and have an impact on particular segments or activities, they are called first class. When carried out on a large scale, they are radical, strategic and affect the entire functioning of the organization called second order changes (Andreoglou, 2011). Barnett and Carroll (1995) distinguish between the process and the content of change. Content refers to what really changes within an organization and focuses on the situation before the change and its consequences. The process refers to the way in which the change occurs and examines the sequence of events over time as the change evolves into an organization.

What is common in most approaches is the extent of change, which is one of the most important parameters of categorizing organizational change. In addition, predominant concepts of evolutionary and transformational change. Organizational change, irrespective of its nature, has consequences:

- on the structure and organization of the organization,
- on the technological factor,
- on the natural environment, and
- on the human factor

which are the structural components of each organism, determining its effectiveness. These factors, however, are not independent of each other. Changing a factor brings changes to others, which should be taken into account when designing a change program (Andreoglu 2011).

2.4.1 Lewin

One of the methods supported by this theory is the use of "Field Theory" (sometimes called "Field Force Theory"). This comes from Kurt Lewin's ideas combining mechanistic and psychosocial perspectives. In its simple form, commonly adopted by those who apply change, it may include examining the factors for and against a particular change, their ranking and weights. Such an approach may be worthwhile, for example, in deciding whether an organization will continue to use existing technology or to purchase new

equipment (Tomkinson B., 2004). Lewin (1947) argued that a successful change must involve three distinct stages:

- i. the unfreezing of the establishment, referring to motivating individuals to accept the possibilities of the change program;
- ii. the moving state, where it refers to people trying to experiment with new behaviors,
- iii. re-freezing, which refers to stabilizing someone's behavior to the point that no further change is needed.

This process is based on the notion that old behavior must be rejected (unfreezing) before the transition to the new, and that new behavior must be accepted as a rule. Otherwise there will be a setback to old standards. However, in organizational terminology, this regression will usually be difficult to achieve. Defrosting requires analysis and addressing the reasons for change and a development process to spread the need for change. Removal requires the identification of alternative modes of action, their assessment and the choice of the appropriate route. Re-freezing seeks to restore a balance situation and can be supported either through institutional rewards and their benefits through either an educational process or a combination of all of them. However, change is usually much more complicated than the process described above (Tomkinson B., 2004, p. 65). Finally, it is argued that, like other Lewin aspects of theory, this model of the three stages of change is considered obsolete since the 1980s (Dawson, 1994; Hatch, 1997; Kanter et al., 1992). Additionally, the final stage of this model can not, in practice, be applied to a quality oriented organization, as the environment is dynamic and not static.

Almaraz (1994) completes with reference to the entire model of the three stages of Lewin (and not only his third stage) that the modern era where organizations are complex and the application of the IOP enforces fast pace can not be implemented since it considers that changes occur in stable & slow moving environments

2.4.2 Lupton

A less simplistic view was put forward by Tom Lupton (1971), who puts forward change as a set of measures to be taken by the management of an organization. These are:

- Establishing systematic and detailed alternatives for organizations.

- Sharing the present state of an organization as a social system, including the external relations that govern it.
- Recording and ranking of the groups affected by each alternative.
- Consider the issues that could arise from each group from the adoption of each alternative.
- Evaluate potential reactions for each issue and examine their acceptance.
- Economic feasibility study against social acceptance and adoption of the solution that offers the easily adaptable and less costly balance.
- Considering the problems arising from the previous study and research whether existing means of dealing with complaints are sufficient to cope with the situation. If not, steps must be taken to create such a mechanism.

This approach expands the way in which change is being considered, but it is still based on the general idea of ranking the options. The approach of this model can be applied again in some simple cases. However, a more general model is necessary if we want to address the diversity of change (Tomkinson B., 2004)

2.4.3 Handy

According to Charles Handy (1993), in order to make an organizational change, the leader must:

- Consciously create the need for change.
- Select the appropriate person or startup team for the change process.
- Prepare for the addressees of the change to adapt the final strategy.
- Accept the fact that "the successful doctor does not relish himself, but the patients themselves are bragging about their well-being."
- Be prepared to accept a less optimal strategy since it is better to achieve something (even if this is not optimal) than not achieve anything.

According to Tomkinson B. (2009), Handy looks at change from the perspective of the administration. However, although sometimes the change has to start from the foundation of an organization, the above scheme still applies in such cases.

2.4.4 Holt et al.

Holt et al. (2007), indicated that for organizational change to be successful its implementation must take place in three stages:

- i. Readiness occurs when the structure of the environment and the attitudes of the members of the organization are such that employees are receptive to an imminent change.
- ii. Adoption occurs when the members of the organization temporarily change their attitudes and behaviors and comply with the expectations of change.
- iii. Institutionalization occurs when change is incorporated into employee behavior.

2.4.5 Kotter

Kotter's "eight step change model" (1995) is a widespread model and is mainly based on organizational changes in the business sector. These eight steps are:

1. Create a sense of urgency about the needs that will bring change.
2. Create a strong, high-level coalition that will guide and lead the changes. A team with enough strength and influence in the organization to lead the promotion of change effort.
3. Creating a vision for the future of the organization.
4. Communicating vision across the organization.
5. Empower the employees to act.
6. Make short-term successes. Schedule visible performance improvements (or hits). Make these successes. Recognizing and rewarding the people who contributed to these successes.
7. Consolidate improvements and produce more changes.
8. Institutionalization of new approaches. Clearly identify the correlations between new behaviors and organizational successes. Creating better performance through customer-oriented behavior and production, more efficient management and better leadership that will consolidate changes in organizational culture.

A key point in Kotter's analysis of the approach to change is that it treats organizational transformation as a long-term process and not as a simple and short-term event. Furthermore, Kotter believes that change is a process that is gradually transformed by itself while the bypass of a certain stage will not accelerate the transformation process. On the contrary, while this bypass may indicate the illusion of speed, the process may be slowed or even derailed altogether (Smith, 2011).

Cameron and Green (2004) propose a variation in Kotter's model of organizational change, illustrating the process of change as a continuous (cyclical) process and not as a linear process emphasizing management throughout the change

2.4.6 Burnes

A more developed theory of change is the model of the nine elements developed by Bernard Burnes (1992):

1. Creating a vision

There must be some goal or vision to make a change. The first stage of change, then, is to build this vision. According to this process, Burnes proposes four aspects: mission, valued outcomes, valuable treaties and valued conditions and mid point goals.

2. Create strategies

Having formed a vision for the future, the organization needs to consider how this vision will be realized. This is done through a series of strategies. These strategies will mainly address intermediate objectives and can be shaped by reference to specific areas such as funding, human resources and information systems or specific geographical areas. These strategies change over time and accumulate experiences even when the vision remains stable.

3. Conditions generation for change success

Readiness for change is necessary to create the right conditions for it. Employees must be informed of the pressures for change, the organization's processes must be adapted with regular updates by the employees, the success of change must be made public. Furthermore, resistance to change must be addressed, by understanding the concerns and fears of those

opposed to it, the encouragement for more communication and the engagement of the affected employees to the change process.

4. Creating the right mindset

A change that contradicts the organization's attitude is doomed to fail, but the change in mentality is even more difficult many times. It is desirable that the organization's attitude should enhance flexibility and encourage reflection, and it should be built on strong bases from the beginning

5. Assessment of the need and type of change

The suitability of the treatment is also considered very important for the process of change. Suitability not only to the specific change that needs to be made, but also to whether the entire organization must be submitted to a change process or only individual departments. Burnes (1992) proposes an approach to four evaluation phases, trigger, remit, evaluation and assessment.

6. Design and implementation of change

Having passed the evaluation process, the management must commit to change and prepare a detailed plan. This should be based on the work of the evaluation team and can also be implemented by a different but equally interdisciplinary group. This group, or subgroups for a major project, should undertake a range of activities: Designing activities, planning commitment, creating new management structures, educating and reviewing.

7. All must participate

Maintaining the commitment, particularly in the long run, requires the continued involvement of all parties. Burnes proposes three aspects for this: Information, Communication and real participation.

8. Maintaining the dynamics

In long-term plans particularly, a failure to maintain the dynamics of change can lead to a relapse on the part of the participants and, potentially, to an excessive delay.

9. Commitment to continuous improvement

The real success of change is achieved through a continuous process of change and not by an isolated time, for all activities. The prospect of continuous improvement must be

integrated into the vision from the outset, as well as the culture of continuous improvement of quality.

The Burnes method is more applicable on a small scale (Tomkinson B., 2004).

2.4.7 Beckhard and Harris

Beckhard and Harris (1987) developed the type of change from an original work by Gelicher. The type of change is a concise way of understanding the process of change and identifying the factors that must exist for it to happen. (Cameron & Green, 2004, p. 92):

According to Beckhard and Harris (1987), dissatisfaction of the incumbent, the feasibility of the proposed change and the practicality of the change and the minimal risk for disruption should overcome the cost of change. factors A, B and D should overcome the change 'cost' (X). Resistance is normal and expected to change. Resistance to change may come in any form, and managers must define the type to work with it, reduce it, and ensure the commitment of the resisting part (Cameron & Green 2004).

2.4.8 Carnall

Colin Carnal (1990) has created a useful model of change management by concentrating on various perspectives. He argues that effective management of change depends on the level of management skills in the following areas:

- efficient transition management;
- organizational attitudes;
- organizational policy management.

A senior manager, who is specialized in managing change transition, is able to help people as they experience a change state, learn and create an atmosphere of transparency and risk-taking. The senior manager dealing with organizational attitudes looks at today's organizational attitude and begins to develop what Carnall calls "a more adaptable culture." This means, for example, developing a better flow of information, more transparency and greater local autonomy. The senior executive, who is able to manage organizational policies, can understand and recognize different functions and different strategies. It develops skills by utilizing and recognizing various policy tactics, such as alliances, the use of external

experts and the control of the agenda. Carnall points out that "only by composing transition management, organizational attitudes and constructively handling organizational policies can create an environment in which creativity, risk-taking, learning and rebuilding self-esteem can be achieved performance '.

Cameron & Green (2004) claim that the Carnall model focuses on the role of the manager during a change process rather than the process of change itself. However, it provides a useful checklist so that management is done with care and has great similarities to William Bridge's start, transition and ending ideas (1991).

2.4.9 Action – Research Model

In this model an important role is played by research, namely data collected about change, and then the actions taken by the stakeholders. Kemmis and McTaggart (2000) describe this model as a model of participatory research. These researchers argue that action research includes a reflex cycle spiral as follows:

- Design of change.
- Action & observation of the process and consequences of change.
- Reflection on procedures and consequences and then redesign.
- Action and observation.
- Reflection and so on.

2.5 Resistance to change

Resistance is a social and psychological phenomenon of individuals. Man is a creature of habit, and every change brings people to the unknown (James, 1998). A significant amount of time is required for the process of change and for it to take place and during this period, resistance and propulsion forces collide. The exact required time depends on the difference of the end state of the organization after change to the current one. The greater the difference, the longer the process. Therefore, change is a dynamic process that needs to be adapted constantly according to the requirements and needs, where, in order to be completed, resistance forces must be reduced and the propulsion forces prevail.

The reasons for people to resist change are as follows:

1. Fear. The unknown creates fear and if it is neutralized, an important factor has been eliminated. Fear may be countered usually by proper and regular communication (James, 1998).
2. Personal interest, due to the fact that there will be some employees with the notion that change will have adverse consequences on them (James, 1998; Kotter et al., 1986). For this reason, they will resist it. To address this, assurances and clarification of their future position in the organization should be provided.
3. Lack of trust combined (Kotter et al., 1986).
4. Habit. (James, 1998).
5. Different views or considerations of the benefits of change (Rosenfeld & Wilson, 1999).
6. Lack of flexibility (Drucker, 1981)

Some researchers on the other hand believe that people do not resist the change itself but rather react to the way and means the change is imposed (Fuegen & Brehm, 2004; Knowles & Linn, 2004). In this sense, one may say that any objection to change by the staff is not necessarily an obstacle to dysfunction or obligations for successful change. They are used, rather, as sources of information on the implementation of change (Ford et al., 2008).

In addition, researchers with sociological views claim that those who want to bring about change are reacting by waiting for reaction, and their expectations predispose them to seek reaction and to consider the actions of others in such a way as to confirm their aspirations. (Dent & Goldberg, 1999a; Ford et al., 2002; Ford et al., 2008) and can easily lose potentially valid interesting views about a proposed change (Choi & Ruona, 2011).

2.6 Conclusions

In general change can be characterized as a multifaceted process with a lot of different aspects that may uniquely define the requirements for its implementation to an organization. Viewing the related change theories, it becomes clear that a common denominator is the commitment of the employees to the process of change by the management, whichever way it may employ to achieve such a feat. The Leader – manager, must be able to first address the employee's reaction and resistance (possible) to change and employ strategies to counteract it. This is crucial in order to achieve the maximal possible involvement of his/hers

employees to the change process and ensure its implementation success. As such, the leadership style of the management and its subsequent characteristics are important to the implementation, monitoring and control of the change process for it to have a high possibility for success. In the following chapter, the various leadership styles are presented in brief in order to provide an insight of their main characteristics, with respect to change.

3. Leadership styles and change

3.1 Definition of Leadership

Leadership role is paramount for the proper functioning of an organization. Leadership is generally defined as a process that significantly influences “*the actions of employees, the choice of goals for the team or organization, and the dynamic interaction between superiors and employees*” (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). It is also defined as simply what a leader does (Fleishman, 1973) as a form of influence (Hersey, 1984) and as the manager’s ability to guide workers to common goals (Bryman, 1992). Leadership is a basic structure of human resources sciences and a large number of empirical studies have been conducted regarding it over the past decades.

Through the numerous investigations conducted for leadership, many theories and definitions have been formulated and many different forms of leadership have been described, depending on the time and geographical context in question.

Lewin, Lippit & White (1939) marked an important step in identifying and describing different leadership styles. Although later studies have shown more specific forms of leadership, these first studies have had a great influence on the scientific world, as they have highlighted three main forms of leadership:

1. **Authoritarian leadership:** An authoritarian leader is likely to have clear expectations about what, when and how something must be done. There is also a clear separation between the leader and the staff. Autocratic leaders make independent decisions, with little or no contribution from others in the staff. This style is best applied in situations where there is not enough time for decision making by the team or when the leader is the most experienced member of the

team. Abuse of this style is usually perceived as control and has been likened to dictatorship.

2. **Participatory leadership** (democratic): In the context of the Lewin & Lippit study (1938), the democratic leadership style has been found to be the most effective. Leaders of this type tend to offer guidance to their staff, and joining the work team themselves, allowing others to enter it also. Participatory leaders encourage team members to participate but retain the final say in the decision-making process. Team members feel they are involved in the process and have more motivation to be creative. In the study by Lewin et al. (1939) the members of this group displayed less productivity than a team displaying an authoritarian leadership, but their contribution to the decision-making process was much more crucial, with the result that they felt more satisfied with their work.
3. **Representative leadership** (Laissez-faire): This kind of leadership is considered to be the least productive. Members of this group are likely to have more demands from their leader, have limited co-operation with them, and not be able to cooperate effectively with each other. Such leaders offer little or no guidance to team members and leave decision-making to the existing ones. While this style can be effective in cases where group members are highly competent in a field, it often leads to misallocation of roles and lack of incentives for productivity.

Path-Goal Theory, House (1971) developed a binary concept of leadership. The theory describes how the leader affects the motives and the satisfaction of his or her subjects from their work. In the original theory, two main forms of the leader's behavior are described: self-directed behavior and behavior aimed primarily at meeting the needs of the existing. House & Mitchell (1974) defined the styles of leadership in more specific terms:

1. **Guiding Leadership:** This type of behavior has as a primary concern the provision of psychological stability to the employees and allows them to know what is expected of them, through proper planning, coordination of individual tasks, the provision of specific instructions and the existence of clear rules, procedures and policies.
2. **Supportive Leadership Behavior:** In this case, the leader has the primary purpose of meeting the needs and requirements of the employees. This type of

leader can become a self-confidence source for their staff, while also becoming a focal point for social satisfaction, stress reduction and frustration relief.

3. **Participatory Leadership Behavior:** This type of behavior aims to encourage employees, influence decision-making and the overall functioning of the group, by providing advice to employees and taking into account their views and suggestions.
4. **Goal-Oriented Leadership:** This type of behavior encourages maximum performance, setting high goals but also making sure that employees will achieve high levels of performance.

Based on the definition of a leader's charisma by Webber, Bass (1985) proposed the distinction between Transformational and Progressive Leadership. In particular, the Transformational Leader urges his employees to deliver on a higher level, inspiring them by offering spiritual challenges but also attending to their individual needs, therefore leading them to overcome their own interests and rather aim at a higher collective purpose, mission or vision. The Progressive Leader, is involved in a negotiation process, offering employees rewards in exchange for meeting goals and completing pre-agreed tasks. Progressive Leadership focuses on goals and rewards, feats considered to be very effective, while transformational leadership aims to promote a sense of employee pride, which has been shown to improve levels of productivity, satisfaction and efficiency (Bass, 1985).

Hersey & Blanchard (1969) introduced the Theory of Occasional Leadership. The theory implies that a successful leader should be able to alternate the different leadership styles based on the current situation. As such, he/her should be able to place more or less emphasis on the work and more or less emphasis on relationships with his team members, depending on what is deemed necessary for a successful end result.

Hersey & Blanchard (1969), proposed four leadership styles:

1. **Telling:** The leader indicates to his or her subjects what to do and how to do it.
2. **Selling:** The leader provides information and guidelines, but there is more communication with employees. The leader "sells" his message to recruit the workers.
3. **Participating:** The leader is more focused on the end less on the direction, working with the team and sharing the responsibility for making decisions.

4. **Delegative:** The leader transfers most of the responsibility to the group. He/she continues to monitor employee progress and achieve the goals, but is less involved in the decision-making process.

Holiday & Combs (1993), described leadership as being capable of effective communication, based on the fact that leadership is established through communication in such a way that it contains a relational (emotional) and an occupational (content) component, distinguished from the content of the leader's messages and the way these messages are transmitted.

Goleman, Boyatzis & McGee (2002) distinguished six different leadership styles, based on the leader's emotional intelligence:

1. Compulsory, describing a leader capable of dealing with emergency situations and disasters.
2. Dominating, which refers to a leader capable of achieving a recovery.
3. Collaborative, which describes a leader able to build harmonious relationships within the group and to provide moral values to his / her employees.
4. Democratic, which refers to a leader who allows his or her subjects to take part in the decisions.
5. Goal setting, which refers to a leader able to set specific goals and to set an example for their achievement.
6. Guiding, which describes a leader supporting to others, who contributes to their personal development.

Flamholtz & Randle (2007) developed a Leadership Style Matrix based on the type of project and the individuals involved in its completion. This pattern is divided into four quadrants. Each quadrant includes two leadership styles that are most appropriate for a particular state and person (or group). The first quadrant includes the Goodwill Authoritarian and the Authoritarian Leadership Style that are considered to be effective in emergencies or in dangerous situations. The second and third quarters include the Consultative and Participatory leadership styles, which refer to leaders who ask for employees opinions and accordingly maintain or change their original decision. The fourth quadrant includes the Representative Leadership Style

Despite the obvious differences between leadership styles, one could identify some common features that make a leader effective. A leader plays different roles within the organization and should inspire trust, accountability and efficiency in order to achieve individual and team goals and promote employee satisfaction. Therefore, it can be argued that leadership is a rather complex dimension of organizational culture that may affect employee behavior, internal organizational relationships and the overall functioning and well-being of the organization

3.3 Measuring Leadership Style

To measure behavior and leadership style, over the years a number of scales and questionnaires have been developed after years of research. A widely known scale has been developed at the University of Ohio and is known as the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), consisting of two dimensions of leadership:

1. The Primary, referring to the extent to which the leader is likely to define and structure his / her role and the role of his / her employees in the effort to achieve goals. It describes the organization of individual work, relationships at the workplace and the individual goals of the organization.
2. Contention, referring to the degree that the leader builds working relationships characterized with their employees (Strogdill, 1963).

Factor analysis showed that the two dimensions of the questionnaire accounted for 83% of the fluctuation in leadership behavior (Halpin & Wiener, 1957). Reddin (1970) argued that Primary Structure and Comprehension are two independent dimensions of leadership behavior. In 1964, Blake & Mouton (1964) published the Leadership Management Network Model, which is based on two dimensions of leadership behaviors:

1. Interest for people, referring to the extent to which a leader chooses the best way to perform a project, takes into account the needs of team members, their interests and the areas of their personal development.
2. Interest in production, referring to the extent to which a leader, when choosing the best way to perform a project, focuses on the specific goals, the efficiency of the organization and high productivity.

These two dimensions of leadership are depicted in a grid (network) showing nine levels of interest for each, from 1, showing a low level of interest, up to 9, showing a high level of interest. Five positions in this grid represent five different patterns of managerial behavior:

1. Weakened / Indifferent Leadership-Low Production-Low Interest for People
2. Country Club Leadership -Low Production-High Interest for People
3. Dictatorial / Declining Leadership- High Production- Low Interest to People
4. Medium Leadership- Medium Production-Medium Interest for people
5. Team Leadership-High Production-High Interest for People.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed by Avolio, Bass & Jung (1995) measuring dimensions of transformational and progressive leadership and a non-leadership scale.

The dimensions of the Transformational Leadership are:

1. Ideal Influence-Performance.
2. Idealized Influence-Behavior, which includes respect and trust towards the leader and the transmission of a strong sense of mission and vision from the leader to the existing (e.g. "I have confidence in my leader's ability to overcome every obstacle").
3. Incentive Motivation, which occurs when a leader effectively shares his vision with his / hers employees and increases their optimism and enthusiasm (e.g. "my leader uses symbols and images to enhance our efforts").
4. Spiritual Stimulation, which is defined as the active encouragement of employees to challenge status quo and beliefs, both their own and others (e.g. "my leader allows us to think about old problems with young people ways ").
5. Interest in the Individual, described as individual attention of the leader to the needs of all employees, making each person feel valuable and treating them in a different but equitable way (e.g. "my leader treats me as a person and not as part of an anonymous group ").

The dimensions of the Progressive Leadership are:

1. Contingent Rewards, a term referring to a process of exchange of rewards between leaders and employees, the effort of whom is rewarded by giving praise for the desired performance and threats or penalties for poor performance (e.g.

"my leader ensures that what I expect to do is equivalent to what I can get from him for my effort").

2. Exceptional Management -Active, which describes leaders who are particularly capable of detecting the errors of employees.
3. Exceptional Management -Passive, which describes a leader who intervenes in his team only when they do not follow the procedures and standards for fulfilling their duties.

The non-Leadership scale is called Laissez-faire and describes leaders who avoid clarifying expectations, confronting conflicts and making decisions.

The latest version of the MLQ (MLQ-5x) was presented in 2004. The questionnaire measures three different leadership styles: 1. Transformative, 2. Progressive 3. Passive. In addition, it measures the results of the leadership: 1. Extra effort, 2. Efficiency, 3. Satisfaction.

Laub (1999) developed the organization leadership assessment (OLA) tool based totally on the concept of a servant leader, proposed by Greenleaf (1970). The leader-servant sets the carrier to others past self-interest and self-advertising. A servant leader is powerful in his paintings by using serving others and building a group of workers characterized by means of team spirit and recognize for range (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 2002). OLA is a questionnaire with sixty elements that measures six attributes of the servant leader: 1. Valuates the cost of man, 2. facilitates in the evolution of man, 3. Builds solidarity, 4. Is real, 5. Is a leader, 6. Is Sharing management. The primary twenty-one elements gift the perceptions of the employees approximately the traits of the chief, the next thirty-three objects situation the directors / supervisors and the top leadership of the business enterprise. The closing six factors relate to the role of employees in the employer (activity pleasure). Responses are given on a Likert-kind scale.

Some other tool to degree leadership is the leadership style Questionnaire, evolved through Northouse (2001). The questionnaire measures the leadership fashion based totally on two elements: character tasks and worker and management relationships. The ratings in those two factors are summed up and description a standard management profile. Responses are given on a 5-factor Likert scale, from 1 = Disagree to five = truly agree. Studies together with that of Anderson, Madlock & Hoffman (2006) confirmed that the reliability of the scale

stages from 0.92 to 0.95, while in Madlock's examine (2008) the credibility of all management styles changed into 0.93, credibility of the venture management fashion became 0.90 and the credibility of the relationship leadership fashion become 0.92.

3.4 Leadership Style and Demographic Features

Among other things, leadership has been studied in the context of the various factors from which it is likely to be affected, such as demographic characteristics. The demographic factor that has been studied more extensively is gender. Several writers have distinguished different leadership styles based on the leader's gender. Sergeant (1981) suggested that men and women leaders and directors tend to adopt the most effective properties of the opposite sex, forming a "androgynous" leadership style. Loden (1985) proposed a "masculine" leadership style, including qualities such as hierarchical power, competitiveness, high control by the leader, and analytical and unsolicited problem solving. Instead, a "feminine" leadership style includes elements such as co-operation, co-operation between leader and employees, low control on the part of the leader, and problem solving based on intuition, empathy and rationality.

Aspiridis & Grigoriou (2012) focused on the position of women in leadership positions and concluded that, although there is a well-established presence of women in the workplace, their total number in leadership positions is much lower than that of men. This observation illuminates the absence of women in positions of strength and power. The review of the literature has shown strong resistance to female leadership, which may be due to a series of conscious and unconscious stereotypes related to gender and leadership. As a result, we observe that there is a general tendency to link leadership with male characteristics.

Instead, many researchers have identified significant differences between men and women in leadership. Kanter (1977) concluded that there was no evidence of significant gender gaps in adequacy or leadership style. Nieva & Gutek (1981) argued that despite the perceptions of gender specialization in different leadership styles, female leaders tend to behave in the same way as their male counterparts. In addition, Bass research (1981) did not result in any pattern of differences in the leadership style of women compared to male leaders, while Bartol & Martin (1986) revealed some differences in the leadership styles of men and women.

As far as age is concerned, the results of the investigations are rather limited. In his study of the leader-servant, Laub (1999) found no significant difference in the rankings of the questionnaires between the different age groups of the participants, while a significant positive correlation was found between age and overall score in the questionnaire, indicating that individuals older people have a higher rating. In the study of Kearney & Gebert (2009), age did not seem to correlate significantly with team performance when transformational leadership was high, and was negatively correlated with team performance when the transformational leadership was low.

Regarding the position held by employees, the study of Laub (1999) found a significant difference in the rankings between top leadership and the categories of administration and the workforce, with senior leaders reporting higher marks. A significant positive correlation was found between the position / role and the overall score in the questionnaire, indicating that the higher a person's position in the organization the higher the score in the questionnaire.

On the educational level, the Dannhauser & Boshoff (2006) study on the relationship between leadership, confidence, group engagement and demographic variables showed statistically significant differences in the group's commitment, as workers with lower educational attainment appeared to be more committed to the group. Generally speaking, however, most of the demographic variables included in the study did not show any influence on the leadership, trust and commitment of the group. In the study of Kearney & Gebert (2009) the influence of the educational level on the performance of the group appeared to be mitigated by the provision of detailed information on the requirements of each individual project, while the influence of the educational level on the perception of the group as a whole seemed to be tempered by adopting the style of transformational leadership.

The study by Kearney & Gebert (2009) has revealed that transformational leadership moderates the impact of demographic factors such as age, ethnicity, and educational level on team performance. In particular, both the nationality and the educational level appeared to be positively correlated with the group performance only in the case where the transformational leadership was low.

In conclusion, we find that from the examination of the relevant literature it appears that the relation between demographic characteristics and leadership has not been adequately researched on factors other than gender. The often contradictory nature of the research findings calls for further research to produce reliable conclusions

3.5 Transformational Leadership

The more extensively studied leadership styles that have been are the progressive and the transformative. Transformational leadership has been studied in relation to various variables. These variables include the influence on organizational culture (Van Tonder, 1998), the role of transformative leadership in motivation (Handford, 1999), its connection to personality (Van Rensburg & Crous , 2000), its connection to control (Van Staden, Scheepers & Rieger, 2000) and its connection to change (File, 2000).

This type of leadership may be defined in terms of the efficiency of the leaders on the workers, that is to say, whether they inspire trust, admiration, faith and respect but also provide incentives for workers to exceed the expectations of them (Avolio, 1999). Bass (1998) also identified four elements of a leader's behavior that are key features of transformational leadership:

1. Idealized influence (charisma): This behavior causes workers to feel the same with the leader as the latter is a powerful role model. In addition, the leader is an example of moral behavior, showing employees what is right.
2. Personalized attention: This behavior involves providing support, encouragement, guidance, supervision and counseling to each employee individually, aiming at personal development and satisfaction.
3. Spiritual Excitement: This behavior characterizes the leader who is aware of each worker's problems and has a positive influence on solving these problems, making workers deal with them in another way. Therefore, workers are encouraged to be creative and innovative and to challenge both their own beliefs and values as well as those of the organization itself, replacing them with more functional ones. They are also encouraged to take initiatives and take the necessary risks.

4. Inspirational Instigation: This behavior involves the development and transmission of a vision by the leader to the workers, using symbols and images, so that the latter engage in a concerted effort to achieve a goal and adopt behaviors that are acceptable and effective.

Based on these behaviors, transformational leaders are able to transform employees into leaders and inspire them to overcome selfishness and personal benefits and focus on the benefit of the whole organization (Greiman, 2009).

Years of research have mapped the disadvantages and advantages of the transformative leadership style. Northouse(2001), stated that the advantages of transformational leadership have emerged by studying the behavior of well-known successful leaders who are able to effectively influence their collaborators at all levels, both individually and at the organization level, and place great emphasis on needs and values of their associates. The weaknesses of transformational leadership, on the other hand, are found in the view that transformational leadership is rather a feature of personality rather than learned behavior, and is likely to lead to misuse of power.

Northouse (2001) described the qualities of a transformational leader:

1. Provides empowerment to employees, and motivates them to do the best for the organization.
2. Presents a strong model both in terms of values and ideals.
3. Hears the opinions of all employees, and strives to develop a mentality and spirit of cooperation and teamwork.
4. Creates a vision based on the abilities and needs of the employees in the organization.
5. Acts as a carrier of change within the organization, setting an example of how to achieve and implement change.
6. Helps the organization by helping others to contribute to its proper functioning.

Lim & Ployhart (2004) highlighted the significant role of transformational leadership, especially in terms of recent developments in the modern economy, like the rapid changes, the higher pressure for innovation and the increasing competition, which create great uncertainty and concern. In addition, Kearney & Gebert (2009) argue that, in view of the social categorization, transformational leadership contributes to ensuring a collective

identity in heterogeneous groups of workers. In addition, effective and successful leadership is a combination of employee commitment to work and engagement in team activities. According to Ciulla (1998), building close relationships, based on workers' feelings, is a characteristic of a capable transformational leader who takes account of and seeks common points in their beliefs and values. Therefore, the integrity of the character of such a leader is linked to successful leadership (Storr, 2004).

3.5.1 Measurement of Transformational Leadership

In addition to the MLQ, which has been extensively described above, various other tools have been developed to measure transformational leadership. In the early 90's, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter developed the Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory. The inventory is composed of six different dimensions of this style of leadership, as identified by previous relevant research on it:

1. Founding a Vision
2. Providing an Appropriate Model of Behavior
3. Enhancing Group Objectives
4. High-Efficiency Expectancy
5. Providing Personalized Support
6. Spiritual Excitement.

Carless, Wearing & Mann (2000) developed a Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTLS), consisting of seven elements (eg, "*my leader encourages us to think about the problems in new ways, questions and making assumptions* "). The scale has a high degree of validity and the answers are given on a 5-point Likert type scale. Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2001) more recently, developed the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ), which was composed of six different factors that provided a measure of different aspects of transformational leadership:

Factor 1. Valuation of individuals: genuine interest in the well-being and individual development of others.

Factor 2. Networking and achievement: inspired communication, networking and success.

Factor 3. Activation: empowerment, potential development.

Factor 4. Energy with integrity: integrity, consistency, sincerity.

Factor 5. Affordability: Facilitating human contact.

Factor 6. Definitiveness: determination, risk taking.

A different tool for measuring transformational leadership was developed by Greiman & Addington (2008), who emphasized the importance of the transformative leadership style as an important predictive indicator of Youth Leadership (Youth Leadership Development Self-Efficacy-YLD-SE). For scale design, Greiman & Addington (2008) have asked educators and public officials from all of the United States of America to identify obstacles to developing leadership skills in the youth. The data was used to formulate suggestions that measure self-efficacy through a procedure proposed by Bandura (2006). The scale consists of ten proposals and answers are given in the form of a 9-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 = nothing to 9 = much (e.g. *"To what extent can you create a timetable to meet all your priorities ; "*). This scale is a new proposal in the field of leadership research.

3.5.2 Demographic Characteristics and Transformational Leadership

As mentioned above, there are many dimensions and concomitant transformational leadership behaviors, which are likely to be affected by various factors. Among other things, the influence of demographic features has been studied in the context of transformational leadership - and leadership in general - with research to lead to contradictory, or even controversial, results.

In terms of gender, there is a general view among researchers that women have superior leadership abilities (Sharpe, 2000). In addition, the leadership style most often seen in the female workers' population is the transformative (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996). However, research such as that of Manning (2002) has not shown any correlation of transformational leadership to gender of bank managers, or leadership style is measured by self-assessment tools or by employee assessment tools. According to Rosenbusch & Townsend (2004), female leaders tend to adopt a more transformative leadership style, while male leaders tend to adopt more elaborate styles. Greiman, Addington, Larson & Olander (2007) found that among teachers who adopt a transformative leadership style, women score significantly

higher grades in personalized support than men. However, in Stedman & Rudd (2005) Jones & Rudd (2008) men reported higher transformational leadership scores than women. In the Hall study (2010) there was again correlation of leadership style to gender. However, by comparing gender leadership, statistically significant differences were found between male and female teachers in personalized support and potential rewards.

Stedman & Rudd (2005) found differences in leadership factors in age. Kearney & Gebert (2009) concluded that transformational leadership affected the correlation of different factors (age, ethnicity and educational level) to the employees performance. They determined a positive relation between nationality and educational level for high transformational leadership only.

Regarding years of service, Greiman et al. (2007) and Hall (2010) did not find any signs of statistical differences for teacher's leadership style with respect to years of experience. Harms and Knobloch (2005) determined that the leadership style of teachers who practiced did not relate to subsequent career choices. On the educational level, Hall (2010) did not find a statistically significant difference between the leadership style and the educational level of those who participated in his research. Greiman et al. (2007) did not find a significant difference in leadership style based on the level of education, although spiritual stimulation differed between teachers with a degree and teachers with postgraduate degrees. In general, demographic features seem to partly influence the choice and implementation of leadership styles, although further research is needed to make more credible conclusions.

3.6 The Importance of Leadership Style

In addition to organizational culture, work phenomena such as professional satisfaction and work commitment have been studied in relation to national culture, which also influences the structure, leadership, function, inner climate and culture developed within an organization (Cheng, 1995; Hofstede 1991). Many intercultural studies have recorded significant differences in the characteristics of each national and, consequently, organizational culture between western and eastern societies and western and eastern-type organizations respectively. In particular, researches such as those of Pye (1985), Chen et al. (2008) and El Kahal (2001) in countries of the East such as China have highlighted the sovereignty of the bureaucratic culture where the owner or director is headed and the organization is characterized by a top-down structure. The opposite has been found in

surveys in Western societies such as the United States of America and Australia (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Hofstede, 1980; Malone, 1997). Organizations located in these countries are the most appreciated workers' performance and value. Decision-making and monitoring are decentralized processes, in which workers are jointly involved. However, empowerment by the administration is likely to boost employee participation, productivity, and consequently job satisfaction and job engagement.

From the point of view of leadership, the characteristics of the transformational leadership, which are common to Western-style cultures, are considered to be of great importance for the mobilization and performance of workers (Walder, 1995). These features include employee empowerment and commitment to a clear vision, elements associated with high professional satisfaction and work commitment (Smith & Peterson, 1988; Iverson & Roy, 1994). Instead, eastern organizations are considered to function in the light of an "initiation" leadership, but they are also associated with high professional satisfaction (Walder, 1995). It can therefore be said that the role of national and organizational culture is crucial to the professional satisfaction and employment commitment of the employees, since the upper ones adopt their most beneficial characteristics in order to build a strong relationship with their partners (Belias & Koustelios, 2014).

3.7 Leadership style and organizational culture

Leadership is present in all societies and is a key factor in the functioning of organizations. However, the specific characteristics of the leaders are very likely to vary from country to country (Den Hartog, House, Hangers et al., 1999). The leadership style of an organization is influenced - and sometimes determined - by both the existing national culture and the specific internal culture that has developed between the organization's employees. Hofstede (1984) has highlighted the importance of the values of culture in the attitude and behavior of the leader, as an effective leader is able to fulfill the expectations of his existing within the framework of this organizational culture.

A number of studies have highlighted differences in the leadership of the various organizations, which are due to the characteristics of each organizational culture. Hofstede (1980) discerned five dimensions of organizational culture related to leadership:

1. The distance of Power, referring to the expectation that power will be unequally distributed.
2. Individualism, the degree to which the team members expect people to direct their action unilaterally and not for the common benefit.
3. Masculinity, which concerns the distribution of gender roles based on an expected stereotypical behavior.
4. Avoidance of Uncertainty, referring to the extent of the tendency to avoid change, ambiguity and uncertainty.
5. Long-term Orientation, defined as the extent to which a group focuses its actions on long-term results rather than on short-term goals.

Several studies that followed confirmed the above five-dimensional distinction. Gerstner and Day (1994), for example, compared leadership patterns in eight countries and highlighted remarkable differences in leadership behavior based on certain dimensions of culture, such as Distance of Power, Avoidance of Uncertainty, and Individualism. Jung, Bass & Sosic (1995) studied the relationship between individualism and the Transformational leadership style and suggested that this style is likely to be enhanced when individualistic behavior is limited as the majority of existing organizational cultures exhibit great respect and obedience to the leaders of the organization.

In addition, Tayeb (1996) examined the success rate and failure of a large number of organizations in different countries and found that the Distance of Power is likely to lead to a high concentration of decision-making in a person as well as a more authoritarian leadership style. As the success of an organization depends to a large extent on the active participation of all members, the hesitation of employees to disagree with the leader leads to inefficiency and lack of professional satisfaction within the particular culture.

It should be noted, however, that although different cultural groups are likely to have different perceptions of leadership style, some features associated with the so-called transformational leadership are usually considered to contribute to the establishment of effective leadership while some other features are perceived as obstacles (Den Hartog et al., 1999).

The complementary relationship between organizational culture and leadership style is represented in the Model of Competitive Values, which is used in studying the leadership

functionality (Trivellas et al., 2012). According to this model, organizations that adopt Adhocracy Culture in conjunction with an Adaptive Leadership style favor entrepreneurship, creativity, providence, new resources, and innovation. As a result, leaders and workers are able to discover new markets and directions for growth. In such work environments, leaders are characterized by flexibility, adaptability and extroversion. As far as workers are concerned, the roles assigned to them are about finding resources and adapting themselves and the organization to change.

In environments where Clan Culture is combined with a People-oriented Leadership Style, work commitment, empowerment, morale, active participation, teamwork, and cohesion are favored. The main concern of the leaders is to establish and maintain a climate of trust, while immediate priority is to resolve conflicts and limit resistance to change. Leaders are a model for workers and always try to promote and reward teamwork.

Organizations that are characterized by a combination of Hierarchical Culture and Stability Leadership style focus on compliance, order maintenance, rigorous control, information management, leadership decision-making, reliability and formalism. Leaders constantly monitor employees to ensure compliance with regulations. In addition, they continuously control the progress of the organization and analyze the effects of its action, maintaining the order and smooth flow of the body's system.

Finally, combining a Market-Oriented Culture and Task-oriented Leadership style involves emphasizing on objects and goals, productivity, job completion and efficiency. The leader is extrovert and control-oriented, motivating workers to take action after he has clarified his expectations and goals.

4. Methodology

Secondary quality research includes the systematic review of research articles, i.e. first published clinical or experimental studies, in order to answer the research question at the beginning of the work. Secondary analysis differs from systematic reviews and meta-analyzes of quality studies that instead aim to compile and evaluate data on a common concern. Secondary analysis may include the use of single or multiple quality elements as well as mixed qualitative and quantitative totals. In addition, the approach may either be

adopted by researchers for the re-use of their data or by independent scholars, using the previously established qualitative data. Secondary elements generally have a well-established degree of power and reliability that do not need to be re-examined by the researcher who will reuse them.

Secondary quality research saves time as data is not collected as in a quantitative survey (e.g. questionnaires). It may be considered essential as it is impossible to carry out a new research that can adequately capture past changes or developments (Heaton, 1998).

The presented study in this study was based on secondary quality research, which included the systematic review of research articles. Systematic search was carried out by searching for information over the internet. The Internet has a rich collection of international and Greek books, journals and information sources that cover issues leadership competencies for change implementation. The search for information via the Internet allowed for the study of studies in the international literature on the role of the leader and his/hers characteristics that would allow the implementation of change to an organization. Systematic search is the basis for each writer to document his views, to report findings and to suggest future steps.

Key steps in secondary qualitative research are:

- the creation of a purely researched research question,
- the creation of keywords and
- the systematic search for primary research or review studies.

Then follows the analysis of the studies and the data, then the synstudy of the findings, followed by the interpretation and the writing of the results.

4.1 Research Questions and scope of the secondary quality research

As mentioned in the introduction of the present study, the present study aims at defining these competencies by reviewing the relevant data presented in the literature and determine the most important ones, based on their level of mention in the literature.

The study research questions are the following:

Research Question 1: Which competencies must a leader present in order to implement organizational change?

Research Question 2: Are there specific leadership styles that are more suited to implement organizational change?

Research Question 3: Which of the required competencies are the most important, based on the literature review?

Research Question 4: Are leadership and organizational change two separated terms, or are they interdependent?

4.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria for references

During the systematic search, no language restrictions were used, but only English articles were retrieved. The focus on the search sought to include review procedures written in English from various countries, such as: USA, UK, Greece, Ireland and Turkey. Initially, the titles of the recovered material were revised and from the initial search a number of articles were rejected because the keywords were part of the title of a magazine rather than a research article. Also, some articles were also omitted because they did not focus entirely on the leader's competences for the implementation of organizational change or used these terms superficially. The collected data has been studied several times in order to be embedded, and summarized critically in the discussion.

5. Discussion

According to Al-Haddad & Kotnour, (2015), the percentage of failed change initiatives is as high as 70%, while less than 30% of change attempts may be deemed successful. This high fail rate may be addressed to a number of reasons. The main feat is to determine the key factors of leadership that would positively affect the change readiness of an organization and present it with the ability to build resilience, in short, to determine the competencies of leadership that would lead to a successful change and transformation. Given the fact that one of their main roles is the creation of an engaging working environment, the significance of leaders during change and with respect to its management cannot be understated.

They must strive and achieve in the instilment of confidence to the employees regarding the future of the organization, while at the same time being the focal point of the model of respect and recognition. Additionally, they must also support and adhere to the constant task of making all aspects of the workplace interesting and exciting, especially with respect to their employees work. It is very important that their followers present a high confidence to both their leader and the future of the organization they are employed to since this will build engagement (Wiley, 2009). In addition, in the event of the requirement of change within the organization, the leader should be able to meet the relevant challenges and equipped to instill trust and confidence to their work staff (Landis, Hill & Harvey 2014). According to Graetz (2000), given the current conditions of rapidly alternating change pace within the modern economical environment, the shift towards extensive employment of knowledge workers as well as the rapidly alternating trends in society, leads to the conclusion that the core task of every modern manager/leader would be to become the figurehead in organizational change (Graetz, 2000).

The relevant literature on change management as well as leadership illuminated a number of key competencies that will allow the success of an organizational change initiative. In the previous chapters, though the review of the leading change management models, it became abundantly clear that the presence and communication of a clear vision for the future and the setting of the relevant goals that would enable it is of paramount importance. Moreover, another competence can be identified as the involvement of the employees in the process of change, while at the same time instilling clearly defined roles to them and detailed responsibilities, that would enable the organization to be engaged to changing the ways of working.

Additionally, it is also often implied that the commitment of the leaders to the vision of change as well as their strong sponsoring of it are significant competencies too. The success of organizational change may also be supported significantly by employing strategies for training and constant capability development, as well as instilling a culture of strong performance so as for the leadership to maintain a high operational efficiency during the change process and the new situations that it might present. In general, organizational change places the requirement to the organization of presenting a high level of adaptability to new ways of working. As such, the leader can and must play a significant role in its implementation (Eisenbach, Watson, Pillai, 1999; Al- Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). There are

two main conclusion from the review of both change and leadership literature: (a) the significance of leadership regarding the success of change (whatever the driving force behind change is) is paramount and (b) in the literature of both aspects (change and leadership), most researchers identified a number of key factors that enable success in change leadership, that are fitting the theory of transformational leadership.

In most of the literature, change is defined as an emotional process more of all. Goleman (2000) presented the theory of emotional intelligence identifying key leadership competencies that are essential during the change process. He highlighted the significance of the ability of the leader to alternate amongst different exceptional methods. Additionally the significance of the leader's attention of becoming the management style to the location of the individuals within the exchange method. This is important as a change in leadership style that is not timed correctly may provide a reason for increasing confusion and therefore resistance to change and may hinder success rather than allow it. Goleman stated that different change stages are may (and usually are) connected to different leadership competencies and the leader must as such alternate between them, in order to present the most fitting to the given situation (Goleman, 2000).

Visionary leader gives change route and opens the views and opportunities of "the brand new". Visionary leader guarantees stakeholders have extensive enough angle and long-time period imaginative and prescient, and are not caught up with to slender minded or quick-sighted view. Visionary leadership fashion performs a sizeable function in creating that means and explaining reason. Imaginative and prescient by myself, but, isn't always enough in implementing exchange, alternate needs to emerge as actual and urban. (Goleman, 2000)

Democratic style secures that the applicable stakeholders are aware and worried and they could actively participate and impact, which in addition builds up the agree with and alternate acceptance. Training fashion may have high quality impact on helping and difficult trade contributors to broaden new abilities, that are required. Training helps as nicely participants to use this new understanding and capabilities when they modify and adapt the brand new approaches of working. (Goleman, 2000)

Affiliative style has a role in each change segment. The leader creates relationships among workers and enables communication between and to the contributors of change. This fashion is right in order to get treasured insights of stakeholder engagement and possible change

resistance. Pacesetting fashion secures that the exchange consequences materialize and that new way of working is demanded but on the identical time rewarded. (Goleman, 2000)

A number of key characteristics have been shown to allow the leader to be successful in the implementation of organizational change.

The first characteristic is the installment of a sense of clear responsibility to the employees by the leader. As such, this does not imply the definition and employment of sets of rules per se, rather a freedom in the way they operate during the change process.

Another characteristic, as mentioned before is the existence of a clear change vision and its constant communication to the workstaff. The leader is required to constantly steering the employees in the right direction in order to achieve the organizational goals. This is a fundamental competence in the success of the implementation of organizational change.

However, the vision of the future and the possibility to predict the future needs of the organization alone are not enough. The leader must be able to go forth with their vision and present the required courage and determination to do so. They must also be adaptable and able to search the future and examine its aspects from different view angle in order to determine both the best route and the possible requirements to achieve it. This exploration allows the leader to prepare contingencies and be prepared for future opportunities, as well as allowing the determination of different future openings for change.

An effective leader during change implementation must be able to provide a continuity of the organization progress, linking current processes and projects to the ones they anticipate after the examination of future opportunities. They should be able to create processes and structures that will be applicable to every situation timewise, whether future present as well as past. Such an arrangement will allow employees to focus of the alternating rhythm of change implementation and to adopt their work and standing on them (Eisenbach et al., 1999). The communication of change must be clear regarding the specifics of any given task, especially regarding the employment of knowledge workers, since these are driven mainly by their sense of purpose and the mission of the organization for the fulfillment of their tasks (Drucker, 1999).

The rapidly and constantly changing environment of modern business requires that an organization be able to rapidly adapt to it. As such, organizations are required to constantly evaluate and tune their processes and structures in an effort to maintain a competitive

advantage. As such, both performance management and rewarding systems represent key elements of leadership that would be effective during change. Leaders are required to be able to present the workforce and the organization with realistic but high goals, as well as to be able to allow for rewards for the correct behavior of the employees that allow the achievements that would facilitate the vision for change (Hughes, 2007, Kotter, 1996 McKnight, 2013).

Al-Haddad and Kotnour (2015) noted that different change management strategies and methods should be aligned by the organization to different change types. In their study, the authors also state that certain leadership requirements may be identified that are required for successful change that are not specific to specific characteristics of the organization, regardless of whether certain managerial methods and tool are banded to these specific characteristics.

In his work, Kanter (2000) also lists a number of essential skills that the change leader must present. In his approach, it is illustrated that a leader must be able to challenge the perceptions of the organization and to show and present their future vision to the employees. They should also be able to involve the employees in terms of proving an ownership feeling regarding the process, while at the same time forming coalitions that provide guiding. Kanter presents the aspect of “*making everyone a hero*” which may be defined as the simultaneous employment of performance management, rewarding processes, tool and engagement strategies (Kanter, 2000). A successful change leader must be able to present a sensitivity to the changes in the environment which allows them to detect the need for change and instill its urgency to the organization by challenging it. Engagement may be achieved via empowerment and involvement. Motivation may also be achieved via rewards and recognition. A successful leader in change should be able to cope with high complexity situations and uncertainty, making the current decisions and driving the organization and their employees forwards in ways that are beyond traditional management (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015).

5. Research

5.1.1 Research Questions 1 and 3 – Leadership competencies that help implement organizational change

From the secondary research conducted in this study, the necessary competencies as stressed out by various published scholar works may be categorized into 8 main categories:

1. Ensuring the need for change. The leader must be able to communicate the need for change, and verify that need both to internal and external stakeholders. This was also reported by other researchers as a required competency (Armenakis, Harris, and Field 1999; Burke 2017; Judson 1991; Kotter 1995; Laurent 2003; Nadler and Nadler 1998) for the implementation of organizational change. AS such the leader should be able to craft a compelling vision of the change to implemented. Some researchers also stressed out the need to communicate the vision (and therefore convince them of the necessity and possible positive outcome) to individuals rather than the organization in whole (Kets de Vries and Balazs 1999). It was also suggested by some that a possibly successful strategy would be to implant dissatisfaction to the present status of operation so as for the leader's followers to embrace the need for change (Nadler and Nadler, 1998). The methods of communicating the vision must be effective and may be oral, written or require active participation of the workforce (Armenakis, Harris, and Field, 1999). The need for constant communication of the vision to others is stressed out in numerous papers on the subject (Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Rossotti 2005; Young 2001). The leader must be able to disseminate information to the employees and convince them of the urgent need for change (Ingham and Wise, 1996; Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Harokopus 2001; Lambright 2001; Rossotti 2005).
2. The next major required competency of the leader is their ability to derive and provide the employees with a sound and verified implantation plan. After convincing them of the need for change, the vision must be translated and mapped to actions, duties and tasks, along with a schedule for their performing that will allow the success of the implementation of change (Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Carnall 2007; Judson 1991; Kotter 1995; Lambright 2001; Nadler and Nadler 1998; Young 2001). In short, a leader must be able to provide a road map, where contingencies for perceived obstacles and difficulties must be included. In this road map, the leader should be able to set clear, specific goals that link the change initiative with the desired outcome (Bishop and Jones 1993; Grizzle and Pettijohn 2002; Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989; Meier and McFarlane 1995). Finally the leader must be able to limit the possibility of changes in implementation strategy by managers within the organization that will hinder the whole effort (Bingham and Wise ,1996, Meyers and Dillon, 1999).
3. The third most important competency must be the leader's ability to build support within the organization and to detect and overcome possible resistance (Coch and French 1948; Lewin 1947, Judson 1991, Kets de Vries and Balazs 1999). In order to do so, the leader must be able to employ a variety of tactics (and most probably alternate between the use of each)

such as threats and compulsion, criticism, persuasion, inducements and rewards, compromises and bargaining, guarantees against personal loss, psychological support, employee participation, and ceremonies. Enabling participation is also a very important competence (Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Young 2001). In order to implement change successfully, most researchers stress the need for the leader to achieve a wider possible participation within the organization (Bunker and Alban 1997; Greiner 1967; Johnson and Leavitt 2001; Nadler and Nadler 1998; Pasmore 1994). The level of involvement would help reduce barriers and allow the psychological phenomenon of “ownership” of the change to be implemented. However, some researchers also warned that increased participation is not a “magic bullet” that will enable change implementation (Shareef 1994, Bruhn, Zajac, and Al-Kazemi, 2001). The leader must be able to take participation in a serious manner and invest increase amounts of effort and time to achieve and maintain it.

4. The fourth main competence of the leader is their ability to convince top management and persuade them to commit to the implemented change themselves. This commitment is crucial to the success of the implementation (Burke 2017; Carnall 2007; Greiner 1967; Johnson and Leavitt 2001; Kotter 1995; Nadler and Nadler 1998; Yukl 2002). As such the leader would act as something of a “champion of change” within the organization gathering support from both above and below levels of management. However, since most of the main decision will be undertaken by the top management, it is crucial that the leader be able to develop and sustain a guiding coalition with them (Carnall 2007 ; Kets de Vries and Balazs 1999; Kotter 1995; Yukl 2002). Many researchers have stressed the importance of top management support and the need of the leader to achieve it for the successful implementation of organizational change ((Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Berman and Wang 2000; Bingham and Wise 1996; Denhardt and Denhardt 1999; Harokopus 2001 ; Hennessey 1998; Kemp, Funk, and Eadie 1993; Lambright 2001; Laurent 2003; Rainey and Rainey 1986; Thompson and Fulla 2001; Young 2001)
5. Another major competency of the leader must be the ability to also build external support to the implemented change. Major external stakeholders have in many cases the ability to affect the workings of an organization and as such, any effort to implement a change in them may be hindered by them should they find it not to their standards, or ways of work (Golembiewski, 1985). Most published works in this area stem from change in public sector organizations, however the relevance is quite clear regarding private sector as well (Berman and Wang 2000 ; de Lancer Julnes and Holzer 2001; Wallin 1997, Abramson and Lawrence 2001; Denhardt and Denhardt 1999; Harokopus 2001; Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989; Rossotti 2005; Wallin 1997).

6. The next major competency of the leader to implement organizational change is to be able to provide the necessary resources required for the tasks and duties that make up the road map to implementation. Several researchers stressed out the fact that change does not come cheap and possibly requires trade-offs. It requires a redeployment and redirection of various resources within the organization for the necessary activities to take place (Burke 2017; Mink et al. 1993; Nadler and Nadler 1998)
7. The leader must also be able to institutionalize change. As such any new policy or operation should be incorporated to the daily routines of the members of the organization, requiring a significant change in behavior. As such the need for institutionalization of the new behaviors is a major required competency of the leader (Edmondson, Bohmer, and Pisano 2001; Greiner 1967; Kotter 1995; Lewin 1947). Although this competency is quite often stressed out by researchers, there is a long standing debate on the time aspect of the institutionalization of the new behaviors. Some argue that the process must be gradual (Armenakis, Harris, and Feild 1999; Cohen and Eimicke 1994; Greiner 1967; Kotter 1995; Rainey and Rainey 1986), while others that it must be rapid and used as a shock to the whole organization (Tushman and Romanelli 1985).
8. The final major competency of the leader required to implement organizational change is their ability to pursue comprehensive change. This refers to the need for the leader to implement systemic changes to parts of the organization, setting a specific timeline. Such a strategy will allow for the required change in behavior (Meyers and Dillon 1999; Mohrman and Lawler 1983; Nadler and Nadler 1998; Tichy 1983). The leader must also be able to place the changes in the correct sequence in order to optimize the process (Amis, Slack, and Hinings ,2004).

5.1.2 Research Question 2 – Most appropriate Leadership style for organizational change

The required competencies of a leader to implement organizational changes, as already depicted in the literature review presented, has been an active field of research and there are numerous published works in the relevant literature.

Nadler and Tushman (1990), described what they termed as the “charismatic” leader, a leader able to bring forth and implement organizational changes without meeting increased resistance to it or problems from their workforce. In their work, they highlighted the competencies of such a type of leader which were categorized in three different components:

1. Envisioning: The “charismatic leader should be able to articulate a compelling vision of the future to his/her followers, setting high expectations and modelling consistent behaviors. The presented vision should be compelling as to provide a drive for the workforce in order to implement it, but also challenging and worthy of pursuit.
2. Energizing: The “charismatic” leader should be able to demonstrate his own excitements regarding the coming change, be confident and radiate this confidence about the change to be implemented and also be able to seek, find and use success to achieve his/her goals. All the above can be summarized as the leader’s ability to motivate, and create and direct positive energy of the workforce and focus it and drive it towards the implemented changes.
3. Enabling: The “charismatic” leader must be able to express personal support, to empathize and to express his/her confidence in people. In short he/she must be able to psychologically help people act as they come to grip with the difficult tasks ahead of organizational change. These tasks require not only drive and will to be performed but also emotional support.

Along with the competencies of the charismatic leader, the authors provide a number of possible limitations of such a leadership type, such as:

- Unrealistic expectations which may backfire if they are not able to live up to them
- Dependency and Counter dependency by the workforce, since some may become depended to the leader and others may be uncomfortable with a sense of strong leadership
- Reluctance to disagree with them, which will not allow a much needed feedback by the workforce
- Need for continuing magic, since they may be trapped in a loop where it is expected from them to keep producing results that may become not feasible
- Feelings of betrayal if the implementation of change fails
- Loss of leadership ability of the next levels of management within the organization

Eisenbach, Watson and Pillai (2000) argue that the values and practices of transformational leadership can be applied to every form of change, but there are only a few specific types of changes that fit perfectly. For example, leadership research has shown that transformational leadership is best suited to situations that are not characterized by routine and repeatability (Bass, 1985). In addition, Pawar and Eastman (2000) believe that organizations are more receptive to transformational leadership when the goal is to adopt specific values or modes of action rather than efficiency.

Transformational, charismatic and visionary leaders have the ability to successfully change the status quo of their organizations by demonstrating appropriate behavior at the

appropriate stage of the change process. When it comes to the realization that the old methods are no longer effective, such leaders can bear the risk of developing an attractive vision for the future. Such a vision requires focus on both strategic and motivational issues. It requires a clear statement of the purpose towards which the organization is oriented but at the same time it must also be a source of inspiration and commitment. According to this view, leaders are pushing for change by creating an attractive vision for workers, rather than stressing dissatisfaction with the organization's existing status quo. However, there is still no widely accepted and established view on whether a crisis or disquiet about the state of affairs is a prerequisite for a "transformational leadership" to act. Leaders may not need to create an inadequate picture of the present, but to cultivate an attractive vision for a possible future (Kouzes and Posner, 1988, Ospina, & Foldy, 2005, Abdelhafiz, et al, 2016, Govier, & Nash, 2009, Tichy, 1983, Harris, 2009).

As described in the relevant literature, the leader, in order to "drag" his or her employees to different chances of change, should build a vision that - in the first place - is in line with the organization's primary needs and values. Then he is able to start implementing the change. The first stage usually consists of an extensive dialogue, in which the leader places challenging goals on employees and encourages them to revise their philosophy to their work so far. Obviously, this effort is not easy, in the vast majority of cases it requires patience and commitment from the leader and his associates (if they exist). That is why, when it comes to large-scale changes, it is widespread to specially educate workers, just to cope with the needs of change. In the process of change, the leader should set high-performance norms and reward behaviors oriented towards fulfilling the vision. It is also important for the leader to model the behaviors needed to proceed appropriately.

However, although most researchers agree on the appropriateness of the Transformational leadership style in organizational change, most also stress out that a leader should and must be able to alternate amongst more leadership styles during the transition phase while implementing change in the organization in order to be able to address obstacles that might occur (Huang, et al, 2015, Bolden, 2004, Fok-Yew, et al, 2013, Khan, et al, 2011, Kasper, 2002).

5.1.3 Research Question 4 – Organizational change and leadership. Independent or connected terms

Mahmood et al. (2012) argue that “*management and leadership are two overlapping terms which confuse many people. Leadership and management are complementary for each other and they go hand in hand*”. On the other hand, there are two different objectives, the first has to do with the offering of various management strategies, tools and methods to implement, monitor and control organizational change. The second is the ensuring that a leader presents the required key skills and competencies in order to both anticipate, as well as to react and lead through change. Both are important.

6. Conclusion

From the discussion above as well as the presented theories, it can be concluded that there is not a single type of leadership style which' characteristics are most suited to organizational change and its seamless implementation, but rather there are necessary traits and resisting traits in all. Therefore it can be concluded that a leader must be able to alternate between these styles during organizational change.

The management of change requires leaders to have a significant range of competencies. First, they must have political capabilities because organizations are also social systems where ideas are being circulated. Analytical capacity is also important. The person in charge must be able to analyze the consequences of change both in terms of working processes and in financial terms. Equally important is the ability to manage human behavior and communication. Part of the work of the person in charge of change is to listen to different views, as each employee sees the change from its own point of view, and then resolves the controversy.

In this way it is possible to accept new ideas and to further their realization. It would be a shame not to mention systemic abilities. They include placing and using resources and procedures to achieve a certain result. The organization is concerned with their correct placement. A system reflects organization and in the same way an organization is a system. Finally, a leader must be distinguished by business skills, because when he knows how the business works and what the responsibilities of each department are, it is best placed to

assess the impact of change on the organization as a whole and on each of its operations separately.

A key question is how a person really deals with change? It could be said that the answer is more a matter of leadership than administrative capabilities. When someone is a manager but not a leader then he makes mistakes in his attempt to manage the change. Such mistakes have been reported to be not directly involved in the work he has undertaken, but to assign it to his subordinates without providing them with the required information and without understanding the impact of this change on them. Insufficient communication and the sending of uncorrelated messages combined with the frequent change of objectives and priorities, lead to the failure of the whole project.

The successful change leader must be able to embrace change and the vision that drives it, in order to avoid errors. In order to do so, leader must give significant importance to five characteristics. The necessity to provide a vision and to guide the organization through it. The implementation of instilling the requirements of the vision to the employees so as to increase efficiency. To communicate and adhere to the necessity of change, so as to provide a receptive attitude. To present the ability to change themselves so as to instill a model of reference to the organization during change. A very big and painful question is: *"What do I have to change in me to help my existing ones change?"*

The fourth characteristic is self-discipline. The leader, in order to successfully instill change attitude to the organization must be able to identify their bad or demeaning habits and methods and change them. Discipline allows the continuation of change after the initial enthusiasm that follows its initial stages wanes. The fifth characteristic is continuous development. Leaders see beyond the current problems and constraints to help their subordinates discover their abilities. It is a key for the leaders themselves to evolve further. This makes them more effective, while assessing their direction so far, in order to stay tuned with the change they are making.

Change a company also involves some challenges. First of all, the current employee does not want to continue to take orders and perform standard tasks. The leader must inspire his own to take initiatives and participate in creating the future of the company. In addition, they should be able to both recognize opportunity but also to select the one that would

promote change. Finally, a leader must instill a commitment to change for the whole organization as well as themselves.

In most cases, the problems resulting from the change are adjustment problems. Many organizations are designed to preserve their basic functions from changes and unrest in the wider environment. In these organizations, all functions belong to one of the following three categories: primary, secondary, and peripheral.

1. In the main functions (administration), coordination is achieved through standardized functions.
2. In secondary (support functions), coordination is accomplished by design.
3. In regional (sales) through mutual regulation.

People in the main functions focus on the question of how. Individuals in the secondary functions focus on the question "what" and the people in the regional functions responsible for performance, focus on the questions "what" and "how". The question "why" comes from people who are not directly related to the day-to-day running of the organization and who make up the administration. The latter is the team that has the power to take the long-term and strategic decision to change. If the reorganization and redesign of the business is deemed necessary, all individuals in all departments should coordinate with the three questions.

Many times, change is not properly routed and many problems arise. Managers responsible for poor management of the change process are unprepared managers, who are undergoing basic mistakes. The first is that they do not mix directly with the process. Changing involves engaging in something new and unknown, and as unknown it also involves a danger that naturally causes fear. That's why managers are moving away. The consequence of this behavior is to send vague messages to their subordinates who are the ones who will actually make change happen. Therefore, it is wrong to communicate the project. But even if the change is properly informed, managers often ignore the impact this will have on employees who may feel that their interests are being spontaneously impacted or even that their position is threatened. One more mistake is that they change the focus of their attention or their priorities very quickly. Change is a difficult and painful process that needs special attention as it affects the whole organism. It takes a lot of time, persistence and understanding, and the hasty moves and decisions not only help but also disorient individuals from the goal.

Finally, the manager's usual mistake is that they do not provide sufficient resources for change to take place, whether due to ignorance or by keeping the budget of change.

The above mistakes have negative effects on the organization's course, and often the organization is brought to a worse position than it was before the change process began. Poor management of change leads to resignations of remarkable executives, workers' reactions, work delays, productivity downs and disruption to customers. It has an impact on all areas of the organization, inside and outside of it.

As such it can be concluded that the main competencies required to be presented by the lead for the implementation of organizational change are:

- Knowledge of exactly what they want to achieve.
- They can convert theory into practice.
- They can face change not only from their own point of view, but also from the point of others.
- They are risk takers.
- They do not adhere to tradition but appreciate the new.
- They can prepare flexible programs and combine goals with the means at their disposal.
- They are not discouraged by failures.
- They use the circumstances that help to implement change.
- They can explain clearly how the change will take place.
- They employ their staff to the whole process of change and are ready to support it if it encounters difficulties.
- They do not introduce multiple changes at the same time.
- They present change as a reasonable decision.
- They share the information they hold about the results.
- They are confident.
- They present high emotional Intelligence.

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