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Five Perspectives on the Leadership–Management Relationship: A Competency-Based Evaluation and Integration

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Abstract

How management and leadership are best conceptualized with respect to each other has been a frequent topic of debate. Five distinct perspectives are identified in the literature, including bipolar, unidimensional, bidimensional, hierarchical—management within leadership, and hierarchical—leadership within management. We assessed the viability of these perspectives by having Academy of Management and Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology experts (N = 43) map a comprehensive set of 63 managerial and leadership competencies, as a "common language," onto defined and undefined management and leadership dimensions. Results reveal interpretable patterns of uniqueness and overlap, suggesting a hybrid co-dimensional/bidimensional configuration. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed in light of the precedence of "what" over "how" in developing leadership and management theory.

Keywords

management, leadership, differences, competencies, debate, integration, leadership versus management

A prominent and recurring question in the study of organizational behavior is how leadership and management are best conceptualized with respect to one another (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Bass, 1985; Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; Dement, 1996; Kotter, 1990, 1995; Mintzberg, 1973, 1971; Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005; Zaleznik, 1977). Many writers have emphasized the uniqueness of leaders, imbuing them with extraordinary characteristics; managers, by comparison, are typically viewed in mundane and stereotypically negative terms (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Yukl, 2002). Beyond such generalities, there is little consensus on the nature of the comparison, and this lack of consensus is of fundamental theoretical and practical importance (e.g., Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005).

The current study sought to clarify how leadership and management are conceptualized in terms of a common language of distinct competencies distilled from more than 50 years of leadership and management research (Tett, Guterman, Bleier & Murphy, 2000). Our specific aims were to (a) assess the viability of five identifiable perspectives on the leadership–management relationship using a content validation strategy involving expert judgments, (b) clarify the distinction and overlap between leadership and management using a common language of relevant competencies, and (c) consider implications for leadership and management theory. First, we discuss why advances in understanding leadership and management processes critically depend on clarity in content.

"What" Before "How"

It is a matter of logic that, before one can talk about how something works, one must first identify the moving parts.[1] Whetten (1989) presents a series of questions relevant to judging theoretical merit. The first question is "what" and the second is "how." This logic of inquiry is reflected in Yukl and Lepsinger's (2005) criticism of leadership and management theory:

> The managing versus leading controversy has continued so long because the roles are defined in a narrow way that makes it difficult to understand how they jointly affect organizational performance and how they can be integrated. It is time to find a better way to conceptualize the roles. If co-equal roles for leading

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> and managing are desired, then each role should be defined more broadly to be consistent with its respective literature. (p. 372)

In questioning the theoretical soundness of current leadership research, Bedeian laments,

> I find it discouraging, despite the enormous attention given to leadership . . . that the lack of an adequate answer to the question 'Who is a leader?' continues to be a barrier to studying leadership. It seems to me it is high time for scholars to cast aside years of faux leadership studies and, perforce, distill what is truly known about leaders and leadership. I can see no alternative if our understanding of either is to advance. (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006, p. 200)

Along related lines, in discussing assumptions regarding the study of leadership, Hunter, Bedell-Avers, and Mumford (2007) state that

> researchers must first be more explicit in their operationalizations and justification for what a leader is and why, precisely, a given sample represents "leaders" . . . Without addressing the operationalization issue directly, we may be drawing false conclusions about leadership and leadership behaviors. (p. 438)

The source of such calls for definitional clarity is a broad diversity of opinion regarding how management and leadership are best conceptualized.

Perspectives on the Leadership–Management Relationship

Five major perspectives have emerged over the past 40 years from prominent sources dealing with the leadership–management comparison. First, leaders and managers have been described as essentially polar opposites in terms of key values, temperament, and developmental processes (Zaleznik, 1977), managers embodying order, stability, and efficiency and leaders marked by flexibility, innovation, and adaptation. Second, leadership and management have been portrayed as two distinct, often complementary, processes jointly influencing organizational strategy (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Gardner, 1986, 1993; Kotter, 1990, 1995; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005). Third, leadership has been described as essentially equivalent to management in form, process, and function (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Barnard, 1938; Drucker, 1954).Two further hierarchical perspectives can be identified, in which management is either subsumed within the broader leadership mantle (e.g., transactional leadership; Bass, 1985) or the other way around (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006). Each perspective bears fleshing out, as follows.

Bipolarity. More than 30 years ago, Zaleznik (1977) asked, "Are managers and leaders different?" He proposed the business world had institutionalized bureaucratic control in the form of the problem-solving manager, who is opposite a leader in several ways. Whereas managerial goals arise from reactions to the past, a leader's goals are future driven. Managerial work is a practical, enabling process requiring continuous coordination; leaders generate excitement at work by heightening expectations through images and meaning. Managers relate to people in functional terms, whereas leaders are more sensitive and empathic. Finally, managers strive to maintain order, whereas leaders struggle to attain personal mastery by achieving social change. At the argument's core, order and stability established by the rational manager are antithetical to the disorder and change entailed by a leader's vision.

We label this perspective as *bipolar* because leadership and management are depicted as essentially two endpoints on a single continuum. Although somewhat extreme (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006), this viewpoint has frequently served as an impetus to the leader–manager debate resulting in multiple popularized lists reinforcing binary distinctions (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1990). The accuracy of this position would entail hiring and training opposite sorts of people to serve as managers versus leaders and limit expectations of promoting from one role to the other.

Unidimensionality (leader = manager). Mintzberg's (1973) examination of managerial work suggested that the manager's daily routine does not conform to the prototypical image of the rational planner. Instead, the manager's role is characterized by reactivity, overload, brevity, variety, and discontinuity. Most planning is informal and intuitive, decision processes are political, and oral interactions are brief. In parallel, recent research on leadership calls for closer attention to the complexities of leadership in the modern world (Avolio, 2007; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). Both research streams suggest that managers and leaders are embedded in organizational systems characterized by numerous, diverse demands. Thus, in the context of dynamic organizational systems, it is difficult to disentangle managers' and leaders' demands and actions.

We label this position as *unidimensional* because leadership and management are portrayed as essentially interchangeable. While not explicitly stating the two domains are equivalent, many seminal works in the history of management and leadership have treated them as an integrated whole (Barnard, 1938; Drucker, 1954; Follett, 1933). This may not preclude the dynamic notion of leadership/management emergence, but it does suggest a degree of homogeneity with respect to what leaders and manager do. That is, whether labeled a manager or a leader, each has the goal of creating a successful business (Nienaber, 2010) and is accountable for motivating individuals and establishing direction. Whether faced with a highly turbulent or relatively unchanging environment, the effective leader/

manager needs to gather information, interpret ambiguity, set goals, acquire resources, make decisions, delegate responsibility, and so forth (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006). In practical terms, this perspective entails uniform procedures for hiring and developing leader/managers.

Bidimensionality. The position most often endorsed—explicitly or implicitly—by leadership scholars (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; Kotter, 1990, 1995; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005) views management and leadership as distinct, often complementary, processes. Yukl (2002; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005) sees them as parts of a larger whole, each being essential to organizational maintenance and growth. Bass and Bass (2008) argue that each role can augment the other, but that not all managers lead, and not all leaders manage. Along similar lines, Kotter (1990) argues management and leadership represent distinct systemic activities that need to be combined to fortify business growth.

We label this perspective *bidimensionality* because leadership and management are portrayed as independent, albeit potentially intersecting, processes. They are often discussed as complementing each other, but the position's definitive feature is that the two domains are uniquely identifiable. Common distinctions are reminiscent of Zaleznik's (1977) observations, but are portrayed as orthogonal rather than polar opposites.

Hierarchical: Management within leadership. At a broad level, task-oriented behaviors, traditionally definitive of management (i.e., commanding, coordinating, controlling, planning, organizing; Fayol, 1916; Kotter, 1990), constitute a major dimension in established leadership theories, beginning with initiating structure in behavioral theory (Fleishman, 1953) and extending in various forms to directive behavior in both situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) and path-goal theory (House, 1971), decision making in participative theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973), functional problem solving in team theory (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2009), developing organizational structure in strategic theory (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000), and transactional dimensions in transformational theory (Bass, 1985). Taken at face value, these conceptualizations place management within the broader leadership domain. This perspective is also recognized in Wortman's (1982) strategic management functions of executive leadership, Uhl-Bien et al.'s (2007) administrative leader in their complexity leadership theory, and in Gardner and Schermerhorn's (1992) concept of operational leadership, all of which capture the commonsense notion that leaders must be able to implement their visions in order to be effective.

Hierarchical: Leadership within management. Historically, management theorizing has included topics such as integrity of character (Drucker, 1954), satisfying member motives (Barnard, 1938), organizing the group's experience (Follett, 1933), and anticipating the future (Fayol, 1916), concepts directly paralleling those of authentic leadership

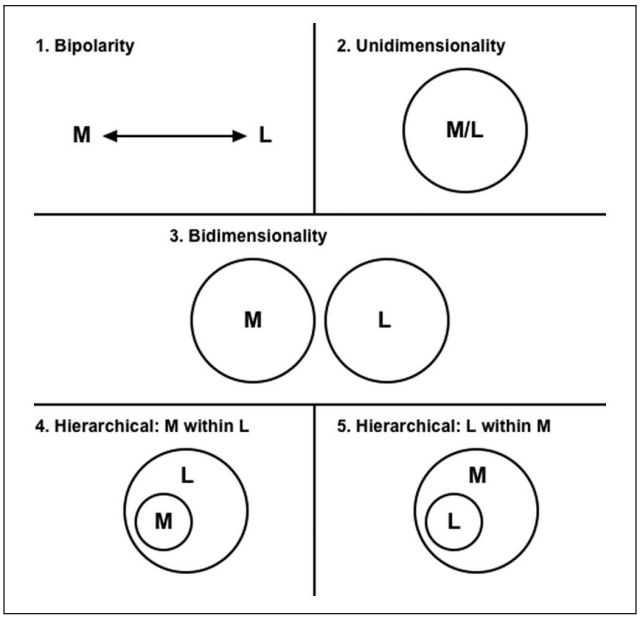

Figure 1. Five perspectives on management (M) and leadership (L)

(Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004), consideration (Fleishman, 1953), sensemaking (Mumford, 2006), and strategic leadership (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996), respectively. More explicitly, Hunt offers the possibility that

> leadership is a subset of the broader concept of management. The extent to which leadership is needed and its precise nature is a function of a person's organizational position; a manager typically is responsible for making sure that both appropriate managerial and leadership activities are completed as necessary (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006, p. 196).

Similar perspectives are offered by Mintzberg (1973), Quinn (1988), and Nienaber (2010), with the "directing" function of management being analogous to the influencing component of leadership (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006).The basis for the leadership-in-management hierarchical arrangement may be that leadership is often considered as primarily involving people, whereas management involves dealing with people as one of multiple possible resources in a broader field of situational demands, constraints, and actions (Stewart, 1982).

The five perspectives are portrayed in Figure 1. Clearly, one's choice of model will influence one's explanation of how leadership and management work. A bipolar perspective necessitates that conditions and processes leading to effective leadership will yield poor management, and vice versa. A unidimensional perspective promotes an even more parsimonious account of leadership/management (and arguably the need for an entirely new

term, e.g., "leaderment"). Bidimensionality implies operation of distinct processes, with special consideration of uniquenesses and possible intersections. If leadership is understood to contain management, then one's managerial process model must be designed to operate within a larger leadership model. The reverse hierarchical arrangement (i.e., leadership is part of management) would, of course, entail a corresponding reversal in process nesting.

In sum, questions of "what" naturally precede questions of "how" and, if progress is to be made in understanding the "how" of leadership and management, we need to be clear about the "what." Should behaviors and proclivities traditionally tied to management be included within a given leadership theory or do they rightfully belong outside the theory? Can one be an effective leader without also being an effective manager or does being effective in one role undermine one's effectiveness in the other? Does hiring and training managers entail assessment of the same underlying competencies as those underlying leadership? Answers to such questions lie at heart of what it means to lead and to manage and lack of clarity in definitional content impedes advances in understanding corresponding processes.

Current Study

Accumulated discourse over the past 30 years suggests at least a few key differences between leadership and management functions. The extent and nature of the differences, however, are far from clear. The primary aim of the current study was to help bridge this critical and long-standing gap in our understanding of leadership and management as a foundation for advancing relevant theory.

Overview. We asked experts in management and leadership to map labels and definitions of the two domains (Northouse, 2003) onto a "common language" of 63 well-articulated competencies (Tett et al., 2000). Mean representativeness ratings identified specific areas of overlap and distinction, thereby clarifying the meaning of management and leadership as understood by those professing relevant expertise. Of particular interest is the degree to which the ratings support a bipolar, unidimensional, bidimensional, or hierarchical perspective.

In addition, to assess whether our findings might be biased by our choice of definitions, we included a label-only condition per domain. Consistency in the ratings from the defined and undefined conditions would support generalizability in the conceptualization of leadership and management. Two specific concerns involving consistency are mean shifts and relative standing. The former addresses the degree to which judges rate the competencies as a set higher or lower on relevance (per leadership and management) as a function of whether or not a definition is provided. The latter deals with consistency across the two definition conditions (per leadership and management) in the rank order of the judged relevance of specific competencies. Differences in mean levels and/or relative standing would underscore the importance of the definitions, calling for more nuanced interpretations.[2]

Method

Participants

Data were gathered in two waves. The initial sample, recruited using 10 Academy of Management list serves devoted to leadership, management, and organizational behavior (e.g., LDRNET-L, CMDNET-L, ENTREP-L), included a total of 152 subject matter experts (SMEs) for a broader study.[3] For the current study, 19 completed ratings for leadership and management. In the second wave, 356 self-described experts in leadership and/or management were identified from the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology membership directory. Names were arranged alphabetically and a randomly selected half (n = 149) were e-mailed a request to participate in exchange for a $20 Amazon.com gift certificate. Thirty-four completed the mapping task, yielding a total of 53. Males made up 55% of the sample; 91% were Caucasian, 6% Asian/Pacific Islander, and others made up less than 3%; and 72% reported having a doctoral degree. Judges per condition numbered as follows: leadership defined (n = 12), management defined (n = 10), leadership undefined (n = 10), and management undefined (n = 11). Reliability analysis (see below) led to removal of 10 judges, leaving 43 on whose ratings our main findings are based.

Materials

The leadership and management definitions, provided in Table 1, were derived from Northouse's (2003) popular leadership text, offering broad coverage of prominent leadership theories and cogent discussion of the management–leadership interface.

We asked judges to give feedback on the scope and relevance of the definitions and no feedback suggested important gaps in coverage. Definitional representativeness was further assessed by comparing results for defined versus undefined labels, representativeness supported to the degree results in the two conditions are similar.

Tett et al.'s (2000) competency model, serving as the common language for comparing leadership and management, is offered in Table 2. This model was selected over other available taxonomies (e.g., Borman & Brush, 1993) for three reasons. First, it was developed as an amalgam of 12 published models representing more than 50 years of research on managerial and leadership behavior, lending some assurance of comprehensiveness. Second, the model's relatively large number of competencies afforded high-resolution comparisons between

Table 1. Four Leadership and Management Conditions

1. Management defined: Providing order and consistency and helping organizations run smoothly; planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing, controlling and problem solving; having a reactive attitude toward problems and goals
2. Management undefined: [An explicit definition is not provided in this version of the task. Please consider how well each competency represents "management" based on your own understanding of this term.]
3. Leadership defined: Producing change and movement by influencing others to attain goals; establishing direction, and aligning, motivating, and inspiring people; taking an active and visionary stance toward problems and goals; seeking risk and showing empathy toward others
4. Leadership undefined: [An explicit definition is not provided in this version of the task. Please consider how well each competency represents "leadership" based on your own understanding of this term.]

Table 2. Taxonomy of 63 Leadership and Management Competencies, from Tett et al. (2000)

Traditional functions
1. Problem awareness
2. Decision making
3. Directing
4. Decision delegation
5. Short-term planning
6. Strategic planning
7. Coordinating
8. Goal setting
9. Monitoring
10. Motivating extrinsically
11. Motivating intrinsically
12. Team building
13. Productivity

Task orientation
14. Initiative
15. Task focus
16. Urgency
17. Decisiveness
18. Multitasking[a]

Person orientation
19. Compassion
20. Cooperation
21. Sociability
22. Politeness
23. Political astuteness
24. Assertiveness
25. Seeking input
26. Customer focus
27. People reading[a]

Dependability
28. Orderliness
29. Rule orientation
30. Personal responsibility
31. Trustworthiness
32. Timeliness
33. Professionalism
34. Loyalty

Open mindedness
35. Tolerance of ideas
36. Tolerance of ambiguity[a]
37. Adaptability
38. Creative thinking
39. Cultural appreciation
40. Technological orientation[a]

Emotional Control
41. Composure[a]
42. Resilience
43. Stress management

Communication
44. Listening skills
45. Oral communication
46. Public presentation
47. Written communication

Developing self and others
48. Developmental goal setting
49. Performance assessment
50. Developmental feedback
51. Job enrichment
52. Self-development

Information management
53. Information seeking[a]
54. Information integration[a]
55. Information sharing[a]

Job knowledge
56. Position knowledge
57. Organization knowledge
58. Industry knowledge[a]

Occupational concerns
59. Quantity concern
60. Quality concern
61. Financial concern
62. Safety concern
63. Company concern[a]

a. New competency added since Tett et al. (2000).

the two targeted domains. For example, short-term planning and strategic planning, often combined under the general dimension of Planning and Organizing, are separated in Tett et al.'s model, permitting (but not dictating) meaningful separation of leadership and management. Third, evidence is offered in support of each competency's conceptual integrity as a distinct construct. Specifically, a series of three sorting tasks engaged by Academy of Management members led to three behavioral elements being reliably categorized into only the targeted competency with an overall hit rate of 88.5%, in support of content validity.[4]

It might be noted that Tett et al.'s (2000) taxonomy targets "managerial competence," raising the question of how well leadership is represented in the competency set. Several points bear consideration in this regard. First, one of the 12 source taxonomies was explicitly offered by the original authors as a leadership model (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984). Second, several source models, despite being labeled in managerial terms (e.g., "executive roles"), include dimensions often identified with leadership (e.g., Morse & Wagner, 1978, providing for growth and development, motivating and conflict handling, strategic problem solving; Borman & Brush, 1993, selling and influencing). Third, Tett et al. offer a detailed alignment between their derived competencies and a variety of extant leadership constructs (e.g., initiating structure, consideration; transactional, transformational, autocratic, and participative leadership; see their table 6). Thus, despite labeling their competencies as "managerial," Tett et al. clearly suggest their applicability to leadership. The critical point is that Tett et al.'s model offers a well-articulated set of dimensions offering a common language with which to identify and compare leadership and management as construct domains.

Procedure

To limit fatigue and same-source bias, each SME was randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. The dimension label and definition, if provided, were placed at the top

of the rating form (a customized Excel sheet), and the randomly ordered 63 competency labels and definitions were listed down the left side. The SME was instructed to rate how well each of the 63 competencies represents leadership or management (label only or label plus definition) using a −3 (*highly opposite*) to +3 (*highly representative*) scale (0 = *neutral*).

Analyses

Interrater reliability was assessed using alpha, each rater serving as an "item" and each competency, as a "subject" (i.e., with $N = 63$ per condition)[5]. Initial alphas for the four management and leadership conditions ranged from .54 to .79, with a mean of .70. Data from SMEs with weak or negative corrected item-total correlations, indicating low consistency with the average of the remaining judges, were dropped, thereby increasing alpha. Undefined management, perhaps not surprisingly, yielded the weakest alpha after dropping the least reliable SMEs (maximum $\alpha = .66$ for 11 SMEs). Final alphas for the three remaining conditions ranged from .78 to .81, with a mean for all four of .76. Ratings for surviving SMEs were averaged to yield a single column of 63 competency representativeness values for each of the four conditions.

To assess possible mean shifts in ratings due to definitional conditions (i.e., defined vs. undefined), we ran a 2 × 2 repeated measures (leadership–management by defined–undefined as within-groups factors) analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the mean competency ratings averaged across judges (i.e., $N = 63$). Significant main and/or interaction effects would support mean shifts, suggesting lack of similarity in judgments across conditions, especially important in the defined–undefined comparison. Consistency in relative standing was assessed by correlating mean relevance ratings (i.e., averaging across judges) of the 63 competencies from the two definitional conditions (i.e., $N = 63$) per management and leadership.

Closer to the heart of our main research questions, we conducted a separate 2 × 2 ANOVA (leadership vs. management by defined vs. undefined, as between-groups factors) per competency (N range = 10-12 judges) to detect which, if any, competencies significantly differed in judged relevance to leadership versus management.[6] Significant interaction effects would suggest that the leadership–management difference depends on whether the constructs are defined versus undefined. Significant main effects for the leadership–management comparison would offer support for bipolarity (e.g., high leadership, low management) and/or bidimensionality (e.g., high leadership and neutral management), collapsing across definitional conditions. Bivariate plots of the competencies' leadership and management mean ratings allowed assessment of all five targeted perspectives, as follows.

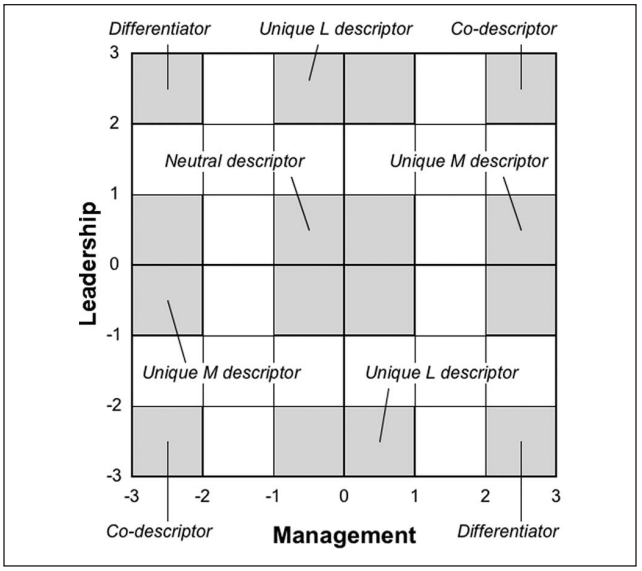

Figure 2. Leadership (L) and management (M) descriptor types

Interpretive Guidelines

Figure 2 shows the two-dimensional (i.e., leadership by management) space within which SMEs' mean representativeness ratings for the 63 competencies can fall (per definitional condition). Four main types of competency descriptors can be identified within that space. First, *differentiators* are competencies describing the extreme end of one dimension and falling at the opposite extreme end of the other (>2 and <-2). Second, *unique descriptors* are competencies describing the extreme end of one dimension (>2 or <−2) and falling at round 0 (within ±1) on the other. Third, *co-descriptors* are competencies describing the same extreme end of both dimensions, either high–high (>2) or low–low (<−2). Finally, a *neutral descriptor* is a competency falling near 0 (i.e., within ±1) on both dimensions.[7]

Bipolarity would be supported to the degree the competencies are differentiators. Unidimensionality would be supported to the degree the competencies are co-descriptors. Bidimensionality would be supported to the degree the competencies are unique descriptors, splitting evenly between the two dimensions. Management-within-leadership would be supported to the degree the competencies are unique descriptors only for leadership, with the possibility of additional co-descriptors. Finally, leadership-within-management would be supported to the degree the competencies are unique descriptors only for management, again, with the possibility of additional co-descriptors. These ideal competency configurations are presented in Figure 3.

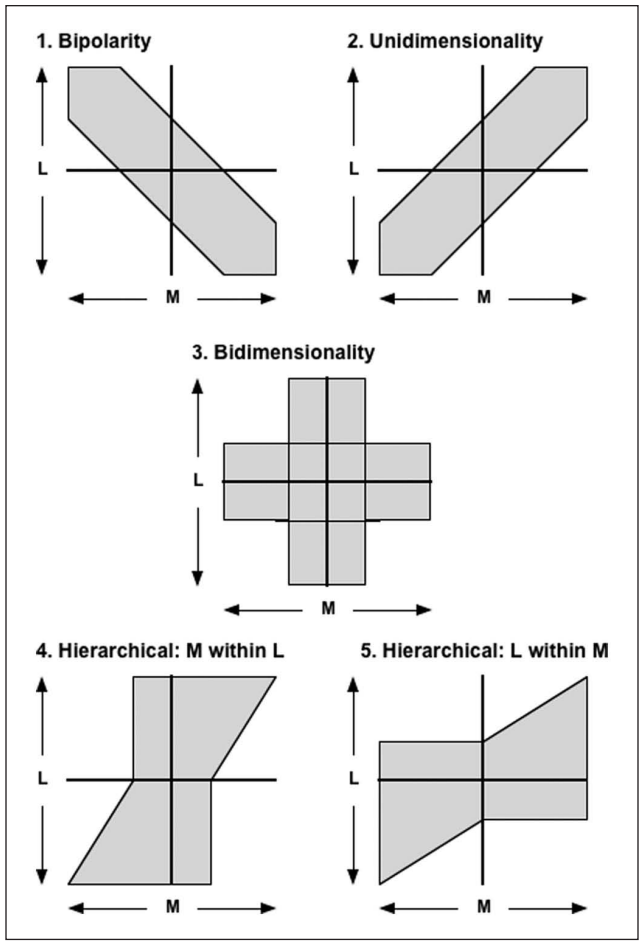

Figure 3. Ideal competency scatter plots for five perspectives on management (M) and leadership (L)

Results

ANOVA results addressing mean shifts in the relevance ratings averaging across competencies revealed significant main effects for leadership versus management, $F(1, 62) = 20.93$, $p = .00$, and a nonsignificant effect for defined versus undefined, $F(1, 62) = 0.18$, $p = .67$. Findings are qualified by a significant domain-by-definition interaction, $F(1, 62) = 52.76$, $p = .00$. We conducted four Bonferroni-adjusted paired-samples t tests to disentangle the nature of the interaction (undefined management–defined leadership and defined management–undefined leadership comparisons are irrelevant to the present investigation). The post hoc tests indicated two significant differences: undefined leadership ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 0.66$) yields significantly higher competency ratings than defined leadership ($M = 1.80$, $SD = 0.67$, $p = .01$), and defined management ($M = 1.99$, $SD = 0.55$) yields significantly higher ratings than undefined management ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 0.47$, $p = .02$). These results indicate that the competencies, on average, were rated higher on relevance in the undefined leadership and defined management conditions, compared with their defined and undefined counterparts, respectively.

Table 3. Correlations and Alphas Among Four Leadership/Management Conditions Based on Judged Representativeness of 63 Competencies

Leadership/management condition	MD	MU	LD	LU
Management defined	**.78**	.81	−.49	−.47
Management undefined	.84	**.66**	−.35	−.41
Leadership defined	−.45	−.32	**.80**	.81
Leadership undefined	−.44	−.38	.85	**.81**

Note. MD = management defined ($n = 11$); MU = management undefined ($n = 10$); LD = leadership defined ($n = 10$); LU = leadership undefined ($n = 12$). Alphas are on the diagonal in boldface. As a result of potential negative skewness, the upper right portion of the correlation matrix reports correlation of ratings following logarithmic transformation.

Assessing differences in relative standing, correlations among the mean competency ratings from the four conditions across the 63 competencies are reported in Table 3, with corresponding alpha coefficients indexing interjudge reliability. Notably, SME ratings from the undefined conditions for management and leadership correlate with their defined counterparts .84 ($p < .001$) and .85 ($p < .001$), respectively. These levels of consistency in relative standing suggest that our main findings are not strongly dependent on the definitions chosen to represent the two main domains. However, combining these results with those for mean shifts, presented above, offers mixed support for the generalizability of our main findings across defined versus undefined conditions. Erring on the side of caution, we present results separately for the two definitional conditions, noting relevant discrepancies as we go.

Returning to Table 3, correlations between management and leadership within defined and undefined conditions are moderately negative (−.45, $p < .01$, and −.38, $p < .01$, respectively).[8] Because of negative skewness evident in the competency means ($N = 63$), we applied a logarithmic transformation to ratings and reran the correlations. Findings remain largely unchanged (see Table 3). At first glance, the negative correlations between management and leadership (per definitional condition) might be taken as offering some support for the bipolarity perspective (i.e., competencies representing high leadership represent low management, and vice versa). Closer inspection, however, affords a more nuanced interpretation, addressed below.

ANOVA results per competency yielded significant differences ($p < .05$) for the leadership–management main effect in 35 of the 63 cases (56%). Significant interactions, obtained in two cases (3%), reveal competencies whose leadership–management difference depends on whether or

not the main terms were defined. To clarify the effects of definitional condition (in light of the noted mean shifts and less-than-ideal correlational consistencies), we ran a *t* test per competency comparing leadership and management within each of the defined and undefined conditions. Table 4 presents mean representativeness ratings for all competencies separately for leadership and management in both defined and undefined conditions. Also shown are corresponding standardized mean differences (Cohen's *d*s) between leadership and management per condition, and significant effects. The competencies are organized according to our interpretive guidelines identifying distinct descriptor classes. Ordering for co-descriptive and nondesignated competencies is based on average Cohen's *d*s across undefined and defined condition, beginning with the largest negative effects (trending toward management) and proceeding to the largest positive effects (trending toward leadership). Several points bear consideration.

First, few competencies have negative mean ratings on either leadership or management and those that are negative are close to 0. This reflects the fact that leadership and management competencies are invariably worded in positive terms. Importantly for current aims, lack of negative descriptors does not preclude evaluation of the five perspectives with respect to configurations portrayed in Figures 2 and 3.

Second, no competencies are classifiable as differentiators (e.g., high on leadership and low on management) or neutral descriptors (within ±1 on both leadership and management). The absence of differentiators offers no support for a bipolar perspective and the absence of neutral descriptors suggests that all competencies are relevant in considering either or both leadership and management (i.e., there are no superfluous competencies). Third, several unique descriptors emerged for both leadership and management. For leadership, Motivating Intrinsically, Creative Thinking, Strategic Planning, Tolerance of Ambiguity, and People Reading are unique descriptors in one or both of the definitional conditions. Unique descriptors for management include Rule Orientation, Short-term Planning, Motivating Extrinsically, Orderliness, Safety Concern, and Timeliness. Notably, the means are significantly different in 8 out of 11 cases (72%). That both leadership and management are strongly identified by competencies showing neutral representativeness on the other domain supports a bidimensional perspective. Fourth, a relatively large number of competencies (22) emerged as co-descriptors, falling above 2 on both leadership and management (in either or both definitional conditions). The prevalence of this category favors a unidimensional perspective.

Fifth, note that the remaining, nondesignated competencies listed at the bottom of Table 4 are ordered by the leadership–management difference in competency representativeness. Competencies at the top of this sublist are more purely indicative of management, and those at the bottom, of leadership. Although not meeting the strict conditions for unique descriptors (>2 on one dimension and within ±1 on the other), the top and bottom competencies in this sublist are consistent with a bidimensional perspective. Competencies toward the middle of the sublist, on the other hand, do not exactly fit codescriptor specifications (>2 on both dimensions), but they conform to the unidimensional perspective nonetheless. Such findings suggest the leadership–management relationship—like many involving psychological constructs—is a matter of degree rather than type.

Sixth, the pattern of ratings permits a nuanced interpretation of the −.45 and −.38 correlations noted earlier between leadership and management within the defined and undefined conditions, respectively. In particular, the negative correlations do not support a bipolar perspective (no competencies are consistent with this view). Rather, they capture the bidimensional rendering of competencies with 0, 2 or 2, 0 mean ratings. That is, the low end of the effective range of ratings is not −2, required to support a bipolar perspective, but rather around 0, in support of independent domains. This is most evident in Figures 4 and 5, plotting all 63 competencies in the two-dimensional space, based on the defined and undefined conditions, respectively.

Finally, overall lack of significant interaction effects from the single-competency ANOVAs (2 of 63 have $p < .05$) suggests that the leadership–management comparisons are fairly robust to whether or not definitions were provided for the two key domains. The similarity is clearly evident in comparing Figures 4 and 5. Thus, despite significant mean shifts and less-than-ideal correlational consistency, current results suggest overall stability in main findings across definitional conditions. Such similarity supports our definitions of leadership and management as representative of SMEs' intuitive understanding of those domains.

Discussion

We used a mapping task to clarify the decades-old comparison between management and leadership in terms of a "common language" of 63 specific competencies. Our results show a mixture of conceptual overlap and uniquenesses in support of a hybrid understanding combining the unidimensional and bidimensional perspectives. More specifically, in both the defined and undefined conditions, a large number of competencies were judged representative of both leadership and management, consistent with unidimensionality, and a smaller number of competencies were judged uniquely representative of each domain, consistent with bidimensionality. To reconcile the apparent contradiction between "uni-" and "bi-" dimensionality, we suggest replacing "unidimensionality" with "co-dimensionality." All

told, this hybrid perspective seems best portrayed as overlapping leadership and management circles, populated by competencies uniquely or jointly descriptive of the two domains. Our findings have key implications for both theory and practices involving leadership and management. These implications are discussed next, followed by some limitations and our conclusions.

Theoretical Implications

Several years ago, Bass and Bass (2008) noted,

> Leaders manage and managers lead, but there is considerable correlation in what both do. Much depends on the level and function of the manager . . . There is much more to management than planning, directing, controlling, and supervising subordinates. However, the manager's effectiveness depends, to a considerable degree, on getting work done through others and networks of others. (p. 681)

Consistent with Bass and Bass's (2008) observation, we contend that productive discussions on management and

Table 4. Summary of Leadership and Management Competency Mean Ratings and Effect Sizes for Defined and Undefined Conditions, Organized by Descriptor Type

	Defined		Undefined		Cohen's *d*	
Competency	Leader *M (SD)*	Manager *M (SD)*	Leader *M (SD)*	Manager *M (SD*	L-M Def	L-M Undef
L Unique Descriptors						
Motivating Intrinsically	**2.83 (0.39)**	**1.00 (1.63)**	**2.50 (1.08)**	**1.00 (1.48)**	1.55**	1.20*
Creative Thinking	**2.58 (0.79)**	**0.60 (2.01)**	**2.90 (0.32)**	**0.82 (1.99)**	1.31*	1.57**
Strategic Planning	**2.75 (0.45)**	**0.90 (1.97)**	3.00 (0.00)	1.18 (1.89)	1.30*	1.47**
Tolerance of Ambiguity	**2.33 (0.65)**	**1.00 (1.94)**	2.20 (1.03)	1.27 (1.68)	.92*	.70
People Reading	1.92 (1.08)	0.50 (1.43)	**2.50 (0.71)**	**0.90 (1.60)**	1.14*	1.37*
M unique descriptors						
Rule Orientation	**0.08 (1.44)**	**2.40 (0.70)**	**0.40 (1.17)**	**2.00 (0.89)**	–2.14**	–1.55**
Short–Term Planning	**0.58 (1.16)**	**2.30 (1.06)**	**0.60 (1.65)**	**2.55 (0.93)**	–1.59*	–1.45**
Motivating Extrinsically	**0.58 (1.98)**	**2.30 (0.82)**	0.80 (0.79)	1.82 (1.60)	–1.19*	–.85
Orderliness	**–0.08 (1.16)**	**2.22 (0.97)**	0.50 (1.18)	1.82 (1.33)	–2.22**	–1.08*
Safety Concern	**0.50 (1.38)**	**2.80 (0.42)**	1.10 (1.60)	2.36 (0.92)	–2.37**	–.96*
Timeliness	**0.50 (1.73)**	**2.50 (0.71)**	1.56 (1.24)	2.36 (0.92)	–1.58*	–.74
L & M codescriptors						
Productivity	1.17 (1.75)	2.90 (0.32)	**2.20 (0.92)**	**2.27 (0.90)**	–1.45**	–.08
Customer Focus	1.42 (1.08)	2.00 (1.05)	**2.20 (1.32)**	**2.45 (0.93)**	–.56	–.22
Professionalism	1.25 (1.48)	2.20 (0.92)	**2.30 (1.25)**	**2.27 (1.10)**	–.80	.03
Goal Setting	**2.08 (1.38)**	**2.40 (0.84)**	**2.10 (1.60)**	**2.45 (0.93)**	–.29	–.27
Information Sharing	**2.33 (0.78)**	**2.57 (0.72)**	**2.20 (1.23)**	**2.45 (1.04)**	–.33	–.22
Urgency	1.75 (1.42)	2.40 (1.26)	**2.20 (1.03)**	**2.18 (1.25)**	–.50	.02
Financial Concern	1.83 (1.11)	2.10 (1.45)	**2.10 (1.29)**	**2.00 (1.61)**	–.21	.07
Decision Making	**2.33 (0.98)**	**2.40 (0.84)**	**2.70 (0.67)**	**2.55 (0.93)**	–.08	.19
Decisiveness	**2.25 (0.75)**	**2.20 (0.79)**	**2.60 (0.52)**	**2.36 (1.03)**	.07	.31
Organization Knowledge	**2.17 (1.03)**	**2.20 (0.92)**	2.50 (1.08)	1.91 (1.58)	–.03	.46
Trustworthiness	**2.17 (1.64)**	**2.10 (1.10)**	**2.60 (0.97)**	**2.00 (1.10)**	.05	.60
Composure	1.92 (1.00)	2.20 (0.92)	**2.80 (0.42)**	**2.00 (1.10)**	–.30	1.03*
Initiative	**2.58 (0.67)**	**2.10 (1.10)**	**2.50 (1.58)**	**2.09 (1.04)**	.53	.31
Personal Responsibility	**2.25 (1.14)**	**2.50 (0.71)**	**2.90 (0.32)**	**2.09 (1.04)**	–.27	1.12*
Loyalty	2.00 (0.95)	1.80 (0.92)	**2.60 (0.70)**	**2.00 (1.00)**	.22	.72
Written Communication	**2.08 (0.79)**	**2.10 (0.88)**	2.70 (0.67)	1.64 (1.36)	–.02	1.04*
Information Integration	**2.50 (0.67)**	**2.20 (0.79)**	**2.80 (0.42)**	**2.27 (0.90)**	.42	.80
Listening Skills	**2.17 (1.19)**	**2.00 (1.41)**	2.80 (0.42)	1.91 (0.94)	.13	1.29*
Problem Awareness	**2.25 (0.97)**	**2.10 (0.88)**	2.90 (0.32)	1.73 (1.27)	.17	1.35*
Oral Communication	**2.42 (0.67)**	**2.20 (1.32)**	2.80 (0.42)	1.64 (1.21)	.21	1.37**
Cooperation	**2.50 (0.52)**	**2.00 (0.94)**	2.70 (0.48)	1.64 (1.29)	.67	1.16*
Seeking Input	2.50 (0.67)	1.30 (1.25)	**2.80 (0.42)**	**2.10 (0.32)**	1.21*	1.90**

(Continued)

Table 4. (Continued)

Competency	Defined		Undefined		Cohen's *d*	
	Leader *M (SD)*	Manager *M (SD)*	Leader *M (SD)*	Manager *M (SD*	L-M Def	L-M Undef
Non–designated competencies						
Directing	1.17 (1.75)	2.90 (0.32)	1.70 (0.95)	2.55 (0.69)	–1.45**	–1.03*
Monitoring	1.64 (1.21)	2.70 (0.67)	1.20 (1.55)	2.73 (0.47)	–1.13*	–1.32**
Coordinating	1.58 (1.24)	2.40 (0.97)	1.11 (1.20)	2.64 (0.92)	–.76	–1.45**
Quantity Concern	1.17 (1.70)	2.70 (0.48)	1.80 (1.14)	2.55 (0.93)	–1.29*	–.73
Technological Orientation	1.25 (1.22)	2.30 (0.82)	1.30 (1.06)	2.00 (1.26)	–1.05*	–.62
Multitasking	1.25 (1.29)	2.10 (0.99)	1.30 (1.16)	2.09 (1.22)	–.76	–.68
Quality Concern	1.67 (1.44)	2.67 (0.71)	1.80 (1.03)	2.27 (0.90)	–.92	–.49
Task Focus	1.50 (1.62)	2.70 (0.48)	1.80 (1.14)	2.18 (1.08)	–1.05*	–.35
Performance Assessment	1.33 (1.83)	2.40 (1.07)	1.40 (1.17)	2.18 (1.66)	–.74	–.57
Industry Knowledge	1.58 (1.93)	2.70 (0.48)	1.70 (1.25)	2.00 (1.10)	–.84	–.26
Position Knowledge	1.42 (1.00)	2.30 (1.25)	1.80 (1.48)	2.09 (1.14)	–.79	–.22
Information Seeking	1.92 (1.08)	2.30 (1.06)	1.80 (1.14)	2.09 (0.94)	–.36	–.28
Assertiveness	1.42 (1.16)	1.90 (0.99)	2.00 (1.25)	1.91 (1.14)	–.46	.08
Stress Management	1.58 (1.24)	1.60 (1.07)	1.70 (1.06)	1.55 (1.21)	–.02	.14
Developmental Goal Setting	1.75 (1.29)	1.70 (1.25)	2.10 (1.45)	1.09 (1.81)	.04	.64
Company Concern	1.81 (1.60)	1.95 (1.12)	2.90 (0.32)	1.82 (1.89)	–.10	.86
Sociability	1.42 (1.16)	1.40 (1.17)	1.80 (0.92)	1.18 (0.75)	.02	.75
Decision Delegation	2.25 (1.06)	1.60 (1.43)	2.40 (0.97)	1.73 (1.27)	.53	.62
Developmental Feedback	2.08 (0.90)	1.80 (1.14)	2.70 (0.48)	1.45 (1.97)	.28	.94
Job Enrichment	1.83 (1.11)	1.50 (1.27)	2.50 (0.53)	1.18 (1.78)	.28	1.08**
Adaptability	2.58 (0.67)	1.90 (1.45)	2.60 (0.97)	1.55 (1.13)	.61	1.03*
Self Development	2.08 (1.08)	1.60 (1.58)	2.50 (0.71)	1.27 (1.19)	.36	1.32**
Public Presentation	2.26 (0.75)	1.40 (0.84)	2.40 (0.84)	1.73 (1.35)	1.10*	.63*
Cultural Appreciation	2.42 (1.00)	1.60 (1.65)	2.60 (0.52)	1.64 (1.03)	.61	1.25*
Compassion	2.00 (0.95)	1.40 (1.17)	2.50 (0.71)	1.27 (1.19)	.57	1.32*
Political Astuteness	1.33 (1.56)	1.40 (1.35)	2.80 (0.42)	1.27 (1.01)	<u>–.05</u>	<u>2.10**</u>
Resilience	2.50 (0.80)	1.60 (1.26)	2.80 (0.42)	1.45 (1.21)	.87	1.59**
Tolerance of Ideas	2.58 (0.90)	1.30 (1.57)	2.70 (0.48)	1.73 (0.79)	1.01*	1.56**
Team Building	2.75 (0.45)	1.60 (1.26)	2.90 (0.32)	1.64 (1.21)	1.22*	1.53**

Note. Competencies in bold are identified as either a unique descriptor or a codescriptor; <u>underlined</u> effect sizes are significantly different from one another. L–M Def = Defined Leadership vs. Defined Management conditions; L–M Undef = Undefined Leadership vs. Undefined Management conditions.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

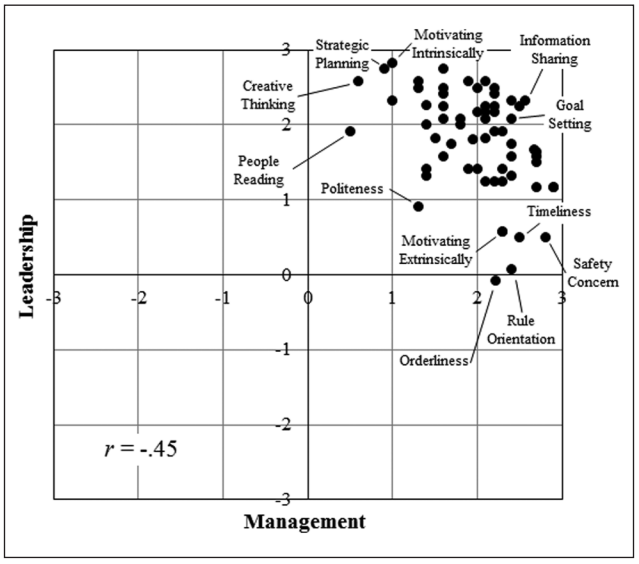

Figure 4. Raw scores for 63 competencies on defined management and defined leadership

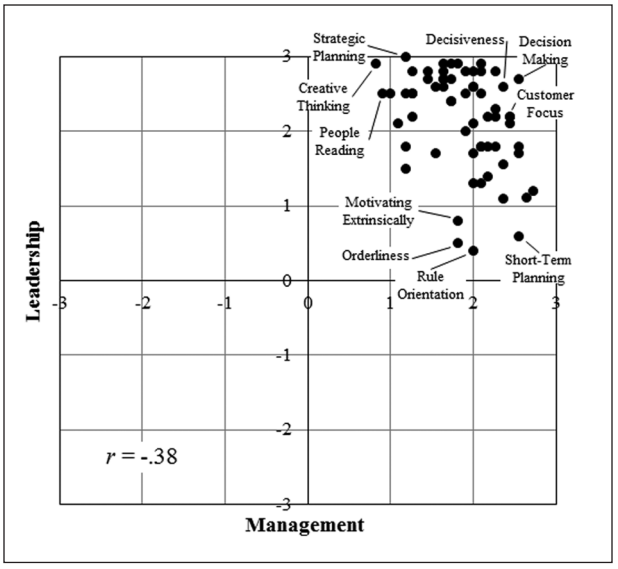

Figure 5. Raw scores for 63 competencies on undefined management and undefined leadership

leadership will recognize both functions as complex, multifaceted, somewhat independent but largely intersecting processes. With respect to the intersection, the list of co-descriptors in the middle of Table 4 includes a number of competencies arguably critical for organizational success. Regardless of whether one is considered to be a leader or a manager, others depend on that individual to demonstrate initiative, set goals and timelines, and timelines, be trustworthy and responsible, integrate and share information, and be willing and able to make good decisions. Such overlap is rarely considered in discussions of leadership and management, and yet it is critical because it brings the two functions essentially into the same room and offers targets for judging whom among a set of managers might also make an effective leader (and vice versa).

Our results suggest that one cannot speak about leadership without at least implicitly speaking about management, and vice versa. Theories that claim to be "leadership" theories, but that include dominant dimensions identifiable as management, are not simply "leadership" theories; they are leadership/management theories. In fact, to the degree task orientation and person orientation (as general referents to initiating structure and consideration and related "leadership" entities) are understandable as components of management (note the relatively high ratings of Compassion, Cooperation, Sociability, Seeking Input, and similarly person-oriented competencies on the management dimension in Table 4), so-called "leadership theories" up to at least path-goal theory might just as well be considered management theories. The large degree of overlap between the two domains evident in the current study calls for integration of content, process, and perhaps more fully, between disciplines, in understanding how management and leadership contribute to organizational effectiveness.

We believe the popularity of cleaving leadership from management may reflect a human tendency to dichotomize reality (Berlin, 1990). Whether conceptualizing nature versus nurture, men versus women, or black versus white, reducing complex phenomena into binary alternatives simplifies information and permits quick decisions, thoughts, and actions (Wood & Petriglieri, 2005). Relative to commonality, the idea that leaders and managers are distinct is cognitively more compelling. While such dichotomization may help distill what we truly know, the quest for absolute certainties can become a problem of omission (Berlin, 1990). Leadership experts or management educators focusing on the unique elements of one position may do so at the expense of losing sight of the fuller spectrum of intermediate competencies, nuanced organizational realities, or interpersonal gradations defining the overlap between the two domains. By acknowledging the overlap, we are better prepared to discover the fuller complexities of directing people and organizations.

Turning to the unique descriptors, it is interesting to note the parallel between current findings and distinctions identified in earlier literature. Innovation and inspiration are common themes in arguments setting leadership apart from management, and this distinction is supported by the current study. Leaders tend to "think outside the box," look at old issues in new ways, and pave the way for the future. Leaders are not bound by current strategies; they create images of better possibilities and help orient followers to adjust to such alternatives. If leadership is distinguished from management primarily by its reliance on creative thinking, as current results suggest, researchers seeking to understand leadership are urged to key on creativity as essential subject matter. While theoretical linkage between leadership and creativity has been suggested (e.g., Mumford & Connelly, 1991), a majority of studies focus on leaders as enablers, rather than as originators, of the creative process (e.g., Shin & Zhou, 2003). Moreover, if expanded to consider significantly different nondesignated competencies (bottom of Table 4), we may further identify leaders as uniquely flexible, open minded, team- and growth-oriented, and socially astute. Such findings resonate with models by Zaccaro and colleagues regarding the unique importance of social capacities to leadership functioning (Zaccaro, 2002, 2007; Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor, & Mumford, 1991). Correspondingly, those seeking to understand management as distinct from leadership should key on organizing competencies typified by short-term planning, orderliness, rule orientation, and similar constructs.

The noted differences between leadership and management may seem old news to many readers. Less obvious, perhaps, is that the competencies defining these two broad domains are not opposite ends of a single continuum. Also evident is that neither the leadership-in-management nor management-in-leadership hierarchical perspective is supported. The two domains are more like equal partners, or teammates, sharing much in common, but each offering attributes the other lacks. That managers and leaders are distinct in terms of rule orientation and timeliness versus strategic planning and tolerance of ambiguity supports Locke et al.'s (1991) contention that management's duty is to implement the overarching vision of the leader: Leaders formulate the ideas while managers carry them to fruition. Similarly, Yukl and Lepsinger (2005) argue that management and leadership work together in creating efficiency, change, and people development. Our findings are consistent with this complementarity perspective, but suggest in addition the two functions share considerable competencies in common; it is not just the complementarity of the uniquenesses that make leadership and management-effective partners, it is also the fundamental similarities in their makeup that creates a shared foundation for performance.

Our findings suggest that whether leadership and management are judged to be distinct (i.e., bidimensional) or overlapping (i.e., co-dimensional) will depend on which competencies are chosen for investigation. This has important implications for studies of managerial and leadership

behavior *in situ*. Those seeking to assess the degree and nature of overlap based on subordinates' ratings, for example, are urged to include a balance of co-descriptors and unique descriptors, as evidence for distinct versus overlapping dimensions will depend critically on that balance. As such, future discussion of the topic can incorporate our experts' judgments as a basis for examining the utility of the unique descriptors for disentangling or, on the other hand, the utility of the codescriptors for integrating leadership and management.

Practical Implications

Our findings prompt consideration of training and selection of leaders and managers. With respect to training, we may do a better job of developing both managers and leaders by targeting a large set of competencies underrepresented in the literature (e.g., problem awareness, information sharing). Codescriptors, in this sense, warrant consideration as the target of a "core curriculum" of leader and manager development, with the unique competencies serving more as specializations. Similar thinking might guide selection efforts: KSAs (knowledge, skills, and abilities) and personality traits predictive of the commonalities could constitute a core screening battery, with predictors of either unique set on hand as supplemental given job demands for specifically managerial or leadership qualities.

More broadly, practical benefits may accrue from improved communication among researchers and practitioners through recognition of the inherent overlap between leadership and management. A "bewildering" array of labels and taxonomies are applied in the leadership literature (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002, p. 15), a problem that impedes the accumulation of knowledge (Le, Schmidt, Harter, & Lauver, 2010) and inhibits productive collaborations (Rousseau, 2007). Current findings offer grounds for integrating much of what people identify as leadership and management, both within and between those two broad domains. Further research is needed to more fully explore the limits of such integration and the expected benefits for knowledge growth.

To the degree leadership and management are distinguishable, current findings suggest that the distinction is primarily one of scope and vision, leaders emphasizing broader meaning and purpose (e.g., strategic planning, tolerance of ambiguity, creative thinking) and managers focusing on immediate operational implementation (e.g., short-term planning, orderliness, rule orientation). This being noted, both roles face the same demands for directing the environment around them and activities of people they oversee. For either leader or manager, it is important to identify and solve problems, initiate activities, and work with and through others under changing and often uncertain environmental demands.

Limitations

Our findings bear consideration in light of several caveats and limitations. First, it is important to realize that the data do not speak to the competency structure that might emerge from ratings of leadership and management performance. Our results clarify the language of leadership and management as broad construct domains, less so the behavioral dimensionality within those domains. Second, along similar lines, we offer little in the way of explicit operational processes. Our results clarify what it *means* to lead and to manage; but questions regarding structure and how leadership and management unfold as intersecting versus distinct processes are matters for future conceptual and empirical inquiry. Of particular importance going forward are implications involving situational contingencies. What might be considered strong leadership or management in one occupational group (e.g., police) might look substantially different in another (e.g., retail sales). Third, the competencies used as the common language for comparing leadership and management lack clear reference to charisma, identified in the mainstream as a key ingredient in leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985; House, 1977). It is unclear why this dimension is lacking from Tett et al.'s (2000) taxonomy. One possibility is that, as a relatively broad construct, charisma might be understood to subsume several more specific competencies, including Intrinsic Motivation, Strategic Planning, Assertiveness, Composure, Decisiveness, and Public Presentation. Future research using methods akin to those used here might be undertaken toward identifying charisma and similarly broad constructs (e.g., conflict management) in terms of more specific competencies.

Conclusions

Ultimately, at its best, the leader/manager distinction highlights some critical competencies that can help differentiate true leaders from amidst a sea of managers: they are innovative thinkers expected to take the organization in new and fruitful directions and arouse followers' internal motives. The reverse, of course, is also true: leaders vary in uniquely managerial talent, and knowing what to look for can facilitate identification of those offering the best of both worlds. At its worst, however, the binary distinction blinds researchers and practitioners alike to the considerable overlap between what leaders and managers do, competencies that may be just as important for success in either role as are the uniquenesses. Bifurcation between leadership and management carries several potentially serious limitations. First, polarization into special individual domains ignores the fact that virtually all organizations are interested in the ordering and influence of personal affairs. That is, both roles are concerned with aligning and influencing individuals in a manner conducive to group, organizational, or

institutional progress. Second, implicit in evolving definitions is the stereotype that management is somehow bad and leadership is good; this simplistic perspective ignores the potentially helpful and harmful sides of both managerial and leadership values. Third, the polarization of leadership and management may lead to needless duplication in concepts and measures. Purportedly new theories or measures developed under the rubric of one ideology may in fact represent old wine in new bottles.

Our findings reflect an integrative effort to present empirical data on contemporary experts' perspectives of leadership and management. We overcome the "lack of a common language" that has plagued this debate (Kent, 2005, p. 1011) by providing researchers a useful vocabulary for developing or refining leadership and management theory. The vocabulary comes in three sets. First, we encourage discussion of leadership and management using the "common language" of competencies, whether from Tett et al. (2000) or some other taxonomy. Second, we identify five perspectives on the leadership–management relationship. Discussion may be facilitated by reference to this set of perspectives, perhaps by promoting identification of variants or, as was observed in the current study, hybrids. Third, joining the first two sets of terms, we offer a lexicon of descriptor types, including unique descriptors, co-descriptors, and so forth, within a corresponding configural framework (Figure 2). How such terms are best operationalized is a matter for research, but we expect theory may be advanced by reference to them as they seem to capture useful units of the leadership–management comparison. Integration of leadership and management in light of both their considerable overlap and distinctive uniquenesses offers a promising conceptual foundation for theoretic advance.

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Notes

1. Try explaining how an engine works without referring to its components.
2. Differences between management and leadership are addressed in light of our main research questions targeting degree of overlap versus uniqueness in competency coverage. The main target of the consistency assessments is the distinction between defined and undefined conditions.
3. The broader study seeks to map the competencies onto each of 23 dimensions identified in the leadership literature (e.g., task orientation, person orientation, the eight dimensions in transformational leadership theory). The current study targets only the more fundamental question of the nature of leadership and management.
4. Tett et al.'s (2000) original taxonomy contains 53 competencies. Ten have been added since then in light of ongoing practitioner research revealing content deficiencies. Notably, all the new competencies met the same standards for inclusion as those in the original model (e.g., identification using three more specific elements reliably classified into only the targeted competency). The new competencies are indicated in Table 2.
5. Modern perspectives on internal consistency reliability recognize that measurement facets are not restricted to items (Putka & Sackett, 2010). Reliability here is the ratio of true competency variance (in representativeness) to total variance, which includes both true and rater-specific variance. High alpha, accordingly, indicates low-rater specificity in relative judgments of representativeness.
6. To be clear, the first ANOVA assesses mean shifts in competency relevance primarily targeting the defined versus undefined conditions, using 63 rows and 4 columns of means derived by averaging across judges. This same data array is used for assessing differences in relative standing by correlating columns. The second set of ANOVAs, in contrast, assesses differences between management and leadership (and secondarily between the two definitional conditions) on each competency, using a total of 43 rows for the four groups of judges (N = 10-12 per group) and a single column per competency.
7. Where we draw the lines on our −3 to +3 scale to differentiate among descriptor types is somewhat arbitrary. We suggest, however, that 2 represents a conceptually meaningful threshold, marking the range of moderately to highly representative. Likewise, 1 marks the upper boundary spanning the interval of neutral (0) to slightly representative. Competencies falling in the remaining spaces would be judged as less clearly indicative of the ideal types.
8. When all judges are included in the analyses regardless of reliability, correlations drop to −.30 ($p < .01$) and −.12 ($p > .05$), respectively. The number of significantly different competencies for ANOVA main effects also reduces from 35 to 29 (see below). Overall, inclusion of nonreliable judges does not drastically alter configurations of findings but, rather, reduces differentiation between leadership and management in terms of particular competencies. The reductions are attributable to increased measurement error in the ratings and support the removal of data from unreliable judges.

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