Leadership Competencies Among Managers[1]

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Abstract

Purpose: The aim of this paper is to present the results of a survey conducted among managers (N=38) in the framework of the project "Development of the Bounded Leadership Theory". The research juxtaposes two types of variables: (1) leadership competencies outlined in Kozminski's theory (i.e. anticipatory, visionary, value-creating, mobilizing, self-reflection) with (2) three psychological predispositions of leaders, such as intelligence, personality and ability to influence others. The tested predispositions represented three groups: non-variable traits, or permanent characteristics (intelligence), partially variable characteristics (personality) and variable characteristics (influence tactics).

Methodology: A total of 38 middle and senior managers, students of the MBA programme at Kozminski University, took part in the survey. Participants filled out a preliminary version of the Leadership Competence Questionnaire, as well as tests pertaining to intelligence, personality and influence tactics. The hypotheses were tested using Spearman's rho correlation. The research has brought interesting results relating to the correlation between the five tested competencies and leadership predispositions.

Findings: Permanent and partly stable characteristics do not correlate with leadership competencies, i.e. a high score in leadership competencies is not necessarily synonymous with high intelligence levels or positive personality traits. Correlations have been observed between mobilization skills and influence tactics in the surveyed sample, i.e. legitimacy and personal appeals that leaders have recourse to and, in the case of value-creating competencies, an interesting correlation with legitimacy.

Originality: The study constitutes an important contribution to the extant literature, as – first and foremost – it represents a new approach to the understanding of leadership competencies. Secondly, it reveals correlations between complex skills, i.e. competencies, and permanent, relatively permanent and variable characteristics of contemporary leaders. Thirdly, it is the starting point for further research on leadership competencies.

Keywords: bounded leadership, competency, intelligence, personality, influence tactic

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Introduction

According to the most recent study of leadership carried out by the World Economic Forum, 86% of experts believe that we are witnessing a global crisis of leadership (Cann, 2014).

If this diagnosis is accurate, Kozmiński's concept of bounded leadership (Kozmiński, 2013) gains even more relevance. In his concept, Kozmiński, similarly to Spender (2008), refers to Simon's theory of bounded rationality. Simon argues that people are not rational in their actions, as they are guided by emotions and have a limited capacity of processing information (Simon, 1957). Although Simon did not apply his theory to leaders, we have been induced in recent years to analyse leadership in the context of the various constraints that leaders are confronted with. One of them is the unrelenting pressure on leaders, who function in an increasingly competitive and dynamic environment (Llopis, 2014), combined with high levels of stress that characterize society in general, rendering them more prone to their emotions when they are involved in the decision making process. Another constraint comes from the growing amounts of data that leaders are confronted with. Although organizations are implementing advanced data management tools, these make decisions based on selected data from multiple sources a major challenge (Korzynski, 2014). In the light of the above, Kozmiński's concept of bounded leadership seems an excellent interpretation tool that may shed new light on problems faced by today's leaders.

Leadership competencies in the bounded leadership theory

Kozmiński (2015) distinguishes five leadership competencies that can help leaders overcome the constraints they grapple with. Anticipatory competencies denote one's ability to predict the future in terms of the probable relations, structures and conditions that are relevant for a specific type of leadership (Kozmiński, 2013). Savage and Sales (2008) argue that leaders endowed with such competencies are able to understand the dynamics of their organization's environment, recognize patterns and trends in different industries, and foresee interactions between various forces shaping the environment. Anticipatory competencies help leaders to create the right conditions for the implementation of changes (Nadler and Tushman, 1990), introduce innovative solutions (Ramos, 2013) and gain competitive advantage (Kandampully and Duddy, 1999).

Visionary competencies are defined as one's self-creation potential and the ability to communicate – both to oneself and to one's subordinates – long-term visions that are

attractive enough to motivate and galvanize them into action (Kozmiński, 2013). West-ley and Mintzberg (1989) stress that these competencies require one to come up with an idea and present it to one's co-workers in a manner that will inspire them to take steps aimed at translating this idea into practice. Groves (2006) explains that in order to inspire others, leaders must not hide their emotions. They do not necessarily have to be positive, but they should be strongly related to the objective being pursued by the leader. Visionary competencies allow leaders to effectively influence the level of satisfaction of employees (Cheema, Akram and Javed, 2015) and their commitment to the organization (Dvir, Kass and Shamir, 2004).

Value-creating competencies are associated with the ability to transmit norms, values and patterns of behaviour through which leaders influence their subordinates (Koz-miński, 2013). Recent studies have shown that these skills can prove particularly valuable in leading organizations with somewhat limited resources, i.e. those in which leaders are often faced with the difficult task of distributing and allocating them to specific tasks or targets. Smith, Lewis, and Tushman (2016) argue that leaders with strong value-creating competencies are capable of augmenting the pool of resources through creating alliances and engaging in cooperation with entities that share sim-ilar values.

Mobilization competencies are defined as the ability to influence one's subordinates in a manner that incites them to demonstrate above-average commitment and to sac-rifice personal goals for the good of the organization (Kozmiński, 2013). Numerous examples of mobilization competencies are presented in extant literature in the con-text of the education sector (Clark, 2013), health care (Giles, 2010), and politics (Rucht, 2012). In fact, these domains of activity tend to attract people willing to work for modest remuneration, or even on a voluntary basis; leaders in such organisations must, therefore, be endowed with excellent mobilization competencies. These competencies are also important in commercial organizations, as they translate directly into employ-ees' performance (Bruch and Vogel, 2011).

Self-reflective competencies are understood as the leaders' ability to analyse their successes and failures, and to learn from them. The importance of self-reflection is strongly emphasized in the theory of authentic leadership, popularized by George (2007). According to George's concept, authentic leaders analyse their life experiences and, by doing so, gain knowledge about themselves. Sparrowe (2005) adds that leaders engage in a kind of internal dialogue with themselves, which allows them to achieve authenticity.

Psychological predispositions of a leader

As confirmed by numerous studies, leadership depends on the competencies of the leader, as well as the specific circumstances (House, 1971; Hersay and Blanchard, 2008), the type of tasks performed (Fiedler, 1967) and the leader's personal qualities or predispositions (Armstrong, 2000, Sternberg, 2007; Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt, 2002). The trait approach continues to play an important part in human resource management practices, i.e. in selecting, developing and planning the career paths of managers (Armstrong, 2009). Predispositions, understood as one's relatively constant characteristics, the so-called "I-schemes" based on our experience and knowledge about ourselves, help us understand, explain and predict our own behaviour (Aronson, Wilson and Akert, 2012). According to numerous psychological theories, they form an important basis for effective actions, as they make them predictable.

Trait leadership is defined as integrated patterns of personal characteristics that reflect a range of individual differences and foster consistent leader effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations (Zaccaro, 2007). In the era of globalization and complex management practices, intelligence and personality are vital resources of a modern leader. References to the first variable can be found in numerous studies e.g.: Brand (1996); Brody (2000); Jensen (1998); Schmidt and Hunter (1998); Ree and Earles (1993); Sternberg (2007); Riggio, Murphy and Pirozzolo (2013). Personality also occupies a prominent place in the extant literature on leadership and has been broached *inter alia* by Barrick and Mount (1991); Judge, Colbert and Ilies (2004); Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986); Judge, (2006); Fiedler (2002) and Fiedler and Link (1994).

Meta-analyses carried out by Bono and Judge (2004); Judge, Colbert and Ilies (2004); Judge et al. (2002); Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986) confirm that mental characteristics and personality traits can contribute to fulfilling leadership functions within an organization. Another important aspect is influence, explored in this context by Yukl and Falbe (1992; 1996), Ferris and Rowland (1981), Bass (1960), Simonton (1994), Miller (1973), Jacobs and Jaques (1987), Osborn, Hunt and Jauch (1980).

Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between permanent characteristics, or traits (intelligence), relatively permanent, yet modifiable characteristics (personality), and modifiable characteristics (influence) on the one hand, and leadership

competencies (anticipatory, visionary, mobilization, value-creating and self-reflection), based on Kozminski's theory, on the other hand.

Intelligence

Analytical intelligence, often referred to as general mental ability or fluid intelligence, has been defined by Cattell (1971) as the capacity to think logically and solve problems in novel situations, independently of the acquired knowledge. It is the ability to analyse new problems, identify patterns and relationships that underpin these problems, and then extrapolate relationships using logic. It is necessary for any logical problem solving, e.g., scientific, mathematical, and technical. Fluid intelligence includes inductive and deductive reasoning.

Personality

Personality is a set of relatively permanent characteristics, dispositions or attributes of an individual that warrant a relative consistency of his/her behaviour. It is also defined as a relatively constant manner of both responding to the social and natural environment and interacting with it, typical of each individual. It is worth noting that personality is not the sole determinant of action – what and how we do it also depends on our current physical and mental state, the emotions we feel and our readiness to act.

Influence

Kozminski (2002) identifies six important attributes of an "ideal manager". Stressing the leader's pursuit of power (domination over other people), he also points out "the need to create sustainable value, being socially useful". He adds that managers must "be willing to and capable of interacting with other people"; in this respect, emphasis is put on positive influence, based on empathy and effective communication, as opposed to treating one's subordinates in an instrumental manner. Other researchers stress that effective leaders succeed in influencing others, are persuasive and committed (Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee, 2002).

Yukl, Kim and Falbe (1996) demonstrate that influence brings positive effects when leaders have recourse to the tactics of personal appeals, consultation, exchange and rational persuasion; conversely, pressure produces negative effects.

In another study, Yukl and Falbe argue that inspirational appeal and consultation are the most effective tactics. Pressure, legitimating and coalition tactics are the least

effective. Intermediate in effectiveness are rational persuasion, ingratiation, personal appeals, and exchange tactics.

Assumptions and hypotheses

We attempted to measure the extent to which intelligence, personality traits (relatively permanent traits) and other variables important from the perspective of leadership behaviour, such as influence tactics (relatively variable traits) are correlated with the leadership competencies selected by Kozminski. Competencies are understood as *combined skills acquired during the course of training which condition the efficient performance of tasks in a job, based on the knowledge, experience and predisposition of an individual, and displayed in a sequence of behaviour* (Baczynska, 2015, p. 37).

In accordance with Kozminski's theory, anticipatory competencies denote one's ability to predict the future in terms of relations, structures and conditions that are relevant for a specific type of leadership, visionary competencies are understood as one's self-creation potential and the ability to create – for oneself and for others – a vision of the future that is sufficiently distant and attractive to incite one's subordinates to act. Self-reflection competencies are defined as the leaders' ability of to draw conclusions from their successes and failures, in other words – to learn and grow.

According to the above definitions, a leader endowed with such competencies – when predicting future power structures and systems (anticipatory competence), setting important future goals (visionary competence), or learning and drawing valuable conclusions from past experiences (self-reflection competence) – should use his/her mental resources, i.e. intelligence, understood as the ability to perceive, analyse and adapt to the changing environment. On the personality level, he/she should be receptive to new experiences and demonstrate a certain cognitive openness (Gamma Plus and Beta Plus). In terms of influence tactics applied, Yukl argues that a leader ought to rely on consultation, inspiration and rational persuasion.

> **H1A.** High levels of leadership competencies – anticipatory, visionary and self-reflection – are correlated with high levels of intelligence.

> **H1B.** High levels of leadership competencies – anticipatory, visionary and self-reflection – are correlated with cognitive openness and receptiveness to new ideas, i.e. Gamma and Beta Plus Plus.

H1C. High levels of leadership competencies – anticipatory, visionary and self-reflection – are correlated with the use of positive influence tactics, i.e. consultation and rational persuasion.

Leaders' competencies are associated with having a direct impact on others (i.e. value-creating), which relate to one's ability to suggest specific values and patterns of behaviour that guarantee the leader having an effective impact on his/her supporters and the environment, and mobilization competencies, which relate to the energizing effect on one's supporters in order to foster an extraordinary level of commitment, bordering on personal sacrifice, exceptional initiative and creativity. These are linked to such personality dimensions as extraversion and openness to new experiences, contained within the dimensions of the Meta Circle i.e. Gamma Plus and Beta Plus. Also, according to Yukl, they bring remarkable results in terms of influence tactics i.e. inspiration, personal appeals, consultation, rational persuasion and legitimacy.

H2A. High levels of mobilization and value-creating competencies are correlated with high scores in terms of personality traits, i.e. Gamma Plus and Beta Plus.

H2B. High levels of mobilization and value-creating competencies are correlated with high scores in terms of influence tactics, i.e. inspiration, personal appeal, consultation, rational persuasion, legitimacy.

Sample

The study was conducted on a sample of 38 top and middle-level managers. Participants were MBA students and held the positions of chairman, managing director, departmental director or regional director. Each of them had at least one years' experience in a top management position and worked in a customer service, automotive or pharmaceutical organization. Their age ranged from 32 to 46 years. The average age of participants was 38.5 (SD = 3.78). Among the participants, there were 16 women and 24 men.

Participants filled out 4 questionnaires. The survey was voluntary and took place during two final sessions of the MBA programme. During the first meeting, participants filled out a questionnaire evaluating their own leadership skills (self-evaluation) and, subsequently, the skills of all other students from their group (180 degree evaluation). During the second session, they filled out the remaining three questionnaires: Raven's Progressive Matrices, the Circumplex of Personality Metatraits Portrait Questionnaire and the Influence Questionnaire.

Measures

(1) Leadership Competence Questionnaire (initial version), by Kozminski, Baczyńska and Korzyński consists of 29 questions and explores five leadership competencies: anticipatory, visionary, value-creating, mobilization and self-reflection. The tool is reliable (Cronbach's alpha for the entire questionnaire = .878; for individual scales: anticipatory α = .681, visionary, α = .768, mobilisation α = .825, value-creating α = .707, self-reflection α = .796)

(2) Raven's Progressive Matrices. This scale is designed to measure one's general mental ability (general intelligence). We used the standard progressive version to investigate the analytical ability level of managers. This is a popular tool for measuring general mental ability; with its reliability and validity having been empirically proven in numerous studies (c.f. Harrison, Shipstead and Engle, 2015; Little and McDaniel, 2015; Shamosh and Gray, 2007).

(3) Circumplex of Personality Metatraits Portrait Questionnaire. For measuring personality, we used the scale that investigates the personality dimension in the circumplex model. The tool is reliable (Cronbach's alpha for all scales exceeds .80) and is characterized by its high theoretical accuracy. According to the creators of the tool, Strus, Cieciuch and Rowiński (2014), the meta trait is a personality dimension related to differences between people in terms of thinking, behaviour and emotion.

The model encompasses eight dimensions:

a. Stability (ALPHA PLUS) refers to stable functioning in the emotional, motivational and social sphere;

b. Disinhibition (ALPHA MINUS) is one's propensity towards imbalance, low frustration tolerance, aggression and antagonism towards people and the prevailing rules;

c. Plasticity (BETA PLUS) is associated with a tendency to explore the environment, with cognitive and behavioural openness to change, willingness to engage in new experiences and a personal tendency to broaden one's horizons;

d. Passiveness (BETA MINUS) denotes cognitive and behavioural passivity, apathy and submission;

e. Integration (GAMMA PLUS) means a positive, pro-social attitude towards others, balance between professional and family life, efficiency in the pursuit of one's priorities;

f. Disharmony (GAMMA MINUS) represents withdrawal from social and professional activity, distrust and distancing oneself from others, a pessimistic outlook on events and on the world;

g. Self-Restraint (DELTA PLUS) means low levels of emotionality, reluctance to disclose emotions, high control over one's behaviour and conformism;

h. Sensation-Seeking (DELTA MINUS) means impulsivity, emotional lability, seeking excitement, desire to dominate and expansiveness in relationships.

(4) Yukl and Falbe's test of influence tactics explores tactics employed to influence one's co-workers. It is used to measure any person's style of action in terms of how they influence others. Many tactics have a bearing on the quality of one's relationship with co-workers. The test is used to measure nine influence tactics. The respondent is asked to determine the frequency of use of a particular tactic on a 5-point scale.

Table 1. Influence tactics

Tactics	Definition
Personal appeals	Seeking influence through appealing to friendship or asking for a personal favour.
Integration	Seeking influence through compliments or praise that put others in a good mood.
Inspiration	Seeking influence through emotional requests or proposals that arouse enthusiasm by appealing to others' values or ideals.
Coalition	Seeking influence through the aid of others.
Consultation	Seeking influence through involving others in the process of decision making or planning.
Legitimacy	Seeking influence through references to rules and regulations.
Pressure	Seeking influence through pressure and demands.
Rational persuasion	Seeking influence through logical arguments or factual evidence.
Exchange	Seeking influence through making explicit or implicit a promise that others will receive rewards or tangible benefits if they comply with a request.

Source: own elaboration.

Results

In the first step, data distribution was analysed. The results are presented in Table 2.

According to the data, contained in Table 2, the distribution differs from the norm and therefore, Speraman's rho test was used for further analysis.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Anticipatory skills	38	4.40	6.70	5.2761	.66295
Visionary skills	38	4.20	6.88	5.4297	.64931
Value-creation skills	38	4.30	6.80	5.4611	.63337
Mobilization skills	38	4.00	6.60	5.5418	.71976
Self-reflection skills	38	4.13	6.40	5.3463	.60629
Raven	38	51	60	57.11	2.215
Influence (personal appeals)	38	1.00	3.29	2.3271	.56552
Influence (integration)	38	1.57	4.14	3.0639	.46582
Influence (inspiration)	38	2.00	4.29	3.3647	.52589
Influence (coalition)	38	1.00	3.88	2.3421	.70990
Influence (consultation)	38	3.00	4.83	3.9825	.44987
Influence (legitimacy)	38	1.33	4.17	2.6228	.76982
Influence (pressure)	38	1.14	3.86	2.4511	.65130
Influence (rational persuasion)	38	3.14	4.86	4.0677	.43272
Influence (exchange)	38	1.00	3.57	2.2218	.63079
Personality DELTA Plus	38	14.00	36.00	23.7368	6.05687
Personality ALFA Plus	38	22.00	39.00	30.6316	4.46864
Personality GAMA Plus	38	25.00	41.00	33.1316	3.86370
Personality BETA Plus	38	23.00	40.00	33.1842	3.97190
Personality DELTA Minus	38	10.00	40.00	24.2105	6.29525
Personality ALFA Minus	38	6.00	21.00	11.2895	3.60861
Personality GAMA Minus	38	6.00	20.00	10.9474	3.64616
Personality BETA Minus	38	5.00	12.00	8.6842	1.89031

Source: own elaboration.

The research results are outlined in the following tables.

Table 3 presents the results of the analysis of correlations between leadership competencies and intelligence. No significant correlations have been found.

Table 3. Spearman correlation between competencies and intelligence

		Raven
Anticipatory Skills	Correlation coefficient	-.014
	Significance (mutual)	.934
	N	38
Visionary Skills	Correlation coefficient	-.025
	Significance (mutual)	.883
	N	38
Value-creation skills	Correlation coefficient	.256
	Significance (mutual)	.121
	N	38
Mobilization skills	Correlation coefficient	-.100
	Significance (mutual)	.549
	N	38
Self-reflection skills	Correlation coefficient	-.124
	Significance (mutual)	.458
	N	38

**. Significant correlation at the level of 0.01 (mutual).

Source: own elaboration.

In addition, the average intelligence value for the entire group was calculated.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics (Intelligence)

	N	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**
Raven	38	51	60	57.13	2.244
N valid (exclusion on the basis of observation)	38				

Source: own elaboration.

The average score for the respondents is 57.15, which means that leaders who took part in the survey are highly intelligent. It is sten 9 on a ten-point scale.

Subsequently, correlations between leadership competencies and personality were evaluated. Table 5 presents the obtained results.

Table 5. Spearman correlation between leadership competencies and personality

		Personality DELTA Plus	Personality ALFA Plus	Personality GAMA Plus	Personality BETA Plus	Personality DELTA Minus	Personality ALFA Minus	Personality GAMA Minus	Personality BETA Minus
Anticipatory skills	Correlation coefficient	-.022	-.167	-.190	-.183	.125	.211	.292	-.178
	Significance (mutual)	.894	.316	.253	.270	.454	.203	.075	.284
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Visionary Skills	Correlation coefficient	.043	.295	.153	-.043	-.069	-.059	-.063	-.130
	Significance (mutual)	.799	.072	.358	.800	.679	.726	.707	.438
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Value-creating skills	Correlation coefficient	.241	.033	.048	-.137	-.162	.122	.052	.192
	Significance (mutual)	.145	.846	.775	.411	.331	.465	.757	.248
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Mobilization skills	Correlation coefficient	.061	-.107	.094	-.019	.093	.168	-.017	-.162
	Significance (mutual)	.717	.525	.574	.908	.577	.314	.919	.332
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Self-reflection skills	Correlation coefficient	.035	-.141	-.057	-.030	.005	.008	-.049	.158
	Significance (mutual)	.835	.400	.733	.856	.977	.960	.769	.345
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38

**. Significant correlation at the level of 0.01 (mutual).
Source: own elaboration.

The results of the analysis clearly indicate that personality is not correlated with leadership competencies.

The last step was the analysis of leadership competencies against influence tactics. Table 6 presents the obtained results.

Table 6. Spearman correlation between leadership competencies and influence tactics

		Influence (personal appeals)	Influence (integration)	Influence (inspiration)	Influence (coalition)	Influence (consultation)	Influence (legitimacy)	Influence (pressure)	Influence (rational persuasion)	Influence (exchange)	Influence (personal appeals)
Anticipatory skills	Correlation coefficient	.139	.008	-.013	.139	.201	.104	.042	.157	.054	.172
	Significance (mutual)	.406	.963	.937	.404	.227	.534	.804	.348	.746	.302
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Visionary Skills	Correlation coefficient	.201	.055	-.098	.060	-.057	.208	.058	.159	.219	.181
	Significance (mutual)	.227	.743	.559	.721	.736	.210	.730	.341	.186	.276
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Value-creating skills	Correlation coefficient	.287	.102	-.138	.155	.038	.349*	.258	-.040	.120	.224
	Significance (mutual)	.081	.544	.410	.353	.819	.032	.117	.811	.472	.176
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Mobilization skills	Correlation coefficient	.573**	.174	-.051	.105	-.174	.353*	.115	.192	.240	.244
	Significance (mutual)	.000	.296	.763	.531	.296	.030	.493	.249	.146	.139
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Self-reflection skills	Correlation coefficient	.262	.144	-.059	-.115	.119	.176	.014	.146	.034	.071
	Significance (mutual)	.112	.390	.724	.491	.476	.290	.933	.382	.840	.671
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38

**. Significant correlation at the level of 0.01 (mutual).
Source: own elaboration.

As shown in Table 6 above, value-creating and mobilization competencies correlate with legitimacy: rho = .349, p = .032 and rho = .353, p = .030 respectively. Mobilization competencies are correlated with personal appeal: rho = .573, p = .001

Discussion of results

Analyses have shown little correlation between the tested competencies and predispositions of leaders. The obtained result is very interesting, in particular in terms of permanent traits, i.e. intelligence. On the one hand, the survey shows that intelligence, as a permanent predisposition, does not correlate positively with leadership competencies but, on the other hand, intelligence levels of all respondents who took part in the survey are very high (M=57; *SD*=2.2). These results are consistent with the meta-analysis conducted by Stodgil (1948), as they confirm the existence of a common factor, typical of all leaders, namely intelligence. High scores in terms of leadership competencies, i.e. anticipatory, visionary or self-reflexion competencies are not, however, correlated with high intelligence levels. It can be concluded that the tested leadership competencies are more than the leader's analytical skills, and intelligence alone cannot be relied on as an indicator of excellent leadership competencies.

On the basis of the analysis of correlations between competencies and personality, we can conclude that no dimension of personality correlates directly with leadership competencies. Although personality translates into some relatively permanent patterns, and therefore relatively consistent behaviour, it seems to be irrelevant when it comes to leadership competencies tested in the survey. On this basis, it can be concluded that competencies, as complex skills, are correlated rather with modifiable traits than those that are relatively permanent. It means that the leader can learn – acquire through training – competencies required by the environment. Personality tests can therefore be used as an additional tool for describing leaders, although not necessarily related to the possibility of developing certain competencies.

The strongest correlation found in the study was the correlation between competencies and influence tactics. Excellent mobilization competencies are associated with an extensive use of personal appeals by leaders, which means references to friendship or personal needs, and legitimacy, i.e. references to rules and regulations. Let us recall that mobilization competencies mean one's ability to influence subordinates to such an extent that they are able to demonstrate above-average commitment and sacrifice personal goals for the good of the organization (Kozmiński, 2013). Managers use mainly personal appeal, which is consistent with the results of research conducted by Yukl

and Falbe (1992; 1996). Another tactic under the mobilization competence is legitimacy. Legitimacy in Yukl and Falbe's research is one of the least effective tactics, and this finding seems most inspiring. Perhaps in the young Polish economy, leaders' references to rules and regulations are, according to the behavioural motivation concept, a kind of "stick" used by leaders to encourage and motivate workers. The study sample was too small to adjudicate in this respect.

The following conclusions can be formulated on the basis of the survey:

1. Leadership competencies are more closely related to modifiable predisposition (skills), such as influence tactics, than to permanent traits of leaders.
2. Personality traits are not correlated with leadership competencies.
3. Leaders in the surveyed group represented high levels of intelligence, which can be interpreted as proof that intelligence is highly valued in Polish organizations.

The study can be considered as an introduction to further research on leadership competencies and their correlations with other variables. Future research should, however, be conducted on a larger sample group. In addition, we must take into account that the respondents of the present survey were MBA students at Kozminski University, and therefore represented a group of individuals strongly focused on personal development. For this reason, future research should encompass respondents with different professional profiles and education levels.

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