Per Hansson and Jon Aarum Andersen

VICARS AS MANAGERS REVISITED. A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Abstract

The possibilities for Church of Sweden vicars to manage their parishes in change were explored in 2000. The results indicated that vicars had a low capacity for initiating and implementing organizational change. The aim of this investigation is to assess whether vicars have a managerial style that differs from other groups of civil servants. Using tested instruments, 240 Swedish vicars (response rate 64%), 300 school principals (66%) and 64 social insurance officers (95%) were asked about their leadership style, decision-making style, motivation profile and perceived operational demands. The vicars stand out as a special group of managers with a strong relationship-orientation. Headmasters and social officers are similar to each other in behaviour. The results are explained by that pastoral work is founded on relations, the pastoral training of the vicars and the «weight of history». A contributory cause may be that many priests are perceived as having a «helping approach» to leadership.

Key words: vicars, school principals, social insurance officers, leadership style, decision-making style, motivation profile

The Swedish vicar and change

The possibilities for Church of Sweden vicars (rectors) to manage their parishes in change were explored some years ago (Hansson and Andersen 2001). Using scientifically tested instruments, 240 Swedish vicars were asked about their leadership style, decision-making style, motivation profile and perceived operational demands. The results indicated that vicars had a low capacity for initiating and implementing organizational change in their parishes. The analysis showed that they were primarily relationships-oriented. The conclusion was that only 2% of the vicars have a change strength, 1% of the vicars have optimal possibilities to initiate and implement change, and that 40% have medium prospects of leading their parishes in change (Hansson 2001a; Hansson and Andersen 2001). Fuchs (2001) pointed out that change was not discussed from a theological standpoint, and asked for a discussion of the contextualization of the church more in detail. However, there is another area within which there is room for a further discussion. Hansson and Andersen (2001) does not contain any
comparisons between the vicars in the Church of Sweden and other groups of managers. An interesting issue is whether vicars differ from other groups of managers. Later, Andersen (2004) compared vicars with business managers. Surprisingly, he found that business managers were more relationships-oriented than vicars. Vicars, on the other hand, were more change and development-oriented than business managers. These findings indicate that more comparisons between vicars and other groups of managers are necessary to understand how to interpret the initial results. Are Swedish vicars a unique group of managers or are they similar to other managers? In this article vicars are compared with other groups of managers in order to shed light on their managerial behaviour. Swedish vicars were civil servants at the time of the data collection and remained so until 2000. Therefore it seems most appropriate to compare vicars with managers in the public domain. In this article, data from the research on vicars are compared with data from studies of principals and of public administrators.

The purpose of this article is to compare vicars in the Church of Sweden with other public managers (principals in Swedish schools and Social Insurance Officers) in order to assess whether vicars have a managerial behaviour which differs from other groups of public officers.

The vicar as manager

The vicars in the Church of Sweden (as clergy in most churches) perform managerial tasks. Certainly clergy are spiritual leaders. The priestly tasks are liturgical (e.g. mass, occasional services, sermons), educational (e.g. confirmation classes, study groups) and pastoral care (e.g. confessions, sick calls) (Bishop, Priest and Deacon 1990). Theological training, faith, spirituality, ordination, churchmanship and the capability to gain the confidence of the parishioners are important parts of clerical spiritual leadership (Carroll 1991; Carroll et al. 1997; Niemelä 2005; Carroll 2006). Carroll (1986, 2005, 2006) stresses the importance of reflective leadership when changing pastoral strategies. Hansson (1993) showed that a governance by goals and objectives, an open culture and balance between the vicar as manager and the parish council were factors favourable for change in the parish activities. However, clergy are not just spiritual leaders. They are also managers; formal leaders with the responsibility to produce results and for personnel. McCann (1993) points out that one approach of the parish is that the parish is an element of the administrative structure of the church. The Church of Sweden employs more than 20,000 people in total. In a small parish the vicar, typically, is head of 10–15 people and in larger parishes up to 50–100 people.

Clergy are expected to yield both a professional and an organisational contribution. In an American study Blizzard (1956) found that mainline Protestant clergymen spent about half their time in administrative and organizing roles while the other part was spent on the spiritual role and noted that the role of the parish minister was determined by organizational and administrative functions. He also concluded that a minister’s religious ideology or his professional orientation had little to do with what he actually did as a minister (Blizzard 1956). Hill and Finke (1999) updated Blizzard’s findings
and found some changes in time allocation: a shorter work week, showing a sharp drop in the time devoted to interacting with church members and potential members. They also found a drop in time allocated to administration from 50% to 35% (mainline Protestants). Hassinger, Holik and Benson (1988:147) stated: «The ministers of rural churches spent most of their time on the ministerial-priestly role activities of sermon preparation, study and meditation, conducting services, and the pastoral role activities of visiting and calling on members; less time on administrator-role duties…». The time allocation of the American pastor thus seems to be dependent of the structure of the parish (rural or city). Carroll (2006) reports a continuing drop in work hours for main-line Protestant clergy (50.8 hours / week) and less time spent in administration.

Luecke (1973) found that American clergy who focused on both organizational and professional demands («synthesizers») were more effective and more satisfied than clergy who did not. Both organizational and professional perspectives were essential for effectiveness and satisfaction, although the organizational perspective seemed the more important for effectiveness. Hills and Francis (2005) found that theological orientation of Anglican clergy («churchmanship»: Catholic or Evangelical) partly explained satisfaction with administrative work. Those with a Catholic predisposition derived greater satisfaction from pastoral duties, administration and community-related activities than Evangelical clergy. The leadership style (self-reported) of American pastors is recently described by Carroll (2006): Style 1: five percent indicate that the pastor takes charge (lay respondents 19.8%). Style 2: the pastor encourages the members to make decisions, but acts alone if necessary (pastors 72%, lay 49.0%). Style 3: pastor acts on laity’s goals (pastors 13%, lay 15.1%). Style 4: Lay leaders make most decisions and the pastor tries to empower them (pastors 10%, lay 3.7%). When it comes to effectiveness style 2 is perceived as the most effective and a good match between the pastor and the congregation is emphasized as the most important factor.

Scandinavian clergy work under other conditions than American clergy. Most Scandinavian clergy are state officials and not as dependant upon the members as their American colleagues. The parishes are territorial and 75–85% of the people belong to the church, although the attendance at Sunday services is low. However, the occasional services (baptism, confirmation, wedding, funeral) still gather a majority of the members. There are limited numbers of studies on Scandinavian clergy as managers. In a Norwegian study on area deans Huse (1998) found four types of leadership among the deans: the strategic dean (high scores on strategy, episkopé (oversight), administration and partaking in meetings); the independent dean (low scores on episkopé, administration and representation); the priestly dean (high scores on priestly duties, low scores on episkopé, administration and representation) and the sense of duty dean (high scores on priestly duties, episkopé, administration and in representation). The strategic dean was thus classified as high on leadership and low on priestly duties. The independent dean was classified as low on both leadership and priestly duties. The priestly dean was high on priestly duties and low on leadership and the sense of duty deans were classified as high on both leadership and on priestly duties. In a later study on Norwegian pastors Huse and Hansen (2002) suggested four types of clergy: the prophet (proactive and oriented towards the message); the priest (reactive and oriented towards the mes-
sage) the pastor (proactive and oriented towards the parishioners); and the pater (reactive and oriented towards the parishioners). The types are suggested to be connected to different leadership styles: the prophet to a structured leadership style; the priest to coordination; the pastor to strategic leadership and the pater to cooperation.

Tegborg (1994) has showed that, historically, a large proportion of the Swedish vicars’ tasks were to manage Church, schools and social welfare. When vicars were no longer ex-officio members of school boards and social welfare committees they had to address more managerial tasks within the Church due to an increase of church programmes and staff (Hansson 2006b).

Swedish studies show that many vicars have problems in performing their managerial tasks (Stålhammar 1997); Ann-Sophie Hansson (2006a) showed the complexity of the church organization and Hansson (1997, 2001b) demonstrated the differences in church leadership in the local context as well as differences in the local culture. Bruhn et al. (2005) argue that the demands on Swedish vicars are heavy and that there is a need for increased opportunities for leadership training.

The Church of Sweden experienced a major organizational change during the disestablishment process in the year 2000. The church is no longer formally connected to the state. The Canon Law (Kyrkoordning, Church Ordinance) of the church underlines the managerial functions of the vicar as well as the spiritual tasks. In connection with the disestablishment the anticipated decline in membership has occurred (Bromander 2005). The decline in membership leads to a pressure on the finances of the parishes and reduction of personnel has been on the agenda in many cases. Other changes relate to general changes in Swedish society: e.g. the influx of immigrants (10% of the population) in most areas of the country implies new pastoral challenges as many of the immigrants are Muslims or come from other Christian traditions. Altogether this leads to higher demands on the vicar as spiritual leader and manager. Carroll (2005) uses the phrase «agility» or «reflective practice» for the processes needed. Fuchs (2001:60) clarifies the challenges facing the Church: «only a contextual church takes man living in reality seriously… It is right at the centre of tension of a specific inevitability to change, the «Semper maior» a more human redeeming relationship between man and God».

Principals and social insurance officers
As mentioned above the vicars will be compared with two groups of public managers: principals in schools and social insurance officers. In many ways the tasks of the principal is comparable to the tasks of the vicar. Swedish schools are based on certain values (e.g democracy and humanistic / Christian values) and the principal has the full responsibility for the results. The schools and the Church of Sweden also have a historic connection. However, the principals generally are responsible for larger organisations than vicars (statistics not available). School principals and social insurance officers are investigated because these public managers are in charge of organisations to which a large part of public funds are allocated. The
Church of Sweden was, at the time of the investigation, also publicly funded (church tax).

Swedish schools have been under strain during several decades and the school system is almost always on the political agenda. The financial resources allotted to the schools have been decreasing since the 1990s, which has led to a reduction in the number of employees. The principal is responsible for both the educational program at his/her school and for keeping the budget of the school. Research on Swedish schools has indicated that the Swedish principal is under pressure from different directions: There are different interests and expectations between administration and education, state and local authorities (the municipality), curriculum and local traditions, between the responsible authorities and the profession. There are thus different expectations between the teachers, parents, pupils and the local school culture. The principal is under pressure from many directions: the teachers expect the principal to run the administration and not to engage in what happens in the class-room. Many principals expect the teachers to refrain from discussing the administration of the school. The state and local authorities expect the principals to engage in the educational activities and run the school according to the budget. The local culture suggests a status quo without changes (Nytell 1994; Svedberg 2000; Wahlström 2002; Berg 2006a; Berg 2006b).

The National Insurance Board and the social insurance offices together administer social insurance schemes in Sweden. They are responsible for the greater part of the Swedish financial safety net. Due to economic reasons and a rising ill health rate among the population managers at all levels have been under pressure to cut costs for at least a decade. Staff reductions and the closing of local offices have occurred frequently. The managers in this study are responsible for local offices (Andersen and Månsson 2004). At present there are 200 social insurance officers in Sweden, each with a senior officer in charge.

Managerial behaviour

The comparison of managerial behaviour consists of four theoretical concepts: (1) Leadership style describes the behaviour of the leader by task orientation, relationship orientation and change orientation; (2) Managerial decision-making style describes the way in which managers solve problems and make decisions. Four functions are used to describe this behaviour: sensing, intuition, thinking and feeling; (3) Motivation profile. Three needs are used to denote the motivation profile of leaders: achievement motivation, affiliation motivation and power motivation; and (4) Operation demands focus on the managers’ perception of what kind of demands are most urgent to address in their organisation: relational demands, structural/task demands and development demands. These four factors capture important orientations and aspirations of managers, which lead to specific behavioural patterns.
Leadership theories

The dimensions applied aim at isolating the behavioural pattern that guides leaders’ actual behaviour. Theories on leadership style, decision-making as well as motivation profile all describe leader behaviour. They explain why the behaviour occurs and predicts the outcome (in terms of organizational effectiveness) of the behaviour or behavioural pattern described.

Leadership style

The leadership style theories describe the behavioural pattern of leaders as well as the consequences of various styles in terms of effectiveness. The Ohio State University Leadership Studies established the existence of two behavioural factors in leadership namely, consideration and initiating structure (Fleishman and Harris 1962). Concern for people, employee-centeredness, and concern for production, production centeredness and task orientation are other terms used. These factors are found simultaneously in the behaviour of leaders, but to varying degrees. This statement has been profoundly established, both theoretically and empirically. In the following those styles are called Relationship style and Structure task style.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) report investigations of leadership styles based on the concepts and methods of the Ohio State Studies. When analyzing behavioural data from managers in Sweden, Finland and USA, they found that a third factor emerged. This was called the change-centred leadership style. The style depicts a supervisor who creates visions, accepts new ideas, makes quick decisions and encourages cooperation, who is not overcautious and who does not stress that plans must be followed. The factor may have developed in today’s companies as a consequence of the accelerating rate of change in many areas, which affects both products and processes (Ekvall and Arvonen 1991). In the following this style is called Change development style.

Decision-making style

Jung’s typology (Jung 1921/1971) has also influenced management research. Jung claimed that humans are guided by one of four functions when solving problems. These functions are: sensing which is a perception through our senses; thinking which gives us meaning and understanding; feeling which judges and assesses and intuition which tells us about the possibilities in the future (Jung 1976).

Most humans have one function which is applied the most – the dominant function. The opposite of the dominant function (which is the strength of that person) is the inferior function (which is the weakness of that person). If, for instance, the dominant function is thinking the weakest function will be feeling. If the dominant function is intuition, the inferior function will be sensing.

There are, according to Jung, two ways in which we can perceive problems, namely by the use of sensing and intuition. There are only two ways to solve the problem that is by use of the thinking and feeling functions. Keegan (1984) adopted the theory and
made it available to management. He claims that Jung’s typology gives a genuine insight into the question as to why individuals succeed or fail in their decision-making. The combination of the perceiving and judging functions are called the decision-making style.

**Motivation profile**
McClelland (1961, 1990) has performed extensive research into the relationship between motivation related to behaviour and effectiveness. He claims that every individual has, to varying degrees, a need for achievement (to achieve success), power (to control other people) and affiliation (to be with people). The term «need profile» denotes the relative strength of the three needs. Three motivation profiles are used in this research tradition based on which of the three «needs» is the «strongest», namely achievement motivation profile, affiliation motivated profile and power motivated profile.

McClelland’s conclusion from several studies is as follows: When the need for power in managers is stronger than the need for affiliation it is an indication of effectiveness. What is crucial is not the strength of any specific need but rather the relative strength of the needs – the motive profile.

The need for power is defined as the desire to control other people, to influence their behaviour or to be responsible for other people and their work. McClelland explains why managers with a strong need for power behave in a way that causes effectiveness in organizations. A review of five investigations supports McClelland’s thesis (Andersen 1999).

These factors tap into some important orientations and aspirations of managers, which lead to specific behavioural patterns. Table 1 gives an overview of the dimensions and factors of the model.

**Operational demands**
Arvonen and Ekvall introduce the concept of operational demands (1996). They claim that new business environment will require new management abilities concerning development, creativity and radical innovation. The concept includes three indices, covering change/development requirements, structure requirements and employee development and relations requirements. Operational demands focus on the managers’ perception of what kind of demands are most urgent in their organization: relational, structure/task or development demands. Operational demands is a cognitive variable demonstrating the attitudes of the manager. The assumption is that managers who perceive the demand for change and development in their own organisations to be more urgent than other demands, are more likely to act in order to initiate and implement changes. (Arvonen and Ekvall 1996).
Conclusions on leadership effectiveness

Ekvall and Arvonen (Ekvall and Arvonen 1991; Arvonen and Ekvall 1996) have shown that managers with a distinct change-centred leadership style are seen by their subordinates as more competent than other managers. Empirical investigations support the hypothesis that power motivated managers are more effective than others (Andersen 1994, 1999). There are also some indications that intuitive managers are more effective than others (Andersen 2000a).

There are, altogether, 13 factors in the dimensions of leadership style, decision-making style, motivation profile and operational demands. These factors are theoretically different and complementary. They contribute to a richer description of leadership behaviour. Change related behaviour is explicitly connected to four of those factors: change centred leadership style, intuitive decision-making style, power motivation and change demand. Managers who lead, make decisions, are motivated and understand the demands in line with those factors are on theoretical grounds considered to be more able to lead their organizations in change. Other factors relate to other aspects of leadership behaviour.

Table 1. Dimensions and factors of leadership behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership style</th>
<th>Decision-making style</th>
<th>Motivation profile</th>
<th>Operational demands</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship style</td>
<td>Sensing type</td>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Relational demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure task style</td>
<td>Intuition type</td>
<td>Affiliation motivation</td>
<td>Structure/task demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change development style</td>
<td>Thinking type</td>
<td>Power motivation</td>
<td>Change developmental demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeling type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aim of the investigation

The aim of the investigation is to assess whether vicars have a managerial behavioural style differing from other groups of public officers. In order to accomplish the aim the Swedish vicars’ leadership style, decision-making style, motivation profile and perceived operational demands are compared to the behaviour of school principals and social insurance officers.

Samples and data collection

The first sample comes from vicars in the Church of Sweden which is one of the oldest institutions in Sweden. Ministers are expected to yield both a professional and an organizational contribution. The vicars are on the level below the bishops in the church
hierarchy. They are responsible for the staffing and finance of the activities of the
church in the parish. The vicar is also responsible for the development of parish activ-
ities. In that respect, the vicars are managers as well as spiritual leaders. In 1999, there
were 1,044 vicars (rectors) in the Church of Sweden of whom 153 (15%) were women.
During the spring of 1 999 240 vicars (23%), randomly drawn, received a package of
questionnaires. Responses from 153 vicars (64%) could be used; implying a net
dropout (external and internal) of 36%. Of the 153 vicars who responded 117 (76%)
were males and 36 (24%) were females. More background data of the respondents is
presented in Hansson and Andersen (2001). Data was collected when the decisions to
disestablish the church had been made, but before it was implemented.

The second sample contains principals (headmasters and headmistresses) in
Swedish schools. Almost all schools in Sweden are public organizations even though
independent schools are increasing in number. Each school has a principal and one
or more deputy principal(s). The schools are the responsibility of the municipalities,
while the guidelines for the schools are subject to the Swedish Parliament decisions.
The municipalities decide how to manage the schools in their area. According to
Linde and Lundberg (2003) the total number of principals and vice principals was
8,122 persons during the autumn of 2002. Approximately 8,000 principals are
members of the unions. In 2003 a questionnaire was sent to 300 randomly selected
principals and vice principals in Swedish schools, members of two unions for prin-
cipals. The sample can be considered representative for the whole group. Altogether
184 principals responded. Due to internal dropout the study contains data from 176
persons. The address data bases used were not updated. After two reminders 35
persons sent back the questionnaires indicating that they were no longer principals
or vice principals. That means that the percentage of answers is 66%
(176:265=66%). About 58% of the respondents are women, which is equal to the
population. There is no reason to believe that the respondents differ from the whole
population of principals. The background of the respondents is presented in Hansson
and Andersen (2007). Data was collected in 2003.

The third sample contains data from 61 senior officers in two administrative regions
(counties). They constitute 31% of all officials in charge of social insurance offices in
Sweden. The National Social Insurance Board and the social insurance offices together
administer the social insurance schemes in Sweden. Of the managers investigated 34
(56%) were men and 27 (44%) were women, a distribution which seems to be the
general one in the social insurance sector in Sweden. Data on senior officials in these
two regions was collected by postal survey (response rate 95%) (Andersen and
Månsson 2004). Data was collected in 2003.

All data was collected by postal survey.
Instruments

The instrument for measuring leadership styles
Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) developed and tested an instrument which captures the leadership style factors of the CPE-model as being change-centred style, production-centred style and employee-centred style. The instrument contains 30 items (10 items for each factor). The results show that the CPE-questionnaire contains the qualities required by the research instrument (Ekvall and Arvonen 1991). Skogstad and Einarssen (1999) found substantial support for a distinct change-centred leadership style. The CPE instrument has previously been used by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, 1994), Arvonen and Ekvall (1996) and Ekvall and Ryhammar (1998).

The instrument for measuring decision-making style
The instrument used to collect data on managerial decision-making is The Keegan Type Indicator Form B (KTI) (Keegan 1980, 1982). The KTI is a test for managers that measures decision-making styles based on Jung’s theory (Andersen 2000a). The instrument contains 32 items. Of the 32 items, 24 are bipolar statements and 8 items that are on statements to be ranked on a scale from 1 to 4.

The instrument collects only variables relevant for the study. The instrument has acceptable face and content validity and is based explicitly on Jung’s typology (Andersen 2000a). The instrument has previously been used by Andersen (2000a).

The instrument for measuring motivation profile
The questionnaire applied here – The Andersen Motivation Profile Indicator (AMPI) – is a forced-choice instrument with 24 pairs of questions with 8 pairs of items for each of the variables. It is explicitly developed to measure the motives according to McClelland’s theory and definitions. The AMPI measures the relative strengths of the three
needs, that is, the motivation profile. The instrument, which is masked, is tested for reliability and validity (Andersen 1991) and previously used by Andersen (1994, 1999).

The instrument for measuring operational demands

Arvonen and Ekvall (1996) introduced the concept of operational demands. The concept includes three indices: change/development, structure and employee/relations requirements (Arvonen and Ekvall 1996:5–6). The instrument contains 30 items (10 for each demand) and is based on a Likert scale from 1–6 as with the CPE instrument. The operational demands instrument has been used in studies performed by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, 1994) and Arvonen and Ekvall (1996, 1999).

Table 3. Instruments used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioural dimension</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership style</td>
<td>Structure, Relation, Change</td>
<td>CPE, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision style</td>
<td>Sensing, Thinking, Feeling, Intuition</td>
<td>KTI, Keegan (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation profile</td>
<td>Achievement, Affiliation</td>
<td>AMPI, Andersen (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational demands</td>
<td>Power, Change/development, Structure, Employee/relations</td>
<td>Operational demands instrument (Arvonen and Ekvall 1996)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

Years as manager

Many of the respondents have a long experience as managers (table 4). 50% of the vicars had been in a managerial position for more than 10 years and 35% for more than 15 years. Among the principals 31% had been in their position 1–4 years and 33% 5–9 years. 35% percent had been in a managerial position for more than 10 years and 15% for more than 15 years. A chi square test indicates that the vicars have longer experience as managers than principals, $X^2 (3, N=324)= 10,634 p<.05$. Data for Social Insurance officers is not available.
Leadership style
The result on leadership behavioural styles is based on data from 135 vicars, 155 principals and 58 social insurance officers (table 5). The distribution of the 135 vicars with a distinct leadership behavioural style shows that 82 vicars (61%) had the relationship style, 7 vicars (5%) the structure task style and 46 (34%) the change/development style. 73 (47%) of the principals had the relationship style, 6 principals (4%) the structure task style and 76 (49%) the change/development style. 25 (43%) of the social insurance officers had the relationship style, 3 (5%) the structure task style and 30 (52%) the change/development style. A 3 x 3 Chi-square test shows a slightly significant difference among the three groups, $X^2 (4, N=348)= 8.646, p<.10$. However testing for group differences between vicars and principals shows that the difference between the two groups is significant, $X^2 (2, N=290)= 6.629, p<.05$. Vicars more often have a relationship style than principals and principals more often have a change-development style. There is also a significant difference between vicars and social insurance officers, $X^2 (2, N=193)= 5.486, p<.10$. Social insurance officers more often have a change oriented style and vicars more often a relationship style. We have not found any significant differences between principals and social insurance officers, $X^2 (2, N=213)= 0.377, p>.80$. According to the chi square tests, the vicars differ from the other managers in being more relationships-oriented and less change-development oriented.

Table 5. Leadership style. Percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership behavioural style</th>
<th>Vicars %</th>
<th>Principals %</th>
<th>Social insurance officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship style</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure task style</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change development style</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Some of the respondents did not have a distinct style and are not included in the statistics.
Decision-making style

The distribution of decision functions is based on data from 151 vicars, 172 principals and 58 social insurance officers (table 6). The data shows that 41 (27%) vicars were of the sensing type, 25 (17%) of the intuitive type, 21 (14%) of the thinking type and 64 (42%) of the feeling type. The distribution among principals was as follows; 23 (13%) the sensing type, 66 (38%) the intuitive type, 33 (19%) the thinking type and 50 (29%) the feeling type (table 6). 11 (19%) of the social insurance officers were of the sensing type, 21 (37%) of the intuitive type, 13 (22%) of the thinking type and 13 (22%) of the feeling type. A 3 x 4 Chi-square test shows a significant difference among the three groups, X² (6, N=381)= 30.777 p<.0001. Testing for group differences between vicars and principals shows that the difference between the two groups is significant, X² (2, N=323)= 27.668 p<.0001. Vicars are more often feeling and sensing types than principals. Principals are more often intuitive types. There is also a significant difference between vicars and insurance officers, X² (2, N=209)= 14.881 p<.001. Vicars are more often feeling and sensing types. Insurance officers are more often intuitive types. We have not found any significant differences between principals and social insurance officers, X² (3, N=230)= 1.899 p>.50. According to the chi square tests the vicars differ from the other managers in being more feeling and sensing types and less intuitive types.

Table 6. Decision-making style. Percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision-making style</th>
<th>Vicars</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>Social insurance officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensing type</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuitive type</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking type</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling type</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Some of the respondents did not have a distinct style and are not included in the statistics.

Motivation profile

The distribution of the motivation profile is based on data from 145 vicars, 152 principals and 53 social insurance officers. Table 7 shows that 19 vicars (13%) had an achievement motivation profile, 83 (57%) an affiliation motivation profile and 43 (30%) a power motivation profile. The corresponding figures for principals are: 67 (44%) an achievement motivation profile, 39 (26%) an affiliation motivation profile and 46 (30%) a power motivation profile. 28 (53%) of the social insurance officers had an achievement motivation profile, 4 (7%) an affiliation motivation profile and 21
A 3 x 3 Chi-square test shows a significant difference among the three groups, $X^2 (4, N=350) = 65,681, p<.0001$. Vicars are more affiliation motivated than the other managers. They, on the other hand, are more achievement motivated than the vicars. Testing for group differences between vicars and principals and for vicars and insurance officers shows the same differences, $X^2 (2, N=297) = 42,619, p<.0001$ and $X^2 (2, N=198) = 48,813, p<.0001$. There is also a significant difference between principals and social insurance officers, $X^2 (2, N=205) = 7,848, p<.05$. Principals are more affiliation motivated than insurance officers, who are more power motivated. According to the chi square tests the vicars differ from the other managers in being more affiliation motivated. The other managers are more achievement motivated than the vicars. Social insurance officers are more achievement and power motivated than the other groups.

Table 7. Motivation profile. Percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation profile</th>
<th>Vicars</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>Social insurance officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Some of the respondents did not have a distinct profile and are not included in the statistics.

Operational demands

The respondents were also asked which operational demands they found most important to fulfil. Table 8 shows that all managers found relational demands most important. However vicars found structure task demands more important than principals and social insurance officers. They found change and developmental demands more important. A 3 x 3 Chi-square test shows a significant difference among the three groups, $X^2 (4, N=337) = 16,086, p<.005$. Although all managers point out relational demands as most important, vicars are less change developmental oriented and more structure/task oriented than expected. Testing for group differences between vicars and principals and for vicars and insurance officers shows the same differences, $X^2 (2, N=276) = 9,208, p<.01$ and $X^2 (2, N=183) = 9,551, p<.01$. There is also a significant difference between principals and social insurance officers, $X^2 (2, N=215) = 6,516, p<.05$ as insurance officers are more relationships-oriented than principals.
Per Hansson and Jon Aarum Andersen: Vicars as managers revisited

Discussion

**Vicars constitute a special group**

According to the results the vicars stand out as a special group of managers. Their leadership style is predominantly relationship-oriented. The principals and social insurance officers are more oriented to change and development. In their decision-making style the vicars differ from the other managers in being more feeling and sensing types and less intuitive types. In their leadership motivation style the vicars are more affiliation motivated than the other managers. The vicars envision the primary operational demand as relational (as do principals and insurance officers).

According to the analysis the principals and insurance officers have a similar managerial profile. We found only one significant difference in the 13 factors between the principals and insurance officers: the insurance officers are more power motivated than the principals.

The profile of the vicars indicates a leadership behaviour more heavily oriented towards relations in contrast to the principals and social insurance officers. Principals and insurance officers differ distinctively from vicars. An attempt to clarify the differences is made in table 9. The vicars’ dominant profile is relational in all aspects of their leadership profile. The profile of both principals and social insurance officers is more aimed at achieving goals, change and development. For principals this is in line with «To work with teachers in school improvement» was indicated as the main reason to become a principal (Gamage and Hansson 2006). Interestingly enough all managers find the relational demands to be the most important in their organizations. One explanation might be that Swedish managers as a group are characterized by their relationship-orientation (Andersen 2004:217–218). When it comes to social insurance, 83% of the managers indicated relational demands as the most important. These officers work under a financial pressure and at a line of downsizing. One might think that they try to compensate for the hardships of their employees. The second most common demand

### Table 8. Operational demands. Percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operational demands</th>
<th>Vicars</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>Social insurance officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relational demands</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure/task demands</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change developmental demands</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Some of the respondents did not have a distinct profile and are not included in the statistics.
Priests as a group have a strong orientation towards people and towards serving people (Hansson 2001a), which is probably the case in most churches (cf. Coopman and Meidlinger 2000). This is evident in the investigation by the high scores on relationship-oriented leadership style, the large number who are feeling types as well as the dominance of the affiliation motivation profile.

**Priestly work rests on relationships**

As mentioned above the priestly work can be seen as both spiritual and managerial. The clerical work basically relies on relations (Russel 1980; Carroll 1991) in its spiritual part. The vicar is not only manager of the local parish but also, most of the time, the spiritual leader. The managerial tasks for vicars in small parishes are less time consuming than the spiritual tasks. In larger parishes, though, one can assume that the managerial tasks take a large proportion of the vicar’s time. However, relations are an important part in most professional work: both principals and social insurance officers must rely on relations in their frequent contact with students and parents as sick people and doctors, respectively. However schools and social insurance offices are mostly larger organisations than parishes which might partly explain the results.

The vocational training of priests for the Church of Sweden is primarily addressing the spiritual side of pastoral work although there has been a demand for more leadership training during recent years (Larsson 1999; Bruhn et al. 2005). In this respect there is no difference between vicars and principals and other professional groups: the vocational training for all professions focuses on the primary functions of the professions and not on managerial tasks to come in the future. Vicars, principals and social insurance officers have been offered leadership training during recent years. For both vicars

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**Table 9. Most common profile (all differences between vicars and principals/insurance officers significant)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadersh</th>
<th>Vicars</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>Social insurance officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ship behaviour style</td>
<td>Relationship style (61%)</td>
<td>Change development style (49%)</td>
<td>Change development style (52%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making style</td>
<td>Feeling type (42%)</td>
<td>Intuitive type (38%)</td>
<td>Intuitive type (37%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation profile</td>
<td>Affiliation motivation (57%)</td>
<td>Achievement motivation (44%)</td>
<td>Achievement motivation (53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational demands</td>
<td>Structure task demands (12%)</td>
<td>Change development demands (22%)</td>
<td>Change development demands (17%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 All managers have relational demands as their first choice (79–83%). The table shows the second most common demand.
and principals there is an ongoing discussion on the need for more training in the area. A committee under the National Board of the Church of Sweden has suggested an academic leadership training (15 ECTS) as a qualifying course for vicars (Behörighetsgivande utbildning (Qualifying Course) 2006).

One must also keep in mind that the system of the Swedish Church has been stable since the Reformation in the 16th century. The nature of the church organisation, favouring stability and tradition does not primarily encourage change initiatives. One can talk about the weight of history (Andersen 2000b). It seems also reasonable to suggest that promotion procedures and criteria applied by the church favours those who are oriented towards stability. 50 percent of the vicars were recruited into their position more than ten years before the survey in a time when the Church of Sweden was more stable as an organization. Although discussions on disestablishment at that time were ongoing, no decisions had been taken. There were no immediate demands for change. Membership rates were rather stable and the economy based on taxation. The recruitment process at that time did probably not take into account the need for change in the future.

The leadership style and the operational demand preferences are due to attitude. Attitudes can change but are seen as relatively stable factors. The decision-making functions are stable personality factors. Motivation factors (needs) are also seen as relatively stable factors. This leads to a discussion on the recruitment process to different professions and if different professions attract people with different preferences. Eadie (1975) suggests that clergy are prone to a personality type called «the helping personality». Edie states that this type applies to at least two-thirds of any group of clergy and is found also in other groups as welfare officers, nurses, doctors and psychologists. Strong evidence for this personality type was found among Swedish clergy (Gestegård and Reimer 1976). «The helping personality» is characterized by its relational preoccupation and by difficulties in drawing a line between work and private life (cf. Rose and Lawlis 1975; Hansson 2006a). Assuming that «the helping personality» is still dominant among Swedish clergy the outcome of our investigation seems logical.

The results might thus be at least partly explained by that different professions attract different people. Clerical work attracts relation-oriented persons and feeling types. One should also take into account that the profession may have an influence on the individual: after some years in clerical work one can assume that the relationship-orientation gets stronger.

Conclusions

Vicars in the Church of Sweden have a distinct managerial behaviour, which differs from the other managers investigated. Vicars are more relationship-oriented than the other managers in our comparison. The outcome can be explained by several factors: the weight of history, the character of pastoral work, the vocational training and the personalities attracted by the call to priesthood. For the time being the Church of Sweden undergoes a large restructuring of the parish system. Small parishes are joined
into larger units (Selander 2003). This calls for leadership with a propensity to manage change. Maybe the Church should intensify leadership training and make some changes in the criteria for promoting clergy to vicars?

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