THE NEGATIVE ORGANISATIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF AVERAGE LEADERSHIP SKILLS. CASE STUDIES BASED ON KEN BLANCHARD'S PARADIGM

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Abstract

Background. Organizational leadership is constantly present in the reflection of management science. It seems that the timeliness of the organizational leadership topic comes not only from the importance of managing teams of workers, but also from the changes that are taking place in: attitudes employees, the expectations of the organization and in the organizational environment. It causes the need for continuous reflection, because solutions adequate a couple of years ago, may not be conformed to contemporary situation. Organizational leadership is an interesting theme of reflection, because is an area of knowledge between management science and psychology. It is possible to venture the statement, that the reflection from one of these areas is enriched by the second one.

Research aims. An average level of managerial skills can be considered as "good enough". However, does this mean that it is the same as "correct"? The article indicates that nowadays "average" is "too little".

Methodology. On the basis of a few selected case studies of Polish organisations, the author presents the disadvantages of an average level of managerial skills. The analysis of the case studies and the particular types of organisational disorders will be based on the Situational Leadership Model developed by Ken Blanchard. The author analyses two situations in organisations: the leader using mainly styles S2 and S3 and the leader using mainly styles S1 and S4.

Key findings. The author shows the consequences of average level of managerial skills for: a single employee, the team, the effects for another organisational processes (recruitment, employee turnover). The article also describes the psychological mechanism (social game or the archetype) that is often the background of that kind of behaviour (S2–S3; S1–S4) in the organisation.

Key words: leadership style, organisational psychology, relations in organisations, social games

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INTRODUCTION

The topic of organisational leadership has generated a vast literature and diametrically opposed opinions on its role in organisations.

In general-scale: On the one hand, leaders are ascribed exceptional influence on organisations, according to the so-called mechanism of the "Moses myth" (Czarniawska, 2010, pp. 99–101), where stories circulating within a particular culture become behavioural patterns in social situations. On the other hand, however, what is emphasised is a model of managers creating organisations doing without formal leaders (Laloux, 2014).

The authors (in general-scale) declaring the importance of leadership, often try to describe them in terms of a one preferred type or model. Often, the discourse takes the form of indications of other types of leadership and the dilemmas associated with them. Then pointed to a solution to these dilemmas the next type, which is a suggestion of the author. For example, talking about the leader, S. Western (2012) describes three types of leadership: leader as controller, leader as therapist, leader as messiah. To then suggest a solution to dilemmas in the form of an eco-leader. R. Dorczak (2015) also describes leadership, confused with: management; being an officer; position of the best employee. Then propose to the leader described by competences and oriented on the value.

In small-scale: dilemmas are accompanied also to the shape of leader's behaviour. A good example could be a work by P. Duignan and V. Collins (2003). They describe "a range of tensions at the heart of leadership practice" (Murphy, 2007, p. 5). On the basis of 1000 surveys, 100 interviews, and debates via the website (500 participants), researchers formulate 7 basic dilemmas about leadership:

1. good of the community vs. rights of the individual,
2. loyalty vs. honesty,
3. service vs. economic rationalism,
4. status quo vs. development,
5. long-term vs. short-term,
6. care (individual) vs. rules (consistency),
7. values (articulated) vs. practice (what is done).

These extreme positions (both in general- and small-scale) can be responded to with the concept of a leader that is "good enough" (Turek,

2015), by analogy to D.W. Winnicott's notion of the "good-enough mother" (Abram, 2007, p. 39). Another solution of this dilemma is to propose special skill profiles of organisational leaders for particular situations, for example the proposal of a "good leader for the time of crisis" or a "leader using two styles of conduct interchangeably" (Lees, Gabarro, & DeLong, 2008; Maner, 2017; Petriglieri, 2017).

Irrespective of one's views on the nature of organisational leadership, we can agree that its character is changeable and reflecting, among other things, social expectations or attractive myths of culture (Czarniawska, 2010, pp. 73–102), a maturity level of social awareness and the resultant levels of organisational maturity (Laloux, 2014), macroeconomic processes such as market globalisation or digitisation (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2015, pp. 2–3).

Nevertheless, it appears that the proposals which either lower/simplify standards or excessively narrow/specialise expectations are not an effective solution to the aforementioned dilemmas and contradictions. The research conducted by P.H. Hersey, K.H. Blanchard and D.E. Johnson in the past 40 years (Hersey et al., 2015, p. 199) describes the negative consequences of simplified and narrowed solutions related to the behaviour of leaders in organisations. Based on the analyses of the profiles of management styles obtained by means of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaire, the research focuses on two of the four management styles presented in the Situational Leadership SL II® model (Blanchard et al., 2016). The authors themselves claim (Hersey et al., 2015, p. 199) that the descriptions of the profiles containing two of the four styles were based on the examination of 80,000 events from fourteen different cultures. The research was based not only on the self-descriptions of the leaders but also on LEAD questionnaires constituting feedback from other participants and supplementing information provided in self-descriptions. Furthermore, the questionnaire-based research was extended by 2,000 interviews conducted with the people who had previously completed the questionnaire, including 500 in-depth interviews.

Thus, it might appear that the issue to be discussed in this article could be considered exhausted because:
1. we are in possession of complete and well documented data,
2. the problem is of little significance – it turns out that the leaders using two of the four styles may avoid low results and acquire average results in the LEAD questionnaire with respect to style

flexibility and effectiveness; therefore, in favourable conditions, they can function correctly.

However, referring to the statements above, we should take into consideration the following facts:

1. presented by P.H. Hersey, the impressive collection of results has been compiled for over 40 years; since the first presentation of analyses based on the LEAD questionnaire in P.H. Hersey's doctoral dissertation (1975) in the mid-1970s considerable changes have occurred in our understanding of organisational leadership (Czarniawska, 2010, pp. 73–87), the functioning of organisations (Laloux, 2014, pp. 50–51) as well as their characterisation and the tools of their development (Cummings, & Worley, 2009, pp. 451–464),

2. the effectiveness of the functioning of the leaders using two of the four styles results from the qualities of the environment in which such leaders function, if the organisation:

    a) is stable and there is no need to manage the implementation of changes (Blanchard, 2016, pp. 197–218),

    a) has a culture which rewards conformism and repetition, in the subsequent years, of the methods of conduct proven in the past; this is usually accompanied by a formal and stable hierarchical structure (Laloux, 2014, pp. 31–32),

in such case there is no need to increase the scope of the leader's opportunities if they are to be "good enough". We could risk a statement that the world of stable organisations has been shrinking (Laloux, 2014, p. 50). It suffices to mention such phenomena exerting influence on the functioning of organisations as the co-existence of three generations of employees representing different styles of functioning or multicultural (frequently virtual) teams of employees resulting from globalisation. It may indicate that the leaders using two of the four styles will stop being "good enough".

According to the presentation of theoretical positions defined is the purpose of the article understood as: consequences of the use 2 out of 4 management styles (classification by K. Blanchard). The following research question also arises:

1. What are the short-term effects achieved by the use of 2 out of 4 styles?

2. What long-term effects can we achieve by applying the 2 out of 4 styles?

3. What effects can we note in the relationships between superiors and subordinates in case when a manager/leader uses 2 out of 4 styles?

THE METHOD OF CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH AND THE PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The case studies presented in this article are based on participant observations carried out for at least three days in each organisation and in-depth interviews with people managing the particular organisations and their employees. Both the observations and the interviews were inspired by the model proposed by K. Blanchard with respect to the practice of two of the four management styles (Hersey et al., 2015, pp. 199–207); it turned out, however, that the data acquired in consequence of the observations and the interviews went beyond the phenomena referred to by the authors of the SL II® model. Hence the further part of this article is based on the structure of a case study consisting of the following three elements:

A. A description formulated originally by the authors of the Situational Leadership SL II® model (Blanchard et al., 2016);
B. A description of the situation of the examined organisation;
C. The author's comments extending the original description of the authors of the SL II® model.

Case 1: The leader using mainly the S2 and S3 styles or the archetype of "sweet poison"

A. A description of the authors of the Situational Leadership SL II® model.

According to the authors of the SL II® model, people with this type of profile tend to work with people from the R2 and R3 levels; however, they may have a problem with disciplining groups from the R1 level and the development of people from the R4 level by delegating tasks. Furthermore, they claim that such managers regard the S2-S3 styles as safe, while the S1 and S4 styles as risky.

The authors also express their belief that this combination of the styles (S2–S3) is the most frequently identified in the USA and countries with a high level of education and extensive experience in the industry. Managers in emerging markets rather tend to combine the S1–S2 styles (Hersey et al., 2015, pp. 200–202).

   B.   A case study of a consulting firm.

A certain consulting firm specialising in the economic law employed about a dozen people. Its owner was a person attaching much importance to his own personal development. The firm and its owner had gone through a number of crises which, in the owner's opinion, had contributed to the greater maturity of the organisation as well as its employees.

The owner reported problems with staff recruitment and a decision making problem related to the selection of a person (from among the current employees) to become an associate/managing partner.

From the moment of entering the firm's premises one could recognise a friendly and nicely relaxed atmosphere indicating that the organisation had been taking care of its employees' social needs. The modern and austere equipment could imply professionalism and discretion to clients. Such an impression was also emphasised by the behaviour of the employees, focused on work at their desks; if their work required any consultations, they quietly moved towards other colleagues or the superior to discuss a matter at hand. There were no signs of nervousness, no screaming at anybody or running around with documents. The organisation spared no effort to ensure the stability of employment for its employees: salaries were considered as rather high for a company of such a size in this particular sector and the equipment of the break room attracted the attention of all visitors.

After a close examination of the functioning of the firm, it turned out that, in the case of both newly recruited candidates and old employees, the assignment and supervision of tasks was carried out in an extremely specific manner.

New employees were selected under a multi-stage selection process, but it was the process of introducing a new employee to their duties that was quite peculiar. Discussing a new recruit's duties, the owner frequently asked them the following questions: How would you do this? What ideas do you have? What legal acts would you use in this case? In which direction would you move your interpretation? Thus, he avoided directive instructions (S1), talking about particular duties in the categories of the consultative style (S2). On the one hand, the newly recruited employees were motivated by such a manner of talking to them ("they treat us not as students, but as practitioners"), but on the other hand, they frequently did not know the answer or provided incorrect answers. Dialogues of the same type occurred during monitoring of the

fulfilment of duties and the discussion of difficulties with the execution of tasks. Both discussions related to the assignment of tasks and the monitoring of their performance resulted in some kind of ambivalence for both parties: on the one hand, they regarded such contacts as valuable conversations about the practice of their profession, but on the other hand, there appeared a lot of negative emotions appeared (e.g. anger at hearing an incorrect answer or fear of failure).

In the case of experienced employees, the assignment of tasks was conducted in accordance with the principles of delegation: an employee was informed about the expected results and the availability of resources was agreed upon. However, monitoring of the performance of a task went beyond a discussion of reaching successive milestones or required partial results. The owner willingly warmed up the climate of such conversations, indicating his interest in an employee's personal life or asking about possible difficulties, concerns, or sources of risk. He reacted with visible approval if an employee provided any personal information or referred to any difficulties. Thus, this manner of conducting conversations caused the avoidance of delegation (S4) and attempts to talk, using the supportive style (S3). This style of talks resulted frequently in the appearance of obstacles in the performance of assigned tasks related to an employee's personality or to the identification of difficulties. Consequently, subsequent talks or monitoring meetings were conducted fully in the supportive style (S3): the owner asked about solutions and allowed experienced employees to make final decisions concerning solutions to previously identified problems.

C.   A reflection broadening the original description of the authors of the SL II® model.

1. The author of the model combines the tendency to use exclusively the S2–S3 styles with the high level of education and economic development; it seems that it is not the only reason: at present attention should be paid to changes in what is expected from managers towards coaching (as a method of developing managerial competences and as expectations concerning the directions of shaping relationships with co-workers); it seems that the style of communication referred to as coaching is identified in organisations as the consultative style or the supportive style (S2/S3). Sometimes, organisations understand coaching as the combination of the consultative style and the supportive style (S2–S3) containing the selected elements of either style.

Irrespective of the variant (S2/S3 or S2–S3), there may appear organisational expectations causing the consolidation of such a style of conduct in relationships with subordinates.

2. The author of the model notices managers' reluctance to use S1 and S4 (which are perceived as risky) with the simultaneous preference for S2–S3 (which are perceived as safe), but he does not identify the sources of such behaviour; the possible source of the observed tendency in behaviour and the assessment of styles is the fact that the S1 and S4 styles (which are perceived as risky) require managers to adopt an unambiguous attitude:

   • taking over control of the entire task-based relationship and the manner of performing a task (S1),
   • taking over control of the initial part of a talk in a task-based relationship (results and resources), openness to business negotiations with a strong partner (co-worker) with respect to a balance between results and resources, and handing over control of the manner of performing a task (S4).

3. The excessive use of S2–S3 as employee management styles requires also managers to find the golden means between "work based on the relationship" and "excessive psychologising" – managers who use S2–S3 excessively tend too much to "lean over" the problems of co-workers coming from outside the area of task-based functioning at the workplace, which, on the part of employees, may result in exaggerating the importance of personal matters in order to become the focus of the leader's attention, win their time or individual conversation, or to negotiate a reduction in expected results (even with a long-term recovery programme – I'm going to show the leader that "I'm doing something; I'm trying to be a better and better employee" and as long as I try to be better, "I'm given easier goals to achieve").

4. If the manager uses the S2 style too soon in relationships with employees at the R1 stage, it causes a low quality of people's work at the R1 stage and the necessity to correct work results by the superior; the lack of S1 and too much freedom resulting from the use of the S2 style cause the superior to spend a lot of time on the building of an employee's competences: using S2, the superior guides the employee towards a solution, instead of using S1 and telling the employee at once how to perform a task step by step [cf. Figure 1].
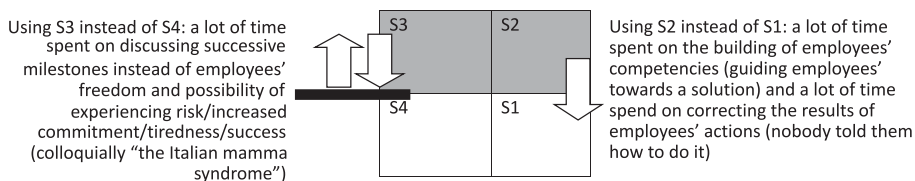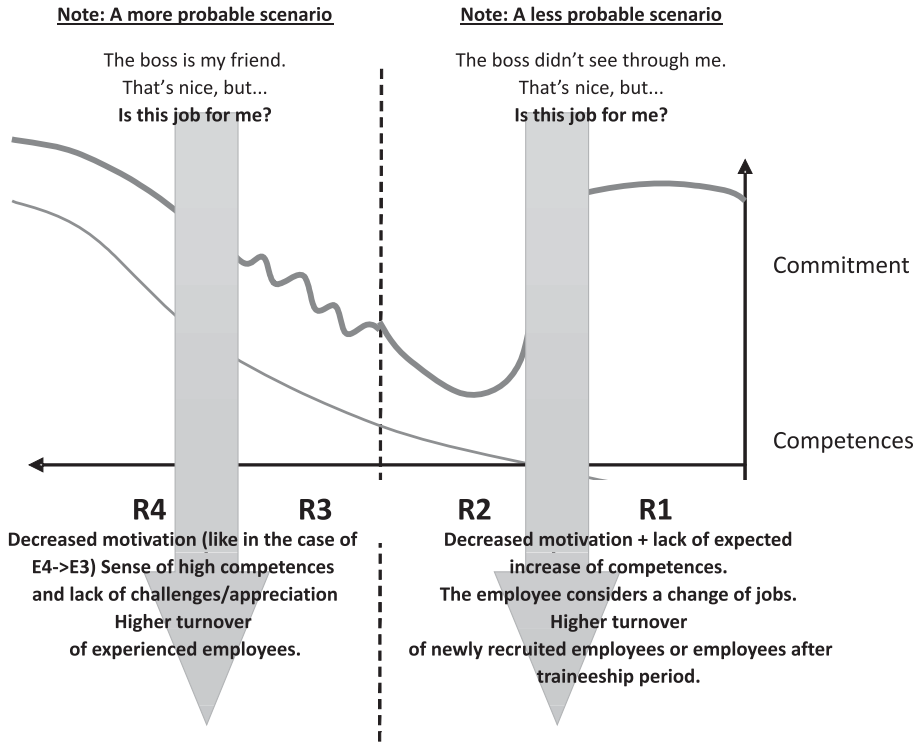
Figure 1. The consequences of an excessive use of the S2 and S3 styles – relationships between the manager and the subordinate

Source: own work.

5. The use of S3 instead of S4 causes relationships between superiors and employees to be close and open; however, superiors spend too much time discussing the performance of tasks with employees; instead of the employee's sending the message "I've reached another goal/milestone and report this accordingly", they send the following message: "I have the following proposals concerning further actions, possible milestones; please, let's talk about the best possible choice"; thus we have a situation in which instead of achieving objectives and facing challenges on their own, independent employees spend a lot of time on talks with superiors about selecting further courses of action.

6. The excessive use of the S2–S3 combination may not be problematic for employees; they have open relationships with their managers; their company has a good interpersonal climate; however, this combination may constitute a problem for the organisation (cf. Figure 2):
   • it causes superiors to spend too much time (on training new employees and making decisions together with dependent, although experienced, employees),
   • it blocks business growth (the paradigm described by P. Senge [2008, pp. 159–165]: development within growth limits) because growth by delegation is impossible: when a superior manages more than 8–10 employees, it becomes impossible for them, with respect to time availability, to work based on the S2–S3 style (enough time for long and individual talks based on the S2–S3 style, instead of delegating tasks according to the S4 style).

Thus, the use of the combination of the S2 and S3 styles in work with a team of employees can be considered an example of the archetype of "sweet poison": the interpersonal climate is positive, the superior

appears to be unusually "humane" and focused on the employees; however, such an approach generates negative consequences for both individual employees and the functioning of the whole organisation.

Figure 2. The consequences of the excessive use of the S2 and S3 styles – the functioning of the employee in the organisation

Source: own work.

Case 2: The leader uses mainly the S1 and S4 styles or the psychological game "Now I gotcha…"

A. A description of the authors of the Situational Leadership SL II® model.

According to the authors of the SL II® model, people with this type of a profile are good leaders to carry out organisational interventions (S1) and to restore organisational stability allowing the restoration of task delegation processes. Similarly to the S1–S3 profile, leaders characterised by the S1–S4 profile display a tendency to disregard leadership skills related to employee development, which causes problems with the building of employees' competences (their movement from R1 to R4).

Leaders showing this type of behaviour also tend to make extreme mistakes in managing a group of employees (either S1 or S4, irrespective of a situation); therefore, style S1–S4 in the leader's behaviour is regarded as risky; the use of extreme styles only worsens the functioning of the team and causes difficulties in achieving the expected results:

- if the leader uses S4 towards the team which is at the initial stage of its development, the employees will not be developing and the team will find it difficult to achieve the agreed objectives; the employees may show concerns about methods of acting or try to act on their own in order to accomplish the objectives at any cost; in other words, the employees do not know how to act and act according to their own ideas, which increases the role of accidents with respect to the accomplishment of objectives;
- on the other hand, the use of S1 towards the team at a high level of development will cause bitterness and concern in the competent employees; consequently, they will resist the leader's actions, undermine the leader's authority, and attempt to have a new leader appointed.

Furthermore, leaders with the S1–S4 profile may be regarded as manipulative.

It is interesting that the S1–S4 style (similarly to the S1–S3 one) has the character of a self-fulfilling prophecy: it turns out that leaders coming to groups representing a full range of the employee types (R1, R2, R3, R4) after some time turn them into teams consisting exclusively of people representing the R1 and R4 types. Of course, the S1 style is important at the initial team development stages and in situations of crisis when discipline or intervention is required. Also the S4 style is useful in managing people who want to maximise their achievements and develop their potential. The S4 style is important not only for the accomplishment of objectives but also for the training of employees who may replace the leader in the future. However, if leaders with the S1–S4 profile want simultaneously to develop the S2 and S3 styles, they need to pay close attention to their skills of diagnosing the needs of a team of employees (Hersey et al., 2015, pp. 203–204).

B.   A case study of an advertising firm.

A firm from the advertising sector has local branches in a few cities in Poland; every branch employs 2–3 people who personally serve clients in their respective locations and participate remotely in the performance of larger projects. Most projects consist in promoting a client's

brand in the social media; few projects are long-term undertakings connected with the provision of comprehensive brand-related service.

Some employees reported difficulties in cooperation with the person managing the branches. That person was not the owner of the firm; she was responsible for the management of relationships with small and medium-sized clients, while the owner focused on the largest clients and the supervision of long-term orders in the firm's portfolio.

Just a few days' stay in the firm showed an extremely changeable atmosphere. The employees fulfilled their duties quickly and efficiently; one could get the impression that they liked their work activities. They exchanged opinions spontaneously and supported each other in the performance of tasks by suggesting possible solutions to occurring problems. A change in the employees' behaviour occurred when they had to contact the manager. The manager displayed a constant character of building relationships with the employees in connection with the assignment and monitoring of tasks. This character was the same whether she was contacting the employees in person, over the phone, or an instant messaging application.

When the manager was allocating tasks, she was usually vague in specifying the expected results and/or resources necessary for the performance of work. Her typical instructions had the following form: "Replace this photo with a new/better/different/darker one". When asked for a more precise description of the expected outcome, she tended to say, "You've worked here for such a long time; you should know better", or "Who do I have to work with? [with contempt]". This type of opening a relationship meant that at the time of monitoring the performance of the assigned task the manager could carry out the following sequence of actions: expressing dissatisfaction with the final/partial result; taking over control over the performance of the task. In such situations, the manager usually said: "No, not like this; correct it...", "Do it better...", but still without providing any hints about the expected result. During a subsequent "monitoring talk" the employee could expect that the manager would take the task away from them ("Give it to me", "I'll do it [better]") or would try to do the job step by step together with the employee, sitting next to them at a computer (if the manager happened to be in person at a particular location).

After approximately half a year the employees learned the specific rules of the game played by the manager and adjusted their behaviour accordingly. When the manager was conducting her first "monitoring

talk" and producing her "Change this..." line, the employees answered, "But this is exactly what the client wanted". Then the manager withdrew, but returned after some time with new comments about the result achieved by a particular employee.

The employees tried to guess the manager's expectations with more precision already during the allocation of tasks. But they were brushed off with such comments as "You don't know this?", "Decide yourself", "I can't talk about it now, I'm busy" and... during a monitoring talk or a task acceptance procedure the situation was restored to the social situation described above, i.e. the opening of a relationship starting with such statements as "No, not like this; correct it...", "Do it better...".

As this situation tended to repeat itself and appeared to offer no way out, first individually and later collectively, the employees started to think about looking for a new job.

C.   A reflection broadening the original description of the authors of the SL II® model.

The author of the model mentions that leaders with the S1–S4 profile may be regarded as manipulative, but he does not identify the character of manipulation (Hersey et al., 2015, pp. 203–204). At the beginning it is worth showing the mechanism of manipulation and subsequently to show the consequences of manipulation for employee relationships. The manipulation of a leader using S1–S4 may have (in a relationship with an individual employee) the character of a game such as "Now I gotcha, sonofabitch" according to the typology proposed by E. Berne (2010, pp. 65–68). In this case, it is a game concerning a workplace and comprising the following steps of manipulation:

    a) the boss assigns the employee a task but does not specify the expected result precisely or provides the employee with insufficient resources (especially too little time),

    b) the boss does not impose any particular method of performing the task, but...,

    c) during the monitoring/acceptance procedure the boss shows annoyance and claims that the result does not meet the expectation of the original assignment,

    d) the boss resorts to the S1 relationship supplemented with the (informal and/or formal) authority to impose punishment – in the categories of a psychological game, the boss moves away from the position of a persecutor (c) and a victim (c) and pretends to be a "rescuer" (d).

Similarly to numerous other social games, what we have in this case is a structure of the so-called drama triangle – a concept formulated by S. Karpman (1968) and continuously developed since then, which was based on E. Berne's approach to social games (cf. Figure 3).
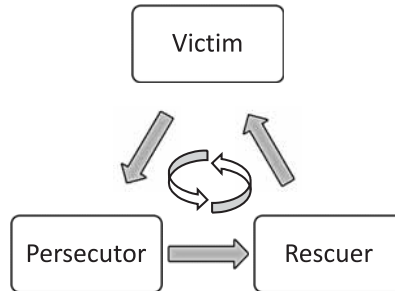
Figure 3. A basic structure of the drama triangle

Source: own work based on: Berne, 2010, pp. 55–62.

It is worth analysing the manipulation of the manager who uses the combination of the S1–S4 styles and plays the game called "Now I gotcha sonofabitch". The manager plays the game in two versions, but always moves counterclockwise within the structure of the game (cf. Figure 3):

1. The manager starts to play the game in the role of the Victim (asks for quick support); subsequently, monitoring the task, the manager becomes the Persecutor (states that this is not what the client has expected) in order to move on to the role of the Rescuer (performs the task themselves or suspends other activities in order to personally supervise the performance of the task the result of which has been previously criticized).

2. or: The manager starts to play the game in the role of the Persecutor (orders with authority that the task be performed); monitoring the performance of the task, the manager becomes the Rescuer (the manager performs the task themselves or supervises its performance personally); eventually the manager becomes the Victim (the manager complains about incompetent employees).

At the same time the employee plays their own (complementary) game within the scope of the same scenario. The employee plays the

game also in two versions, and just like their manager moves counterclockwise within the structure of the game (cf. Figure 3):

1. when the manager starts to play the game in the role of the Victim, the employee adopts the role of the Rescuer (the employee offers support, suspends the performance of current duties in order to comply with the manager's request); when the game moves from the Victim to the Persecutor, the employee changes from the Rescuer to the Victim (the employee listens to what the manager is saying without protest); the game on the part of the employee may end at this point – the employee has received their payment in the form of negative emotions and free time (the manager will take care of the matter as the Rescuer),

2. when the manager starts to play the role of the Persecutor, the employee adopts the role of the Victim (the employee assumes the task) but as soon as the manager becomes the Rescuer (the manager performs the task themselves or personally supervises the performance of the task), the employee becomes the Aggressor (the employee declares that they have made changes requested by the client); when in consequence of this twist the manager becomes the Victim, the employee can stop the game and collect their reward (negative emotions at both ends of the relationship) or exist as the Rescuer (the employee may contact the client), which initiates another round through the whole system of relationships, but this time emotions are stronger and the game enters the next level of advancement (the client gets involved in the game).

An interesting aspect of the situation in which the manager uses only the S1–S4 style is that the source of the problem is not only the lack of social skills (with respect to management styles) or difficulties with learning new forms of behaviour. In the light of the above analysis of the behaviour of the superior and the subordinate as a psychological game, it turns out that situations in organisations are more complex. If we assume that the reason is the game based on a drama triangle and the manager has strong psychological justifications, e.g. justifying their anger and avoiding confrontation with their own vices (Berne, 2010, p. 68), then it turns out that the exclusive use of the S1–S4 style is only a tool (one of many possible ones) of playing the game.

What should also be taken into consideration is that together with games there co-exist people's convictions about themselves and

others, for example: "They're always lying in wait to do you harm", "People can't be trusted" (Berne, 2010, p. 68). Thus problems lie in something other than behaviour. If we accept such conclusions, it means that the social situation at a workplace is more difficult to change than we could originally assume (cf. Figure 4). It indicates modification not only at the level of behaviour (skills) but also at the level of secondary benefits derived from social situations (habits) and at the level of convictions about oneself and employees (convictions about the environment).
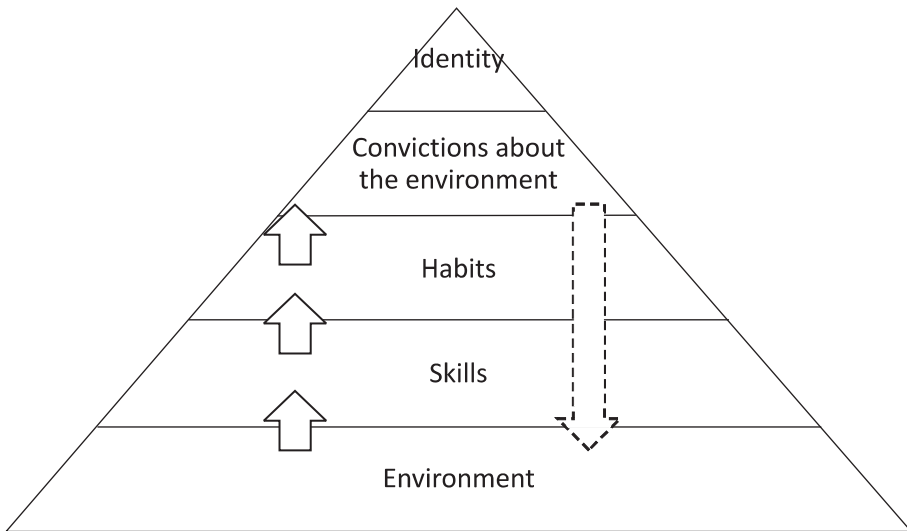
Figure 4. The levels of support with respect to the development of basic competences

Source: own work based on: Duhigg, 2013, pp. 189–224, and Dilts, 1990.

Irrespective of the discussion of Dilts's model and its validity (Figure 4), we may assume that the manager's using exclusively the S1–S4 styles goes beyond poor skills and may refer to the more complex processes described by psychology (games as a form of social functioning). If we have to deal with the manager as a "player", also changes in the situation of an organisation (the use of the four styles as determined by the employee's needs) and the resultant development of a new environment for cooperation within teams go beyond the level of skills. An effective change comprises also habits and convictions, although obviously it is possible to start with changes in

the environment – in time they may change one's level of convictions about oneself and the world (Figure 4).

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the aforementioned analyses, we may conclude that results measured by means of a LEAD questionnaire and described as average may indicate too low a level of managerial skills as far as the needs of modern organisations are concerned. This happens in particular in the case of average questionnaire results and the manager's behaviour being dominated by two of the four management styles (according to the Situational Leadership model developed by P. Hersey and K. Blanchard).

Even when the standards for a LEAD questionnaire are ignored, it appears that the manager's functioning based on the use of two of the four styles causes numerous organisational dysfunctions: at the levels of both relationships within a team of employees and the functioning of the whole organisation. At the level of the organisation, we may observe dysfunctions resulting from the exclusive use of the S1–S4 or S2–S3 styles with respect to such areas as workplace adaptation [S2–S3], succession [S2–S3], employee competence development [S2–S3; S1–S4], the modelling of adverse behaviour standards, and the shaping of a dysfunctional organisational culture [S2–S3; S1–S4].

The analysis of employee behaviour in the discussed organisations indicates that the use of only two of the four styles, which leads to dysfunctions, may not necessarily result from a narrow range of social skills. If we assume that sources of superior's behaviour could be "social games" (within the meaning of Transactional Analysis) or well established convictions about the environment, then it appears that, we need "special tools". In order to achieve a permanent change in the functioning of the manager in the organisation, a developmental intervention extending beyond the acquisition of new forms of social behaviour may be necessary.

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NEGATYWNE KONSEKWENCJE ORGANIZACYJNE PRZECIĘTNYCH UMIEJĘTNOŚCI PRZYWÓDCZYCH. CASE STUDIES OPARTE NA PARADYGMACIE KENA BLANCHARDA

Abstrakt

Tło badań. Przywództwo organizacyjne jest tematem stale obecnym w refleksji nauk o zarządzaniu. Wydaje się, że aktualność kwestii wynika nie tylko ze znaczenia kierowania zespołami pracowniczymi, ale także ze zmian, jakie zachodzą choćby w postawach samych pracowników, oczekiwaniach organizacji oraz w warunkach otoczenia organizacyjnego. Powoduje to konieczność ciągłej refleksji, gdyż rozwiązania adekwatne kilka lat temu mogą nie przystawać do aktualnej sytuacji zespołów i organizacji. Przywództwo organizacyjne jest ciekawym tematem refleksji, gdyż jest obszarem wiedzy z pogranicza nauk o zarządzaniu oraz psychologii. Można zaryzykować stwierdzenie, iż refleksja z jednego z tych obszarów wzbogaca drugi z nich.

Cele badań. Poziom umiejętności menedżerskich określany jako „przeciętny" łatwo można uznać jako „wystarczająco dobry". Celem badań było wskazanie, że „przeciętny" oznaczać może w realiach współczesnych organizacji „zbyt niski". Autor prezentuje studia przypadków polskich organizacji i pokazuje negatywne konsekwencje funkcjonowania menedżerów o przeciętnym poziomie umiejętności.

Metodologia. Analiza studiów przypadku oparta na modelu przywództwa sytuacyjnego autorstwa K. Blancharda. Autor analizuje w tekście dwie sytuacje używania stylów przez menadżera: wyłącznie styl S2 i S3 oraz wyłącznie styl S1 i S4.

Kluczowe wnioski. Analizy wskazują na konsekwencje „przeciętnego" stylu kierowania dla: pojedynczego pracownika, zespołu pracowniczego oraz na skutki organizacyjne (np. w zakresie rekrutacji czy rotacji pracowników). Artykuł opisuje także mechanizm psychologiczny (gra społeczna, archetyp), będący często tłem tego rodzaju zachowań (S2–S3; S1–S4) w organizacji.

Słowa kluczowe: styl przywództwa, psychologia organizacji, relacje w organizacji, gry społeczne