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An exploratory study of leadership development.

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

A Dissertaion Presented

By

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P R E F A C E

Several years ago, while I was working under the direction of Professor Abraham Engelman at Antioch College (now University), the desire to know more about leadership was expressed by several directors of different government agencies. In an effort to meet the needs of these clients I began to search the literature on leadership theory and research. After a review of this literature, I found what I thought to be the best work to date and presented the clients with an overview of the Ohio State studies.

For several months, whenever asked to present or provide management training in the area of leadership I relied upon the research and theory of Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton. this conceptual model, The Managerial Grid, appealed to my clients and myself on several levels. This model was based on the Ohio State research as well as Blake and Mouton's own studies which provided much in the way of empirical credibility. The Managerial Grid identified five different leadership styles along the dimensions of concern for production and concern for people. these dimensions and styles reflected accurately the wide variety of management approaches I had observed, experienced, an utilized myself. Finally, Blake and Mouton's theory asserted that one style was better than the other four. this one best style, the team leadership style, was described as leadfership that builds mutual involvement, respect, and commitment to producing high quality products and services. Moreover, this leadership style utilizes

very high levels of direction and interpersonal support from the leader to develop the team through self-critique and team feedback. Because I am a very high energy person who is both directive and supportive with others, the Managerial Grid had a special personal appeal to me.

However, as time passed I began to receive feedback from managers who had been participants in my seminars or presentations. the overall feedback was very positive, but several instances of failure of the team style were reported by the managers. Many of these problems could be traced to the difficulties of translating theory into practice.

In my efforts to understand and prevent this error from recurring I spent a great deal of time interviewing the managers who had provided this feedback. From these interviews I found that two problem areas consistently made the Managerial Grid impractical. One area involved the variations in organizational culture, norms, and structure; the other involved the wide variations in the competence and reliabililty of followers. Generally, all of the managers interviewed reported that certain tasks, organizational values, and individual staff members were not responsive to the team leadership style (high concern for production and high concern for people).

Over the next five years I pursued every opportunity for empirical and theoretical inquiries into leadership. I began by systematically reviewing the research and theories on organizational development. This led me to review the research and theories of

group dynamics offered by the disciplines of social psychology, sociology, psychology, poliltical science, and anthropology. As I progressed in my efforts to fully understand organizational cultures and activities, I realized that the wide variety of sources was making it very difficult to integrate the findings and concepts from each field.

The process of segmented analysis was not working, "for this process gives us only a vast number of separate parts or items of information, the results of whose interactions no one can predict. If we take such a system to pieces, we find that we cannot reassemble it." (Ashby, 1956:35). The need for both conceptual and empirical integration changed my plan of inquiry

At this point my focus became to find a scientific perspective and conceptual framework that could be applied to integrate the various findings and theories about sociocultural systems. I explored the work produced in the fields of cybernetics, information and communication theory, and finally discovered a relatively lnew approach being utilized in several fields called modern or general systems theory. the systems approach built on and utilized many of the concepts and findings of physics, chemistry, and biolgy. In the less mathematical fields it had been utilized in anthropology, dance movement, and family therapy.

The general systems approach facilitated my examination of complex phenomena within a whole unit without violating the integrity of that unit. I began to analyze each unit's goal seeking activity through the dynamic and complex interactions of parts which are complex and changing themselves. special attention was given to these non-rigid relations being mediated by complex symbol systems

with wide degrees of freedom, while recognizing each unit's continued structural elaboration as a process of self-direction in the control of intimate interchanges with an environment. As I continued my inquiries, the idea of leadership as an open system began to emerge. The reuslt of my previous research was integrated and presented in my masters thesis on leadership needs within complex sociocultural systems.

Following the completion of this thesis I, in collaboration with Professor Engleman, Dr. Doris Hall, Dr. Arhthur Eve, and my colleague, Steve Symon, wrote a proposal that was funded by Lilly Endowment, Inc.. The purpose of this grant was to implement a specially designed doctoral program for more than twelve students to develop and investigate leadership in both the public and private sectors. For the next three years I attended core classes in organizational leadership and systems and special programs with renowned professors in the fields of leadership and organizational development. During the last eleven months of this period I served as a member of a task force for the Massachusetts House Ways & Means Committee to study all public and private organizations providing services to Massachusetts residents under the age of eighteen years.

Through my activities as a doctoral student I became aware that certain leadership theories were familiar to the managers of public and private organizations. Simultaneously I was given many examples of problems with these theories by those same managers. As I began to compare the difficulties expressed by managers exposed to the Managerial Grid and those exposed to other theories, some consistent issues began to emerge. One problem managers had in applying the

specific theory they were using was that many of the concepts were vague or virtually non-existent when it came to the issue of modifying leadership style in response to environmental organizational changes. Another common problem expressed by most administrators and managers was how to develop individuals to their maximum potential and now then that potential had been reached.

Finally, several of the women managers had been trained in more than one theory and felt that to a large degree all of the leadership theories relied on a macho form of aggressiveness and being accepted as one of the guys. In sum, these managers and administrators asserted that the theories only worked well under ideal circumstances. What they were seeking was a theory flexible and broad enough to fit themselves, their staffs, and the organizations for which they worked.

The only theory that managers seemed to be unfamiliar with was Situational Leadership or the life Cycle Theory of Leadership. I began to investigate this theory in detail by reviewing the research and working with Ken Blanchard, the co-author originating the theory.

Over the next three years I was management consultant for numerous corporations in the financial services industry and the United states Navy. At this time I had concluded, after five years of study, that Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory of Leadership represented the most practical and useful theory for managers.

Throughout this time I listened and inquired actively as to which leadership theories were utilized by corporate managers. the leadership theories most widely known and used by corporate managers tended to be based on the four classical approaches to leadership research. some of the managers believed that results were produced

by manipulation and the user of coercive and reward power. Many believed that they were born leaders. Even more managers believed that there was one best style of leadership based on leader attitudes and assumptions such as those propsed by Likert, McClelland, Blake and Mouton. some managers believed that they should find a position in the organization that would be most compatible with their style. Other managers believed that they should adapt their leadership style to the needs of their staff and the organization. It was surprising to find the wide range of leadership theories being utilized by corporate managers and even more enlightening to find that the same theories and authors were being utilized across corporations.

However, regardless of the theory being utilized, some consistent concerns emerged. One major concern shared by all of the managers who had received leadership training was that many of their staff did not respond the way the managers had intended when the managers corrected or criticized their performance. A close second to this concern was the difficulty of getting subordinates to participate in group problem identification, generating potential solutions, selecting the best solution, and evaluating the results. In cases where staff could be influenced to participate, maintaining involvment over time was a problem. Once participation became routine, reducing the degree of involvement and making decisions alone was often met with resistance, suspicion, and resentment. As one manager put it, "you give 'em an inch and they'll want a mile!" Two other areas of concern included handling conflict betweent hemselves and staff or within the work group and compromising or acknowledging a mistake in front of staff without damaging

credibility or seeming weak. In addition to these concerns about leader-follower dynamics, many managers were especially concerned about lundermining their peer's leadership styles or being viewed as too easy on subordinates. all in all, the conetral theme of these managers' concerns was that theilr intention in influencing others was often quite different from the effects they were having on those others.

By listening to the leadership theories and ideas of corporate managers in a wide variety of businesses, I gained an understanding of which theories they, valued as well as clarity about the difficulties encountered when they tried to apply theory. This understanding led me to identify three criteria for offering leadership training to corporate managers. First, the leadership theory selected must be composed of clear and simple concepts that can be adapted to each manager's specific analytical, procedural, and tactical skills by which concepts can be adjusted and applied to the day-to-day world of corporate management. Third, unequivocal support from top management for the leadership training must be gained through addressing the specific needs expressed by corporate managers. In sum, the key to translating theory into practice is to recognize that theory is essentially speculation that must be applied through the use of very specific behavioral skills and simultaneously adapted to the real world by the analysis of client feedback.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is always difficult to do justice to the numerous sources of inspiration, intellectual support, guidance, and concrete aid that have contributed to a study that is several years in the making. Particularly important early on were the intellectual challenges and support provided by Abraham Engelman, Doris Hall, Selma Lewis, and Jim Higgins. I am likewise greatly indebted to Dr. Arthur Eve for his guidance and support. To Drs. Ed Harris and Larry Rosenberg for their criticism and faith in me. To Jean Turati and Barbara Llamas for their very practical assistance. To Bernice Ested and Sten Hodgson without whose help this study would have never reached publication. Most important, to Diane Downey for her tolerance, criticism, and love.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> We can more easily accomplish our many objectives through excellence in leadership, this is the key to our future success. It is not enough simply to master today's objectives, we must focus on the increasing demands of tomorrow. This will require personal determination and a willingness to upgrade our own individual leadership skills and knowledge.
>
> Chief Executive Officer
> Financial Services Company

Organizational Leadership

The need

The call for improved leadership is a recurrent cry of our time. To respond to this call it is necessary to first ask whether or not the concept of leadership has any real meaning in the 1980's; is this call based on an understanding of what leadership involves and can do, or simply a desperate plea to be saved from the complexity of modern times? James MacGregor Burns, in his Pulitzer Prize-winning book, Leadership (1978), expresses some doubts as to modern man's understanding of leaderhip. Specifically, he suggests that those holding positions of power are not providing leadership, largely because they do not have a clear concept of what leadership is all about.

This dissertation makes a distinction between leadership and corporate power-holding with its referent control of resources, rewards, and consequences. The direction provided for followers by

most corporate managers is based on the exchange of rewards and resources for activities and accomplishments.

This is truly a major part of corporate management, having its base in the underlying corporate profit motive. However, this is not leadership. Leadership, while more intangible, is much more potent than corporate management. Leadership involves the recognition and utilization of the needs and demands of potential followers; leaders identify the motives and skills of followers and help followers use their skills to satisfy higher needs. Effective leadership can result in an intense identification with the group's purpose and commitment to achievement that turns followers into leaders and leaders into great men and women.

To a large degree the average corporate manager has confused leadership with the other functions of management: planning, directing, organizing, and controlling. Gardner (1978:451-2) writes about the distinction between leadership and management, "they (leaders) can express the values that hold society together. Most important they can conceive and articulate goals that lift people out of their petty preoccupations, carry them above the conflicts that tear a society apart, and unite them in the pursuit of objectives worthy of their best efforts."

Over the past twenty years inquiry into leadership in a coporate setting has given way to the establishment of corporate leadership assessment centers and the pursuit of the personal leadership

qualities. Indicative of this trend is the average American Citizen's preoccupation with the personal habits of those formally identified as leaders. Both corporations and individuals seem to believe that the knowledge and imitation of these personal qualities or traits will result in more effective leadership. Thus, for many, leadership is simply the habits and traits of those with formal status and power.

The conclusion is drawn from tbe exisiting literature on leadership theory and research which does not even agree on how to define or measure leadership effectiveness. Is leadership meeting the needs and expectations of followers (Vascom, 1964); is it directing others (Knezevich, 1975); is it motivating others (Kilmosky and Hayes, 1980); or is it simply getting others to do what you want them to do (Bundel, 1930)? Leadership may well involve all of these things, and even more.

However, the literature does agree that leadership does involve the actions of others. Vroom (1964) suggests that there are three key elements which motivate people to identify and commit themselves to do one thing or another. First, people have expectations about the level of effort, skills, and support necessary to accomplish a given result. Second, individuals have beleifs about the effort and skills they can bring to bear on the activities required to carry out a given assignment. Finally, the activities and results of a

particular assignment have a unique attraction or value to each individual in relation to that person's conscious or unconscious cost/benefit analysis of need satisfaction as a result of a specific achievement.

Thus, the problem currently facing a corporate manager in exercising leadership is twofold: (1) how can the manager direct and motivate others by influencing their expectations and the values they place on outcomes, and (2) what are the skills necessary to determine the needs and expectations of others? The underlying cornerstone for the current crisis in leadership is a lack of intellectual comprehension of the meaning of leadership as well as an absence of practical experience with the skills necessary to lead others.

Background information

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (LCTL) along with the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaires were developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1974. The recognition of task and relationship behaviors as two dimensions by which leadership style can be defined has played an important role in the work of leadership theory and research over the last several decades. These two dimensions have been labeled in a variety of ways, such as "autocratic and democratic," "production centered and emloyee centered," "theory X and theory Y," "dominance and warmth," etc. These dimensions have been used to identify leadership style

or the consistent patterns of energy directed at influencing the activities and/or commitment to others, when producing results with and through others. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) these dimensions are more useful when applied to leadership behaviors rather than leadership assumptions, attitudes, or values.

These dimensions of task and relationship leader behaviors are defined in the following way by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:96):

> Task Behavior:
>
> The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.
>
> Relationship Behavior:
>
> The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioeconomic support, 'psychological strokes,' and facilitating behaviors.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) assert that an individual's use of these behaviors is developed over time and is the basis used by others to identify, expect, and even predict certain responses from a given leader.

The already complex tasks of planning, organizing, and controlling projects, resources, technology, and inter-organizational relationships are magnified by the lack of conceptual understanding and specific skills necessary to lead others. The literature reveals that the traditional ways of teaching managers how to improve their leadership effectiveness have involved presenting historical leadership traits, attitudes, or theories. Many managers find themselves successful at explaining and displaying these traits, attitudes, and assumptions after training, but continue to experience a gap between these good intentions and the actual effects their efforts have on others.

The financial services industry has long recognized the need for and value of training in various areas including, leadership. However, the last decade has given rise to skepticism and resistance to leadership training because of the recurrent gap between intentions and effects. Clearly, then, if leadership training is to contribute to the overall profitability of business organizations, the means of reducing this gap must be discovered and disseminated to corporate managers. This study will explore one possible means of doing so.

Potential benefits of this study

This study explores the potential value of leadership training for all new managers of a financial services organization over a one-year period. By measuring the degree of change, as perceived by subjects, their managers, and their peers, the author hopes to address the following needs of the sponsoring organization, corporate managers, and the field of leadership studies:

1. The need to develop a seminar by which managers can examine, understand, and evaluate a comprehensive leadership theory.
2. The need for managers to examine and receive feedback on their individual leadership style preference, range, and adaptability in comparison with their peers.
3. The need for managers to identify the gap between their individual intentions as leaders and the results they generate based on feedback from their peers and managers.
4. The need to provide an understanding with behavior-based learning models of specific skills and behavioral procedures by which the gap can be reduced.
5. The need to conduct an assessment of a leadership training seminar based on the perceptions of their leadership style by participants, their peers, and their managers before and after training.

6. The need to explore the significance of increases in leadership style range and adaptability.

Overview of this Study

Statement of the problem

While an agreement on the precise definition and measurement of leadership may not exist, there is an increasing body of evidence indicating that the use of specific interpersonal skills can allow one to identify the expectations and needs of others as well as influence their behavior (Eve and Peck, 1980).

In the past, scholars have studied and disseminated various theories of leadership based on traits, power use, behavioral assumptions, and situational contingencies. Yet, the literature is sorely lacking when it attempts to address the specific analytical, procedural, and tactical skills by which these theories may be put into practice. The main purpose of this exploratory study is to examine the feasibility of translating the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership into a directly applicable set of skills, and a base for knowledge and understanding that will allow managers in a corporate setting to be more effective leaders.

For the purpose of this field study, the treatment (a five day leaderhsip training seminar) will involve five different groups; three groups of personnel recently promoted to the first level of management and two groups recently promoted to the second level of

management. Each group is composed of five to fifteen subjects of both sexes, from several different divisions and corporate groups.

The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaire (Hersey and Blanchard, 1974) will be utilized to give subjects feedback on their leadership style preference, range, and adaptability, as perceived by themselves, their peers, and their managers. The LEAD questionnaires offer both a self version and an other version that can be easily integrated to produce a multiple source leadership style composite. The LEAD questionnaires will be used to make the following assessments:

1. Style preference will be determined both before and after subjects have received the treatment.
2. Style range will be determined both before and after subjects have received the treatment.
3. Style adaptability will be determined both before and after subjects have received the treatment.

Definition of terms

The following terms are defined operationally and will be used throughout this study.

Style Preference — The leadership style that is selected most frequently in response to the twelve work stituations described in the LEAD questionnaire.

Style Range: The degree to which each possible leadership style is selected an equal number of times in response to the twelve situations on the LEAD questionnaire.

Style Adaptability The weighted value of each choice selected in response to the twelve situations on the LEAD questionnaire, as predetermined by the authors of the instrument.

Feasibility: The criteria for feasibility are the criteria for success for the training seminar. They will be met if: a) the mean increase in the use of all leadership styles, as perceived by all respondents, is statistically significant at the .05 level; and b) the mean improvement in the ability to select the more appropriate style for a given situation, as perceived by all respondents, is statistically significant at the .05 level.

Design overview

It is extremely difficult if not impossible to get senior executives to withhold a training seminar they support from enough managers to create a control group. Therefore, this study will follow an experimental field method of one-group pre-post. To the extent possible, steps will be taken to minimize threats to internal and external validity. The specific procedures to be used in this

field study will include but not be limited to the following:

1. An assessment of the need for leadership training for new managers in a financial services organization will be completed
2. A leadership training seminar will be designed to meet these identified needs while adhering to the time and financial constraints of the sponsoring client.
3. The commitment of senior management will be gained to implement the training seminar for at least one year.
4. All managers promoted to the first two levels of management (section and department manager) within the year of 1981 will be identified through the use of client organization's management information system's electronic identification technique.
5. A schedule for seminar attendance by new managers will be established with the intent that all new managers will attend the seminar within ninety days of their promotion.
6. One peer and the manager of the newly promoted manager will complete the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description questionnaire thirty days prior to the scheduled attendance of the seminar by the newly promoted manager.

7. Newly promoted managers (subjects) will complete the LEAD questionnaire during the seminar but prior to being exposed to the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership.
8. At intervals of three, five, seven, and eleven months after completion of the leadership training seminar by the subjects, LEAD questionnaires will be completed by the subjects, as well as those peers and managers who completed the pre-training questionnaires (see #6).
9. Pre- and post-seminar LEAD questionnaire data will be analyzed and supplementary interviews conducted to assess changes in leadership style and develop recommendations for further inquiry.

Subjects

The subjects of this study will consist of 49 newly promoted managers at a large firm in the financial services business. Their ages will range between 30 and 50 years. These managers will have been recetnly promoted (having functioned in their new positions from one to six months) to the position of section or department manager. The range of previous supervisory experience will be between three months and fifteen years. Subjects will include men and women from seven different divisions and groups within the corporation. These may include individuals who were born or educated in or who are currently assigned to countries other than the United States of America.

Assumptions

Certain assumptions underlie this sutdy. They are:

1. The subjects receiving treatment are representative of the new managers in the client organization.
2. Subjects, their peers, and their managers will respond candidly and honestly to the questions on the LEAD questionnaire.
3. Threats to internal and external validity will be minimal.

Limitations

The primary focus of this study is to explore the value of transferring the knowledge of the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership integrated with specific analytical, process, and tactical skills so as to help corporate managers reduce the gap between their intentions and effects when attempting to influence the behavior of others. This exploratory study utilizes quasi-experimental field study methodologies. The design utilized is the "One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design." This design has been and continues to be a widely used approach in educational and sociological research. As previously stated, this design does involve some threats to internal and external validity. However, many of these threats will be minimized by the use of specific statistical, analytical, and procedural techniques. It is not the intent of this study to fully test any of the various theories of leadership or the many definitions of leadership effectiveness. At this time there are

three specific limitations of this study:

1. The criteria upon which the term feasibility is established are limited to the operational definition of feasibililty presented on page 10 of Chapter 1.
2. The subjects of this study will be men and women recently promoted to the first and second levels of management within the organizational structure of a financial services business. Any conclusion or recommendations from this study should be considered with this in mind.
3. The treatment (a five-day leadership training seminar) will be mandated by the Chief Executive Officer of the client organizationa and therefore no control can be established.

Treatment of data

The data compiled from the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) will be analyzed and displayed in narrative, tabular, and graphic forms as dictated by the data encountered. The data wil be coded by a specially trained, uninvolved third party and analyzed to provide impersonal, objective, and disinterested information related to the purpose of this study.

Organization of the study

The purpose, significance, and limitations of this study, as well as a brief overview of its design, were presented in this first chapter.

The second chapter provides a review of historical theories and modern applications of leadership research and theory.

The third chapter presents, in detail, the design of this study.

The fourth chapter presents quantitative and qualitative analyses of data collected.

The fifth chapter offers a summary with conclusions and recommendations for action and further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORY AND RESEARCH

Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the literature on the major leadership theories and research. The particular theory relevant to this study is discussed in greater depth. Key terms are defined in the next section of this chapter. It will be suggested that a leadership model appropriate for the present era should take into account the growing number of women in executive and managerial positions, i.e., a modern leadership model should be sexually unbiased. It will also be suggested that the effectiveness of a model might be enhanced by developing and incorporating the needs of followers---those being influenced or led--which must be met if the ultimate goals of the organization are to be realized.

The need for effective leaders in any endeavor is evident and therefore interest in training for leadership is popular. But regardless of the number of leadership theories developed and the many studies conducted on how one leads, little has been done to apply a particular theory to the development of a curriculum for a leadership training program. Historically, the content of leadership training was largely influenced by the psychology of motivation and expectation. Training involved increasing awareness of leadership traits and attitudes by observing and analyzing leadership behavior including the use of power. This dissertation endeavors to determine the feasibility of training new managers to

apply a specific leadership theory (the Hersey-Blanchard theory of situational leadership) in their day-to-day attempts to influence the behavior of others.

One of the major difficulties in studying leadership is the lack of agreement on what it is. There is little consensus in the literature on its definition, let alone on how to measure it; nor is there agreement on the characteristics which distinguish an effective leader from an ineffective one.

In reviewing Stogdill's (1974:83) comprehensive summary of related research and applications, one definition proposes that leaders are at the center or a little out in front of their group of followers. That is, a leader is one who can be found sometimes at the nucleus of the group and sometimes at the external margin or valence of the group. Thus, Stogdill indicates where leaders can be found, but the questions of how does this happen, and what does this leader do to and with the group, are never answered. Bundel (1930:339) responds by defining leadership as "the art of inducing others to do what one wants them to do." Are others induced by mutual consent or manipulation? Ivancevich (1975) would answer this question by suggesting that leadership is the exercise of influence to get others to take on a set of activities and follow certain steps so as to concentrate those activities to accomplish a common goal. It would seem then that sometimes leaders get others

to do what they want and sometimes leaders influence others to accomplish goals they all have in common. Hersey and Blanchard (1972:69) offer a summary definition of leadership as a process of "accomplishing goals with and through other people." Several additional authors (Himes, 1980:9-10; Harris, 1975:37; Hollander, 1964:16; Tead, 1935:20) agree with Hersey and Blanchard by suggesting that leadership has to do with the influencing of others to accomplish goals. However, an important dimension still remains undescribed. What is the nature of this process of influencing others to accomplish goals? How does this happen? Klimosky and Hayes (1980:545) provide a definition of the basis of the leadership process as being "the motivation-based influence process."

The author could accept these general definitions of leadership but the purposes of this dissertaion require a little more specificity. Therefore, leadership will be defined as follows:

> Leadership is a role in an interactive process by which a person A (the leader) so understands the expectations and needs of another (person B) that he or she can clearly identify and direct a set of tasks and goals that are attainable by person B, and enlist person B's motivation towards achieving those goals as a way of pursuing his or her own goals.

Leadership occurs in many situation, of which corporate management is merely one. Corporate management is composed of four basic elements: (1) planning; (2) leading; (3) organizing; and (4) controlling. Leadership is that role and process directed towards the influencing of others' behavior to accomplish corporate goals.

Definition of Terms

In searching the literature for definitions of leadership several terms are recurrent and basic to any scholarly discussion of this subject. The most important of these are task and relationship behavior, individual and group expectations, and formal and informal power. Two dimensions of behavior are continually used in the literature to describe leadership. They may identify opposite ends of a continuum of leadership styles or be used as two independent dimensions to create a matrix of leadership styles. The definitions of these dimensions are as varied as the many authors and researchers contributing to modern leadership theory. For the purposes of this study the author will use the definitions of these dimensions provided by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:96).

> Task Behaviors: The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.
>
> Relationship Behaviors: The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors.

Throughout the literature reference is made to individual needs and motivations. According to Lawler and Hackman (1975), and Vroom (1964), an individual's desire to fulfill one need or another, that is, to be motivated to do one thing and not another is dependent

upon that individual's expectations. The definition utilized for this study is based on Vroom's work.

> Expectation: An individual's conscious or unconscious assessment that a given goal is realistically achievable, that the skills and effort required are within their capacity, and that the outcome will be proportionate to their effort in a way that will satisfy their needs and therefore have a certain attraction or value to them.

Finally, the term power is often used interchangeably with the terms influence, leadership, and control in the literature. Though the literature offers various definitions of this term, for the purposes of this dissertation the author will borrow from the work of Etzioni (1961):

> Positional Power: The formal amount of resources or status allocated by an organizational or social system over which a leader has discretion to distribute or withhold.
>
> Personal Power: The informal degree to which others are personally identified with and committed to leader goals by which they believe their needs will be met.

Though basic and recurrent throughout the literature, when studied as dimensions these terms have tended to be looked at separately and independently, even generating camps of followers.

Approaches to Leadership Theory

The development of leadership theories has occurred as a result of four separate and distinct research approaches. The early inquiries into leadership were focused on leadership traits or the use and acquisition of leadership power. More recent studies have focused on leader behavior and leadership contingencies.

The leader trait approach attempts to identify those personal qualities that distinguish effective or "natural" leaders from others. The leadership power approach attempts to explain leader effectiveness in terms of sources and amounts of power available to leaders and the manner in which that power is exercised over followers.

The leader behavior approach is somewhat similar to the trait approach in that the intention is to interpret what leaders do as a reflection of attitudes, motivations, or beliefs. The leadership contingencies approach attempts to identify situational factors which can act as indicators to leaders as to which clusters of behaviors, knowledge, and skills are most likely to produce the desired results. Though some approaches have received more public recognition than others, each approach has produced unique contributions to our understanding of leadership and each has encountered unique difficulties.

Leadership Traits

The potential value of developing influence over others has long fascinated both researchers and laymen alike. One of the most enduring and earliest approaches to understanding leadership has been the study of and subsequent theoretical assertions about "great men." The study of great men has been pursued by every academic discipline in existence; from theology to biology, from accounting

to counseling, from political science to agriculture, and from history to computer science. Indeed, leadership studies began with inquiries into and treatises on the characteristics of those who were considered to be great men.

The study of leadership traits and development of "trait theories seem to imply an elite officer corp of managerial talent who have inherited or acquired the requisite characteristics" to become great men (Handy, 1976:90). The number of traits identified by these theories are too many to list here. However, Stogdill (1974:96) identifies the most common ones as "emotionally well balanced, willing to assume responsibility, ethical conduct, able to communicate, dominant, energetic, experienced, courageous, and mature." On face value these traits seem to be very worthwhile, but Gordon (1977:18) found, "hundreds of studies (that showed) no trait differences between leaders and non-leaders...all but killed the theories that leadership was a product of certain attributes residing in all leaders."

Gordon's findings are supported by other researchers in the field of leadership studies. After a review of the literature, Sashkin and Garland (1979:71) concluded that, "traits are weakly associated with leader emergence." A more recent study by Collons (1980:70) asserts, "contrary evidence has been found for all leadership characteristics identified to date."

However, the idea that one or more leadership traits are predictive of successful and effective management continues to influence most corporations and their practice of using management assessment systems as a basis for hiring and promotion. Though these systems are ostensibly based on each corporation's experience with "what it takes to cut it as a manager here, " the similarity among these systems suggests otherwise. As Handy's (1976:90) study of management assessment systems concludes, "in practice most managerial selection schemes work on some assumed and often unspecified trait basis, i.e. what traits are most effective or most necessary in what conditions."

One of the most complete treatises on leadership traits was written by House (1977). House did not base his theory on his own empirical findings but rather on a comprehensive review of earlier research from a number of disciplines. His theory is unique, and a rare find in that it makes a number of assertions about the relationship of leadership traits to power use and leader behaviors.

House believes that the very best leadership traits are found in charismatic leaders. His theory proposes that charismatic leaders most often have traits of high self-confidence, an enthusiasm for their own values and ideals, and a desire to influence others.

Charismatic leaders, by expressing with these traits become role-models or examples of behavior for others to imitate. They are also likely to have a desire to be perceived as competent and successful. In this pursuit they often articulate ideological

goals for others as well as communicate high expectations for the performance of those others and confidence in the group's ability to achieve high standards. Charismatic leaders are likely to be achievement-oriented and to desire public recognition of their accomplishments. They are able to articulate goals for others that arouse motivations in individuals that are consistent with the group's aspirations and expectations.

The two major drawbacks specific to House's theory are:

1. Little research has been conducted to test his underlying propositions.
2. It seems to assume that followers have complex and demanding tasks that offer an opportunity to take risks, initiative, and require self-responsibility over a long period of time.

An additional problem with House's theory and leadership trait theories in general is the tendency towards idealism. While these traits may be very valuable, the probability that any one individual would have all of these characteristics is rather slim, and the absence of any one or more of these characteristics certainly would not prevent one from being a leader. As Handy (1976:82) observes, "there are too many exceptions, people who do not have the major traits but are notably successful as leaders."

Part of the reason for this inconsistency between trait theories and reality may be the research population itself.

The trait theory research has been dominate by white male subjects. This means that management assessment systems based on trait theory may have the effect of screening out most minorities and women. Given the large numbers of traits identified by the research, and the differences and constant change in organizational environments, it would seem fruitless to attempt to assess the specific traits that indicate future success at the time of hiring or promoting a manager. Furthermore, trait theory amd management assessment systems, by implying that leaders are born or at least have acquired all the traits of successful leadership before they begin to lead, deny the ability of people to learn based on the situation. Hersey and Blanchard (1972:69), based on their research and review of other studies, conclude, "most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development."

Suggesting an end to the use of trait theory, Knezevich (1975:82) asserts that, "over the last fifty years a large volumne of research has consistently refuted the notion that leadership is an attribute of personality. Only about five percent of the traits reported in over one hundred studies appear in four or more studies." Overall, the difficulty with the leadership traits approach is the assumption that leadership is a congenital condition, not learned, suggesting that leadership is a personal characteristic, a constant with the leader at all times. In fact, experience as well as research demonstrates that leadership is a

role, taken on at different times by different persons, involving different skills and knowledge specific to the situation.

The early identification of "great men" and their traits was actually an inquiry into the characteristics of those individuals possessing and utilizing formal and informal power. As people began to explore the various sources and uses of power, power itself became an influential theory of leadership.

Leadership Power

The literature offers a variety of research and theories on the uses of different forms of power. Much of this work has been based on the taxonomy developed by French and Raven (1959).

They propose five different bases of power:

1. Reward Power: subordinate behavior is directed towards obtaining rewards controlled by the leader.

2. Coercive Power: subordinate behavior is directed towards avoiding penalties that can be imposed by the leader.

3. Legitimate Power: subordinate carries out activities because he or she believes that the leader has the right to ask for certain activities, and the subordinate has an obligation to comply.

4. Expert Power: subordinate accepts direction from the leader because the leader is perceived as having special knowledge and expertise, and knows what is necessary to accomplish a goal.

5. Referent Power: subordinate follows the direction of the leader because the subordinate admires the leader, identifies with the leader, and wants the leader's approval.

Research on the different effects of power use in influencing the performance of subordinates has been conducted in a variety of areas. Though this research is not conclusive it does offer, collectively, a clearer understanding of the exercise of power in leadership.

A study by Bachman, Smith and Slesarger (1966) of 36 office managers rated by 656 salesmen on group performance, group satisfaction with managers, individual performance, and individual satisfaction with managers, found that higher satisfaction and performance were associated with the use of expert power. Another study of a sales environment was conducted by Ivancewich and Donnelly (1970). Their research examined 31 branch managers as rated by 394 salesmen along several categories, most significantly excused absenteeism, unexcused absenteeism and turnover. They found that lower unexcused absenteeism and turnover were correlated with the use of referent power while higher excused absenteeism and turnover were associated with a reliance on legitimate and coercive power.

Dune et al. (1978) examined the impact of power as exercised by both military and civilian managers. Their research was focused on two criteria comparing civilian and military managers: a) commitment to the project manager and functional manager; and b) willingness to disagree with the project manager and functional manager. They found that military managers tended to rely more heavily on

legitimate and coercive power, which was associated with lower commitment and an unwillingness to disagree. Civilian managers tended to use referent and expert power, and their subordinates were both more willing to disagree with them, and more commited to their high levels of performance. In the medical industry, Sheridan and Vredenburgh (1978) examined a sample of 216 nurses. These nurses rated their head nurse in relationship to job tension, performance, and terminations. The use of reward power was not correlated with level of performance or turnover. However, a reduction in job tension was associated with the use of referent power.

In a different kind of environment, T. Hammer (1973) interviewed 227 glaziers and 39 iron workers to describe their supervisors with a motivation index. The focus was on overall satisfaction with supervision and performance. Again, reward power was not correlated with motivation, but referent power and expert power were correlated with satisfaction and performance.

Though these researchers used somewhat different measures of leader power, some trends in their findings are evident. Power use based on the attractiveness and expertise of the leader was usually associated with greater subordinate satisfaction, less absenteeism and turnover, and higher performance. Use of legitimate power and coercive power tended to result in lower satisfaction, performance, and commitment.

A surprising additional finding was that reward power did not seem to affect performance, satisfaction, job tension, motivation, turnover, or absenteeism. The absence of a clear correlation between reward power and level of subordinate performance in the leadership power studies, is contradicted by much of the research findings in other organizational motivation studies. Several studies, Sims and Scilagyi (1978), Sims (1977), Keller and Scilagyi (1976), Brass and Oldham (1977), and Oldham (1976) have demonstrated that the use of rewards such as recognition, special assignments, and money can be highly correlated with improving performance as well as satisfaction for short periods. When reward power is utilized consistently and frequently, these results hold true over the long term. This apparent conflict between the research on power and the research on motivation over the effects of reward power remains unresolved.

The findings that lower absenteeism and turnover, and higher performance are correlated with the use of forms of personal power (referent and expert) can be more fully understood if one considers the relationship between the primary power base and work group norms. The constant use of positional power (reward, legitimate and coercive) focuses subordinates on the formality of roles, regulations, and procedures, and required rather than desired behaviors, as prescribed through the rules and the leader. Abuse or over-reliance on positional power does not encourage a

group to value initiative and self-reliance. This focuses the group on maintenance behaviors such as close adherence to regulations and procedures. Thus, group norms support survival through meeting minimally acceptable standards, not developing commitment to exceptional achievement. In order for a group to exceed minimal performance, value the achievement of exceptional levels of performance and make a long term commitment to the job and organization, a leader must be able to effectively use personal power (referent and expert) as well as positional power (reward, legitimate, and coercive).

For instance, Warren (1968) found that the use of reward and coercive power was associated with behavioral compliance by subordinates, but not with attitudinal commitment. Attitudinal responsiveness was associated with legitimate, expert, and referent power. Furthermore, Thambain and Gemill (1974) found that the reasons subordinates consistently gave for following the directions of a supervisor were his or her legitimate power and reward power. Yet, neither of these types of power was associated with a change in subordinate commitment. Though the findings of research into power use are enlightening, they must be viewed with some potential methodological limitations in mind. Subordinates' perceptions of group and individual performance may have biased their perceptions of leader expertise and attractiveness. It is more likely that high performing groups will perceive their

leader as having more expertise than low performing groups. Subordinates who identify with their leader may attribute different types of power than subordinates who do not so identify. Furthermore, the leader power research has not been able to isolate the effects of different power bases. For example, the possession of substantial reward and coercive power may well improve the responsiveness of others to the exercise of additional types of power. Clearly, one major limitation of the leadership power research is the ambiguity in accounting for the interaction between various positional and personal power bases.

This ambiguity leads corporate managers to rely excessively on positional power bases. For example, the use of reward power has broad implications in a corporate setting. As Kahn (1964:204) states, "Even though not invoked, the possibility that rewards and punishments may be used is likely to encourage compliance."

A review of Kipnis' (1972) research suggests that leaders with greater reward power relied on that power base more often to influence subordinate behavior. These leaders also saw subordinates as objects of manipulation, did not value subordinates, and believed that subordinate performance was a result of their own use of power. The difficulty here lies in the fact that excessive reliance on reward and other positional power bases can result in the abuse of that power so as to erode that power base itself. To prevent this erosion and runaway spending associated with

over-reliance on reward power, many corporations have instituted highly structured monitoring and control systems.

Many corporations have found ways to reduce the potential for abuse of positional power. Policies and procedures have been implemented that limit the amount of coercive and reward power and generally constrain the use of positional power. Employee relations procedures and appeal systems have been designed to penalize the misuse of power by managers. Periodic surveys and votes of confidence are taken among subordinates as a way for managers to receive feedback. However, this tends to focus corporate managers on required rather than desired power use. This results in power being utilized more as a tactic of control rather than of leadership. Furthermore, these constraints make clear that positional power is inherently impsative. The use of positional power can clearly be an effective leadership tactic, but represents only one dimension of leadership power.

Positional power is a limited power base and impsative in that the more one leader in an organization has, the less there is available for other leaders in that organization. Therefore, the development of bases of personal power, for which no such limits have yet been identified, offers corporate managers greater potential in terms of exercising leadership power.

As McClelland (1975:266) so aptly states, this is the challenge to leaders:

> How much initiative he should take, how persuasive he should attempt to be, and at what point his clear enthusiasm for certain goals becomes personal authoritarianism, insistence that these goals are the right ones whatever the members of the group may think, are all questions calculated to frustrate the well-intentioned leader. If he takes no initiative he is no leader. If he takes too much he becomes a dictator, particularly if he tries to curtail the process by which members of the group participate in shaping group goals. There is a particular danger for the man who has demonstrated his competence in shaping group goals and inspiring group members to pursue them. In time both he and they may assume that he knows best and he may almost imperceptibly change from a democratic to an authoritarian leader.

Though the leadership power approach has broadened our understanding of leadership, and produced some valuable insights, it has not provided a model or skills for corporate managers in meeting the challenge McClelland describes. The theories generated from the research are limited by the ambiguity of indicators of the source of power, inability to describe the interaction of various power bases, and omission of intervening variables such as behavioral skills, attitudes, values, and expectations of followers.

What has been contributed by the leadership power theories and research is a clearer understanding that different bases of power, when utilized to influence the performance of others, have different effects in different situations. It is also evident that over-reliance on one power base limits leader effectiveness. Finally, the development of bases of personal power has greater potential to increase leadership effectiveness.

The Emergence of Modern Leadership Theory

The problems of methodological bias and lack of empirical evidence were recurrent throughout the early development of leadership theories. These problems made leadership trait and power theories almost impossible to apply with any success. With the need to overcome the weaknesses of leadership trait and power theories, a new conception of leadership began to develop. Leadership began to be viewed as a role that one endeavors to fulfill in a process of reciprocal influence that is based in and limited by one's skills, knowledge, and assessment of the tangible resources available. This process is then modified by one's motivation and the motivations of those a leader intends to influence. Thus, modern leadership theory looks at leadership as a temporal role and process occuring in a context.

Successful organizations are the results of influencing the behavior of others to accomplish both personal and organizational goals. Himes (1981:10) elaborates on this point by quoting McGregoron the responsibility of a corporate manager: "The manager must arrange things such that the members of the organization can achieve their own personal goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise." This implies that corporate manager, when attempting to exercise leadership, have a dual responsibility. Managers must insure that the mission of the organization is achieved and that the needs of those who do the

work are met. In other words, they must provide both structure and support for their followers. As Stogdill (1974:96) puts it, "while highly task oriented, he (the manager) is also capable of maintaining close, friendly, personal relationships."

Modern research on leadership repeatedly examines and describes leader attitudes and behaviors which involve telling followers how, when, where, and why tasks are to be completed, as well as attitudes and behaviors that are rapport building, supportive, and facilitative of followers' needs. These ideas have grown out of the two earliest schools of thought about the management of people in an organizational setting. These two schools of thought are commonly referred to as Scientific Management and Human Relations.

Scientific Management and Human Relations

Scientific management paralleled the growth of American industry in the early 1900's. The founder of the scientific management approach was F. W. Taylor. In summarizing Taylor's view of the appropriate organizational approach to managing people, one would have to say that he believed that workers should be viewed functionally and used like machines. He proposed that all power and control within an organization should be in the hands of management. From this school emerged time-and-motion studies and efficiency and productivity experts, both committed to a mechanistic

form of analysis of the tasks performed at the workplace. "The person as laborer became an objectified and standardized component of the production process" (Pascale and Athos, 1981:23). Managers with this approach were truly drill instructors and task masters. Developing and maintaining personal relationships with their subordinates was not valued and seldom considered part of the managerial role.

This narrow focus on efficiency through time-and-motion control, with its consequent dehumanization of the work place, resulted in a reaction against scientific management: the emergence of the human relations movement in the 1920's and 1930's. According to the human relations school, management must involve itself with more than mere technological concerns. The school's primary proposition was that workers must not be viewed as mere extensions of their machines, but rather as human beings with emotional and psychological needs. The human relations school claimed that if an organization would take into consideration the needs of its members, productivity would automatically increase. Managers, then, were to concern themselves with the interpersonal dynamics between themselves and their subordinates as well as the interpersonal dynamics within their work group.

Together, the scientific management school (with its emphasis on task-oriented leader behaviors) and the human relations school (with its emphasis on relationship-oriented leader behaviors) are the foundation upon which the bulk of modern leadership theory rests.

The Ohio State leadership studies.

According to Stogdill (1974:128-129), "modern leadership theory began with C. L. Shartle organizing the Ohio State Leadership Studies in 1945, at a time when nothing existed in the way of satisfactory leadership theory." Hemphill, one of the researchers working with Shartle, developed an initial list of 1800 items indicative of leader behaviors. These 1800 items were eventually collapsed into 150 items which became the basis for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).

An analysis of the LBDQ conducted by Halpin and Winer (1957) found that an analysis of item inter-correlations resulted in the identification of two dimensions, called by Hemphill, initiation of structure and consideration for others. Halpin (1959:4) describes initiating structure as "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods or procedure." Halpin goes on to define consideration for others as "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff."

These two dimensions of structure and consideration grew out of the work conducted by the Ohio State Leadership Studies research group.

For the first time leadership style "could be described as any mix of both dimensions...leader behavior was first plotted on a separate axis rather than on a single continuum and four quadrants were developed to show various combinations of initiating structure (task behavior) and consideration (relationship behavior)" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:74).

The University of Michigan leadership studies.

Another major effort in leadership research was initiated at the University of Michigan around the same time as the Ohio State research. The Michigan research focused on identifying relationships between leader behaviors, group interaction, and subordinate performance. This research was based primarily on field studies of sub-units at similar levels within various organizations. By utilizing interview techniques and later, grounded questionnaires, the Michigan leadership Studies contributed a great deal to our current understanding of leadership practices associated with high producing work groups. These studies (Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1950; Katz et al., 1951; Katz and Kahn, 1952; Mann and Dent, 1954) were, to a large extent, supportive and supplementary of the Ohio State findings.

The Michigan studies found that successful leaders spent very little time doing work similar to their followers, but rather provided structure for others by planning and scheduling work.These

leaders also spent much of their time coordinating the activities of their group and providing the necessary resources to accomplish unit goals. In providing resources these leaders were supportive of the personal goals and desires of their followers, and helped them develop realistic expectations of themselves and the organization. In general, effective leaders gave clear direction and specified desired results while monitoring their subordinates' performance by exception, not inspection.

The value of the contributions made by the Ohio State and Michigan research groups can not be overestimated. Directly or indirectly, their work has influenced every major model or theory of leadership in use today.

The dimensions of task and relationship behaviors are also consistent with the perceptions of most corporate managers when discussing their experience with effective leaders. They describe these leaders who have been most significant in increasing their productivity as providing direction by specifying what, when, and how a task is to be carried out as well as being sensitive to their needs to know why the task is important, how it fits into the overall picture, and by involving them in decisions and helping them to see that they could do more than they ever thought they could.

Leader behaviors.

One of the theories growing directly out of Chartel's efforts was the Managerial Grid Theory, developed by Blake and Mouton (1964). In the early 1960's Blake and Mouton, two psychologists on the faculty at the University of Texas, were interested in applying the findings of the Ohio State studies. In line with the Ohio State findings, they postulated that managers simultaneously have two concerns--a concern for production and a concern for people. In operationalizing these concerns, managers differ in how much effort they put into each. That is, some managers are more concerned with getting results than they are with the people involved; for others these concerns are reversed. Blake and Mouton graphically arranged these two concerns on two nine-point scales, forming what they called the Managerial Grid (See Figure 1), a two-dimensional model which describes leadership style. Based on responses to a questionnaire, a Grid score is generated which shows how the two concerns combine for any given manager. The resulting combination score can be utilized to identify a manager's leadership style.

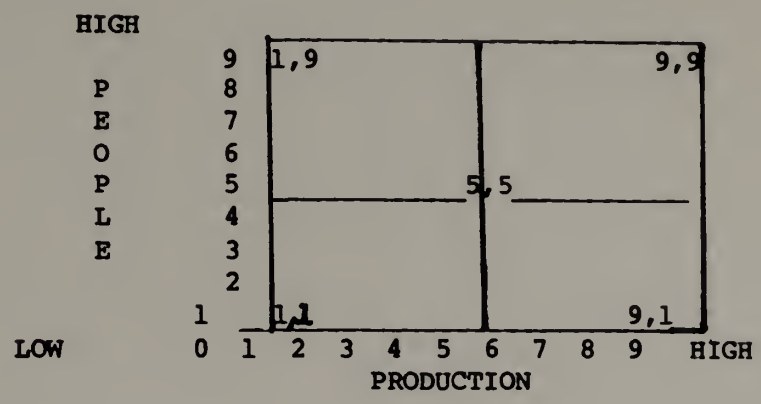

Figure 1
The Managerial Grid

The style indicated by a score of 1,9 is called the Country Club style and is focused on satisfying relationships, which create a comfortable and friendly work atmosphere. A 1,1 score is called the Impoverished style and is focused on the minimum effort needed to meet requirements and sustain organizational membership. A 9,1 score is called the Authority-Obedience style, and is focused on providing a structure that minimizes interference due to the human element. A 5,5 score is called the Organization Man style and is focused on meeting requirements by balancing production and morale

at satisfactory levels. A 9,9 score is called the Team style, and is focused on gaining staff commitment through a common stake in the organization's purpose. Blake and Mouton argue that the greater the concern for production, the more autocratic the manager's style tends to be; conversely, the greater the manager's concern for people, the more the style can be characterized as permissive or democratic. They go on to assert that the higher the manager's concern for both production and people, which they label the Team style (9,9), the more effective the manager is likely to be.

The Managerial Grid offers a conceptual analysis of leadership styles. Through the use of this two-dimensional framework, Blake and Mouton (1982:25) conclude that:

> In the 9,9-oriented Grid style, the second 9 combines with the first through behavior that elicits joint effort in task definition; teamwork characterized by openness, respect, and involvement; resolution of conflict through confrontation in the interest of achieving shared agreement; and mutual commitment to productive outcomes--all combined with learning that is based on the use of critique and feedback.

One of the major problems with a corporate application of this theory is Blake and Mouton's conclusion that they have discovered the "one best" leadership style. Though corporate managers value leadership that directs and supports them as subordinates, the degree to which they need their leader to provide this varies, as does that of their subordinates. Thus, the Blake and Mouton "best" style works extremely well in some situations and not at all in others. As a result an extensive review of the

research and literature Nystrom (1978) along with others (Korman, 1966; Larson, Hunt and Osborn, 1976), concludes that the desirability of the preferred high + high (9.9 style) is a myth.

Another major difficulty with the Managerial Grid theory is the methodological ambiguity by which indicators of attitudes are construed to be behaviors. As Blake and Mouton (1982:23-25) state:

> "Concern for designates the character of the thinking and feeling applied to achieve any designated result. Because a leader's actual behavior and conduct can be predicted from knowledge of how he or she thinks about achieving production with and through people, the Grid is a more comprehensive statement of leadership theory."

This conclusion is simply not consistent with the current research findings on human behavior. If in fact concept formation was always directly correlated with behavior then there would be no difference between one's ideal and real self.

A major outgrowth of the Michigan studies is represented in the work of Likert (1961, 1967). He proposes that the Michigan studies verify the effectiveness of certain generic leadership practices when adopted throughout an organization.

Likert postulates a model by which these practices affect the accomplishments of the group. He begins with a total organizational viewpoint and identifies organizational sub-systems which he classifies as causal, intervening, and end-result variables.

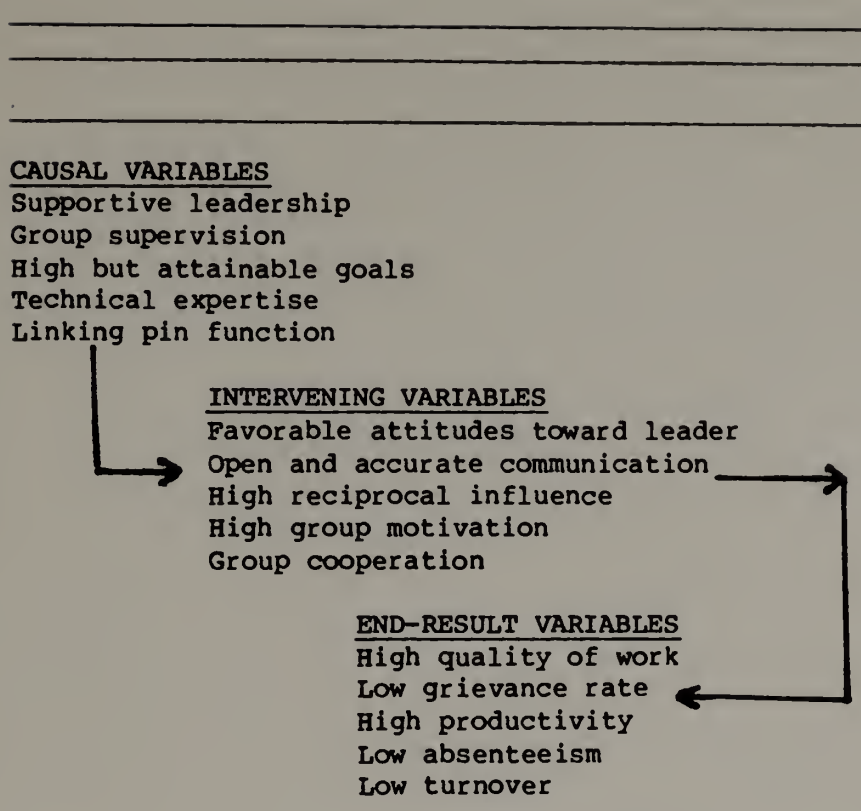

Figure 2
Causal, Intervening and End-Result Variables

He proposes that causal variables such as leadership styles and skills, organizational structure, philosophy, and technology act as stimuli upon intervening variables such as commitment to achievement, morale, and communications, which then determine the quality and quantity of end-results variables such as productivity and turnover. The relationships that Likert postulates between causal, intervening, and end-result variables are illustrated in Figure 2.

Likert concludes that end-results can be influenced by changing the leadership styles and skills within an organization, which in time will have an effect on the intervening variables. By using his model in various organizational interventions, Likert demonstrates that changing an organization's intervening variables through changing leadership styles and skills can take from three to seven years.

In one study (Mann, unpublished), end-result variables changed somewhat faster, but still there was a "lagged effect." Managers were given training in the practices suggested by Likert and feedback data on end-result variables were taken at six and eighteen months after training. At the six month interval there were only slight indications of change, but at the eighteen month point significant increases in productivity were identified:

> "The increase in productivity of the experimental department in comparison to the three other (control) departments proved nevertheless to be both substantial (cost savings of over $60,000 per year) and enduring. There was also an impressive improvement in union-management relationships in the experimental department" (Likert, 1967:80).

Taylor and Bowers (1972) in a similar field study found a comparable lagged effect between changing causal variables and indications of change in the end-result variables.

In order for leadership to have any effect at all on outcomes, Likert asserts that several practices must be embraced to form the basis of successful leadership. For instance, effective leaders communicate with the members of their group in such a way that a member "will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance" (Likert, 1961:103). Effective leaders monitor performance by involving followers in group problem-solving, information gathering, and decision-making. However, this does not mean a reduction in the leader's authority or responsibility for the group's decisions and results. Likert (1961:112) stresses the ultimate responsibility of leadership: "the superior may feel that he has no choice but to do what his experience indicates is best." Another practice identified by Likert is that of communicating challenging but attainable goals. Finally, the practice for which Likert is most well known is that of the leader serving as a "linking pin" for organizational information and resources. To do this effectively a leader must be able to influence those with more positional power as well as those with equal or less positional power. These, plus the leader's technical expertise, are the causal variables by which leaders influence the intervening variables to achieve results.

Likert asserts that he has discovered four basic styles of leadership which capture all of the ways that leaders influence organizational intervening variables.He calls these styles "systems of management." System I leaders maintain total control over goal setting, decision-making, and organizational resources. These leaders motivate subordinates by exercising coercive power for less than satisfactory performance. System II leaders use the same level of control but motivate other through the use of both reward and coercive power bases. System III leaders control general goals and decisions on policy, but members of the leader's work group are involved in specific objective-setting and determine how the objectives will be met. Motivation is built on the leader's use of expert, referent, and reward power. Leaders utilizing Likert's System IV delegate decision-making, problem-solving, and objective-setting down to the lowest organiational level relevant to the work that needs to be done. Follower motivation is influenced by the use of legitimate power to encourage followers' full participation, the use of referent power, and the mutual exercise of reward power to increase achievement motivation.

In conjunction with the identification of these systems of management, Likert developed an instrument involving twenty items,

by which one could identify the predominant or normative system currently in use within an organization. Likert's conclusion from his research and intervention work in various organizations is that the closer the predominant leadership style is to System IV, the more likely the organization will experience extended periods of high productivity (1967:4-10).

Though at first glance it would seem that Likert is concerned with the interdependence and interaction of organizational sub-systems, he is still proposing a "one best" style of leadership. This "best" style of leadership has two key elements according to Likert: it uses general rather than close supervisions, and it is "employee-centered," using positional power in supportive ways. As Likert states, "supervisors with the best records of performance focus their primary attention on the human aspects of their subordinates' problems and on endeavoring to build effective work groups with high performance goals" (1961:7). The following table is typical of the findings upon which Likert bases his assertions.

Table I
Productivity Under Employee-Centered and Job -Centered Managers

	# of Supervisors	
Productivity of Unit	Employee-Centered	Job-Centered
HIGH	6	1
LOW	3	7

Note: Adopted from New Patterns of Management, 1961, p. p. 4-10

As the figures above demonstrate, six of the seven high-producing sections focused their attention on the human aspects of subordinates' problems. Likert also asserts that leaders using System IV "make clear to their subordinates what the objectives are and what needs to be accomplished and then give them freedom to do the job" (Likert, 1961:9). The following table is typical of his findings in this area:

Table 2
Productivity Under Close And General Supervisions

	# of Supervisors	
Productivity of Unit	Close	General
HIGH	1	9
LOW	8	4

Source: New Patterns of Management, 1961, p. 4-10

From a thorough examination of the results of numerous early studies, Fiedler hypothesizes a relationship between leadership style, situational control, and group performance. He adds a significant contribution to the work of Blake and Mouton by demonstrating that different leadership situations require different leadership styles, i.e., different mixes of task and relationship behaviors. These mixes are influenced by the amount of positional power available to the leader, the degree of structure inherent in the work, and the amount of referent power or rapport with followers. He goes on to conclude that different leadership style are effective to the degree the style fits the environment or that

the environment is favorable to a given style.

Though Fiedler's contributions are significant, his theory is of limited value. The LPC score is a "measure in search of a meaning" (Schriessheim and Kerr, 1976:23). The supporting results for his theory are weak and inconsistent (McMahon, 1972). His belief in situational determinism is of little value to corporate managers. It is very difficult, if not impossible, to select the organizational and managerial position that is most favorable to one's leadership style. In addition, Fiedler does not address the concerns of corporate managers faced with new opportunities which require a different leadership style or of those managers seeking to increase their own development as leaders.

Though Fiedler elaborates on the influence of the work situation a great deal, he does not offer a method or model for managers to utilize in determining which cluster of behaviors will have the highest probability of success in a new situation.

A review of this same data by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:92-93) contradicts Likert's conclusion that System IV is best in all situations, "As the preceding figures revealed, one of the eight job-centered supervisors and one of the nine supervisors using close supervision had high-producing sections; also, three of the nine employee-centered supervisors and four of the thirteen supervisors who used general supervision had low-producing sections." Thus, high producing sections were sometimes lead by supervisors who use close supervision and sometimes by leaders who were job-centered. In 32% of the cases of leaders using employee-centered and general supervision practices their sections were still low producing.

As Fiedler and Chemers (1974:102) so aptly put it:

> What are the implications of these findings? First of all, the results demonstrate that leader behavior is not consistent over situations. Leaders tend to behave in a human relations-centered manner in one situation but in a job-centered manner in another. There are no generally considerate leaders, only leaders who are considerate in some situations and inconsiderate in others. The continuous difficulty with the leader behavior approach is in its linear analysis. This approach does not consider the impact of either the dynamic qualities of interactive self-conscious efforts or the needs and expectations of followers on leader effectiveness. That is, the same leader behaviors do not result in the same influence on the behavior of followers even in the most favorable situations.

Leadership contingencies. Fiedler (1967) takes a situational contingency approach to leadership theory, but overcomes one of the weaknesses of Blake and Mouton's theory. Fiedler addresses the problem of "one best style" not working in all situations by asserting that any leadership style can be successful when used in a favorable situation. Fiedler builds on the Managerial Grid theory, utilizing the same two dimensions as Blake and Mouton. He captures leadership style by assessing an individual's concern for production and concern for people, but to this he adds the degree to which positional power is available to that individual. He proposes that high levels of positional power allow a leader to increase effectiveness by providing rewards and punishments to alter leader-member relationships, as well as increase subordinate compliance with directions and policies. Fiedler describes leaderhip styles along three dimensions:

a. the leader's personal relations with the members of their group (concern for people);

b. the leader's need to provide structure based on the degree of structure inherent in the tasks that members have been assigned (concern for production);

c. the leader's power and authority based on the position they hold (position power).

Clearly the research and applications of leadership theories do not demonstrate that one best style, one set of traits or even one form of power is more effective across all situations with all members. As Hersey and Blanchard state (1982:125-126):

> The style of leaders is the consistent behavior patterns that they use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people. These patterns emerge in people as they begin to respond in the same fashion under similar conditions; they develop habits of action that become somewhat predictable to those who work with them...A single ideal type of leader behavior seems unrealistic.

Though there may not be one best style, there are definite styles of leadership which can be described by the degree to which leader behavior is directed towards exercising positional and personal power while influencing others by both structuring and controlling their activities, and supporting and facilitating their development and acheivement. The weakness of the leader trait approach is the assumption that leadership is innate, not learned, suggesting that leadership is a personal characteristic that separates leaders from non-leaders.

The major weakness of the leadership power approach has been an inability to account for the interaction between different bases of

power and the reciprocal influence between leaders and followers.

The difficulty with the leader behavior approach is in its linear analysis, which does not consider the impact that the dynamic qualities of interactive self-conscious efforts and the needs and expectations of those involved may have on the ultimate outcome. The leader contingencies approach, which was a first attempt to begin to integrate power and behavior within a context, breaks down to situational determinism or some general guidelines without theory.

The problem of narrowness of focus, methodological bias, and a lack of sound empirical evidence are as much a part of the history of leadership theory and research as the development of leadership theories themselves. However, many of these weaknesses can be overcome when leadership is viewed as a temporal role and process parameterized by one's assessment of the tangible and intangible resources available, modified by one's expectations and motivations and the expectations and motivations of those one intends to influence.

Traditional Bias Due to Exclusion

Beyond the individual weaknesses described above, the leadership theories discussed thus far share a common bias due to the traditional exclusion from study of two groups of people. Virtually all research on leadership has been based on the leadership roles taken by men. This severely limits the usefulness of many theories in helping women to develop their leadership

effectiveness. The other group which has been left out has been the followers, without which there could be no leaders.

Women.

One primary reason for the sex bias in leadership research is due to the fact that North American social concepts of leadership and masculine behavior overlap a great deal. While not all men engage in leadership functions, to a large extent the qualities and behaviors associated with successful leadership in most people's minds are masculine.

This traditional socialization of different kinds of behaviors for boys and girls begins very early and continues into adulthood (Kagan, 1964). Men have traditionally been raised with the expectation that they will have to work to earn a living. Active participation in athletic and sporting activities provides boys with valuable training in many work-related behaviors and ways of thinking, including team-collaboration, competitiveness, followership, and leadership. Generally boys and men are expected to be intrumental, aggressive, independent, productive, successful, competitive, analytical, problem and power oriented (Fasteau, 1978; Townsend, 1977). While there may be considerable local or family differences in the extent to which these expectations apply, all American men experience them to some extent.

Traditional education of girls has been markedly different. It has focused on the development of nurturant, supportive, and interpersonal strengths, on verbal rather than quantitative skills,

and on gaining personal power by personal attractiveness rather than by achievement. Traditionally women are expected to be caring, warm, "nice," passive, peace-keeping, cooperative, dependent, supportive, expressive, sexually attractive, and submissive to men. These expectations produce in women a tendency to avoid traditional corporate success (Horner, 1970), an inhibition of aggressiveness and assertiveness, a tendency to avoid conflict, a dependency on external standards and approval, competitiveness with other women, and a lack of desire to compete with men. It is not surprising that women with traditional upbringing appear to have difficulty developing their potential as corporate leaders. Thus, any leadership theory of practical value must be able to build on the strengths of these traditional learnings and overcome the gaps between the traditional upbringing of men and women.

In an effort to determine the feasibility of a given leadership theory to a population that includes women, a review of the most recent research on similarities and differences in the behavioral repertoire of men and women is a must. Until recently, most people made the assumption that individuals had to be either masculine or feminine, that it was not possible or appropriate to be both aggressive and nurturant, analytical and expressive, independent and collaborative, power-oriented and concerned for the needs of others. As a result, when put into situations where they are expected to be supportive and sensitive to the needs of others, many

men experience considerable anxiety and frustration. This anxiety and frustration stems from two concerns. One is that individuals are being expected to do something their sex is not supposedto do. The other is that given traditional upbringings, individuals may not have the slightest idea of how to do what is expected of them.

Significant recent research into the nature of the kinds of behaviors which characterize each sex, and the extent to which these are intrinsic or simply learned, has come from two sources. Sandra Bem (1975) has conducted a series of studies in which she has explored the extent to which masculine and feminine behaviors are in fact distinct separate clusters which all of us possess to a greater or lesser degree. This approach has enabled her to study the behavior of individuals, independent of their physiological sex. A parallel line of research has been conducted by two psychologists at the University of Texas. In a powerful and rigorous series of studies, Spence and Helmreich (1978) disprove the popular belief that masculinity and femininity are opposite ends of the same continuum. They demonstrate that both these characteristics are present to some degree within all of us, regardless of sex. These characteristics are dualistic, not opposites.

Spence and Helmreich found that many men and women scored high on both masculine and feminine characteristics. They use the word androgynous to identify these people. These are individuals who can behave in ways that are traditionally characteristic of both sexes. Thus, these individuals have high scores in both masculinity and

femininity and can, as the situation requires, be both independent and collaborative, assertive and compassionate, tough and sensitive. These men and women demonstrate a wide range of behavior and the flexibility to adapt their behavior according to the circumstances. In addition, Spence and Helmreich found a series of correlations between higher level of success, higher need for achievement, and higher flexibility on both masculine and feminine measures.

The findings of Bem, and Spence and Helmreich are consistent with most of the leadership research up to the present. Their research and the leadership research both stress the importance of two key leadership dimensions: a) providing structure and dimension, b) providing support and sensitivity. The ability to define a task, to give concrete instructions about what must be done, and to direct its completion certainly fits the traditional notions of masculine, instrumental, and assertive behavior. In line with traditional concepts of feminine behavior is the ability to understand or empathize with followers, to be sensitive to their needs and expectations, and supportive of their efforts.

Findings published by Hall (1976), that successful managers are more disclosing and communicative in general (more expressive), and encourage more feedback (more receptive) than less successful managers, also support the importance of elements that have traditionally been viewed as feminine. In fact, some at these

feminine attributes are institutionalized in the mentor relationships that can be observed in organizations. Certainly few members of senior management have reached their current position of eminence without having relationships with more senior men in which they benefited from personal support and concern.

Thus, the work of Bem, Spence and Helmreich, and Hall adds considerably to identifying an unbiased theory of leadership. Their research, when combined, suggests that the highly effective leader will be the individual who has a strong command of a broad range of both "feminine" and "masculine" behaviors and can call on them as needed.

Their work also has implications for developing the leadership potential of men and women. To be practical, leadership theory must address the developmental differences of both managers and subordinates, and assess performance based on results, not by the extent to which the leader rigidly follows "one best" method of leadership.

Followers.

In addition to overlooking women as leaders, leadership theories have done little to date to account for the important effects of variations among followers on the leadership process. Within the context of corporate management this issue becomes critical to the ultimate level of unit achievement, through the development of subordinates' abilities and willingness to do the tasks required.

No theory that ignores the influence of these factors can fully account for leadership in a corporate context; characteristics of followers are a vital component of any situation involving leadership. In addition, there is a growing need to increase the variety of the corporate human resource pool and the development of future managers.

Effective leaders, as described by current corporate managers, direct and develop subordinates to "do things I didn't think I could do." "All our research indicates that the job assignment is the single most important variable in career development" (Dalton et al., 1977:41). Assigning tasks to subordinates that call on their strongest expertise and motivation is not always possible. It is possible to assign work within the context of subordinate needs and expectations.

From the subordinate's point of view, performance each day depends upon the subjective estimate of what is realistically achievable and worthwhile. People do not come to work thinking, "I'm feeling a strong need for independence today so I think I'll work alone." Nor do people assess their task-specific development needs, objectives, and action plans on a daily basis. However, individuals do express concern for higher clarity and desire assistance from leaders in making decisions about their career development. Indicative of this need are the following statements taken from interviews with corporate employees and managers.

> I can operate all of our systems and by most standards I'm quite successful. I've been in this unit for 18 months and have learned all of the functions here but I'm getting bored and demotivated. I've received "exceeded" and "far exceeded" performance ratings and moved up one grade. Yet, I'm ready for something new, but if I transfer what will that do to my career potential, if my boss doesn't approve a transfer? Even if she does approve a transfer, what will that do to my chances of becoming a supervisor or manager? (A 22-year-old computer operator)

> I have to have a challenge or I lose interest. I wish I knew what to learn next or where to go from here. If I go into management I may not be able to manage people, regulations, and budgets as well as I can keypunch and verify. I might lose my successful record with the company. (A 35-year-old keypunch operator)

> I have learned all of the important tasks in this unit and really enjoy doing them. Yet, my manager keeps assigning me administrative tasks that could be done more cost effectively by an administrative assistant. Many of my peers are still learning how to do effective stand-up work and I'm asked to teach them as well as take on the more difficult seminars myself. I want to and have requested to get involved in some organizational consulting projects for other managers. My manager seems to take little interest in my development except to 'develop my skills in managing administrative details.' I'm just about fed up. (A 37-year-old management development specialist)

Thus, it is no surprise that subordinates are frustrated, bewildered, and angry at the lack of career guidance provided by their leaders. In fact, most of the leadership theories do not even consider expectations and skill development of followers. This same concern is also expressed by many corporate managers when discussing the future of their subordinates: career development has become something that staff expects from management in response to their needs.

This problem is especially acute for managers of professional employees. They represent the fastest growing group in the American work force. They are also the second largest group, currently respresenting 32% of the work force, second only to blue collar workers, who represent 33%.

Inquiries into career development within complex organizations have been going on in a variety of business and public organizations for a number of years. These inquiries have been pursued by organizational analysts, psychologists, economists, anthroplogists, social psychologists, journalists, and counselors (Zaleznik, 1970:431-66). The writings of Hall (1976), Schein (1971:401;426), and Miller (1972:62-80) reflect the comprehensive efforts being made by various disciplines to identify factors in career success and to develop career theories, organizational career development practices, and self-management of careers.

Representative of these efforts are the findings of a study of 2,500 engineers in seven large organizations by Dalton and Thompson (1971:57-68).From their initial work they found that "The older the engineer after the mid-30's, the lower his performance rating was likely to be" (1977:21). However, as they examined their data more closely they discovered new insights. "In fact, the top third of the engineers over 50 were almost as highly valued as the top third in any age group" (ibid).

In an effort to clarify therse seemingly contradictory findings, Dalton and Thompson (1976:105-117) interviewed 550 employees from fourteen different organizations in both the public and private sectors. Subjects were selected so as to represent both high and low performers, and were simply asked to describe their own careers and those of their peers. As the researchers began to control for time, a pattern emerged. High performers were accomplishing different tasks during their initial, mid, and late career phases. Dalton and Thompson (1976:110) state, "As we investigated further, it became increasingly clear that there are four distinct stages...Each stage differs from the others in the tasks an individual is expected to perform well in that stage, in the types of relationships he engages in, and in the psychological adjustments he must make."

The researchers hypothesized that those individuals who did well with the tasks and relationships of each stage were also those currently receiving high performance ratings, while those currently receiving low performance ratings were "stuck" in the tasks and relationships of an earlier period.

Dalton and Thompson characterize the stages in the following ways:

> <u>Stage 1</u> S/he is primarily involved in following instructions and directions from the leader while carrying out routine, detailed tasks. His/her relationship with the leader is one of dependency and demonstration of competence at each specific task assigned. This requires a psychological

adjustment and acceptance of close supervision, routine, often boring, tasks, and deferred gratification. Satisfaction is derived from demonstration of competence and reliability in doing his/her job.

Stage 2 S/he is primarily involved in building a track record as a competent and reliable technical expert. The most important task in Stage 2 is that of demonstrating good judgment by willingly accepting supervision and direction while exercising creative initiative by specializing and gaining exposure. His/her relationship with the leader is still somewhat dependent for explanation of the relative significance of each task and the relationship between the tasks, unit objectives and corporate goals. This requires a psychological adjustment of developing confidence in one's own judgment and limitations. Also, s/he must be willing to take the risks inherent in new opportunities and challenges.

Stage 3 S/he is primarily involved in influencing, guiding, directing, and developing the accomplishments of the work group. His/her relationships are developed with peers within the work group and others in the organization that his/her work group interacts with. Also, s/he begins to take on a leadership role from time to time. This requires a psychological adjustment to maintaining a balance between individual contributions and accomplishments that support and build confidence in team problem-solving and decision-making.

Stage 4 S/he is involved in getting results through systems and people, generating innovative ideas, and/or bringing together resources. A portion of time is dedicated toward identifying and working with key performers within and outside theorganizational unit. This stage requires psychological adjustment to the long-term needs and opportunities of the organizational unit. S/he must relinquish the focus on day-to-day activities and focus on where these activities are leading. In addition, s/he must internalize the exercise of both positional and personal power bases. Power is a necessary dimension of highly mature task accomplishment. The Stage 4 employee must be able to form functional alliances and confront differences with others without carrying a long-term grudge.

Thus, an employee's development is not merely "moving up the ladder," but rather involves the acquisition of and adjustment to new skills, tasks, relationships, and perspectives.

As the ability, desire, and reliability of an individual emerge for a task, s/he is laying the base for a different kind of involvement and perspective around that task. In Stage 1, an individual develops by taking directions and developing competence. In Stage 2, s/he gains an understanding of the value, priorities, and relationships between tasks. In Stage 3, the individual begins broadening his/her contribution to the work unit and other members. Finally, in Stage 4, s/he operates independently, and provides direction and support for the unit and the organization as a whole. Table 3 presents significant factors that differentiate one phase from another:

Dalton and Thompson do not suggest that these stages are as clear in demarcation as the chart presents them. In fact, variables from each are found in the others in different forms, and an individual may be in one stage around a given task while in a different stage for another task. For example, Dalton and Thompson state they have interviewed many successful people who say they did not go through Stage 1, and some who did not go through Stage 2. These individuals stated that they received direction and support from their peers, and that allowed them to skip a stage. Also, this model does not conclude that a fully developed employee must have progressed to Stage 4 on all tasks. In fact, performers in each stage make an important contribution, and organizational success

Table 3
Characteristics of Stages of Career Development

FACTORS	STAGE I	STAGE II	STAGE III	STAGE IV
Task Focus	.Accepting direction .Developing competence	.Determining meanings .Judging risks	.Contributing to the group .Developing members	.Independence .Directing & supporting others
Relationships	Subordinate	Colleague	Contributor	Leader
Adjustment	Dependence	Independence	Interdependence	Power use

* adapted from Dalton & Thompson, 1976.

relies on a distribution of staff in all stages. Yet, the modeldoes assert that as performers grow older they will be valued to the extent they have successfully progressed through the early stages around most tasks.

The following graph presents Dalton and Thompson's findings from a study on which they requested managers to classify subordinates in their department into one of four stages around a series of tasks:

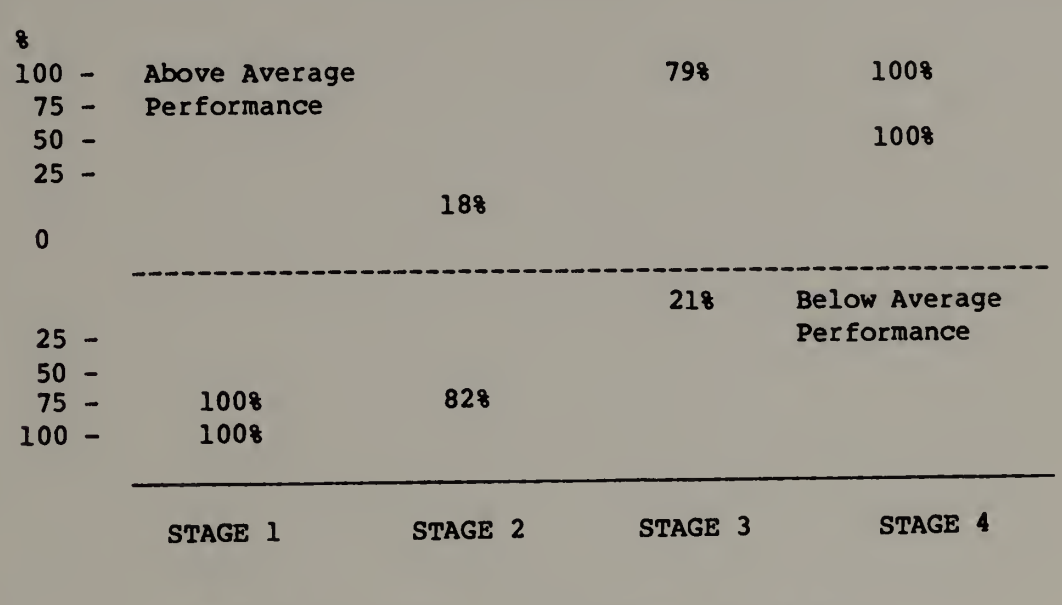

Figure 3. Relationship between stage and Performance rating over age 40 *

From the work of Dalton and Thompson it is clear that the need for a theory of leadership that addresses the developmental needs of followers is strong. In fact, the development of such a theory is vitally important to corporate management.

These developmental stages are not simply another way of describing career advancement through the traditional management pyramid. An individual can progress through all four stages without managing others directly or even while holding the same position the entire time. When work is broken down into its basic unit, the task, an individual's level of development will vary depending on the task. That is, an individual may be at the Stage 4 level around one task, but if the task is carried out in a different situation, or a different task is required, that same individual may operate at the Stage 1 or Stage 2 level for a period of time.

Leaders can be instrumental in the successful progress of followers through the four developmental stages identified by Dalton and Thompson (1977). By identfying the current stage of a follower's career development, a leader can better determine the appropriate leadership style and task assignments that will meet both the present skills and expectations, and future developmental needs of followers. Thus, the challenge to leaders is not to identify the best style, power base, or leadership traits to use, but rather to identify the follower's readiness and the degree and type of leader direction and support needed by the follower to accomplish a given task.

The literature offers very little leadership theory that is not based on the success of traditional male leaders. Even more importantly, there are no theories that account for the tri-dimensional interaction between leader behaviors, follower expectations and skills, and task requirements. As far as the author has been able to discover, only Hersey and Blanchard's "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership" (LCTL) overcomes these traditional problems.

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (LCTL), developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) incorporates many of the strengths of the trait, power, and behavior approaches, but makes an original contribution by adding the concept of leader adaptability. This approach advocates that the effective leader adapts behavior, personal qualities, and power use to fit the demands of any given situation. That is, effective leaders adapt the kind and degree of power they exercise, which personal qualities they express, and which behaviors they utilize in response to the context in which the behavior of others is intended to be influenced. It is the interaction of leader power use, behavior, and personal qualities with the skills and expectations of followers that is the key to understanding leadership (Burke, 1965). Being able to adapt in ways appropriate to the situation is the critical element of continuous effective leadership.

In the early years, both Hersey and Blanchard were interested in the Ohio State and Michigan research. One of their specific interests focused on the Managerial Grid developed by Blake and Mouton. In examining both the methodology and the practical application of the Managerial Grid, they encountered two major problems. First, the diagnostic instrument, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), developed to generate data on an individual's current leadership style, was utilized to identify attitudes such as concern for production and concern for people, and from these to infer behaviors. Such inference is questionable. Second, though these attitudes of high concern for people and production may well be valuable qualities in a manager, it is not always effective to express a high degree of concern for both. Conveying leader attitudes of high concern for both people and production sometimes distracts, confuses, and overwhelms the follower.

Hersey and Blanchard conclude that what Blake and Mouton were describing was not leadership style, but leadership attitudes or leadership personality. They assert that leadership style "is the consistent behavior patterns that they (leaders) use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:126). From their research and review of other research, they conclude that the best leadership style is that which is appropriate to the needs and demands of the situation. So, Hersey and Blanchard began to build a leadership theory utilizing

the dimensions of consideration and structure. They proceeded by integrating leadership styles (task and relationship behaviors) with positional and personal power, the expression of personal traits and ongoing organizational goals. Finally, they related these variables to the skills, expectations, and developmental needs of followers, thereby blazing a new path for leadership training and development.

Leadership styles.

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (LCTL) was the first theory to focus on broadening the style range of those with the responsibility to exercise leadership. This was done to enable individuals to use different leadership styles selectively, depending upon their appropriateness to a given situation. Hersey and Blanchard identified four basic leadership styles. These styles are operationally defined by two dimensions plotted along two intersecting, perpendicular axes: task behavior and relationship behaviors (See Figure 4).

The four resulting leadership styles can be described and distinguished as follows:

> Style 1 (S1) involves high task behavior (frequent and significant task direction) and low relationship behavior (infrequent and minor supportive behaviors) - HT & LR. Hersey and Blanchard also refer to this style as the TELLING style: "I say, you do."
>
> Style 2 (S2) involves high task behavior and high relationship behavior (frequent and significant supportive behaviors) - HT & HR. This style is also referred to as the SELLING style: "I say its important to you."

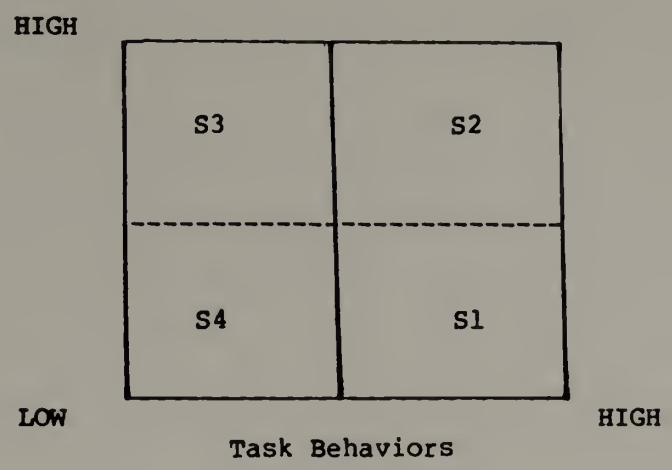

Figure 4
Four Basic Leadership Styles

Style 3 (S3) involves high relationship and low task (directing other through stating desired results and identifying constraints) - HR & LT. This style is also referred to as the PARTICIPATING style: "You say it's important to you."

Style 4 (S4) involves low relationship and low task behaviors - LR & LT. This style is also referred to as the DELEGATING style: "You know what to do and why."

Task-specific maturity.

The Hersey and Blanchard theory also proposes that each of these styles is most appropriate for a given level of task specific maturity in the follower. Task-specific maturity is defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:151) as: "the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior." In considering the maturity level of a given individual, it is important not to construe task-specific maturity to be the same as the popular usage of the term "maturity." Task-specific maturity is not a reflection of personal, social, or emotional balance, but rather the ability and willingness of a person to accomplish a given task. Hersey and Blanchard (1982:151) stress that "these variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed." They suggest that in considering task-specific maturity, follower can be assessed along two dimensions: job maturity (ability) and psychological maturity (willingness).

In assessing an individual's job maturity a leader is evaluating an individual's readiness to carry out a specific task. "Individuals who have high job maturity in a particular area have

the knowledge, ability, and experience to perform certain tasks without direction from others" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:157). The second dimension, psychological maturity, is indicated by the degree of confidence and commitment an individual has displayed regarding the performance of a specific task. The level of commitment is determined by the interaction between an individual's understanding of the task, agreement about the importance of the outcome, and belief that taking responsibility for one's own performance is important. Confidence is an individual's perception that he or she is able to plan and control the activities necessary to accomplish the assigned task while overcoming anticipated obstacles.

Job maturity is observable and based on a performer's knowledge, experience, and skills to accomplish a specific result. In addition, a leader gains a clear sense of not only ability, but also reliability by observing performance over time.

However, psychological maturity is more difficult to assess. In an attempt to clarify psychological maturity the concepts of expectancy or path-goal theory (Porter, Lawler, and Hackman, 1975; Vroom, 1965) are of great help. According to the research on expectancy theory, an individual's confidence and commitment to take responsibility for the accomplishment of a task are determined by three interdependent beliefs held by that individual. First, people have expectations or beliefs about the level of effort and skill r

equired on their part to accomplish a particular outcome. Second, people also have expectations or beliefs about the likelihood of a desired outcome occurring as a result of their efforts, within real or imagined constraints. Finally, for each individual the level of effort and likelihood of outcome of that effort have particular personal attraction or worthwhileness. The value placed on effort and outcome depends upon the individuals' needs and aspirations, and the extent to which they believe a given outcome will satisfy their need or further their aspirations. Thus, an individual's confidence and commitment are a result of that individual's beliefs about the following three factors: a) level of effort required; b) probability of goal attainment; and c) personal value placed on goal attainment.

Generally the decision-making process described above is not consciously or systematically thought out. Rather, over a period of time an individual's experiences within an organization shape his/her expectations. The environment in which people perform to a large degree determines what people will expect, based on their experience. "The environment rates certain kinds of beliefs or expectancies about what kinds of consequences will follow from various actions, and indicates the kind of satisfactions or frustrations that are available in a given situation" (Litwin and Stringer, 1968:188). Thus, expectations based on experience interact with personal needs to shape performance.

Van Dersal (1968:25) describes both the potential and the limitations of accurately assessing followers' task specific maturity:

> "experienced leaders will recognize that there are no sure and certain rules for working with people. In general, they know with the wisdom born of experience, that human beings are individually unique and that this individuality has always to be be considered in working relationships. With due regard for the uniqueness of individuals, however, there are certain general principles that are used by successful leaders as guides in working with their people. Some of these principles are: people must always understand clearly what is expected of them, people must have guidance in doing their work, good work should always be recognized, poor work should always be constructively criticized, people should have opportunity to show that they can accept greater responsibilities, and people should be encouraged to improve themselves."

Many corporate managers intend to effect others along the lines of these principles, whether or not they do so successfully.

Most corporate manager will admit that often they find a gap between their good intentions and the effect they actually have on others, similar to the classic gap between theory and practice. That is, a manager may try to constructively criticize a subordinate but instead leave the subordinate feeling unfairly treated and confused. Thus, Hersey and Blanchard stress that it is critical to access the "job maturity" and "psychological maturity" of a performer in relation to the specific task in order to give criticism that has a constructive effect on that performer. Often this gap between intent and effect occurs because managers expect a subordinate who is mature in relation to several tasks to "know the

right thing to do," assuming maturity in relation to a task where in fact that subordinate's maturity is quite low.

The components of task specific maturity are not independent factors, but rather interdependent. When a leader facilitates accomplishment by providing the appropriate degree and type of direction and support, he or she also increases the probability that the performer will be motivated to accomplish that task or goal. By increasing an individual's desire to achieve, that leader makes it more likely that the individual will go out of his or her way to learn the skills required or find the information that makes exceptional performance possible.

The intention of teaching the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (LCTL) is to increase the range of styles that can be used by a leader to successfully and effectively influence the behavior of others to achieve desired results. In order to do this, a leader must not only be able to use all four styles, but also must be able to select the style with the highest probability of effectiveness for the situation at hand.

Hersey and Blanchard propose that influencing the performance of others depends in part on technical skills, but to an even greater extent on the skills of interacting with others. Through the interactions a leader has with his or her performers, a leader can favorably influence each performer's ability to do a good job, the "can do" part of achievement. The "want to" part of achievement can also be influenced, which in turn will influence the "can do" part

of the job. This is because commitment is something derived from within a person, and cannot be bought and sold like skills, but must be developed and facilitated like the aging of a good wine - by providing the right conditions at the right time. By selecting the appropriate leadership style, and assigning realistic but challenging tasks, a leader can create a work environment in which people want to do their best. The LCTL proposes that simply influencing followers to accomplish the task at hand is often viewed as successful leadership, but doing this in a way that promotes future development of a subordinate's "job maturity" and "psychological maturity" is indicative of long-term effective leadership.

According to Hersey and Blanchard effective leadership influences both the current and future performance of individuals. It is the impact on the development of future performance that distinguishes effective leadership from successful leadership.

This impact on the development of future performance is also beneficial in broadening the range of leader power available. Thus, the distinction between good and exceptional managers.

The first thing a leader must do is assess the task specific maturity of a performer in the context of organizational goals and then select the appropriate leadership style for the individual and the specific task at hand. In selecting the appropriate leadership

style it is important to focus not only on an individual's current maturity level, but also on the style that would facilitate that person's development.

As the graph in Figure 5 illustrates, if a leader wishes to influence the behavior of an individual whose task specific maturity is low, who is both unable and unwilling to perform the task or who lacks interest in the task, the appropriate style would be S1. The leader would begin the development of that individual by directing, controlling, and closely supervising their performance. If, however, the individual was willing but unable to carry out a task (low to moderate maturity), the appropriate style would be S2. By both directing and supporting the desired performance the leader could aid the individual in both the accomplishment of the task and his/her movement to the next level of maturity. On the other hand, if the individual was able to accomplish the task but disinterested or lacking confidence (moderate to high maturity), the apropriate style would be S3. The leader would engage in high levels of supportive behavior, while involving the individual in the decision-making and problem-solving related to that task. Finally, if an individual is both willing and able (high maturity) to carry out a specific task the appropriate style would be S4, in which the leader would simply state the results desired, convey

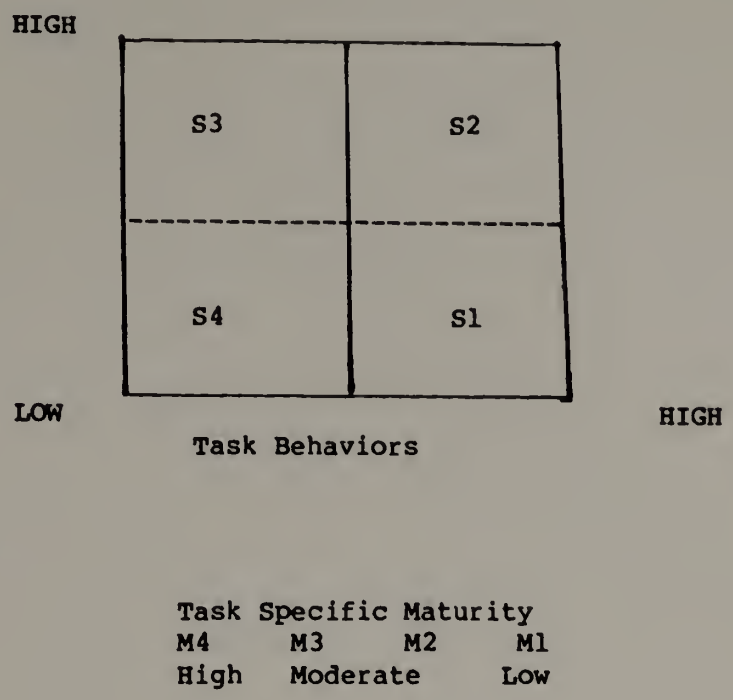

Figure 5.
Style of Leader

confidence in the individual's ability to accomplish those results and credit achievements. The curve running through each style in the previous graph represents the potential developmental curve for each follower in relationship to each specific task.

Hersey and Blanchard propose that the effectiveness of utilizing different power bases varies with leadership style and with the follower's task specific maturity. In addition to the five types of power bases developed by French and Raven (1959), Hersey and Blanchard have identified one additional power base: Connection power. Connection power refers to power used when a subordinate carries out activities because he or she believes that the leader has connections with influential and important others by whom the subordinate wishes to be seen as valuable. A seventh power base, identified by Rowen and Krezlansky (1975:172-219), is Information power, in which subordinate performance is directed by the leader because the subordinate believes the leader has access to valuable information and he or she wishes to utilize this information. Hersey and Blanchard describe the use of these seven power bases (coercive, connection, reward, legitimate, referent, information, and expert) in relation to the task specific maturity level of an individual performer.

S4 Delegate	S3 Participate	S2 Sell	S1 Tell
	Task Maturity		
High	- Moderate -		Low
M4 Expert	M3 Referent	M2 Reward	M1 Coercive
Information	Legitimate	Connection	
Personal Power		Positional Power	

Figure 6.
Relationships between power base,
leadership style, and task specific maturity
Hersey and Blanchard 1982

They assert that the power bases most effective for below average levels of maturity are those bases derived from positional power, while at above average levels of maturity the use of personal power increases leader effectiveness. For example, an indiviudal at the M1 maturity level is most likely to respond to the use of coercive and connection power. In moving from M1 to the M3 level of maturity the use of positional power bases such as reward and legitimate are most effective in developing commitment while assuring task achievement. As an individual becomes more mature and the leadership style more participative, the individual performer becomes more involved. The need for compliance decreases while the need for influencing the direction of that individual's development increases. So, at the M3 and M4 levels of maturity referent, information, and expert power bases are more effective.

In summary, Hersey and Blanchard's theory proposes that when an individual does not know how or why to do a given task the appropriate leadership style is one that provides the direction and control needed by that individual. Telling an individual why something is important before he or she knows how to do it increases the probability of the leader's communication becoming misconstrued. Individuals at this level are most responsive to the use of coercive and connection power. When an individual is at the M2 level the selling style is most appropriate because the individual needs high degrees of both direction and support.

In making the transition from the M1 to M2 level, connection power is most effective, and once the M2 level is attained, reward power must be utilized to sustain performance. If an indiviudal knows how but is unwilling or disinterested in the task, the participative style is called for. By using legitimate power, the leader can influence the individual to become more involved in decision-making and problem-solving, and utilize referent power to help maintain that involvment. As an individual becomes more involved, recognition of the leader's information and expert power, as well as a decrease in both task and relationship behaviors on the part of the leader, an individual will move to the M4 level and be able to set high but attainable goals, take responsibility for the task assigned them, and need very little facilitation or direction from the leader.

This theory does not suggest that everyone will develop the highest level of task specific maturity on every task. However, it does assert that a certain leadership style is more in line with the needs of a follower than others for a given maturity level. If leadership styles and power bases are used appropriately, there is a higher likelihood that followers will increase in task specific maturity. At the minimum, the use of leadership style needed by a follower as determined by his or her task specific maturity will result in the accomplishment of the current task and has a high probability of facilitating increased maturity around that task.

By integrating the concepts of leader power, personal qualities, and behaviors with follower skills and expectations, Hersey and Blanchard offer corporate managers a way to influence the performance of subordinates according to situational needs. The major drawback to Hersey and Blanchard's theory is that little evaluation has been done on change in leadership style after training. This problem has continued primarily because training programs based on the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership do not teach specific skills by which a leader can assess subordinate maturity and needs as well as direct and support performance. The training program described in Chapter III is designed to offer these skills to individuals interested in expanding their leadership style range, flexibility and effectiveness.

This chapter has reviewed and critiqued both historical and modern leadership theories and research. Chapter III will present a detailed description of the exploratory study itself.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes in detail the design of the study. Included is an overview of the leadership training seminar (treatment), a description of the subjects and instrumentation, a statement of hypotheses, and a discussion of the quasi-experimental approach utilized.

In the past, scholars have studied and disseminated various theories of leadership based on the study of traits, power use, behavior, or situational contingencies. Yet the literature seems always to recommend further study when the time comes to address the specific procedural, analytical, and tactical skills by which a given theory of leadership can be put into practice. The main purpose of this study was to examine the feasibility of translating one theory of leadership into a practical set of skills, as well as a base for knowledge and understanding that will allow managers in a corporate setting to become more effective leaders.

Overall, this study was broken into five different phases. Phase 1 involved a needs assessment and the design of the training seminar. Phase 2 involved the selection, scheduling, and administration of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description questionnaire prior to the treatment. Phase 3 involved the treatment: the delivery of a five-day leadership training

seminar. Phase 4 involved the collection and analysis of data after the treatment. Phase 5 involved a summary and evaluation of the findings of this study.

Needs Assessment and training design.

During Phase 1 several discussions were scheduled and conducted with the senior management of the client organization to determine the need for leadership training. Based on this needs assessment, a five-day leadership training seminar was designed for managers promoted during the year of 1981. Preliminary discussions with senior management generated a general organizational need to create a broad pool of leadership potential in preparation for future corporate diversification. The design was completed with the ongoing involvement of senior management, so as to insure their support and commitment to the leadership training seminar, which was the treatment condition for this study.

As Phase 1 was completed, senior management identified a need for the first two levels of management above supervisor to become more flexible at influencing the behavior of others in a variety of situations. Through ongoing interactions with senior management, full commitment and support was gained for the treatment. However, this commitment ultimately became a two-edged sword. Though senior management provided all of the time, space, and resources necessary for an excellent learning environment, the chief executive officer mandated attendance within ninety days of promotion. This mandate,

that all managers newly promoted to the first two levels of management go through the treatment, precluded the establishment of a control group for comparison. Based on a needs assessment at all management and employee levels a leadership training seminar was designed and implemented.

Training Design

The basic focus of the leadership traning seminar design was to introduce subjects to a leadership theory and the skills by which they could implement this theory. This five-day leadership training seminar involved the following activities:

- Trainer lecturettes presentations
- Large group discussions & critique
- Team problem-solving, simulations, presentations, discussion, critique and inter-member feedback
- Audio and video behavior modeling
- Individual and team analysis of data feedback
- Trainer behavior modeling
- Summary interteam recommendations & action plan for individual change.

Treatment

The following is a description of the five day treatment:

Day 1 (AM).

Module 1 - The lead trainer introduced the program and welcomed

the subjects. Subjects interviewed each other and introduced each other, stating name, job, and reservations and expectations about the five-day training seminar. Subjects viewed an orientation film for all new employees.

Module 2 - Management briefings were given by representatives from Employment, Employee Relations, and Compensation and Benefits.

These briefings were followed by questions and answers as well as a general discussion by subjects.

Day 1 (PM).

Module 3 - The second trainer conducted a review of the morning and a preview of the afternoon. Subjects were requested to give feedback as to the value and satisfaction with the seminar to that point.

Module 4 - The third trainer gave a presentation on delegation. Subjects self-assessed their own current delegation practices and determined goals for improvement where desired.

Module 5 - The lead trainer conducted a "desert survival" exercise with subjects in groups of five. Discussion afterward focused on working and learning as a team and the value added by group synergy.

Day 2 (AM).

Module 6 - The second trainer presented a review of Day 1 activities and a preview of Day 2. The trainer then reviewed subjects' reservations and expectations, and gathered feedback on the activities of Day 1. Subjects were organized into teams of three, which were used throughout the remainder of the training program.

Module 7 - The lead trainer handed out the LEAD questionnaire to all subjects and read the directions to the group. Subjects completed the LEAD questionnaire and a trained administrative assistant collected and scored them. The lead trainer presented the Life Cycle Theory of Leaderhip, conduct a general discussion of the theory, and distributed a four-page article on the theory. Subjects viewed a film involving one of the authors of the theory, demonstrated their grasp of the theory by competing in a game based on the the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership, and received feedback based on the LEAD questionnaire from themselves, their manager, and a peer. Subjects then compared their scores, with the group's normative scores as well as discuss any surprises or insights. Finally, each subject determined what he or she would like to change about his or her leadership style.

Day 2 (PM).

Module 8 - The lead trainer reviewed the morning's activities and previewed activities for the next 2 1/2 days. Subjects were informed that the next 2 1/2 days would be spent on closing the gap between the subjects' intention to adapt their leadership styles and the specific skills necessary to have that effect. The lead trainer wil briefly introduce each of the tactical modules as follows:

Module 8

1. Crediting
2. Clarifying and Confirming
3. Constructive Criticism
4. Building
5. Managing Differences

Combinations of these tactical skills can be utilized to understand the expectations and needs of others as well as to provide various amounts and kinds of direction and support. Subjects were then asked to describe the characteristics of good managers. These responses were recorded for reference during the next 2 1/2 days. Finally, each subject was asked to identify an individual at any level for whom the reduction of the gap between their intentions and effects in attempting to influence

that individual would have the most significant effect on increasing the productivity of their respective section or department.

Individuals so identified were considered performance challenges, by which subjects could test the value of the leadership theory and tactical skills. The module was concluded by watching a thiry-minute video taped case study of organizational problems.

Module 9 - The lead trainer presented an overview of the first tactic, Crediting, as follows:

When to use: When someone has exceeded or met a standard of performance not usually met.

Procedure:
- Make general reference to performance
- Describe specific performance
- Identify individual qualities that make performance possible
- State benefits to organization, self, and individual.

This was followed by a discussion, led by the second trainer, of examples of when and how this tactic could be used to provide direction and support. The second trainer then led an audio discrimination exercise in which subjects identified and charted the procedures of this tactic, next the subjects viewed a videotape (VTR) model of this tactic.

The third trainer then led the subjects through another audio exercise in which they will spontaneously responded with the correct tactic, taking the role of the leader on the audio tape. Subjects viewed a second VTR model; wrote an example for use back on the job; participated in three role-plays in which they analyzed task maturity, responded with appropriate procedures and tactics and received feedback; amd viewed a third VTR model. Finally, the lead trainer conducted a large group discussion on the potential costs and benefits of utilizing this tactic.

Day 3 (AM).

Module 10 - The lead trainer reviewed Days 1 and 2 and previewed Day 3. The lead trainer presented an overview of the second tactic Clarifying and Confirming, as follows:

When to use: When you must make a decision or evaluation of someone's performance or idea. When you feel the urge to disagree, ignore, or reject.

Procedure: - Ask for more specificity about what has been done or said by the other

- State your understanding in specific terms

- Ask for more specificity of why it is important
- State your understanding in specific terms
- Check with the other person to confirm your mutual understanding

This was followed by the second trainer leading a discussion of examples of when and how this tactic could be used to provide direction and support. The second trainer then led an audio discrimination exercise in which subjects identified and charted the procedures and tactics covered thus far. The subjects then viewed a videotape (VTR) model of this tactic. The third trainer led subjects through another audio exercise in which subjects spontaneously responded with the correct tactic, taking the role of the leader in the audio tape. Subjects viewed a second VTR model, wrote an example for use back on the job, participated in three role-plays in which they analyzed task maturity and responded with the appropriate procedures and tactics and received feedback; and view a third VTR

model. Finally, the lead trainer conducted a discussion with the entire group on the potential costs and benefits of utilizing this tactic.

Day 3 (PM).

Module 11 - The lead trainer reviewed the morning's activities and previewed the afternoon's activities. The lead trainer presented an overview of the tactic of Constructive Criticism as follows:

When to use: When you depend on someone's performance or ideas and they are not meeting the standard. After you have checked with the other to comfirm your understanding.

Procedure:
- Specify the merits of the other's intentions
- Specify your concerns with the results
- Reach agreement on future actions and check to confirm your understanding
- Set a follow-up date

This was followed by a discussion led by the second trainer of examples of when and how this tactic could be used to provide direction and support.

The trainer then led an audio discrimination exercise in which subjects identified and charted the procedures and tactics covered thus far, followed by the subjects viewing a videotape (VTR) model of this tactic. The third trainer led subjects through another audio exercise in which subjects spontaneously responded with the correct tactic, taking the role of the leader in the audio tape. Subjects viewed a second VTR model, wrote an example for use back on the job, participated in three role-plays in which they analyzed task maturity and responded with the appropriate procedures and tactics and receive feedback, and viewed a third VTR model. Finally, the lead trainer conducted a discussion with the entire group on the potential cost and benefits of utilizing this tactic.

Day 4 (AM).

Module 12 - The lead trainer reviewed Days 1, 2 and 3, and solicited feedback as to the relevance and satisfaction with the previous three days' activities. Day 4 was previewed. The lead trainer presented an overview of the fourth tactic, Building, as follows:

When to use: When you wish to maintain and increase the participation of others and you see a way to increase the usefulness of an idea.

Procedure: - Confirm your understanding of the other's idea.

- Acknowledge the connection between the other's idea and what you're about to say
- Specify slight modifications, additional benefits, other applications, or a more effective way to realize original intent
- Check back to make sure you haven't ignored or distorted the person's original intent.

This was followed by the second trainer leading a discussion of examples of when and how this tactic could be used to provide direction and support. The trainer then led an audio discrimination exercise in which subjects identified and charted the procedures and tactics covered thus far, followed by the subjects viewing a video tape (VTR) model of this tactic. The third trainer led subjects through another audio-discrimination exercise in which subjects will spontaneously responded with the correct tactic, taking the role of the leader in the

audio tape. Subjects viewed a second VTR model, wrote an example for use back on the job, participated in three role-plays in which they analyzed task maturity and responded with the appropriate procedures and tactics and receive feedback; and viewed a third VTR model. Finally, the lead trainer conducted a group discussion on the potential costs and benefits of utilizing this tactic.

Day 4 (PM).

Module 13 - The lead trainer reviewed the morning's activities and previewed the afternoon's activities. The lead trainer presented an overview of the fifth tactic, Managing Differences, as follows:

When to Use: When you have confirmed that a conflict in priorities or objectives exists between you and another whose performance you depend upon so much that you are willing to consider alternatives.

Procedure:
- Confirm what is important to the other
- State what is important to you
- Temporarily alter constraints
- Invite/suggest alternatives
- Acknowledge the other person's

right to differ

- State your decsion and why

This was followed by the second trainer leading a discussion of examples of when and how this tactic could be used to provide direction and support. The trainer then led an audio discrimination exercise in which subjects identified and charted the procedures and tactics covered thus far, followed by the subjects viewing a videotape (VTR) model of this tactic. The third trainer led subjects through another audio exercise in which subjects spontaneously responded with the correct tactic, taking the role of the leader in the audio tape. Subjects viewed a second VTR model, wrote an example for use back on the job, participated in three role-plays in which they analyzed task maturity and responded with the appropriate procedures and tactics and received feedback; and viewed a third VTR model. Finally, the lead trainer conducted a large group discussion on the potential costs and benefits of utilizing this tactic.

Subjects were given an evening assignment to write a "real life" role play for the individual each identified in the performance challenge in Module 8,

to be used in Module 14 on Day 5.

Day 5 (AM)

Module 14 - The lead trainer reviewed the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership as well as the analytical, procedural, and tactical skills with which to implement the theory. Feedback was solicited and questions answered about the "real life" role play. The lead trainer and a volunteer subject modeled the steps of the "real life" role play for the entire group. During the first role play the volunteer subject stated his/her performance challenge and played the part of the individual identified in that challenge and the lead trainer played the part of the subject. After the role play, the subject discussed the skills utilized by the trainer and received feedback from the group and an observing member of their team triad. During the second role play, the volunteer subject played him or herself and the trainer will played the individual identified in the performance challenge. This second role play was videotaped and subsequently played back to illustrate the feedback from the trainer and the other two team members.

Thus, each member of the team triads had an opportunity to play the individual identified in his or her performance challenge, the individual in another team member's performance challenge, him or herself, and the observer. Each received feedback from other team members and the videotape replay. This module concluded with by a cost/benefit analysis of the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership with the whole group, and a discussion of the analytical, procedural, and tactical skills necessary to implement the theory.

Day 5 (PM).

Module 15 - The lead trainer reviewed the morning's activities and preview the afternoon's activities. This was followed by the lead instructor presenting an overview of and instructions for a summary feedback exercise in which each subject received feedback, based on behavioral observation, from the other two members of his or her team and the trainers.

The summary feedback followed these steps:

1. The subject being given feedback left the seminar room while his or her team members, with input from the trainers, generated a list of behaviors that they had observed during the past five days of the seminar.

2. The subject receiving feedback returned to his or her team members, and together they discussed the list of behaviors and identified them as assets or liabilities.
3. From the list of liabilities and assets the subject receiving feedback chose two liabilities he or she wished to overcome.
4. The entire team then developed an action plan to overcome each of the two chosen liabilities, a criteria for measuring progress and a date to assess that progress as a follow-up to training.
5. Each subject developed an action plan for utilizing the analytical, procedural, and tactical skills to implement the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. After all action plans were completed, teams re-grouped for general review of past five days. General discussion was conducted on application of learning and obstacles to individual change. Participants gave feedback on positives and negatives of the five-day seminar, received certificates of achievement and seminar was adjourned.

This five-day leadership training seminar was conducted five times over a period of twelve months. The seminars involved three trainers each time with each of them taking the role of lead trainer at least once to test for the seminar's independence from the lead trainer's style. Also, one of the trainers was female. Seminars involved from five to fifteen subjects who were identified by the sponsoring organization's electronic management information system, as having been promoted to the level of section or department manager.

Subjects

The subjects of this study represented all of the male and female managers promoted to the first two levels of management section and department managers, during the twelve months of the study. Subjects ranged in age from 30 to 50 years, and were educated and working in the United States, Europe and Asia. Subjects were drawn from all of the seven divisions within the client organization.

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description

The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description was developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard in 1974. This

instrument was based on the Ohio State Leadership Studies (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:105) and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Stogdill and Coons, 1956). The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaire was developed to describe three characteristics of leadership style: a) preferred leadership style; b) leadership style range; and c) leadership style adaptability.

The LEAD questionnaire was designed to measure these characteristics along two dimensions: task behavior and relationship behavior, as previously defined in Chapter II. The matrix of these two dimensions results in four leadership styles. The style types are:

(S1) - high task/low relationship - "Telling"

(S2) - high task/high relationship - "Selling"

(S3) - low task/high relationship - "Participating"

(SD4) - low task/low relationship - "Delegating"

These styles reflect varying degrees and types of task and relationship behaviors. The task-relationship matrix and the resulting four leadership styles are displayed in Figure 7. Note that a leadership style quandrant is indicative of the degree of task and relationship behaviors utilized. The specific type or proportion of direction and support provided by the leader can vary within that same style.

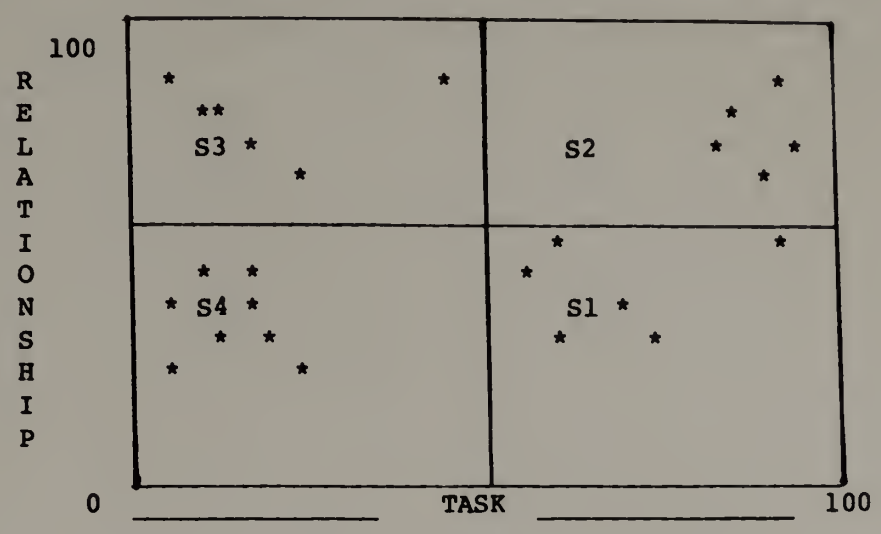

Figure 7
Behavioral Variety

Leadership style is defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:126) in the following way: "The style of leaders is the consistent behavior patterns that they use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people." Task specific maturity is defined as "the ability and willingess of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. These variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed" (1982:151). Each style is considered to be most effective, or most likely to reduce the gap beteen intent and effect, when appropriate to the task specific maturity of the person being influenced with respect to the task requirements. Thus, in Figure 8, the quadrant S1 represents a style most effective when the task-specific maturity is M1, or low. Similarly, the dots in quadrants S2, S3, and S4 represent leadership styles most effective in situations where the task-specific maturity is M2, M3 and M4, respectively.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), in selecting the appropriate leadership style it is important to focus on an individual's current task-specific maturity level and on the style that would best facilitate the development of that person's maturity. If a leader wishes to influence the behavior of an individual whose task specific maturity is low (M1), i.e., who is both unable and unwilling or lacking interest in the task, the appropriate style would be S1 (Telling). The leader would begin the development of that individual by directing, controlling and closely supervising his or her performance.

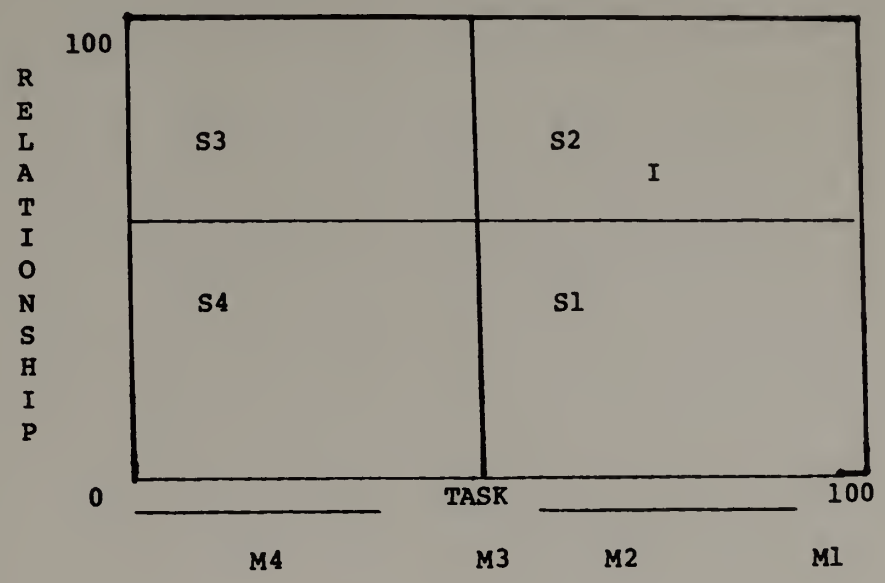

Figure 8
Most effective leadership style
for low task maturity

If, however, the individual was willing but unable to carry out a different task, displaying low to moderate maturity (M2), the appropriate style would be S2 (Selling).

By both directing and supporting the desired performance the leader can aid the individual in both the accomplishment of the task and in his or her movement to the next level of maturity.

On the other hand, for this same individual, if able but unwilling or lacking confidence (M3) about another task, the appropriate leadership style would be S3 (Participating). The leader would engage in high levels of supportive behavior and involve the individual in the decision-making and problem-solving around the task.

Finally, if this individual is both willing and able (high maturity) to carry out a specific task the appropriate style would be S4 (Delegating). In this case the leader would simply state the results desired and convey confidence in the individuals's ability to accomplish the task.

Operational Definitions

The three characteristics of leadership style described by the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) have been defined in Chapter 1. They are operationally defined as follows:

1. Style preference: The style selected most frequently in response to the twelve items on the LEAD questionnaire.
2. Style range: The degree to which each style is selected an equal number of times in response to the LEAD questionnaire.

3. Style adaptability: The weighted value of each selection in response to the twelve items on the LEAD questionnaire.

In scoring the answers on the LEAD questionnaire, each situation has four possible answers each representing a leadership style. The style that corresponds to the task specific maturity described in the situation and therefore the one most likely to reduce the gap between the leader's intentions and effect is given a weighting of +2, the next most effective style is given +1, the next most effective style is given -1, and the style least likely to be effective is given -2. These weights are then summed, to generate a general adaptability score.

To determine style preference and style range the frequency with which each style was selected must be calculated. The style selected most often is the preferred style, while style range is determined by calculating the absolute difference between the number of times a style was selected and three and then summing across all four styles. The broadest range would be equal to 0 and the narrowest equal to 18. As Hersey and Blanchard stress, "Thus, style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as style adaptability; a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness" (1982:235).

For example, consider a leader assigned to lead a research group that is long overdue in making requested recommendations for increasing profitability, even though though the group has the

potential to make sound recommendations. They are currently having difficulty focusing on their goals, attendance at meetings is scattered, and when attendance is high the meetings become "bull sessions." This group has a low (M1) task specific maturity level.

If the leader chooses to redefine the group's objectives, standards, methods, and deadlines, this choice would represent style 1 and be given a score of +2. If the leader decided to explain to the group the organizational need for their recommendations, this choice would represent style 2 and be given a score of +1. However, if his or her choice was to facilitate but not direct the group in setting objectives, standards, etc. this would represent style 4 and be given a score of -2. In other words, the low maturity level of this group on this specific task calls for a very directive leadership style (S1).

The less focus put on task behaviors by the leader, the less positive the score: S1 = +2; S2 = +1; S3 = -1; S4 = -2. More detailed examples and scoring can be found in Appendix A.

Reliability and validity

The publisher's verbatim description of the reliability and validity of the LEAD questionnaire appear in Appendix A. Briefly, the test-retest reliabilities reported were on the order of .71 as measured by the contingency coefficient. A validity coefficient was obtained for each of the twelve adaptability situations separately.

They ranged from .11 to .52. Eleven of them were significant at the .05 level. The validity reported for the total adaptability score of the twelve items combined was .67. Efforts were made to establish content and construct validity. Admittedly, the reliability and validity studies provided by the publishers are not clearly described and appear to be somewhat fragmented; however, the figures reported are traditional for instruments measuring supervision (Buros, 1978).

Although the author recognizes that the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) requires more research itself, it was selected because it is the best instrument available for evaluating this particular leadership training seminar. First, the LEAD questionnaire is the only instrument available that measures the specific concepts developed by the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. Second, the LEAD instrument offers both a self version and a version for others that is easily integrated and compared with self ratings. Also, the instrument was developed to be useful as a source of feedback during training seminars.

Finally, the LEAD is brief and sophisticated. That is, it is designed to require only ten to twenty minutes to complete. This is extremely important because managers have very little time for an activity such as this, and will do it haphazardly or not at all if too much time is required. The LEAD is subtle enough so that the correct answer is not apparent.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses tested involved two characteristics of leadership: style range and style adaptability as reflected by the corresponding lead scores. All analysis was based on indicators measured before and after the treatment as reported by subjects, their peers, and their managers. The following is a statement of null hypotheses tested and the particular statistical procedures employed in each case:

1a) Subjects will not utilize a statistically significant wider range of styles, i.e. the mean lead self score on the post test will not be significantly lower than the mean on the pre-test.

Procedure: The broadest possible style range on the LEAD-self is three selections of each style in response to the twelve situations. The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style range score means of the subjects on the LEAD-Self before and after the treatment.

The t-test for related samples was used (one-tailed t-test, since the direction of the change is predicted) to was determine if the mean change between pre and post scores was significant at the .05 level.

1b) Peers of subjects will not perceive subjects to utilize a statistically significant wider range of styles.

Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style range score means of peers on the LEAD-Other before and after the treatment. The t-test for related samples will be used (one-tailed) to determine if the mean change between pre and post scores is significant at the .05 level.

1c) Managers of subjects will not perceive subjects to utilize a statistically significant wider range of styles after treatment.

Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style range score means of peers on the LEAD-Other before and after the treatment. The t-test for related samples was used (one-tailed) to determine if the mean change between pre and post scores was significant at the .05 level.

2a) Subjects will not display a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Self.

Procedure: The procedures for determining adaptability scores are defined by the LEAD's publisher in Appendix A. For each situation on the LEAD-Self and Other, style selections are assigned values of either -2, -1, +1, or +2

with +2 indicating that the most appropriate style was selected for the task specific maturity described in the situation. A score of +24 indicates that the respondent has selected the most appropriate style for everyone of the items on the LEAD questionnaire. A score of -24 indicates a total inability to match style selection with the situation. For ease of computations negative signs were eliminated and scores from -24 to +24 were be coverted to range from 0 to 48 respectively. The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style adaptability score means of subjects on the LEAD-Self before and after the treatment. The t-test for related samples was used (one-tailed) to determine if the mean change between pre and post scores was significant at the .05 level.

2b) Peers of subjects will not perceive a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Other after treatment. Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style adaptability score means of peers on the LEAD-Other before and after treatment. The t-test for related samples was used (one-tailed) to determine if the mean changes between pre and post scores was significant at the .05 level.

2c) Managers of subjects will not perceive a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Other after treatment.

Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing the style adaptability score means of managers on the LEAD-Other before and after treatment. The t-test for related samples was used (one-tailed) to determine if the mean changes between pre and post scores was significant at the .05 level.

3a) There will be no greater congruence in Style Range among subjects, peers and managers after the seminar than before.

Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing Style Range Score means of subjects on the LEAD-Self with Style Range score means as peers and managers on the LEAD-Other before and after treatment.A 2 by 3 factorial analysis of variance for related measures was used to determine if the interaction between test and evaluator was significant at the .05 level.

3b) There will not be a significantly higher level of congruence in Style Adaptability as perceived by a given subject, his or her peer and his or her manager after treatment.

Procedure: The test of this null hypothesis was conducted by comparing Style Adaptability score means of subjects on the LEAD-Self with Style Adaptability score means of peers and managers on the LEAD-Other before and after treatment. A 2 by 3 factorial Analysis of Variance for related measures was used to determine if the interaction between test and evaluator was significant at the .05 level.

Quasi-experimental design of the study.

There are excellent books and courses of instruction dealing with the statistical manipulation of experimental data, but there is little help to be found on the methods of securing adequate and proper data to which to apply statistical procedure (McCall, 1923: Preface).

The design used in this study is commonly referred to as the One Group Pretest-Postest Design. Although it brings with it some threats to validity, it is and has been one of the most heavily utilized approaches, particularly in educational research because "it is judged worth doing when nothing better can be done" (Campbell et al., 1966:7). In fact, this design is also widely used in sociological, psychological, and political science research (Cook and Campbell, 1979).

A conference on evaluation research sponsored by the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, held in 1969, reported on in an article by Rossi (1972), concluded that in practice it has been seldom possible to model evaluation research on the best principles of experimental design. Rossi documents the many obstacles and situational realities that prevent the use of truly experimental design under scientific conditions. Clients (executives) are often unwilling to withhold a group of managers who need the training from attending the treatment.

In 95% of the cases the client has an ideological commitment to the treatment and therefore does not see the need for evaluative research. These clients do express a desire for evaluation of the treatment by subjects and their managers as to its value and applicability in contributing to profitability. In addition, many clients in the corporate setting are suspicious of research by scholars. Finally, many clients fear a loss of control over the power to decide to continue or discontinue the program on any basis they see fit. They do not want some researcher utilizing his or her findings to influence superiors in supporting the researcher's recommendations.

In the study of the sponsoring organization involved in this study all of these impediments were present. Their treatment in this study was mandated for all newly promoted managers within 90 days after their promotion, by the Chief Executive Officer. The client was only willing to require managers to complete the pre-test LEAD questionnaire. The post-test was based on mutual agreement between the researcher and subjects. The client exhibited a distrust and disrespect for scholarly inquiry and academe in general. The manager of management development for the sponsoring organization did not understand scientific principles and methodology. Clearly then, the analysis of the effect of a training program requires taking into account the practical constraints imposed on the design by the real life situation.

Threats to validity.

There are two types of threats to the validity of various experimental designs. There are threats to external validity (generalizability) and threats to internal validity (cause/effect). There are eight factors that might produce findings confounded by the effects of experimental stimuli. Of these eight, three are relevant to this study. Campbell and Stanley (1966) and Cook and Campbell (1949) discuss auasi-experimental design and threats to validity in detail. Stanley (1972) presents a scathing critique of managers' failure to permit controlled experimentation in training.

Threats to internal validity One factor threatening internal validity is history. The long interval, in some cases as long as eleven months, made it possible that some event (other than the treatment) took place between pre and post measures, and change in scores may have come about because the "rival event" influenced the results, rather than the treatment. However, based on observations and discussions with subjects no such major events were identified.

A second factor that threatened internal validity was maturation. An increase in style range and adaptability scores on the post-test may have been the result of experience on the job rather than the treatment. However, the authors of the Leader

Effectiveness and Adaptability Description state that their studies show that scores on the LEAD are not related to managerial experience. Since the subjects, prior to their recent promotion, had varying lengths of supervisory experience, the author conducted a correlation analysis for the relationship between length of experience and change in LEAD scores. An absence of relationship will reduced the threat of maturation.

A third factor that threatened internal validity was testing. The experience of taking the test may have caused subjects, peers, and managers to reflect on their responses so that they improved their scores on the post-test due to reflection rather than the treatment. However, the authors of the LEAD state that their research with the LEAD showed the scores "remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely on the results as consistent measures" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:105). Also, post measures were taken at the same time for all groups, thereby providing different amounts of time for reflection between pre and post measures. A correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between time for reflection and change in style range and adaptability scores. Since no correlation was identified, the threat of testing will be reduced.

Finally, since the time interval between pre- and post-test ranges from three to eleven months, the effects of history, maturation and testing impacted differently for the different individuals completing the LEAD Questionnaire. The longer the time interval, the more difficult it was to rule out rival hypotheses of history and maturation. The shorter the time interval, the more difficult it was to eliminate the rival hyptohesis of testing. Nunnally (1967) recommends a six-month interval to minimize memory and practice effects.

Threats to external validity The major threat to external validity was the result of not having a control group, and the subjects having represented the universe for only one organization. Thus, this study was exploratory and did not attempt to draw conclusions beyond the groups that received the treatment. Within that group were two different management levels drawn from seven different divisions and groups. These groups represented seven different technical areas of expertise, seven different technological and operational systems, and different kinds of outputs. T-tests were conducted to determine if findings are consistent across different departments and sections. Generalizations can be presented for further investigation. Despite the flaws in the design of this study which prevent "strong tests of causal hypotheses because they fail to rule out a number of plausible alternative interpretations, they can be useful in

suggesting new ideas "(Cook and Campbell, 1979). Thus, this study is not intended to present conclusive findings, but rather to offer focus and explore the value for further inquiry.

In this chapter a detailed description of the treatment, subjects, instrumentation, hypotheses, and design utilized has been presented. It remains for the next chapter to present the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter will present a detailed discussion of demographic & organizational information on the subjects of this study. Next, potential threats to the design and findings will be addressed and finally statistical analysis of the data will be presented.

Subjects

The initial population in attendance at the treatment consisted of 54 newly promoted section and department managers. All subjects had completed undergraduate degrees in the humanities, arts, social sciences, business, or science. The population was composed of 75.5% males and 24.5% females.(see Appendix B, Table 20). Section managers made up 69.4% of the total and department managers 30.6%. Figure 9, shows the positions of department and section managers in the formal structure of the organization.

Department and Section managers were grouped together for analysis but trained separately. Thus, five leadership training seminars (treatment) were conducted, with two attended by 17 Department managers and three attended by 37 Section managers.

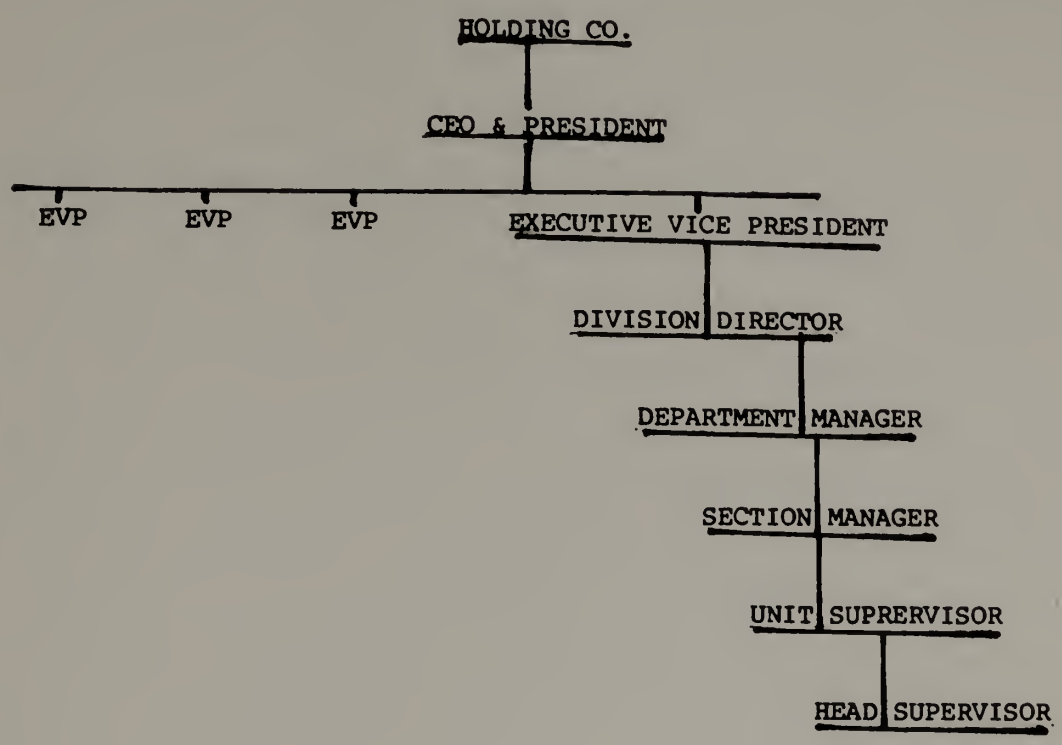

Figure 9
Formal structure of organization studied

There were a total of 49 managers available for the entire study. Of the original 54 subjects two department managers and one section manager had left the sponsoring organization, while two section managers did not respond to post measure. Half of the subjects were under the age of 35 years, approximately one-fourth were between the ages of 35 and 40 years, with the remainder over 40 years of age (see Appendix B, Table 21). Nine of the subjects were foreign-born and currently working outside the United States, though educated in the U. S. and fluent in English. For the most part these subjects could not be distinguished from the native-born.

Career Related Characteristics of Subjects

The newly-promoted subjects moved up into one of two managerial levels across different work areas inside this financial services organization. Most of the subjects, approximately 69%, were promoted to Section Manager, which reports to the Department Manager level. Department managers composed 31% of the total subjects (see Appendix B, Table 22). The new managerial promotions came from seven different divisions, in both the holding company and the financial services company. However, in this study population three divisions were predominated: a) Electronic Data Processing (EDP); b) Operations; and c) Corporate. These three areas represent 75% of the total subjects (see Appendix B, Table 23).

As many as one-fifth of the subjects had no previous supervisory experience. Almost 29% of the subjects had one to two years of supervisory experience. Thus, about half of the subjects had two or

less years of previous supervisory experience. Slightly less than 17% were seasoned supervisors with at least ten years of experience (see Appendix B, Table 24).

In sum, the newly promoted subjects may be described as well educated and over-represented by men, having a wide range in both age and prior supervisory experience. All were recently promoted into the middle levels of management.

Threats to Internal Validity

History

As stated in Chapter III, an ongoing dialogue was conducted with several managers, as well as with some of the subjects, in an effort to identify and evaluate any significant organizational or financial events that might affect the subjects' leadership style and thus make it difficult to determine how much change could be attributed to the treatment alone. Other than the national and world economy being in recession, and two top-level executives being terminated because of unethical practices, no such events were identified. Since the subjects were newly promoted (rewarded for past performance), their morale was good and there was no reason to suppose that these events would affect their leadership styles.

Maturation. Since the length of prior supervisory experience of the subjects had such a wide range, it was desirable to determine whether seasoned supervisors scored high on the LEAD adaptability scale relative to those with no prior supervisory experience.

If this were the case, then the more experienced subjects would not have as much opportunity to improve their scores as those who scored lower on the LEAD. This would tend to suppress the effects of the treatment.

Table 4 tends to confirm the assertion of the developers of the LEAD; managerial experience is not related to adaptability scores. Pretest scores for style range were not as relevant to supervisory experience as style adaptability. Not one of the correlation coefficients between the amount of prior supervisory experience and Adaptability score was significant at the .05 level.

Table 4

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient
Betweem Number of Years of Supervisory Experience
Prior to Promotion and Pre-Test Adapatability Scores.

Rater	Pre-test Adaptability Correlation *
Self	- .004
Peer	+ .012
Manager	- .200

* All correlations are based on 49 subjects.
2 Pretest scores for style range were not as relevant to supervisory experience as style adaptability.

The next step was to examine whether the magnitude of change from pre-test to post-test was related to prior supervisory experience. Only one of the three correlations concerned with style adaptability was significant. While scores based on self and peer responses were unaffected, the managers' ratings were. Thus, of the six correlations examined, only one was significant.

Table 5

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Between Number of Years of Prior Supervisory Experience and Change From Pre-Test to Post-Test on Subjects' Style Range and Style Adabptability Scores.

Rater	Style Range	Style Adaptability
Self	+ .027	- .026
Peer	- .123	- .019
Manager	- .059	+ .245 **

* All correlations are based on 49 subjects
** M is significant at the.05 level, i.e. p = .045

Turning attention to style range, the correlations between prior experience and the change in these scores are virtually zero. Not one is significant (see Table 6).

One other set of correlations was examined for the maturation hypothesis. Most of the subjects began the treatment with less than 90 days in their new management position, but some had been in their new positions for a longer period. (The distribution of the number of months in a new managerial position prior to treatment is presented in Appendix B, Table 25). Of six correlation coefficients, only one was significant.

Table 6

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Number of Months in New Mnaagerial Position Prior To Treatment and Change From Pre-Test to Post-Test on Style Range and Adaptability Scores

Rate	Style Range	Style Adaptability
Self	- .032	+ .028
Peer	- .004	+ .136
Manager	- .135	- .342 **

* All correlations based on 49 subjects.
** Pearson correlation coefficient is significant at the .01 level (p = .008)

In sum, the opportunity afforded an examination of a total of 15 correlation coefficients. Only two were significant, and both were based on managers' perceptions. In weighing the evidence, both pro and con, attributing the results of this study to the effects of maturation, the arguments refuting maturation as a rival hypothesis are stronger --- particularly where Style Range is concerned.

One way to test the rival hypothesis of testing memeory was to relate the lapsed time between pre-test and post-test to change in test scores. Presumably memory is more likely to be a factor affecting the responses to the post-test when the interval between testing is shortest. Although everyone took the post-test at approximately the same time, pre-tests were taken prior to seminar attendance. Seminars were attended by different groups at two month intervals. Therefore, the time interval between test administrations ranged from 3 to 11 months (see Appendix B, Table 26).

In sum, if memory is important, the time between test administration for subjects should be related to change in test scores. The smallest time interval should yield the largest score.

Table 7

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Number of Months In Between the pre-and Post-Tests and the change in style range and Style Adaptability Scores

Rater	Style Range	Style Adaptability
	M *	*
Self	- .053	+ .177
Peer	+ .279 **	- .226
Manager	+ .085	+ .134*

* All correlations based on 49 subjects.
** Pearson correlation coefficient is significant at the .05 level (p = .05)

The results of this analysis indicate that only one of the six correlation coefficients was significant. There were no significant correlations between change in style adaptability and time interval between pre- and post- measures. Most important, not a single correlation coefficient between change in style range or change in style adaptability based on subjects' self evaluations was significant nor were there any significant correlations based on managers' evaluations. Thus, of six correlations, only one was significant. These results provide evidence which tends to refute the rival hypotheses of testing memory.

Differences among Trainers

A number of efforts were made to assure that all subjects were exposed to the same quality of teaching and to the same teaching activities, so that change in test scores would not be attributable to trainer style. The major efforts consisted in each of the three trainers having thorough training and experience with the activities of this particular training program. Further, all three trainers were involved in all of the seminars. But since each trainer was assigned the "lead trainer" role for at least one of the seminars, analysis of variance for trainer effects on changes in the criterion measures (change in style range and change in style adaptability) was conducted (see Appendix C, Tables 27-32). Only one of the six tests was significant (see Table 8, on following page). The mean change in style adaptability based on self-evaluations among trainers is significantly different (p. .015). The subjects of trainer #3 showed a greater change than the other trainers. No explanation for this is immediately evident.

Table 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance Tables for the Effect of Lead Trainers on Change in Style Range and Style Adaptability

Between Pre-Test and Post-Test Measures

	Trainer Effect On Range				Trainer Effect on Adaptability			
Rater	# 1	#2	#3	F(2, 46)	#1	#2	#3	F(2, 46)
Self								
Mean Change	3.26	4.56	3.00	.59	-2.88	-4.22	-9.33	4.62 (p .015)*
Std. Dev.	3.44	2.87	3.52		4.78	2.05	7.39	
Peer:								
Mean Change	3.06	5.11	2.67	1.57	-7.29	-6.22	-4.50	.54
Std. Dev.	3.22	1.76	5.01		7.06	2.99	4.85	
Manager								
Mean Change	3.21	4.44	2.67	.48	3.79	-6.56	-.2.00	.44
Std.	4.16	2.19	3.72		9.48	6.56	14.59	
# Sub-jects	(34)	(9)	(6)		(34)	(9)	(6)	

* F is significant at the .05 level (p. 015). ANOVA is based on 49 subjects.

In view of five of the six analysis of variances failing to yield significant differences among trainers, and the very small number of subjects for two of the lead trainers, the decision was made to pool all the subjects for further analysis. This allowed the maximum number of cases, 49, for testing the eight hypotheses.

Within the practical limits of the data and the financial resources available, a serious effort was made to determine the effect of history, maturation, testing memory, and trainer differences on change in test scores. The bulk of the evidence tended to refute these factors as hypotheses rivaling those which are the raison d'etre of this thesis

Confirmation of a Dominant Leadership Style

It is often reported that individuals have a dominant or preferred leadership style(s), these being the behaviors they are most comfortable with, have used most often, and have had the most success with. This preference is utilized regardless of the situational factors of followers' skills, experience or motivation; and regardless of the requirements of the task being performed or accomplished through others and the benefits or consequences of performance. This was found to be consistent for the subjects of the study.

Before the treatment the median number of times Style 2 (High Task/High relationship) was selected by subjects themselves was

Table 9

Perception of subjects' Style Preference:

Rater	Style 1 High Task Low Relationship		Style 2 High Task High Relationship		Style 3 Low Task High Relationship		Style 4 Low Task Low Relationship	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Self	2.33	2.32	6.00	4.11	2.77	3.43	.27	1.71
Peer	3.09	2.71	5.09	3.82	2.42	3.08	.27	1.62
Manager	2.75	2.59	4.78	3.71	2.15	3.06	.44	1.75

Note. Perception of subjects style preference based on median number of times selected by all raters. N =49, Max. value = 12, Ideal value =3.

six. (See Table 9). That is, half of the subjects felt that high levels of both direction and support, style 2, was most appropriate for more than half of the situations on the LEAD (Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description). Least appropriate in the judgment of 50% of the subjects was Style 4, Delegating, which employs low levels of both direction and support. Both peers and managers of the subjects also perceived that subjects would generally prefer Style 2 and avoid Style 4. Yet, the LEAD was constructed so as to offer an appropriate situation three times for each style.

Furthermore, before the treatment, subjects' second most preferred style was Style 3, characterized as high on relationship

and low on task. This is more easily discerned from Table 11, where almost 35% of the subjects selected Style 1 (High Task, Low Relationship) one or less times as compared to the almost 25% who selected Style 3 (Low Task, High Relationship) one or less times. However, peers and managers saw the reverse. They perceived subjects' second style preference as Style 1 (High Task, Low Relationship.) It would seem that prior to the seminar, peers and managers perceived the subjects more in terms of task behaviors than relationship behaviors. Yet, subjects saw their secondary style as being high in relationship behaviors.

Table 10
Leadership Style Least Preferred

	Style 1		Style 2		Style 3		Style 4	
Rater*	High Task Low Relationship		High Task High Relationship		Low Task High Relationship		Low Task Low Relationship	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Self*	34.7	18.4	4.1	2.0	24.5	6.1	83.7	42.9
Peer*	16.3	18.4	12.2	0.0	38.8	4.1	85.7	46.9
Manager*	28.6	24.5	20.4	10.2	32.7	16.3	69.1	42.9

*N = 49

After the treatment, subjects were still seen by all raters as preferring Style 2 (High Task/High Relationship) more than any other style, while showing least preference for style 4 (Low Task/Low Relationship). However, the strength of preference for Style 2 as well as avoidance of Style 4 changed markedly. Since this was one of the aims of the treatment, "not to rule out any style," it was not surprising that subjects' self assessment showed this pattern. But that peers and particularly managers perceived that subjects were more flexible with respect to leadership style is especially important, for they were often not aware of the specific aims of the seminar, and had the opportunity of basing their evaluation of the subjects on direct observations of on-the-job-performance.

Results

Hypothesis 1

The seminar will result in subjects broadening their repetoire of leadership styles. (The data analyzed with respect to this hypthesis appears in Table 12 on following page)

Null Hypothesis 1a (Chapter III, p. 112) Subjects will not utilize a statistically significant wider range of styles, i.e. the mean LEAD-self score on the post-test will not be significantly lower than the mean on the pre-test.

Table 11

Comparison of Style Range at Pre and Post Treatment
Style Range

Rater	Mean ***	Standard Deviation	t(48)	P
Self **				
Pre-test	8.92	2.14	7.29	.000*
Post-test	5.45	2.75		
Peer **				
Pre-test	8.63	2.56	7.17	.000*
Post-test	5.24	2.67		
Manager **				
Pre-test	8.61	2.52	6.20	.000*
Post-test	5.24	3.41		

* Difference in means are significant; p .0001.
** N=49
*** The higher the mean score, the narrower the range.

Results: The mean style range score as perceived by subjects before treatment was 8.92; as perceived by subjects after treatment the mean style range score was 5.45. The mean change was 3.47, $t(48) = 7.29$, = p .001. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis 1b (Chapter III, p. 113) Peers of subjects will not perceive subjects to utilize a statistically significant wide range of styles.

Results: The mean style range score as perceived by peers before treatment was 8.63; as perceived by peers after treatment the mean style range score was 5.25. The mean change was 3.33, $t(48) = 7.17 = p \quad .001$. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis 1c (Chapter III, p. 113) Managers of subjects will not perceive subjects to utilize a statistically significant wider range of styles.

Results: The mean style range score as perceived by managers before treatment was 8.61; as perceived by managers after treatment the mean style range score was 5.25. The mean change was 3.37, $t\ (48) = 6.20 = p \quad .001$. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Conclusion Since the three null hypotheses were rejected, the major hypothesis is accepted: subjects style range broadened after the seminar. Change in self-evaluations were confirmed by peers and managers.

Hypothesis 2.

The seminar will result in subjects improving their ability to select the leadersip style more appropriate to the specific situation at hand. The data discussed with respect to this hypthesis appear in Table 13.

Null hypothesis 2a (Chapter III, p. 113) Subjects will not display a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Self after treatment.

Table 12

Comparison of Leadership Style Adaptability at Pre and Post Testing

Style Adaptability

Rater	Mean*	Standard Deviation	t(48)	p**
Self				
Pre-test	30.80	5.05	+ 5.32	.000**
Post-test	34.71	4.46		
Peer				
Pre-test	27.55	7.16	+ 7.56	.000**
Post-test	34.31	4.42		
Manager				
Pre-test	26.82	8.73	+ 2.56	.005**
Post-test	30.90	10.58		

* Mean change is significant, i.e., p .005
**A higher score is indicative of a greater leadership style adaptability

Results: The mean adaptability score as perccieved by subjects before treatment was 30.80; as perceived by subjects after treatment the mean adaptability score was 34.71. The mean change was 3.92, $t(48) = 5.32 = p$ .001. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis 2b (Chapter III, p. 114) Peers of subjects will not perveice a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Other after treatment.

Results: The mean adaptability score as perceived by peers of subjects before treatment was 27.55; as perceived by their peers after treatment the mean adaptability score was 34.31. The mean change was 6.76, $t(48) = 7.56 = p$ .001. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis 2c (Chapter III, p. 114) Managers of subjects will not perceive a significantly higher adaptability score on the LEAD-Other after treatment.

Results: The mean adaptability score as perceived by managers of subjects before treatment was 26.82; as perceived by their managers after treatment the mean adaptabililty score was 30.30. The mean change was 4.08, $t(48) = 2.96 = p$ .001. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Conclusion The three null hypotheses were rejected. The major hypothesis is accepted: Subjects' style adaptability increased after the seminar. Change in self-evaluations was confirmed by peers and managers.

Hypothesis 3 Periphereal to the study it is further hypothesized that self, peers' and managers' perceptions of

subjects' style range and adaptability will be more congruent after the seminar than before. Data referred to are from Tables XI and XII.

Null Hypotheses 3a (Chapter III, p. 115) There will be not greater congruence in style range among subjects, peers, and managers after the seminar than before.

Results: Examining the means of style range shows that the subjects mean evaluation of themselves was most identical to their peers and managers perception of them: Scores at pre-test were 8.92, 8.63, and 8.61 respectively. A mean score of "0" would have meant that on the average there was no preference of one style over the other. An average score "18" would have been indicative of utilizing only one style. The average score fell in the middle on the pre-test. After the treatment, the average scores dropped indicating a broader style range. The amount of improvement perceived was almost identical by the three raters. A review of Table XII demonstrates this. Since the means of the three groups of raters were almost identical on the pre-test, and very similar on the post-test, the issue of ratings becoming "more congruent" ceases to be an issue. Therefore, no test of significance for congruence was necessary.

Null Hypotheses 3b (Chapter III, p. 115) There will be no greater congruence in style adaptability among subjects, peers, and managers after the seminar than before.

Results: A cursory examination of mean adaptability scores as perceived by subjects, peers, and managers at pre-test and then again at post-test could not obviously rule out or confirm the congruence hypothesis (See Table 13). The difference between adaptability means for the pre-test of managers and subjects = 3.98, peers and subjects = 3.25, managers and peers = .73; difference for the post-tests of managers and subjects = 3.81, peers and subjects = .40, managers and peers = 3.41.

Table 13

Mean Adaptability Scores, Pre-Post Comparison

	Manager	Peer	Self
Pre	26.82	27.55	30.80
Post	20.90	34.31	34.71

Table 14

Difference in Mean Adaptanility Scores Between Raters

	Manager	Peer	Self
Pre	3.98	3.25	.73
Post	3.81	.40	3.41

The test for interaction between test administration (pre and post test) and raters obtained from a 2x3 factorial analysis of variance for related measures yielded an F (2,96) = 2,78. p .05. Interaction is not significant and the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Conclusion

The two null hypotheses were not rejected and therefore the periphereal hypthesis of greater agreement among evaluators in assessing subjects after the seminar than before cannot be accepted.

Other Findings

Sex and managerial positions were related to change in LEAD scores.

Sex. The mean changes in style range and adaptability scores were obtained for males and females. Although mean change in style range was slightly less for females than for males as scored by self, peers and managers, the differences were not statistically significant at the .05 level. See Table 15.

Table 15

Mean Change in Style Range By Sex of Newly Promoted Managers

Rater	Sex *	Mean change * between pre & post test	Stan Dev.	t	p
Subject	Male	3.84	3.20	1.37	N.S
	Female	2.33	3.60		
Peer	Male	3.54	3.33	.56	N.S.
	Female	2.92	3.43		
Manager	Male	3.38	3.82	.04	N.S.
	Female	3.33	3.94		

* The analysis is based on 37 males and 12 females.

** All mean changes were positive, indicating a change to a broader style after the seminar. Not one of the differences between males and females was significant at the .05 level.

With respect to change in adaptability scores females showed more change than males but again, differences were not significant. See Table 16.

Table 16

Mean Change in Adaptability by Sex

Rater	Sex *	Mean change ** between pre & post test		Stan Dev.	t	p
Subject	Male	3.70	5.75	.72	N.S	
	Female	4.58	2.68			
Peer	Male	5.68	5.01	1.70	N.S.	
	Female	10.08	8.52			
Manager	Male	3.24	9.49	1.07	N.S.	
	Female	6.67	10.04			

* The analysis is based on 37 males and 12 females.
** All mean changes are changes to greater adaptability after the seminar.

Since differences were not significant, the conclusion reached is that the seminar was as effective for females as for males.

Managerial position Section Managers' performance on the LEAD Questionnaire was compared to Department Managers'. The mean changes for Style Range and Adaptability appear in Tables 17 and 18, respectively.

Table 17

Mean Change in Style Range by Managerial Position

Rater	Managerial Position *	Mean change ** between pre & post test	Stan Dev.	t	p
Subject	Section	3.35	3.28	- .35	N.S
	Department	3.73	3.54		
Peer N.S.	Section	3.74	3.02	1.11	
	Department	2.60	3.89		
Manager N.S.	Section	3.38	3.38	.04	
	Department	3.33	4.76		

* Analysis is based on 34 section managers and 15 department managers.

** All mean changes are indicative of an increased broadness in style range.

Table 18

Mean Change in Style Adaptability by Managerial Position

Rater	Managerial Position *	Mean change ** between pre & post test	Stan Dev.	t	p
Subject	Section	3.12	6.26	- 1.67	N.S
	Department	5.73	4.46		
Peer	Section	6.03	5.33	- 1.23	N.S.
	Department	8.40	7.94		
Manager	Section	6.15	6.69	+ 1.85	N.S.
	Department	0.60	13.38		

* Analysis is based on 34 section lmanagers and 15 department managers

** All mean changes are indicative of an increase in style adaptability.

In conclusion, the seminar appears to be equally effective for men as for women; and for Section Managers as for Department Managers. These data did not yield significant differences between either improvement in their adaptability or in broadening their repertoire of styles. From the analysis of this data it would seem that the feasability of a leadership training seminar (treatment) utilizing theory in combination with tactical, procedural, and analytical skills, is worth more in depth examination.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter will review the dissertation Chapters I through IV, compare traditional, and skill based training models, discuss the adult learning cycle, discuss both general and specific implications from this study, and suggest further research. The first four chapters described an exploratory study of leadership training. The purpose of the study was to explore the feasability of providing corporate managers with an understanding of and practical experience in applying both theory and the analytical, procedural and tactical skills used to implement the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership.

Review of chapters.

Chapter I presented the need for this study, its potential significance and limitations, and an overview of the quasi-experimental design to be used.

Chapter II reviewed the four traditional approaches to leadership research and development. The early approaches of identifying and discriminating leader traits and power use offered much to improve the understanding of leadership research, methodologies and pitfalls. However, the empirical evidence is ambiguous and the theories extremely difficult to apply. With the emergence of the scientific management and human relations schools of thought modern leadership theory began to focus on leader attitudes, assumptions, behaviors, and situational contingencies.

MENT	TRAIT THEORIES	POWER THEORIES	BEHAVIOR/ ATTITUDE THEORIES	LIFE CYCLE THEORY OF LEADERSHIP
UMPTIONS	.LEADERS ARE BORN OR PREDISPOSED .FOLLOWERS ARE NOT "GREAT MEN"	.LEADERSHIP IS THE EXERCISE OF POWER .LEADERS MUST HAVE RIGHT CARROT AND STICK .LEADERS EITHER WIN OR LOSE	.LEADERSHIP IS A OR SYSTEM OF LEADERSHIP .LEADERS ARE ALWAYS SUPPORTIVE AND DIRECTIVE .TEAMS NEED LEADER TO BE PRODUCTIVE	.ONE BEST STYLE VARYING ROLE IN AN INFLUENCE PROCESS .THERE IS NO BEST STYLE OR POWER BASE FOR LEADERSHIP .LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS DEPENDS ON SITUATIONALLY SPECIFIC FOLLOWER NEEDS
E FOR ION	.BORN TO LEAD .UNCONSCIOUS COMPETENCE .RISE TO OCCASION	.DESIRE TO EXERCISE POWER TO GAIN COMMITMENT OR COMPLIANCE .SHORT TERM ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	.EXPRESSION OF VALUES OR ATTITUDES .CONCERN FOR PEOPLE .DEVELOPMENT OF TEAM VEHICLE FOR RESULTS	.INDIVIDUAL & TEAM TASK SPECIFIC MATURITY .FLEXIBLE ADAPTION OF STYLE TO SITUATION .BUILD ON INDIVIDUAL & TEAM MATURITY AND MUTUAL BENEFIT

Figure 10
Classical Approaches to Leadership Theory

MENT	TRAIT THEORIES	POWER THEORIES	BEHAVIOR/ ATTITUDE THEORIES	LIFE CYCLE THEORY OF LEADERSHIP
E OF LOWERS	.NEED TO BE LEAD.BASE .NO BASE FOR INTERCHANGABLE ROLES	.VEHICLE FOR EMPIRE BUILDING .POWER BASE PASSIVE MEDIA	.NEED HIGH STRUCTURE AND SUPPORT .VEHICLE FOR RESULTS	.KEY TO EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP .TECHNICAL & CREATIVE RESOURCE POOL .ROLE SPECIFIC TO PROCESS
E OF DER	ALWAYS LEADER NEVER FOLLOWER	EXERCISE POWER OVER FOLLOWERS	LEAD TEAM WITH BEST STYLE	SITUATIONAL DIRECTION & SUPPORT
CESS	.EXPRESSION OF PERSONAL QUALITIES .IDEOLOGICAL COMMITMENT .CHARISMATIC .HIGH CONCERN	.USE OF MULTIPLE BASES OF POWER .SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF RESOURCES .DIRECTIVE	.ESPRESSION OF ATTITUDES & VALUES .USE INTER TEAM FEED BACK TO MONITOR PERFORMANCE ACHIEVEMENT AND FEELINGS	.ADAPTIVE USE OF PERSONAL QUALITIES, POWER, DIRECTION AND SUPPORT .DEVELOPS INDIVIDUALS' AND TEAMS' FULL POTENTIAL .FLEXIBLE RESPONSES TO SITUATIONAL NEEDS

Figure 10
Classical Approaches to Leadership Theory

Several theories grew out of the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies, all proposing a "one best style" of leadership. Because these "best styles" did not always work, later theories focused on the importance of situational factors.

However, the theories most commonly used in leadership training and most familiar to corporate managers did not overcome sexual bias or include the expectations and developmental needs of followers. The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership overcame both of these obstacles and integrated the strengths of earlier theories (see Figure 10).

These theories and authors represent those most commonly known by corporate managers throughout the financial services industry. However, Hersey & Blanchard, like the other traditional theories, do not offer the skills necessary to implement their theory.

Traditional and skill-based training models

> "Contrary to the opinion of many, the evidence shows clearly that attempts to change attitudes or behaviors by means of verbal persuasion and logical explanations rarely succeed. (Goldstein, & Sorcher, M. (1974) p.5).

Traditional Models

The traditional approaches to leadership training have been built around verbal persuasion and logical explanation. The use of persuasive, logical explanations of theory or "one best style" models, sometimes combined with learning exercises directed at

self-discovery, have been the mainstay of leadership training. The focus of these training efforts has been to change managers' attitudes in hopes that they would then change their own behaviors. The difficulties with this approach are varied and well known to those in the field of education.

Attitude		Intervening Variable		Behavior
Current Attitude	→	Congruence with other knowledge experience/skills	→	Current Behavior
Changed Attitude	→	Dissonance with other knowledge experience/skills	→	Current Behavior & Resistant Behavior

Figure 11
The Traditional Model of Training

The major drawback to the traditional model, even with the more recent use of self-discovery exercises, is that cognitive dissonance sets in after training when new attitudes are in conflict with other

attitudes, personal experience, and a lack of specific skills required to act on new attitudes (see Figure 11). In order to reduce this cognitive dissonance each learner must create congruent experiences through the use of new behavior (skills) or revert back to previous attitudes and behaviors (Festinger 1954). Given that new behaviors (skills) are not taught or experienced during the training, the second alternative has been more often the case.

If any behavior change is to be associated with the traditional approach to leadership training, it is the development of behaviors resistant to leadership training itself. Thus, many corporate managers, having received training in one of the theories discussed in Chapter II, are frustrated by the gap they experience between their intentions to implement the theory(s) they have learned and the affect or lack of affect they have on others.

The intent of the traditional approaches to leadership training seems to be to change leadership behaviors by first changing attitudes. However, Festinger's (1957) research shows that a more direct route can be taken. By changing behavior first, it is more likely that attitude change will follow. If managers have experience, skills, and desire the potential benefits of a new idea, their experimentation with these ideas and skills will most certainly affect their attitudes.

Part of the focus on attitude contained in the traditional approaches is based in teaching leadership value and personality

theories in an effort to change leadership styles. Leadership style is a reflection of assumptions, attitudes, and self-perceptions; this is personality. Leadership style is a reflection of the patterns of behavior exhibited over time that others learn to recognize as the leader's way of exercising influence, and so is based in the perception of others.

The treatment used in this study focuses on broadening the range of leadership styles available to corporate managers, while providing the analytical, procedural, and tactical skills necessary to utilize various styles in response to the situation.

The Adult Learning Cycle

To help corporate managers integrate both theory and skills into their day to day activities this five-day seminar was designed to facilitate the adult learning cylcle. Adults currently functioning in a given role often operate from a base of unconscious competence. That is, corporate managers are effective leaders in a variety of ways, but often do not know how they lead others when they are effective. The fact that they are attempting to learn more about something they are expected to be successful at means that they do not learn for the sake of preparation for further learning (e.g., learn basic math, to learn algebra, to learn geometry etc.), but rather for immediate application.

Once the transition has begun, corporate managers tend to focus more on areas of conscious incompetence with an increasing desire to approach conscious competence. To do this they must be provided with concepts, models, skills, and an opportunity to practice and evaluate the benefits of new ideas and skills. During the analytic, application, feedback, and evaluation learning activities, adult learners move back and forth between conscious competence and incompetence. This process brings out feelings of frustration, embarrassment, and anger, because even those instances when the learners are aware of consciously competent acts, their sense is that they are being awkward, mechanical, and not themselves.

As adult learners increase their experience and practice with new ideas and skills, the feedback they receive from others begins to increase their proportion of consciously competent acts, and decrease the areas of conscious incompetence. With this change, commitment to continue practicing beyond the learning environment develops, if in their judgment the potential benefits are worth the effort. With this commitment, an action plan must be developed by which they can approach the state of unconscious competence in utilizing theory and skills on a daily basis. Table 19 shows the adult learning cycle design of the treatment used with the subject of this study.

Table 19
Treatment Design

1. Self-identification of learning needs	. Self-discovery . Group discussion . Structured feedback from peer and manager
2. Provide theory and skills to address needs	. Lecturette . Self-discovery . Analysis . Practice and feedback . Self-evaluation . Benefit analysis . Action plan
3. Provide skills to implement action plan	. Lecturette Individual and team analysts of potential .benefits and obstacles
4. Provide model of skills	. Audiotape . Individual discrimination . exercise . Videotape . Team discrimination . exercise
5. Practice and Feedback	. Team projects . Feedback . Role plalys with observers . Feedback
6. Conduct cost/benefit analysts	. Individual . Team . Group discussion
7 Develop action plan	. Team feedback . Team plan . Individual plan

Thus, by moving from need to theory to skills with practice and feedback, subjects were able to go through the adult learning cylce at their own pace. The practice and feedback allowed them to build an experience base from which they could assess the potential obstacles and benefits of application back on the job. Because they could identify potential benefits to themselves, commitment to write and carry out a post-treatment action plan was increased. The major design advantage of this treatment was in its focus on ideas and behavior, responsiveness to learner needs and organizational context, provision of acumulative experience base, development of learner independence, and consistent reflection of the research on adult learning in the training procedures and materials.

Implications of this study for managers and staff

The results of this study indicate that it is possible to reduce the "addiction" for or "aversion" to any particular leadership style. this broadening of leadership style range is not only perceived by the subjects, but also perceived by their peers and managers. The results also indicate that it is feasible to train corporate managers in the financial services industry to utilize various leaderhip styles in response to the task specific maturity of those they wish to influence and the demands of the organization. This increase in leadership style adaptability was also a shared perception of subjects, peers, and managers.

The ultimate effect of these changes was best summarized by one of the subjects, an operations manager with eight subordinates, "I no longer have good workers and bad workers, instead I have a staff of eight workers. Each of my people are more mature with some of their functions and less mature at others. By developing the task maturity of five of my people, I now have six people that I can depend on to run the teletype when I use to have just one."

Implications of this study for organizations

The implications of this study for financial services organizations are various, and made more significant by the ongoing recession in the American economy. In times of expansion, diversification, reorganization, and reductions in force upper-echelon executives are primarily concerned with the organization's pool of versatile, flexible, and successful managers.

The difficulty with the organziation's ability to respond to upper management's concern lies primarily with the organization's lack of strategic management development planning.

To have the right managers at the right time requires an assessment system that identifies specific individual as well as corporate division, and department wide needs. To systematically develop managers with adaptive and versatile leaderhip styles and skills requires an on going developmental investment in training

and experimentation with managers at all levels. This approach has the potential to prepare corporations before organizational change occurs.

In the context of this particular study the sponsoring organization originally intended to create such a management pool to meet the needs of expansion and diversification. However, many of those plans are currently delayed. Thus, almost a year after treatment was received by all subjects, reductions in force and reorganization needs are being met by a pool of corporate managers who have learned to broaden and adapt their leadership styles. In times of economic recession organizations rely heavily upon the leadership resources available. The advantage of managers who are able to be flexible and adapt to the situational needs in selecting and utilizing leadership styles is that they are capable of managing highly-structured and loosely-structured task areas with both experienced and inexperienced subordinates.

This study also shows that it is feasible to train systems, accounting, operations, and other managers at the same time same generic leadership theory and skills saving both time and money while developing a consistent corporate culture.

Thus, this study suggests training that integrates theory and skills affords a financial services organization the benefits of a broader and deeper leadership resource pool to draw from, lower investments of time and money, and higher employee performance.

Implications of this Study for Social Policy

This study also contains some social policy implications. Over the past two decades, the thrust of the federal government has been to encourage later retirement, promotional of women and minorities into management positions and creating job opportunities for unskilled workers. This study indicates that even experienced supervisors benefit from this training program. If managers are to be of long-term value to an organization, they must be able to use a range of leadership styles selected in response to the situation. Furthermore, the treatment in this study was just as effective with women managers as with traditional male managers. With the use of the Life Cycle Theory of leadership and interpersonal skills, the development of unskilled workers into competent and commited performers is much more likely.

Summary of implications.

The results of this study suggest that financial services organizations specifically, and organizations in general may be able to gain many benefits from intergrated leadership training for their managers. Of these benefits the most significant are: 1) creating a pool of managers able to select from a range of leadership styles the style that is most likely to produce results now without

sacrificing the future; 2) improving the organization's ability to manage planned and unplanned change; 3) develop competent and confident employees; 4) provide leadership training across functional management areas equally effective for women, and males and 5) introduce values to effect corporate culture.

Areas for Further Research.

As an exploratory study, this dissertation intended to identify fruitful areas for further inquiry. One of the reasons for selecting a service organization to sponsor this study was to increase the current and future relevance of the findings. Over the past decade, there has been a dramatic trend toward service occupations. Currently service organizations are suffering much less than manufacturing and agricultural organizations. If economic recession is partially a mechanism by which outdated industries are terminated, freeing capital and labor for the formation of more relevant current and future industries, then service organizations will continue to grow and multiply.

The first area of further research would be a repeat of this study with a control group. Additional questions that need answering are:

1. Would these findings hold for other service organizations such as banks, market research, computer services, legal services, hospitals, etc.?

2. This study was carried out in the private sector with a non-union work force. Would the findings hold true for governmental, educational, and highly-unionized organizations?
3. Would these findings hold for military, agriculture, and manufacturing businesses?
4. Would these findings hold for managers with different characteristics (e.g. level of education, age, years of supervisory experience) from the subjects of this study?
5. How would the findings be affected if the length of training, number of managers per seminar, or degree of support from upper management were changed?
6. Does improvement in style range and adaptation reflect itself in subordinate job satisfaction, turnover, transfers, absenteeism, productivity, and group productivity?

The Future of Leadership Training.

Clearly, there are many other areas for inquiry related to this study. However, those previously mentioned offer the most potential advancement towards expanding our knowledge of integrating theory and practice into the day-to-day activities of corporate managers.

A great deal remains unknown about leadership in general and leadership skills in particular. To the author's knowledge, the treatment utilized in this dissertation is the first of its kind. Although there are many programs in the market place that teach leadership theory, and even more that teach analytical and interpersonal skills, there have been none that integrate theory with practical skills.

Because of increasing world-wide competition, and decreasing availability of resources, the effective use of human resources will grow in importance. The intention of this dissertation was to explore a new way to provide managers with the skills and concepts to more effectively lead these human resources.

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

THE LEAD SCALE: PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability description manual contains a discussion of the Situational Leadership model, format of the scale, characteristics of impsitive measures, standardization procedures, item derivation and selection, estimates of reliability, logical validity, empirical validity, types of scores and normative information. The LEAD was standardized on a sample of 264 managers; they ranged in age from 21-64; 30% were at the entry level of management; 55% were middle managers; 14% were at high levels of management.

The twelve item validities for the Adaptability score range from .11 to .52 and ten of the twelve co-efficients were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criteria of less than 80% with respect to selection frequency.

This stability of the LEAD Self was moderately strong. In two administrations across the 6-week interval, 74% of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71% maintained their alternate style. The contingency co-efficients were both .71 and each was significant at the .01 level. An additional test - re-test reliability study yielded a coefficient of .69 (p .01). The logical validity of the scale was clearly established.

*John F. Green, "Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Manual", Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California, 1975.

Face validity was based on a review of the items, and content validity emanted from the procedures used to create the original set of items. Several empirical validity studies were conducted as hypothesized correlations with demographic, organismic variables of sex, age, years of experience, degree of management level, were generally low indicating the relative independence of the scales with respect to these variables.

Satisfactory results were reported supporting the four style dimensions of the scale using a modified approach to factor structure.In 46 of the 48 item options, 96% - the expected relationship was found. In another study, a significant correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the managers and the independent ratings of their supervisors.

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

TABLE 20:

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY SEX

Sex	% of Participants	Number of Participants
Male	75.5%	37
Female	24.5%	12
Total	100,0%	49

TABLE 21:

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY AGE

Sex	% of Participants	Number of Participants
Under 35	51.0	25
35 to 40	26.5	13
40 or over	22.5	11
Total	100.0%	49

TABLE 22

DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY LEVEL OF NEW MANAGEMENT POSITION

Level of New Position	% of Participants	Number of Participants
Section Manager	69.4	34
Department Manager	30.6	15
Total	100.0%	49

TABLE 23

DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY DIVISION PROMOTED TO

Division Promoted to	% of Participants	Number of participants
EDP Systems	24.5	12
Operations	30.6	15
Corporate	20.4	10
Finance	8.2	4
Accounting	4.1	2
Marketing	6.1	3
Captial Markets	6.1	3
Total	100.0%	49

TABLE 24

DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY NUMBER OF YEARS OF PRIOR SUPERVISORY EXPERIENCE

Number of Years Experience	% of Participants	Number of Participants
No Prior Experience	22.4	11
1	12.2	6
2	16.3	8
3	6.1	3
4	6.1	3
5	4.1	2
6	4.1	2
7	6.1	3
8	4.1	2
9	2.0	1
10	4.1	2
11	2.0	1
12	4.1	2
14	2.0	1
15	4.1	2
Total	100.0%	49

TABLE 25

DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS ACCORDING TO
NUMBER OF MONTHS IN NEW POSTIION PRIOR OT ATTENDING SEMINAR

Number of Months	% of Participants	Number of Participants
1	10.2	5
2	4.1	2
3	53.1	26
4	6.1	3
5	2.0	1
6	10.2	5
7	2.0	1
9	8.2	4
12	2.0	1
14	2.0	1
Total	100.0%	49

Referred to in terms of maturation

TABLE 26

DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY MONTHS
BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Number of Months Elapsed	% of Participants	Number of Participants
3	18.4	9
5	26.5	13
8	12.2	6
9	18.4	9
11	24.5	12
Total	100.0%	49

APPENDIX C

TABLE 27

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON CHANGE IN PARTICIPANTS' SELF EVALUATION BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST ON BROADNESS OF STYLE RANGE.

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F	
Between Trainers	6.68	2	.59	N.S.
Within Trainers	11.28	46		

* N.S. indicates F is not significant at the .05 level (p. .56).
ANOVA is based on 49 participants

TABLE 28

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON PEERS' EVALUATIONS OF PARTICIPANTS CHANGE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST ON BROADNESS OF STYLE RANGE.

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F
Between Trainers	16.76	2	1.57 N.S.
Within Trainers	10.70	46	

* N.S. indicates F is not significant at the .05 level (p 22) ANOVA is based on 49 participants

TABLE 29

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON THE MANAGERS' EVALUATION OF PARTICIPANTS CHANGE IN BROADNESS OF STYLE RANGE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F	
Between Trainers	7.14	2	.48	N.S.
Within Trainers	14.76	46		

* N.S. indicates F is not significant at the .05 level (p 62) ANOVA is based on 49 participants

TABLE 30

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON SELF-EVALUATIONS OF PARTICIPANTS BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST ON ADAPTATION SCORES.

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F
Between Trainers	106.63	2	4.62 *
Within Trainers	23.10	46	

* F is significant at the .05 level (p .015) .05 level (p 62)
ANOVA is based on 49 participants

TABLE 31

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON PEERS' EVALUATIONS OF PARTICIPANTS' CHANGE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST ON ADAPTATION

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F
Between Trainers	21.47	2	.54 N.S.*
Within Trainers	39.92	46	

* N.S. indicates F is not significant at the .05 level (p 59) ANOVA is based on 49 participants

TABLE 32

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE EFFECT OF SEMINAR TRAINERS ON MANAGERS' EVALUATIONS OF PARTICIPANTS' CHANGE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST- TEST ON ADAPTATION.

Source	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	F
Between Trainers	41.95	2	.44 N.S.*
Within Trainers	95.08	46	

* N.S. indicates F is not significant at the .05 level (p 59) ANOVA is based on 49 participants