

*Managerial and Leadership  
Behavior*

**Part 3**

**Personal Influences**

on  
**Managerial and Leadership Behavior**

Robert D. Cecil

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Human Resources Development

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# *Managerial and Leadership Behavior and Development*

## **Influences of Personal Characteristics on Managerial and Leadership Styles**

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## ***Influences of Personal Characteristics on Managerial and Leadership Behavior***

Managers and their personnel are unique combinations of various personal characteristics. Most of these characteristics can be classified as either capabilities or motive/attitudinal traits.

### **Capabilities** include:

Basic Mental Abilities such as those involved in learning, thinking, and communicating;

Physical Traits and Abilities such as physical features, general health, energy level, and ability to move in a coordinated manner;

Specialized Abilities/Skills such as specialized mental abilities and specialized, job-related technical, functional, or professional skills;

Knowledge and Experience — information stored in memory, both of a general and a more specialized, job-related nature; and

Personality Traits — tendencies to behave in certain ways.

### **Motive/Attitudinal Traits** include:

Basic Internal Needs/Drives such as physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualization needs or drives;

Values — motive traits that reflect the relative importance one attaches to certain matters, certain modes of coping with everyday life, and certain aspects of one's relationships with others;

Interests — attitudes toward various objects and activities;

Goals — future-oriented impressions or statements regarding personal desires and intentions;

Expectations — what one thinks things should be or will be like, including what one can, should, or will have, do, and be;

Beliefs and Biases — views or attitudes that are gener-

ally based on incomplete and/or imperfect information (knowledge and experience);

Personality Traits — behavioral tendencies that also reflect motives and attitudes regarding, for example, oneself, work, power, and interpersonal relationships.

Together, these distinct characteristics and behavior patterns make up an individual's overall nature. [Specific drives, abilities, values, and personality traits are defined in Table 2, page 15.]

It must be acknowledged that personal characteristics can be influenced significantly by each of the external factors discussed in the booklet, *Nonpersonal Influences on Managerial and Leadership Behavior*: the characteristics of tasks; organizational variables; social factors; and forces outside the organization). For example: Job-related knowledge and skills can be improved through an organization's formal and on-the-job training programs. Values, beliefs, and personality traits can be altered through constant interaction with superiors, colleagues, and subordinates (but usually more slowly, generally with more difficulty, and not always for the better). Consequently, the significance of external factors' influences on the natures of managers and their subordinates should never be overlooked or underestimated. To a very great extent, external factors affect who managerial and worker personnel have become, who they can become, and who they will become. If external factors can be made to exert positive, constructive influences, personnel will be able to attain and use their full potential.

This booklet is divided into two sections. In the first section we discuss how managers' own personal characteristics influence their managerial practices and interpersonal behavior. In the second section we discuss how the natures and behavior of managers' subordinates can affect managerial attitudes and behavior.



## SECTION 1

## Influences of Managers' and Leaders' Personal Characteristics

As influential as the natures of personnel's jobs and other external factors can be, we have concluded that managers' personal characteristics generally exert the most significant influences on their attitudes, practices, and interpersonal behavior.

As shown in **Figure 1**, even when external factors are operating either around or upon them, managers' own characteristics will largely determine the following:

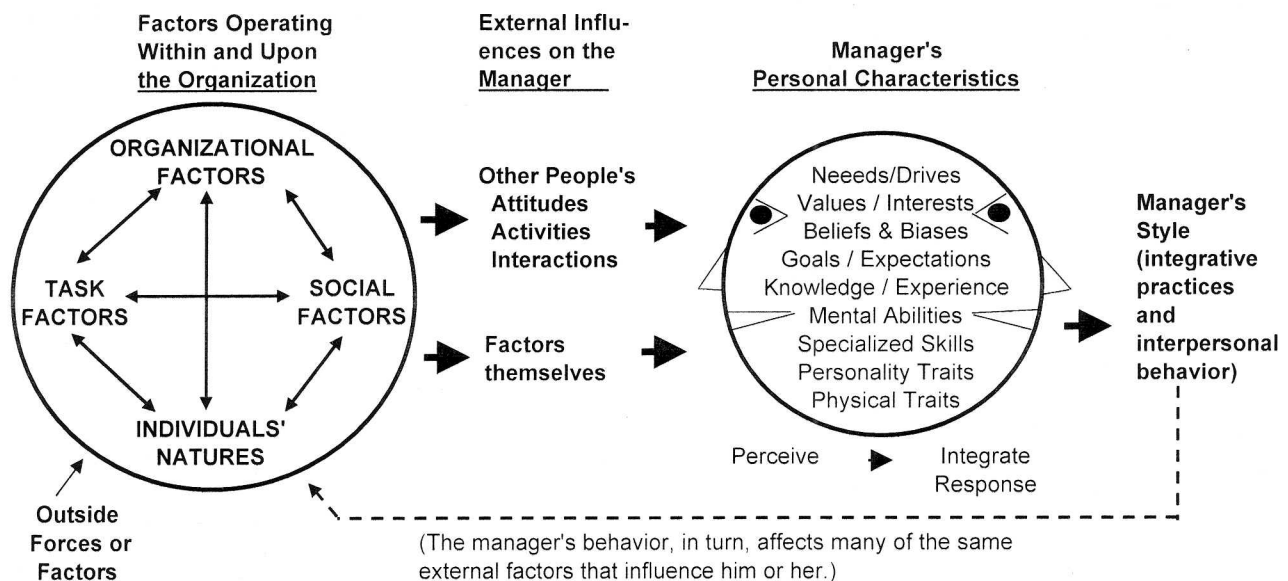
- a. which factors do and do not receive their conscious and/or unconscious attention;
- b. how they perceive (interpret) what their attention focuses upon;
- c. how and to what extent their perceptions of people, task activities, organizational matters, social interactions, and outside forces are filtered, colored, and/or distorted;
- d. to which factors they are and are not motivated to respond;
- e. the manner in which they integrate (formulate) a response;
- f. how appropriately they actually respond; and
- g. how and to what extent their characteristics (and natures) are altered as a result of their perception of and response to the external influences.

### Introduction to The Managerial Target®

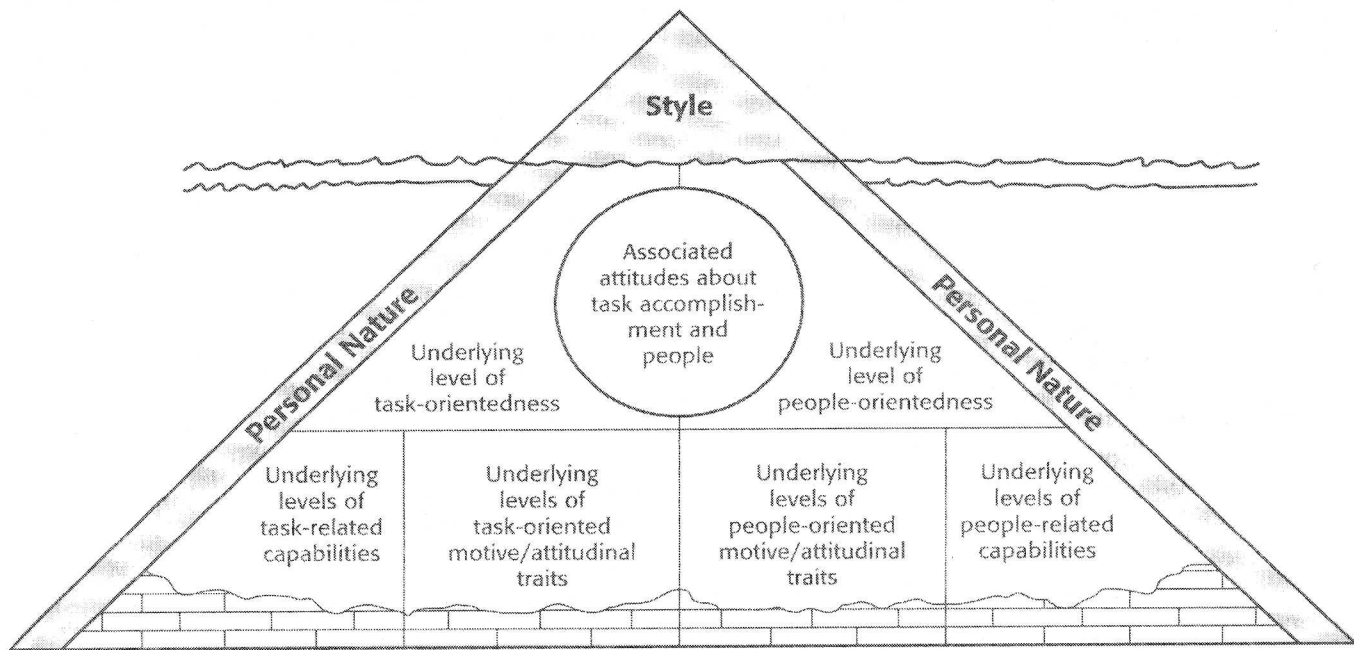
#### Underlying Concepts

One way to relate individuals' managerial styles with their personal natures is to picture icebergs afloat in the ocean (**Figure 2** on the next page). Like the tips of icebergs, managers' styles are the very small parts visible above the surface. Their personal natures—the larger parts by far—lie more or less hidden beneath the surface.

**Figure 1: Interaction Between a Manager and the Organizational Environment**



**Figure 2: Relationships Among Personal Influences Underlying an Individual's Managerial or Leadership Style**



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Another way to relate managers styles and natures is to think of the icebergs as pyramids. As shown in Figure 2, managers' styles are internally influenced by their natures. Underlying their natures, in turn, are their levels of overall task-orientedness (a combination of concern for, attention to, and ability to obtain productivity or task-related results) and overall people-orientedness (a combination of concern for, attention to, and ability to sense and deal with the needs and feelings of other people). Attitudes regarding task accomplishment and people are also parts of managers' natures. These attitudes reflect managers' levels of task- and people-orientedness. Underlying their task-orientedness, people-orientedness, and associated attitudes, in turn, are their levels of (a) *specific task-related capabilities and motive-attitudinal traits*, and (b) *specific people-related capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits*.

In this section of Part III, we discuss how *different styles are underlain to a very great extent by different combinations of levels of task-orientedness and people-orientedness, different*

*sets of associated attitudes, and different combinations of levels of task-related and people-related characteristics.*

Various styles can be *described* in terms of certain behavior patterns. A good example is Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model, which describes styles in terms of levels of "task behavior" and "relationship behavior."<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, various styles can be *explained* in terms of certain underlying combinations of attitudinal concerns. A good example is Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid model, which explains many styles in terms of the levels of "concern for productivity" and "concern for people."<sup>2</sup> We acknowledge the usefulness of explaining styles in terms of "concerns" and describing them in terms of "behavior patterns." Here, however, we will continue to use the terms "task-orientedness" (or level of the "task-orientation") and "people-orientedness" (or level of the "people-orientation"). Our preference for these terms should be explained before we proceed.

Essentially, the words “orientation” and “orientedness” can be construed to encompass all of the following: (a) attitudinal concerns; (b) behavior patterns; (c) a variety of associated integrative and interpersonal attitudes; and (d) integrative and interpersonal capabilities (with which few models deal). This, we think, is very important for the following three reasons.

- A. How managers or leaders *actually* behave depends upon their (levels of) concerns and capabilities. The importance of both types of inputs can be illustrated by looking at two different types of individuals, who, even though they may have been introduced to “High Task, High People” concepts and participative practices, still have difficulty behaving in a “HT,HP,” participative manner.

First, take managers whose level of concern for their subordinates’ feelings and fulfillment is high, but whose people-related capabilities (such as interpersonal sensitivity and communicative skills) have not been developed to commensurately high (sophisticated) levels. *Although these managers may be motivated to behave in a highly people-oriented manner, they are not really able to do so.* In effect, the people-orientedness of their behavior is limited by an inadequate overall (averaged) level of capabilities. Even so, their high level of concern for people cannot help but be reflected in their behavior, thereby making up for their low level of capabilities to some extent. Normally, therefore, their *actual behavior* tends to be less people-oriented than their high level of concern, but more people-oriented than their lower level of capabilities.

In other words, just because an individual is a “9” in concern for people does not necessarily mean that he or she will behave in a highly people-oriented manner—especially if his or her interpersonal skills have not been adequately developed. The permissive manager is a good example. While this individual is a “9” in concern for people and therefore emphasizes people and their social relationships, he or she fails to recognize two things: (a) that ego and self-actualization needs as well as social needs must be satisfied; and (b) that emphasizing task-related results is highly people-oriented as well as task-oriented. Thus, the permissive manager’s behavior is actually less people-oriented than his or her level of concern for people (especially when compared to the behavior of a “HT,HP” manager).

Next, take rather typical authoritarian (“X”) managers whose level of concern for subordinates has remained relatively low even though (a) they may have been indoctrinated in HT,HP concepts and (b) their people-related capabilities may have been developed to a relatively high overall (averaged) level. If these managers stop to think about what they are doing, they can behave in a highly

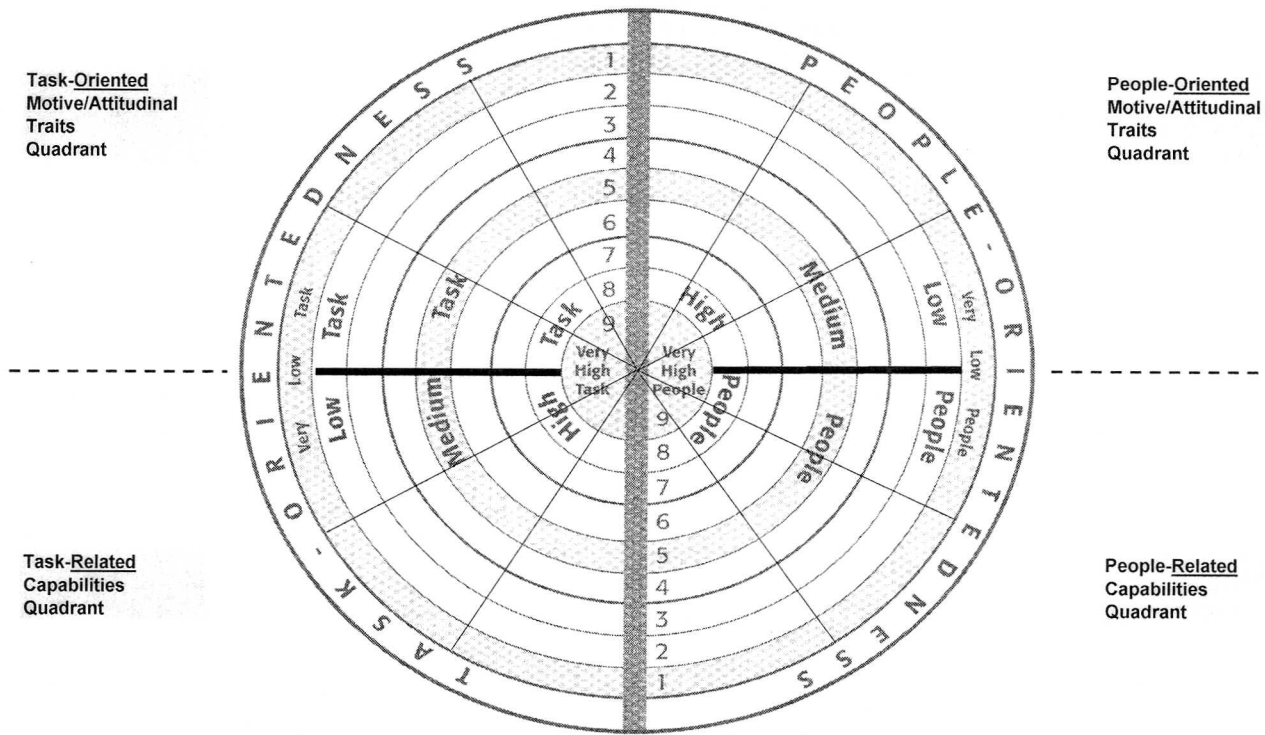
people-oriented manner by consciously using their interpersonal skills and by purposefully applying whatever participative, developmental, people-oriented practices they have learned. Unfortunately, because they are not particularly concerned about their subordinates, they generally do not stop to think about the people-orientedness of their behavior. As a result, their people-related motives and attitudinal traits mostly shape their behavior. Since their people-related motive/attitudinal traits are not particularly people-oriented (are not at high levels), neither is their behavior. *In short, these managers may be able to behave in a highly people-oriented manner, but they are not really motivated or inclined to do so.* In effect, their low concern for people limits the use of their capabilities. Even so, their over-all high level of capabilities is bound to be reflected in their behavior, thereby making up for their low level of concern to some extent. Normally, therefore, these managers’ *actual behavior* tends to be less people-oriented than their high overall level of capabilities, but more people-oriented than their much lower level of concern.

These two examples make it apparent that the managers who actually behave in a highly people-oriented manner are those who are both motivated and able to do so. Similarly, the managers who actually behave in a highly task-oriented manner are those who are both motivated and able to do so. On the other hand, managers whose behavior is very low in either task-orientedness or people-orientedness probably have low levels of the concerns *and* capabilities involved.

- B. Even an explanation of the origins of attitudes should take into account capabilities as well as concerns. Attitudes are influenced not only by drives, values, and certain attitudinal traits that are reflected in concerns, but also by capabilities such as intelligence, knowledge (or lack of it), and experience (or lack of it).
- C. Individuals’ motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities tend to influence each other—either directly or indirectly.
1. The following are two examples of how *capabilities can influence motives and attitudinal traits.*

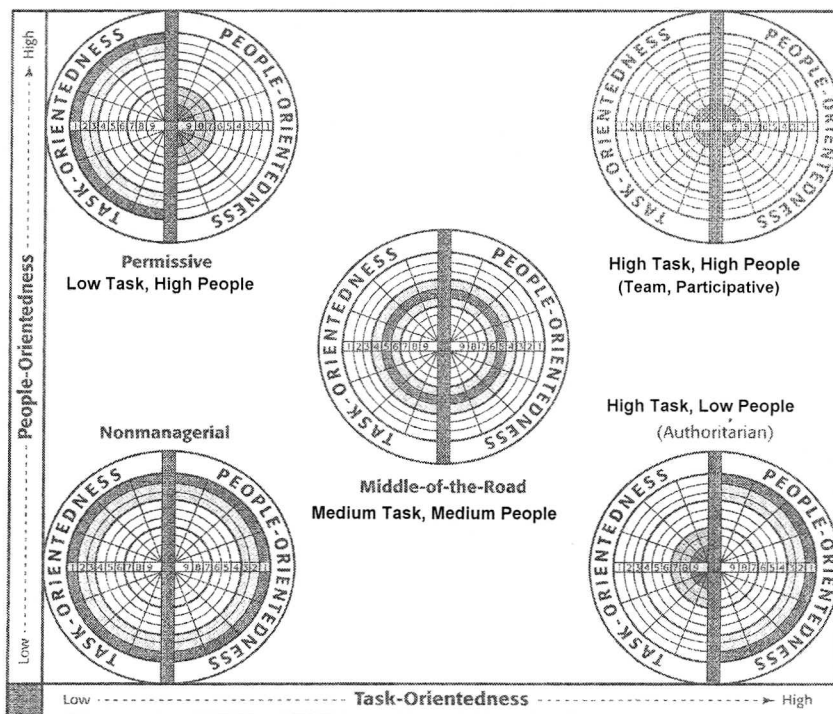
If managers possess an overall high level of, say, task-related capabilities, they are very likely to have or to develop a high concern for task accomplishment. This is because their excellent capabilities enable them to get tasks accomplished successfully and to experience the positive feedback that generally accompanies success. Positive feedback, in turn, gives managers psychological pleasure, which either forms

**Figure 3: The Managerial Target® (Simplified Version)**



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**Figure 4: Target Representations of Five Distinctive Styles on a Grid Framework**



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(over a period of time) or reinforces a high concern for or interest in task accomplishment.

If, on the other hand, managers possess an overall low level of task-related capabilities, they are more likely to have or to develop a low concern for task accomplishment. This is because their inadequate capabilities render them relatively ineffective and unsuccessful at getting tasks accomplished. They therefore experience negative, unpleasant feedback that can either form (over a period of time) or reinforce a low concern for or interest in task accomplishment.

Managers' overall level of people-related capabilities can influence their level of concern for people in much the same manner. Thus, *in general, the better that managers' task- or people-related capabilities are, the higher their concern for task accomplishment or people tends to be or become.*

2. The following are two examples of how managers' concerns (or motive/attitudinal traits) can influence their capabilities.

If, for example, managers' concern for people is high, they are likely to be motivated to acquire or develop those capabilities that can enable them to relate with, develop, and fulfill subordinates effectively.

If, on the other hand, managers' concern for people is low, they are much less likely to acquire or develop people-related capabilities.

Managers' level of concern for task accomplishment can influence their overall level of task-related capabilities in much the same manner. Thus, *in general, the higher managers' concerns for task accomplishment and people are, the better their task- and people-related capabilities tend to be or become.*

Because capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits do influence each other to a significant degree, many if not most managers either have or are in the process of developing (a) approximately the same overall levels of task-related capabilities and task-related motive/attitudinal traits, and (b) approximately the same overall levels of people-related capabilities and people-related motive/attitudinal traits. As indicated in A above, however, at a given point in time there may be a significant disparity or imbalance between the overall levels of capabilities and concerns.

A through C demonstrate that behavior, underlying orientations, and associated attitudes are functions of both capabilities

and concerns. They indicate to us, therefore, that a discussion of managerial and leadership styles should make reference to both inputs to behavior.

With these concepts in mind, we have developed a model we call **The Managerial Target**.<sup>®</sup>

### Simplified Version of The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>

**Figure 3** is a simplified version of our model. It depicts a target that has been split in half so that it indicates the two major, underlying aspects of any managers' or leader's nature: the task orientation and the people orientation. The left half is divided into three broad levels of task-orientedness (low, medium, and high) and nine narrower levels ranging from "very low" (1) on the outside of the target to "very high" (9) in the center (the bulls-eye). The right half, representing people-orientedness, is divided in the same manner.

Each of the five distinctive styles described and explained earlier in terms of a grid model can also be described and explained using The Managerial Target.<sup>®</sup> **Figure 4** shows where Target representations of the five distinct managerial styles fall on a grid framework. Because there are several degrees of highs, mediums, and lows, all possible combinations of levels of task- and people-orientedness cannot be shown in Figure 4. Also, remember that a particular manager's or leader's style may be (a) one of the five distinctive styles, (b) closer to one or the other of these styles, or (c) somewhere between two or more of these styles.

### The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> — Explaining Styles in Terms of Personal Characteristics

The expanded/full version of The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> will help us to answer the following questions: What specific traits are generally considered to be desirable in managers or leaders? Which of these can be considered capabilities and which can be considered motive/attitudinal traits? Which capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits are related to one's task orientation and which are related to one's people orientation? What levels of these characteristics underlie various levels of task-orientedness and people-orientedness, and are therefore largely responsible for particular managers' and leaders' style tendencies? What levels of which characteristics are largely responsible for "High Task, High People," Theory Y, or synergistic managers' attitudes and behavior?

In the remainder of this section on personal influences, we will do the following:

- a. discuss and categorize desirable managerial or leadership traits;
- b. introduce the expanded or full version of The Managerial Target®;
- c. describe the four phases involved in preparing this model for interpretation;
- d. explain how to determine what The Managerial Target® indicates about an individual's tendency to use a particular style;
- e. explain the five distinctive styles in terms of The Managerial Target®; and
- f. explain how to determine what the Target indicates about an individual's level of "overall managerial/leadership effectiveness."

## Desirable Managerial and Leadership Traits

Although many traits are generally thought to be desirable in managers and leaders, different experts tend to emphasize different combinations.

E. R. Hergenrather, a management recruiting executive, believes that four basic traits are essential: (a) drive; (b) an ability to communicate effectively; (c) people sense; and (d) emotional stability under pressure.<sup>3</sup>

J. W. Siler, an executive recruiter, believes that "guts" are required to deal effectively with subordinates, and that managers must set high standards for themselves and their subordinates.<sup>3</sup>

A. O. Putnam, a management consultant, emphasizes the importance of being a "team player" who can work well alongside one's peers, boss, and subordinates.<sup>3</sup>

J. C. Wilson, a Xerox executive, believes that managerial effectiveness depends upon intellectual capabilities beyond technical, functional, professional, or managerial skills.<sup>3</sup> Harrel<sup>4</sup> and Ghiselli,<sup>5</sup> two research psychologists, apparently concur. Their separate studies revealed that the intelligence of the most successful managers lies within the "very high" range — i.e., at a level higher than 95% of the rest of the population.

J. B. Miner's research into the "motivation to manage" led him to focus on six traits:<sup>6</sup>

- a. a favorable attitude toward the use of and adherence to authority;
- b. a desire to compete;
- c. self-assertiveness (an inclination to take charge,

- d. make decisions, and take disciplinary action);
- d. a desire to exercise power;
- e. a desire for status, position, or a place in the limelight; and
- f. a sense of responsibility.

Arthur Bedeian suggests that we look for these characteristics in effective leaders:<sup>7</sup>

adaptability	independence
aggressiveness	initiative
alertness	objectivity
creativity	integrity
dominance	resourcefulness
emotional balance	self-confidence
enthusiasm	sense of humor
extroversion	tolerance for stress

In their discussion of "critical management skills," David Whetton and Kim Cameron mention these desirable traits:<sup>8</sup>

self-awareness  
 creativity  
 flexibility (in thinking)  
 supportiveness (in communication)  
 mediative (with respect to conflicts)  
 non-abusive (of power)

In *The Paradox of Success: A Book of Renewal for Leaders*, John O'Neil points out that being too high in certain traits can result in dysfunction:<sup>9</sup>

confidence	→	sense of infallibility
quickness	→	overhastiness
sharp wit	→	abrasiveness
alertness	→	narrow focus
dedication	→	workaholism
control	→	inflexibility
courage	→	foolhardiness
perseverance	→	resistance to change
charm	→	manipulation
thriftiness	→	false economy / stinginess
commitment	→	blind faith

Retired Air Force General Perry Smith exhorts managers and leaders to develop these traits and behaviors:<sup>10</sup>

self-aware	mentally tough
sharing	listener
protective (of innovators)	courageous
decisive	ethical
goal-oriented	open (toward others
appreciative (of others' efforts)	about oneself)

In *The Pryor Report*, Michelle Jackman and Susan Waggoner emphasize these characteristics:<sup>11</sup>

visionary	motivational
self-understanding	integrity
candor	maturity
courage, risk-taker, daring	
willingness to learn (from mistakes)	

Jay Galbraith and Ed Lawler mention traits such as openness to learning, a sense of community, and a sense of social correctness.<sup>12</sup>

Peter Senge, too, emphasizes an openness to learning.<sup>13</sup>

In *Profiles of Genius*, Gene Landrum points out that “innovators” and “super-achievers” were the people who created new markets and industries. Such people, however, had some functional and some dysfunctional characteristics. While charismatic, confident, driven, focused, intuitive, persistent, passionate, and persuasive, they were also risky, rebellious, autocratic, competitive, and impatient.<sup>14</sup>

A *Business Week* article entitled “CEO Disease” points out that egotism is the Achilles Heel of managers and leaders. It results in narcissism, self-indulgence, playing bigshot, using status symbols, and trying to control people and events.<sup>15</sup>

Tracy O’Rourke reinforces what others have mentioned:<sup>16</sup>

vision	drive
courage (to change)	ability to inspire
ability to share power	
wisdom (maturity to listen and learn)	
integrity (to set a good example re: basic values)	
unselfishness (to celebrate others’ successes)	

In describing “The Toxic Executive,” Stanley Reed suggests the following:<sup>17</sup>

being mannerly  
self-honesty  
not having irritating habits  
not being overtly arrogant  
not being a finger-pointer

Among other behaviors, Robert Kelly and Janet Caplan mention<sup>18</sup> . . .

being organized,  
being a good presenter,  
and being savvy in dealing with company politics.

In “Lead, Don’t Manage,” Arend Sandbulte emphasizes being:<sup>19</sup>

self-aware	creative
sharing (power)	consistent
self-controlled	curious
congenial	sensitive

Others have emphasized the following traits:<sup>20</sup> (a) a strong “reality orientation” (an inclination to be practical rather than being a dreamer); (b) loyalty to the organization; (c) the self-awareness to recognize the need for self-improvement and the motivation to do something about it; and (d) the ability to continue learning and growing.

Various private and government organizations include the following characteristics on their performance evaluation checklists: (a) technical, functional, or professional competence; (b) moral courage; (c) loyalty; (d) initiative; (e) flexibility; (f) industriousness; (g) imagination; (h) analytic ability; (i) judgment; (j) decisiveness; (k) forcefulness; (l) orderliness; (m) reliability; (n) sensitivity to people; (o) self-expression (in oral and written communications); (p) cooperativeness; (q) persuasiveness; (r) group effectiveness; (s) promptness; (t) enthusiasm; (u) acceptance of responsibility; and (v) leadership—among others.

Together, the traits mentioned above comprise a rather extensive list, although some are very similar to others.

**Table 1** (next two pages) is a summary list of the traits mentioned above.

Most experts would agree that, in general, an individual who possessed high levels of most of these characteristics would probably be a highly effective and successful manager or leader, and an individual who possessed low levels would probably be a relatively ineffective and unsuccessful manager or leader.

We can develop insights into how various managerial styles are largely influenced by, or are related to, certain levels of specific personal characteristics by (1) categorizing these and a few other traits or inputs as either task-related or people-related; (2) dividing each category into capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits; and (3) relating the levels of task- and people-related capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits to overall levels of task- and people-orientedness.

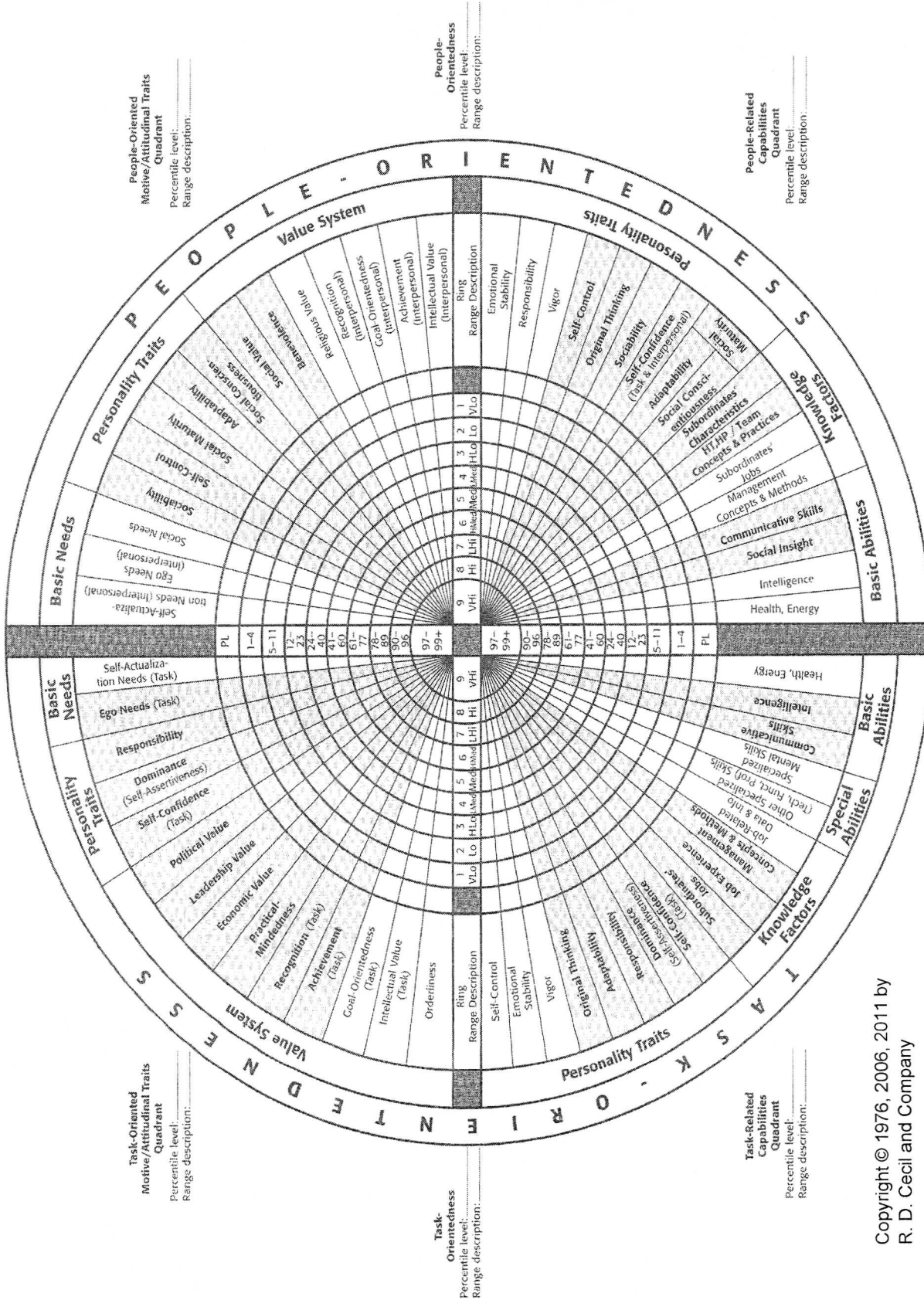
The traits we will be discussing—and their definitions—are listed in **Table 2** (beginning on page 15).

Table 1: Gurus' Desirable Leadership Traits

	Whetton/Cameron	Bedeian	Landrum	O'Neil	Hergenrather	Miner	Richman	Moss-Kanter	Eisenach	Bartz	Gerrity	O'Rourke	Knauft, Berger, Gray	Sandbulte	Kouzes, Posner	Suc. Bus. Mgmt.
Achiever			X													X
Adaptable / flexible	X															X
Adjusted		X														
Alert		X		X												
Appreciative																
Assertive / forceful		X				X										
Candor																
Changer / improver																
Character								4	1	6	1					
Charisma								6		5						
Collaborative																
Committed / dedicated				X			X									
Communicative																
(Good) Communicator					X								X			
Competent (techn'l / prof'l)															X	
Competitive			X			X										
Congenial		X											X			
Consistent													X			
Cooperative																
Courageous				X							X					
Creative / imaginative	X												X			
Curious / explorative													X			
Decisive																
Delegator	X															
Drive					X						X					
Emotionally stable (stress tolerant, unflappable)	X	X			X				2				X			X
Empathetic								5		2	4					
Enthusiastic		X														
(Good) Example-setter													X			
(Good) facilitator of meetings	X															
(Good) facilitator of activities																
Flexible (in thinking)	X															
Focused			X													
Follows through (on what said would do)																
Forward-looking / visionary			X								X	X			X	
Goal-oriented																
Hard-working / industrious																X
Honest													X	X		
Honorable																
Humility											6					
Impatient			X													
Independent																X
Informative																
Initiative		X														
Inspirational								2	4	3	3	X	X		X	
Integrity		X					X					X	X			
Intelligent								1	5	1						
(Good) Interpersonal skills							X									
Intuitive			X													
Judgment								3	3	4	2					X

	Whetton/Cameron	Bedeian	Landrum	O'Neil	Hergenrather	Miner	Richman	Moss-Kanter	Eisenach	Bartz	Gerrity	O'Rourke	Knauft, Berger, Gray	Sandbulte	Kouzes, Posner	Suc. Bus. Mgmt.
Keeps word															X	
(Good) listener	X															
Loyal																
Magnanimous																
Mannerly / Polite																
Mature												X				
Mediator (conflicts)	X															
Needs power, status						X										
Networker																
<b>Not . . .</b>																
Abuse power	X															
Abusive																
Arrogant																
Controlling																
Egotistical																
Finger-Pointer																
Self-Indulgent																
Objective		X														
Open / Frank																
Orderly																
Organized																
Passionate			X													
People sense (Social Insight or intelligence)					X											
Perseverant				X												
Persistent			X													
Persuasive			X													
Politically savvy																
(Good) Presenter																
Reliable																
Resourceful		X														
Responsible						X										
Self-aware	X											X	X			X
Self-confident		X	X	X												X
Self-controlled / Self-disciplined													X			X
Self-honest														X		
Sense of community (Social connectedness)																
Sense of humor		X														
Sensitive (to others' feelings and motives)													X			
Sharing (power, responsi- bility, credit/praise)											X		X			
(Good) Team thinker																
(Good) Thinker (logical)																
Tough									6	5		X				
Trustworthy														X		
Unselfish											X					
Willing to . . . change																
learn / improve							X					X				
take risks			X									X				
Wise											X					

Figure 5: The Managerial Target® (Expanded Version)



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## Task-Related and People-Related Capabilities and Motive/Attitudinal Traits

**Figure 5** is the expanded or full version of The Managerial Target.<sup>®</sup> To design it, we have superimposed selected personal characteristics on the simplified version (Figure 3). Some of these characteristics have been designated as capabilities, some as motive/attitudinal traits, and some as both. Most of these traits influence or relate to either the task orientation or the people orientation, but some influence or relate to both orientations.

Target characteristics have been placed in four quadrants, each of which contains a particular category of personal characteristics:

1. Task-Oriented Motive/Attitudinal Traits (top left quadrant);
2. Task-Related Capabilities (bottom left quadrant);
3. People-Oriented Motive/Attitudinal Traits (top right quadrant);
4. People-Related Capabilities (bottom right).

### Task-Oriented Motive/Attitudinal Traits

Characteristics that in some way influence, relate to, or reflect an individual's "concern for task accomplishment" or "concern for getting task-related results" include:

Basic needs/drives: ego and self-actualization needs.

Values: the political, economic, and intellectual values and value-related traits such as leadership, practical-mindedness, (need for) recognition, goal-orientedness, (need for) achievement, and orderliness.

Personality traits: self-confidence, dominance (self-assertiveness), and responsibility.

For reasons to be discussed below in a separate section, we consider ten of these characteristics to be "key traits." These are denoted by capital letters and shaded "wedges" on the Target.

### Task-Related Capabilities (or "Inputs")

Characteristics that in some way influence, relate to, or reflect an individual's ability (or inability) to obtain task-related results include:

Basic mental and physical abilities: academic intelligence, communicative skills, and general health and energy.

Specialized mental abilities: for example, mechanical visualization (or spatial thinking), mechanical comprehension, and clerical speed and accuracy (when these traits apply to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of the individual's job).

Other specialized skills: for example, the abilities to operate certain equipment or to perform certain operations on information relating to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of the individual's job.

Knowledge factors: data/information relating to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of a job; management concepts, methods, and procedures; job experience; and knowledge of subordinates' jobs.

Personality traits: self-confidence, self-assertiveness, responsibility, adaptability, original thinking, vigor, emotional stability, and self-control.

Personality traits are included among capabilities for two reasons. First, they reflect psychological capabilities as well as motives and attitudes. Second, they are generally defined as tendencies to behave in certain ways. They therefore contribute to one's ability (or inability) to behave in a manner that produces task-related results.

We consider ten of these characteristics to be "special capabilities" and have so denoted them on the Target with capital letters and shaded wedges.

### People-Oriented Motive/Attitudinal Traits

Characteristics that in some way influence, relate to, or reflect an individual's "concern for people" or "concern for obtaining people-related results" include:

Basic needs/drives: social, ego, and self-actualization needs.

Values: the social, religious, and intellectual values; and value-related traits such as benevolence, (need for) recognition, goal-orientedness, and (need for) achievement.

Personality traits: social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity (mature relations), self-control, and sociability.



Note that we consider seven of these characteristics to be “key traits” and have so denoted them on the Target with capital letters and shaded wedges.

### **People-Related Capabilities (or “Inputs”)**

Characteristics that in some way influence, relate to, or reflect and individual’s ability (or inability) to obtain people-related results include:

Basic mental and physical abilities: intelligence, social insight (social intelligence), communicative skills, and general health and energy.

Knowledge factors: management concepts, methods, and procedures; subordinates’ jobs and job requirements; participative/team concepts and practices; and subordinates’ personal characteristics.

Personality traits: social conscientiousness, adaptability, self-confidence, sociability, original thinking, self-control, vigor, responsibility, and emotional stability.

Personality traits have been included among people-related capabilities for two reasons. First, they reflect psychological capabilities as well as motives and attitudes. Second, being “tendencies to behave in certain ways,” they affect one’s abilities (or inabilities) to relate effectively with others and to obtain people-related results.

Note that we consider ten of these characteristics to be “special capabilities” and have so denoted them with capital

letters and shaded wedges. Our reasons are given in a section below.

All Target characteristics listed in the four categories above—plus a few additional characteristics—are defined briefly in **Table 2**. The manner in which each Target characteristic influences or relates to either the task orientation or the people orientation is made apparent in the table (but will be discussed further as we describe how The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> is interpreted). When reading the table, one will note that most traits on the Target either correspond to or actually underlie the traits mentioned previously under the heading “Desirable Managerial Traits.”

Table 2 should be read carefully and thoroughly at this point.

Note: Inasmuch as managerial behavior, like all behavior, is phenomenally complex, different experts tend to describe or define behavior patterns in different terms. Largely for this reason, some psychological traits and their definitions are not particularly standardized. Many of the traits (terms) used on The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>—and their definitions—have been selected from several widely used psychological measurement instruments. (See footnotes to Table 2). Traits found in other good measurement instruments, however, could also have been used, since many correspond with or are closely related to the traits used on the Target. Therefore, because complex behavior can be described or defined using different terms, it must be acknowledged that there is some room for discussion regarding Target traits and their definitions.



**Table 2: Condensed Descriptions of Personal Characteristics**

**RELATED TRAITS/BEHAVIOR**  
(other traits or behavior to which characteristic either relates or contributes)

## CAPABILITIES

### BASIC MENTAL AND PHYSICAL CAPABILITIES

<b>B</b>	<b>Academic intelligence</b>	Basically, the ability that enables one to understand, learn, and think about things of a visual, verbal, or abstract nature. One who is low in this ability tends to understand and think about things in very concrete, specific, factual, or visually-oriented terms. One who is high can also understand, learn, and think in terms of more complex, verbally-oriented constructs such as ideas and concepts, and in terms of abstract constructs such as numbers and symbols. [Tests measure vocabulary and visual, verbal, and abstract (numerical) logic.]	Judgment; social insight; communicative skills; imagination; creativity; analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities; abilities to learn, grow, and cope with change
<b>P</b>	<b>Social insight (Social intelligence)</b>	The ability to understand and judge social behavior and to respond with understanding and tact in interpersonal situations. The level of this ability is influenced by one's level of intelligence and maturity and by the amount of social interaction that one has experienced.	Social maturity; mature relations; people sense; interpersonal awareness and sensitivity; functional social behavior
<b>B</b>	<b>Communicative skills</b>	These include verbal abilities (thought and speech) for expressing information and ideas in oral or written form, and non-verbal abilities involved in communicating feelings, thoughts, and attitudes without using words (for example, through gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions).	Persuasiveness; interpersonal relations; interpersonal effectiveness
<b>B</b>	<b>Health/Energy</b>	The vitality, strength, and energy to be alert and active on the job.	Industriousness; activity; stamina

### SPECIALIZED MENTAL ABILITIES

<b>Mechanical visualization (Spatial thinking)</b>	The ability that enables one to visualize and to manipulate objects, parts of objects, or other visual arrangements in space. Influences one's mechanical comprehension.	The specialized mental abilities described here may or may not be involved in the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job. When they are involved, they influence one's technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness.
<b>Mechanical comprehension (Mechanical intelligence)</b>	The ability to comprehend and solve mechanical types of problems. Level of ability is influenced by one's capacity for mechanical visualization, knowledge of mechanical principles, and experience working with mechanical objects or applying mechanical principles.	
<b>Clerical (perceptual) speed and accuracy</b>	The ability to work quickly and accurately with details (to shift the focus of attention from one word, number, or graphic symbol to another quickly and accurately). Not to be confused with secretarial skills such as typing and shorthand.	

### OTHER SPECIALIZED SKILLS

Skills (other than the specialized mental abilities described above) that relate to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job (for example, the ability to operate a certain machine or type of equipment, or the ability to perform certain operations on data or information).	Technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to develop these specialized skills in subordinates
--	---

### KNOWLEDGE FACTORS

<b>Management concepts, methods, practices</b>	Concepts, principles, methods, and procedures involved in integrative (managerial) activities such as analyzing, goal-setting, planning, budgeting, decision-making, organizing, staffing, providing guidance, evaluating results, and problem solving.	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to cope with and influence change; ability to develop subordinates' managerial skills
<b>HT,HP / team concepts and practices</b>	Participative, developmental, task- and people-oriented practices that develop and utilize subordinates' potentials, take account of their needs and feelings, and maximize their performance and on-the-job fulfillment, motivation, and morale	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to obtain the best possible task- and people-related results; ability to develop subordinates' potentials
<b>Job-related data and information</b>	Information relating to these and other integrative and technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job: job objectives and responsibilities; capabilities, and other traits required by the job; organizational objectives, policies, and procedures; the unit's and organization's operating plans and budgets; and other related types of information or data.	Integrative and technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, effectiveness; ability to develop personal potentials; ability to develop subordinates' potentials

**Related Traits/Behavior**

<b>Job experience</b>	Everything learned on the job, especially a knowledge or "feel" for what can, should, or might happen under various circumstances or when various courses of action are taken.	Judgment; ability to assess probabilities; analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making effectiveness; technical, functional, professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to cope with and influence change; ability to develop subordinates' potentials
<b>Subordinates' jobs</b>	Job-related information (as above) pertaining to subordinates' jobs. Includes a knowledge of the characteristics required and the standards of performance that can reasonably be expected.	Integrative competence (efficiency, effectiveness); ability to select, train, develop and evaluate subordinates effectively
<b>Subordinates' characteristics</b>	Awareness of each (immediate) subordinate's capabilities, motive/attitudinal traits, attitudes, potentials, strengths, and weaknesses.	Interpersonal sensitivity & understanding; effectiveness of goal-setting, planning, training, development, evaluation, conflict resolution, and problem-solving activities

**MOTIVE / ATTITUDINAL TRAITS**

**BASIC NEEDS / DRIVES** Abraham Maslow (1943, 1987)

	<b>Physiological needs</b>	The needs for food and water, sex, rest, exercise, and shelter from the elements, and the needs to excrete waste and to minimize pain. Self-preservation needs.	
	<b>Safety needs</b>	The needs for protection against physical harm or attack, danger, illness, and deprivation.	
P	<b>Social needs</b>	The needs to affiliate with others, to obtain their approval or acceptance, to belong, and to give and receive friendship and love.	Sociability
B	<b>Ego needs (Self-image)</b>	The needs for self-esteem, self-confidence, an identity, independence, power, influence over others, personal achievement, knowledge, competence, a good reputation, status, prestige, recognition, and others' admiration.	Self-confidence; personal pride; ambition; achievement value; self-centeredness; dominance; sociability; economic & political values; self-awareness vs. ego-defensiveness; ability to develop/improve oneself
B	<b>Self-actualization</b>	The needs to fulfill one's potentials, to become what one can become, and to develop oneself to the fullest.	Ambition; achievement; personal development and improvement

**VALUED MATTERS** Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (1960a, 1960b); Kopelman et al (2002)

T	<b>Intellectual (theoretical) value</b>	Concerns for truth, knowledge, and study, which underlie tendencies to utilize intellectual capacities, to be analytic, to search for causes, and to structure knowledge.	Rationality/objectivity; judgment; innovativeness; original thinking; depth of thought; inclination to learn; inclination to solve problems
T	<b>Economic (business) value</b>	Concerns for monetary matters, material things, the usefulness or practicality of things, and business or financial success.	Practical-mindedness; cost-consciousness; competitiveness; ambition (success consciousness); concern for task results and operational efficiency
T	<b>Political value</b>	Concerns for power, prestige, position, authority, and influence over others. The "need for power."	Dominance (self-assertiveness); leadership value; ambition; competitiveness; respect for authority
P	<b>Social (altruistic) value</b>	Concerns for people's well-being, social justice, and the public good. Love of, and concern for, people. Altruism. Social morality and ethics.	Self-sacrifice; selflessness; benevolence; social maturity; social conscientiousness
P	<b>Religious (spiritual) value</b>	Concerns for spiritual truth, religious experiences, religious beliefs, and religious activities. Also, concern with moral ethics espoused by religious groups.	Interpersonal morality; benevolence; social conscientiousness; responsibility
	<b>Aesthetic (artistic) value</b>	Concerns for beauty, harmony, grace, symmetry of form, and other aesthetically pleasing qualities in one's experiences (even though one may not be an artist).	

Information regarding the Allport, Vernon, Lindzey *Study of Values* is used by permission of Kopelman, Rovenpor, Allport and Cecil (2002).

Related Traits/BehaviorPERSONAL ("COPING") VALUES Leonard V. Gordon (1960a, 1997a)

T	<b>Practical-mindedness</b>	Concern for getting one's money worth (for getting full use or value from something or someone). Related to the economic value.	Cost-consciousness; practicality; concern for task-related results and operational efficiency
B	<b>Goal-orientedness</b>	Tendencies to work toward definite objectives, to persevere until a job is completed, and to think ahead to the future consequences of one's actions.	Persistence; responsibility; ambition; future-orientedness; judgment in decision making
B	<b>Achievement</b>	Concern for accomplishing something significant, which underlies tendencies to set personal standards high, to seek challenges, and to try to do something better than it has ever been done before. The "need to achieve."	Initiative; industriousness; innovativeness
	<b>Orderliness</b>	Concerns for having well-organized work habits, doing things in a systematic manner, and keeping things arranged in an orderly manner.	Organization; effectiveness of approach to integrative matters
	<b>Decisiveness</b>	Tendencies to make decisions quickly, to stick to them, and to hold strong convictions or opinions.	
	<b>Variety</b>	Tendencies to pursue new and different activities, to travel to strange or unusual places, to shun the routine, and to seek adventure, risk, and danger.	Risk-taking

INTERPERSONAL VALUES Leonard V. Gordon (1960b, 1997b)

T	<b>Leadership</b>	Concern for having a position of leadership or authority (for being in charge of, or having influence over, others). Related to the political value and the "need for power."	Dominance (self-assertiveness); competitiveness; ambition; forcefulness
T	<b>Recognition</b>	Concerns for attracting notice and being admired, looked up to, respected, and considered important.	Ego needs; self-assertiveness; success-orientedness
P	<b>Benevolence</b>	Concerns for helping others, sharing things with them, doing things for them, and being generous to them.	Interpersonal sensitivity and attentiveness; social conscientiousness; selflessness; kindness; concern for people; social maturity
	<b>Support</b>	The desire or need to be treated with kindness, understanding, and consideration, and to receive encouragement from others.	
P	<b>Conformity</b>	Concern about doing what is expected, accepted, proper, or socially correct, which underlies a tendency to follow rules, policies, regulations, and group norms closely.	(Can be dysfunctional trait if behavior patterns to which conforming are somehow inappropriate.)
T	<b>Independence</b>	Tendencies to be self-sufficient, to resist restriction, to do things for oneself, to make one's own decisions, to do what one wants, and to do things one's own way.	

Information regarding the *Gordon Survey of Personal Values* and *Survey of Interpersonal Values* has been reproduced with the permission of NCS Pearson, Inc.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

B	<b>Vigor / Active</b>	Tendencies to be active, energetic, and full of vitality and to maintain a lively, rapid pace when working, moving, or speaking.	Industriousness
B	<b>Self-confidence</b>	Tendencies to be poised, confident, self-assured, well-adjusted, and free of self-consciousness, feelings of inferiority, and excessive self-criticism.	Self-assertiveness; decisiveness; sociability (social extroversion); original thinking; leadership
T	<b>Dominance (Ascendancy or Self-assertiveness)</b>	Tendencies to be self-assured, self-assertive, verbally ascendant, extroverted, and aggressive (to take the initiative in dealing with people, to dominate conversations, to make independent decisions, to assume authority, or group leadership, to influence or persuade others, to organize social activities, and to promote new projects). Related to the political and leadership values.	Forcefulness; aggressiveness; leadership; self-centeredness; ego needs/drives; control of situations; active participation in activities; emotional stability
P	<b>Sociability</b>	Tendencies to be gregarious, outgoing, and genuinely interested in interpersonal contact (to seek and enjoy people's company, to mix well with people, and to make friends easily).	Friendliness; congeniality; social needs; ego needs; gravitation toward social groups
P	<b>Social conscientiousness</b>	Tendencies to demonstrate high ethical and moral standards in interpersonal relationships, to submerge the satisfaction of one's own drives and motives for the sake of others' feelings and well-being, and to be unselfish, concerned for others, considerate, and loyal.	Concern for people; social value; benevolence; selflessness; contributes to social maturity (mature personal relations)

		<u>Related Traits/Behavior</u>	
<b>P</b>	<b>Adaptability</b>	Tendencies to have a healthy self-image, to think honestly and realistically about oneself, others, and the environment, not to be a perfectionist, to get along in situations that are not exactly the way one thinks they should be, to tolerate ambiguity, to adjust easily to changing or uncertain circumstances, not to be self-righteous, to give and take, to be a good compromiser, and not to be arrogant, critical and suspicious of others, or antagonistic toward others.	Flexibility; tolerance; self-awareness; Interpersonal awareness; ability to be a "team player"; contributes to social maturity
<b>P</b>	<b>Social maturity (Mature personal relations)</b>	Tendencies to be concerned about others' feelings and well-being, to suppress self-interests for others' sakes, to be considerate of others, to give and take, to speak well of others, and to be cooperative, agreeable, understanding, helpful, trusting, patient, loyal, and tolerant. A combination of social conscientiousness and adaptability.	Interpersonal awareness and sensitivity; interpersonal effectiveness; ability to be a "team player"
<b>B</b>	<b>Responsibility</b>	Tendencies to have high ethical and moral standards regarding work (and similar responsibilities not of a social nature), to be conscientious in one's work, to see a difficult job through to its completion, and to be determined, persistent, persevering, thorough, and reliable.	Industriousness; initiative; promptness; concern for task-related results
<b>B</b>	<b>Original thinking</b>	Tendencies to be meditative, thoughtful, intellectually curious, reflective, and analytical and to work on difficult problems, to spend time thinking about ideas (especially new ideas), and to join thought-provoking discussions. Related to the intellectual value.	Open-mindedness; judgment; imagination; innovativeness; effectiveness of thought-oriented integrative activities
<b>B</b>	<b>Emotional stability</b>	Tendencies to have an even disposition, not to experience "emotional peaks and valleys," to be able to relax easily, to be free of worries, tensions, anxieties, and fears, to be calm, serene, and well-balanced, and not to be easily distracted or irritated by noise and interruptions when concentrating on something.	Approachability; interpersonal effectiveness; ability to behave (use capabilities) effectively when under pressure
<b>B</b>	<b>Self-control (Cautiousness)</b>	Tendencies to be cautious, careful, self-disciplined, self-restrained, and self-restricting, to think before acting, not to make spur-of-the-moment decisions, not to seek excitement or to take chances, not to be happy-go-lucky, not to be impulsive, not to be excessively competitive or aggressive, and not to look out only for oneself.	Social conscientiousness; responsibility; interpersonal effectiveness



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## Preparing The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> for Interpretation

Through the use of the expanded or full version of the Target, various levels of specific characteristics can be associated with various levels of task- and people-orientedness, and, thus, with various managerial or leadership styles. Those who wish to use this model to analyze relationships between characteristics and style tendencies should follow the procedures outlined below.

So that individuals will use this model wisely and effectively, its use should be put into proper perspective at the outset.

We believe that, in its present stage of development, The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> is the most advanced, sophisticated model yet devised for gaining insight into the personal influences on various types of managerial and leadership behavior. Even so, we are the first to acknowledge that what it shows about an individual's nature and style tendency is not necessarily accurate. This, however, is understandable when one considers the complexity of managerial and leadership behavior. The underlying personal (and external) influences on behavior are many, complex, difficult at best to identify and understand, and difficult to judge or to measure accurately. Consequently, it is virtually impossible to determine exactly which combinations of which levels of which characteristics underlie particular aspects of particular managers' styles. As a result, The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>, like any model, cannot relate personal characteristics to various styles with 100% accuracy, certainty, or reliability. How effectively it is used, therefore, depends largely upon a user's (a) understanding of Target concepts, (b) ability to judge human characteristics and behavior, (c) awareness and consideration of Target limitations, and (d) ability to interpret correctly what the Target indicates about an individual's nature and style.

We do not say this to offer some sort of an apology. We say it to (a) alert Target users to the fact that the model does have limitations, and (b) impress upon them the importance of thoroughly familiarizing themselves with Target concepts and procedures.

### **Phase 1: Determining Trait Levels and Recording Them on the “Trait Assessment Worksheet”**

Essentially, this initial phase involves performing several basic steps for each trait listed on the “Trait Assessment Worksheet /Trait Profile” (**Exhibit 1**).

First: Determine the individual's trait level, expressing it as a number from 1 (“very low” or the lowest possible level) to 99 (“very high” or the highest possible level). [All trait levels on the Target are expressed in this manner. With the exception of basic needs or drives, the number is a “percentile.” A percentile figure indicates an individual's rank within a certain population (group of people), some of whom are probably higher in the particular trait and some of whom are probably lower.]

Second: Record the individual's (percentile) level in the appropriate column on the Trait Assessment Worksheet.

Phase 1 is probably the most important of the entire procedure, because the accuracy and validity of what the Target indicates about an individual's nature and style depend largely upon the accuracy and validity of trait level determinations. This phase is also the most difficult and time-consuming to perform, regardless of the method used.

One method, which can be used to determine the level of *any* trait on the worksheet, is to make *personal assessments* (judgments or estimates). The other method, which can be used to determine the levels of most traits on the worksheet, is to administer appropriate *psychological measurement instruments* (tests) and translate the raw scores into percentile levels (using tables in test manuals and the Supplementary Manual available from R. D. Cecil and Company). Both methods are discussed briefly below.

While one can personally assess an individual's level of any trait on the Target, some traits *require* personal assessments because there are no standardized instruments for measuring them. These traits include: some communicative skills; many specialized technical, functional, or professional skills; most knowledge factors; and general health and energy.

### **Assessment Procedures**

To make the most accurate, valid personal assessments of one's own or a subordinate's trait levels, one *should not* make judgments or estimates “off the top of one's head.” Instead, one should carefully follow the procedures outlined in the Supplementary Manual. These procedures deal with the following:

- A. Assessment of basic abilities, specialized mental abilities, other specialized skills, knowledge factors, and personality traits;
- B. Assessment of basic (inner) needs/drives; and
- C. Assessment of values



## Self-Assessments

The accuracy and validity of self-assessments largely depend upon one's (a) understanding of traits (terms) and how they are related to each other; (b) objectivity (which is a function of self-honesty); (c) understanding of "self"; and (d) observation and understanding of others' behavior (with which one's own can be compared).

Total self-honesty and objectivity are found in few human beings. One must be careful, therefore, not to make several common, usually unconscious errors.

- A. Those who have very positive self-images tend to overestimate the levels of their capabilities, while those who are very introspective and self-critical tend to underestimate them.
- B. Many if not most people do not like to think of themselves as having "average capabilities," even though some of their capabilities may in fact be average. Consequently, they can tend to assess levels that are somewhat higher than average.
- C. Many individuals, rather than assessing their values at true or realistic levels, are inclined to assess them at levels that would be considered "desirable" by others (particularly their superiors).
- D. People in general have a tendency to assess the levels of their personality traits within the "medium" or "average" range, believing either (a) that this is about where their levels should be, or (b) that being too much higher or lower would indicate some degree of abnormality.

## Assessment of a Subordinate

To assess a subordinate's characteristics both fairly and accurately, one must consider the factors mentioned above and be as objective as possible.

- A. One must consider one's attitudes about oneself. If one's self-image is not healthy, realistic, and secure, one may unconsciously strengthen it by assessing a subordinate's characteristics at less favorable or flattering levels than one would assess one's own, thereby giving oneself an undeserved sense of superiority.
- B. One must consider one's attitudes toward and relationship with a subordinate. One should not, for example, let especially positive attitudes influence personal assessments in an unrealistically favorable manner. Neither should one let personal dislikes and incompatibilities ad-

versely influence personal assessments.

- C. One must consider relationships between a subordinate's characteristics, but must not generalize across the board. One should not, for example, assess high levels for most capabilities just because one or two important capabilities are very high. Neither should one assess low levels for most capabilities just because one or two important capabilities are low.
- D. One must consider a subordinate's performance, which can provide some indication of the levels of the subordinate's capabilities, motives, and behavioral tendencies. One should not, however, assess high or very favorable levels for various characteristics just because the subordinate's performance has been good. Neither should one automatically assess low or very unfavorable levels just because the subordinate's performance has been poor. The reason is that external factors as well as personal traits affect performance. Thus, when estimating traits' levels based on performance levels, one must "adjust" one's estimates by taking into account the extent to which external factors either helped or hindered performance.
- E. One must also make a purposeful effort to observe, analyze, and try to understand a subordinate's characteristics and behavior. Even after having done so, however, one may still not know enough about the subordinate to make fair and accurate assessments. We suggest, therefore, that one do the following: First, familiarize the subordinate with Target concepts, characteristics, definitions, and assessment procedures. Next, encourage the subordinate to participate in the assessment process. Then, only if the subordinate has voluntarily chosen to participate, discuss and analyze the subordinate's characteristics and behavior patterns together.

Note: Regarding the proviso in the last sentence, see the pages in the document "High Task, High People Attitudes and Behavior" for a discussion about managers' rights with respect to subordinates' personal characteristics (especially values and personality traits).

## Use of Standardized Measurement Instruments

The levels of values, personality traits, intelligence, and certain specialized mental abilities can be obtained through the use of various standardized psychological measurement instruments.

It must be acknowledged that personal assessments are often reasonably accurate, that they will suffice when standardized scores cannot be obtained, and that they have the advantage of



helping one develop deeper insights into one's own or a subordinate's nature and behavior. Nevertheless, using standardized instruments to measure trait levels has several important advantages over making personal assessments.

- A. It is much easier and much less time-consuming to take or administer various tests (and then determine the percentile scores) than to make personal assessments. The steps outlined in the Supplementary Manual can be very difficult and time-consuming if performed properly and conscientiously. In effect, measurement instruments perform these steps.
- B. Measurement instrument scores are generally much more accurate, much less biased, and far more reliable than personal assessments. Their greater accuracy and reliability can be attributed to several factors:
  1. Widely used standardized instruments have been developed in a painstaking manner. Much time and effort has been devoted to assuring their validity, accuracy, and reliability.
  2. Standardized instruments are, in effect, "third party, impersonal, unbiased assessors." Most have been designed to minimize the distortion and falsification of results that can be produced by people trying to (a) protect or enhance their self-images, or (b) impress those who may be reviewing their scores. The scores they provide cannot be influenced adversely by superiors' biases, self-serving motives, or limited knowledge, as can personal assessments made by superiors. In addition, scores are not subject to the variations that can be produced when (a) several individuals are involved in making personal assessments, and (b) different superiors assess an individual's trait levels at different times.
- C. Although people do not always agree with and readily accept test scores, they generally regard them as being more accurate, fair, valid, and reliable than personal assessments, especially when the personal assessments have been made by someone else. This reduces boss/subordinate arguments involving the determination of a subordinate's trait levels. It also contributes to a more objective, constructive, and amicable approach to making trait level determinations.

*We recommend that, instead of making personal assessments, people use standardized measurement instruments whenever possible.*

It must be noted, however, that most psychological measurement instruments are not sold to all who might wish to use

them. The publishers have policies that restrict the tests' availability to professional psychologists and those who are either certified or specially trained to administer and interpret them. Managers who wish to use the scores provided by standardized instruments should work with and through those who are qualified to order, administer, and interpret them.

### Measurement/Scoring Procedures

The Supplementary Manual contains information regarding the following topics:

- a. Compatible measurement instruments (instruments that measure traits included on the Worksheet).
- b. Use of other instruments (other available instruments, which may or may not be compatible with the Target).
- c. Administration and scoring of various measurement instruments.
- d. Conversion of raw scores to percentile levels. (This section includes conversion tables for several instruments.)

### Consultation with Experts

We *strongly recommend* to anyone using The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> that they work very closely with consulting psychologists and/or those in their organizations' personnel or training/development departments who have the necessary qualifications. These individuals should be (a) familiar with measurement instruments, (b) experienced in administering and interpreting them, (c) able to guide the making of any necessary personal assessments, and (d) able to answer questions that may arise concerning usage of the Target.

### **Phase 2: Adjusting Worksheet Data and Recording It on the Target**

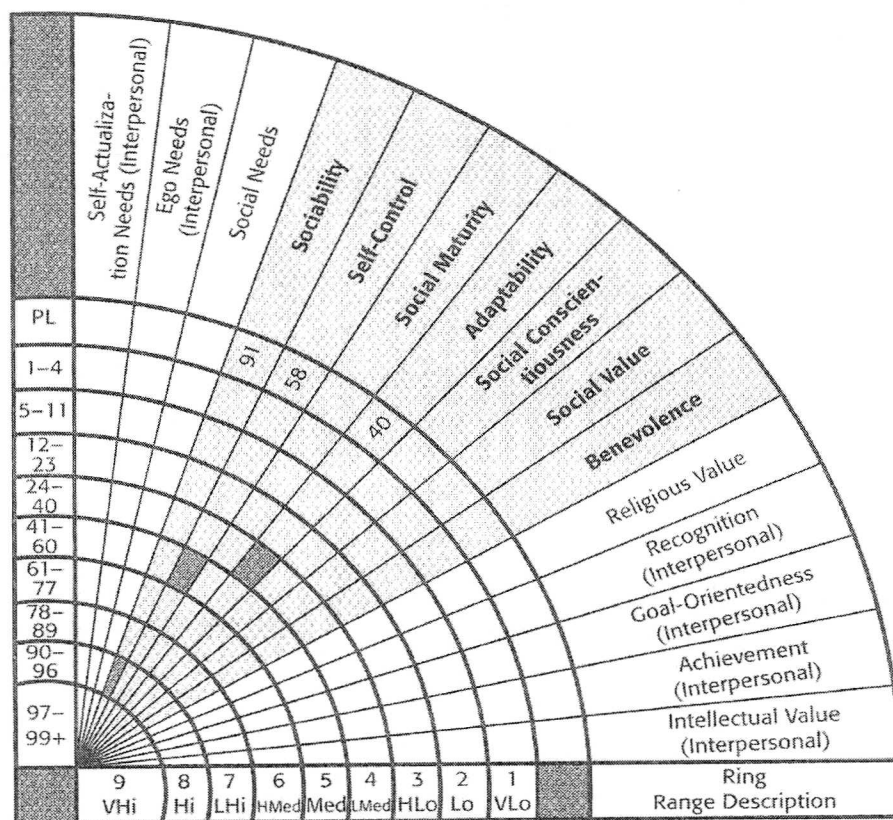
Once the levels of all characteristics on the Worksheet have been determined, each of the following steps should be performed in accordance with the instructions in the Supplementary Manual.

**Step 1:** "Fine-tune" the levels of the ego and self-actualization needs and the intellectual, goal-orientedness, achievement, and recognition values

**Step 2:** Review and adjust worksheet data

**Step 3:** Transfer worksheet data to the Target

**Figure 6: Worksheet Data Transferred to The Managerial Target®**



Step 3 involves (1) writing the percentile level of a trait in the "PL" ring where the trait wedge intersects the PL ring, and then (2) shading the area of the wedge that corresponds to the percentile range within which the percentile level lies. (See **Figure 6**.)

Although trait levels can be determined and recorded directly on the Target without first recording them on the Trait Assessment Worksheet, we recommend using the worksheet as an intermediate step. There are three important reasons.

First: It enables better determination of the levels of needs, values, specialized mental abilities, and other specialized skills.

Second: Where organizational policies, union agreements, or other relevant rules permit, it is generally advisable to maintain a complete profile of one's own or a subordinate's characteristics. A complete profile is a useful tool for determining training and development needs, for for-

mulating development programs, for evaluating development over time, and for evaluating promotability. Although the Target presents a very comprehensive profile, it is not as complete as the Worksheet, which includes at least seven specific characteristics that do not appear on the Target. By recording the levels of all measurable and/or personally assessed characteristics on the worksheet, one produces a more complete profile.

Third: Because an individual is a composite of many specific traits, because each trait relates to or influences others in some way and to some degree, and because the level of any one trait generally has meaning or significance within the context of other traits' levels, interpreting the level of any one trait without considering patterns in other traits' levels can easily lead to an incomplete and incorrect interpretation. Thus, if one is to interpret each trait's level properly, one should use the most complete trait profile available.

Fourth: One cannot perform steps 1 through 3 most effectively without referring to the most complete profile available.

### **Phase 3: Calculating the Overall (Percentile) Level of Each Target Quadrant**

The “overall level of a quadrant” is essentially the weighted average of the respective levels of the characteristics in the quadrant.

#### **Weighting the Characteristics in a Quadrant**

Each characteristic within a quadrant is important because it (a) significantly influences task- or people-orientedness in some way, and/or (b) indicates a tendency toward a particular managerial style. It should be apparent that all characteristics in a quadrant are not equally important in these respects. Each has its own relative level of importance—whatever that level may be.

It is because quadrant characteristics are unequal and varied in their importance that computing a weighted average of their levels is more appropriate than computing a simple arithmetic average. A weighted average should be used when the items being averaged differ in importance and it is advisable to take these differences into account. A simple arithmetic average, on the other hand, can be used when the items being averaged are equal in importance.

Ideally, the relative importance of each characteristic in a quadrant should be determined precisely, so that quadrant characteristics can be assigned accurate weights. The more accurate the weights that are assigned, the more accurate the weighted average will be. Unfortunately, assigning accurate weights to characteristics is virtually impossible. At present, there is no way to determine, either accurately or with certainty, any characteristic’s relative level of importance. In our view, the relationships between personal characteristics and task- and people-orientedness are too complex to make such determinations possible.

Faced with this problem, we have adopted a weighting system that we consider to be fairly realistic, and, therefore, satisfactory—even though it may not produce the most accurate indication of an individual’s nature and style tendency. So that Target users can understand the system and will be able to interpret what each quadrant’s overall level indicates, we offer the following brief rationale for the weights we are currently using.

#### **Motive/Attitudinal Traits Quadrants**

As indicated by their definitions in Table 2, all characteristics in the two motive/attitudinal traits quadrants are important with respect to managerial and leadership behavior. It is our judgment, however, that the “key traits” (the shaded traits) in these quadrants are about five times as important (influential) as the other traits (the unshaded traits). This judgment is based on our own and others’ observations and studies, which generally indicate the following:

- A. Most key traits influence an individual’s over-all concern for task accomplishment or overall concern for people in more significant ways and to greater degrees. For example: Key task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits such as ego needs, the political and leadership values, the economic value, and the concern for recognition greatly influence the concern for task accomplishment. This is largely because they constitute self-centered motives (involving power and career, financial, and material success) that can be fulfilled by producing good task-related results. (The practical-mindedness and self-assertiveness traits *reflect* these motives.) Key people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits such as the social and benevolence values *constitute* selfless motives, thereby underlying the concern for people to a very great extent. (Traits such as social conscientiousness, adaptability, and social maturity tend to *reflect* selfless motives.)
- B. Key traits are more reliable indicators of tendencies toward particular managerial styles. This is mostly because particular levels of these traits tend to be found in particular types of managers. For example: It is in the key *task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits* (such as self-assertiveness, responsibility, the political and leadership values, the economic and practical-mindedness values, and the concern for recognition) that authoritarian (“X”) managers tend to be relatively high, permissive managers tend to be relatively low, middle-road managers tend to be about average or medium, and HT,HP managers tend to be well above average (but not extremely high). Similarly, it is in the key *people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits* (such as the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control) that authoritarian managers tend to be relatively low, permissive managers tend to be relatively high, middle-road managers tend to be about average or medium, and HT,HP or team/participative managers tend to be well above average (but not extremely high).
- C. Key traits largely determine the primary area (either task accomplishment or people) in which an individual channels or seeks to fulfill other traits in these two quadrants (e.g., ego and self-actualization needs, intellectual con-

cerns, and goal-orientedness, achievement, and recognition motives).

- D. Key traits influence an individual's use of task- and people-related capabilities in more significant ways and to greater degrees, thereby influencing his or her task- and people-orientedness and overall managerial effectiveness in more significant ways and to greater degrees.

The four points raised above constitute the rationale for our assigning a weight factor of 5 to each key trait in the two motive/attitudinal traits quadrants, while assigning a weight factor of 1 to each of the other traits in these two quadrants.

### Capabilities Quadrants

As indicated by their definitions in Table 2, all characteristics in the two capabilities quadrants are important with respect to managerial and leadership behavior. (As mentioned earlier, personality traits are included among capabilities because, being behavioral tendencies, they contribute to one's effectiveness in task- and people-related areas of activity.) Based upon our own and others' observations and studies, however, we have concluded that certain special capabilities are about twice as important as the others.

Special task-related capabilities include: (a) intelligence; (b) communicative skills; (c) knowledge of management (integrative) concepts and methods; (d) job experience; (e) knowledge of subordinates' jobs; (f) task-related self-confidence; (g) self-assertiveness (dominance); (h) responsibility; (i) adaptability (flexibility); and (j) original thinking. In our judgment, these capabilities are about twice as important as others in the quadrant in all three of the following respects:

- a. their influences on one's ability to behave in a manner consistent with the levels of one's task-related motives;
- b. their influences on the efficiency and effectiveness with which one obtains task-related results (integrates tasks, human resources, and other resources for which one has managerial responsibility); and/or
- c. their influences on subordinates' attitudes regarding one's technical or functional professionalism, which, in turn, influence the effectiveness of one's relationships with subordinates.

Special people-related capabilities include: (a) social insight (social intelligence); (b) communicative skills; (c) knowledge of HT,HP and team/participative concepts and synergistic (participative, developmental) practices; (d) knowledge of sub-

ordinates' characteristics; (e) social conscientiousness and adaptability (which together underlie social maturity); (f) self-confidence (both task-related and interpersonal); (g) sociability; (h) original thinking; and (i) self-control. In our judgment, these capabilities are about twice as important as others in the quadrant in all three of the following respects:

- a. their influences on one's ability to behave in a manner consistent with the levels of one's people-related motives;
- b. their influences on the effectiveness with which one obtains people-related results (integrates people with their tasks and people with people in order to maximize their development, performance, and satisfaction); and/or
- c. their influences on subordinates' feelings and interpersonal attitudes toward one, which, in turn, influence the effectiveness of one's relationships with subordinates.

The points raised above constitute the rationale for our assigning a weight factor of 2 to each special capability in the two capabilities quadrants, while assigning a weight factor of 1 to each of the other capabilities in these quadrants.

### Computational Procedure

The following is the quickest procedure for calculating a quadrant's "overall level" (a weighted average of the levels of all characteristics in the quadrant). This procedure should be performed for each of the four quadrants in its turn.

Step 1: Add the percentile levels of all key traits or special capabilities in the quadrant.

Step 2: Multiply the sum obtained in step 1 by the appropriate weight factor (5 for key motive/attitudinal traits; 2 for special capabilities).

Step 3: Add the percentile levels of the remaining characteristics in the quadrant. (Since the remaining characteristics in all four quadrants each have a weight factor of 1, there is no need to multiply by a weight factor.)

Step 4: Add the results of Steps 2 and 3.

Step 5: Compute the quadrant's overall percentile level by dividing the results of step 4 by the total number of weights in the quadrant.

- a. For the task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant, divide the sum obtained in step 4 by 54.
- b. For the people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant, divide the sum obtained in step 4 by 43.
- c. For the task-related and people-related capabilities quadrants, divide the sum obtained in step 4 by 27.

**Step 6:** Record the overall quadrant level (expressed as a percentile figure) in the space provided next to the quadrant. Write the descriptive term for this percentile level in the space provided directly below.

### Relationships Between the Levels of Characteristics in a Quadrant and the Quadrant's Overall Level

The following is a statement of the basic relationships between the levels of certain characteristics in a quadrant and that quadrant's overall level:

An individual's overall quadrant level depends upon the levels of all characteristics in the quadrant, but particularly upon the levels of the more heavily weighted characteristics (the key motive/attitudinal traits or the special capabilities). Obviously, the higher the levels of all quadrant characteristics—particularly the key traits or special capabilities—the higher the individual's overall quadrant level (the higher the individual's level of concern for task accomplishment or productivity, of concern for people, of overall task-related ability, or of overall people-related ability).

These basic relationships are reflected in all three of the following examples.

- A. A particular individual's level of concern for task accomplishment is almost certain to be within, say, the "high" (90th to 96th percentile) range if (a) that individual's levels of key task-related motive/attitudinal traits fall within that range (or, more likely, are grouped in and close enough around that range so that their *average level* falls therein); and (b) that individual's levels of most of the other task-related motive/attitudinal traits are not significantly lower.
- B. A particular individual's level of concern for people is almost certain to be within, say, the "very low" (1st to 4th percentile) range if (a) that individual's levels of key people-related motive/attitudinal traits fall within that range (or, more likely, are grouped in and close enough around that range so that their *average level* lies therein); and (b) that individual's levels of most of the other people-related motive/attitudinal traits are not significantly higher.
- C. A particular individual's level of overall task-related ability is almost certain to be within, say, the "average or medium" (41st to 60th percentile) range if (a) that individual's levels of special task-related capabilities lie within that range (or, more likely, are distributed evenly enough within, above, and below that range so that their *average level* lies therein); and (b) that individual's levels of most of the other task-related capabilities are distributed evenly enough within, above, and below that range so that their *average level* is not significantly higher or lower.

### Phase 4: Calculating the Overall (Percentile) Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual's *overall level of task-orientedness* can be defined as the weighted average of that individual's levels of (two) task-related quadrants. Similarly, an individual's *overall level of people-orientedness* can be defined as the weighted average of that individual's levels of people-related quadrants.

#### Weighting of Quadrants

Earlier in this part we gave three reasons for asserting that *both motives and capabilities* are important influences on an individual's nature, managerial or leadership behavior (style), and managerial or leadership effectiveness. Regarding the relative importance of these inputs, it is our judgment that motive/attitudinal characteristics (as a group) are more important than capabilities (as a group). This judgment is based upon our own and others' observations and studies (especially those of experts like Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland, and Drucker), which indicate that *motivational factors are the primary personal influences on behavior*. Consider these points:

- A. Regardless of the levels of an individual's capabilities, he or she must be sufficiently motivated to *use* them. It is motivation that transforms *available capabilities* (which can be likened to potential energy) into *applied capabilities* (which can be likened to kinetic energy or motion).
- B. The overall level of an individual's motive/attitudinal characteristics influences the manner and spirit in which, the degree to which, and the efficiency and effectiveness with which that individual uses his or her capabilities.
- C. As indicated by their normal everyday behavior, people in

general are inclined to behave in ways that reflect the levels of their motive/attitudinal traits to a greater extent than the levels of their capabilities. (Take, for example, people who do not use whatever interpersonal skills they do have, because they are not particularly concerned about other people or their relationships with them.)

- D. Of course, the levels of capabilities are important, too. Without adequate levels of various capabilities, an individual cannot behave in the manner in which he or she is motivated to behave. In fact, when an individual's levels of capabilities exceed the levels of motive/attitudinal traits, that individual's higher-level capabilities are bound to be reflected in his or her behavior (even though he or she may not be particularly motivated to use them), thereby compensating for his or her lower motivation to some extent. The degree to which higher levels of capabilities compensate for lower levels of motivational factors, however, does not appear to be as great as the extent to which higher levels of motive/attitudinal traits compensate for lower levels of capabilities (by focusing an individual's capabilities on obtaining results in certain areas and by producing greater effort to obtain those results).

As in the case of specific characteristics, it is virtually impossible at present to determine, either accurately or with certainty, how much more important motive/attitudinal traits really are. It is our judgment, however, that they are about twice as important. This is tantamount to saying that managerial behavior and effectiveness are two-thirds due to motivation and one-third due to ability.

Based on the above rationale, *we assign a weight factor of 2 to each of the two motive/attitudinal traits quadrants, while assigning a weight factor of 1 to each of the two capabilities quadrants.* We feel that these weights are fairly realistic, and, therefore, satisfactory—even though they may not produce the most accurate indications or explanations of an individual's overall levels of task and people-orientedness, managerial style tendency, or overall level of managerial effectiveness.

We should conclude the above discussion by adding several points: Weighting motive/attitudinal traits quadrants twice as heavily as capabilities quadrants seems to be most appropriate for *explaining existing behavior.* With respect to *changing behavior, however, we would put more emphasis (weight) on improving capabilities.* This is because (a) behavior can be altered more easily and effectively than attitudes, and (b) improving knowledge, skills, and behavioral tendencies helps bring about improvements in attitudes.

## Computational Procedure

To determine an individual's overall level of task-orientedness (the weighted average of the overall levels of the task-related motive/attitudinal and capabilities quadrants) and his or her overall level of people-orientedness (the weighted average of the overall levels of people-related motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities quadrants), we use the following procedure:

Step 1: Multiply the overall percentile level of the motive/attitudinal traits quadrant by 2.

Step 2: Add the overall percentile level of the capabilities quadrant to the result obtained in step 1.

Step 3: Divide the result obtained in step 2 by the number "3" (the total number of weights given to the two quadrants: 2 + 1). The result is the overall level of task- or people-orientedness expressed as a percentile level.

Step 4: Record the overall level of task- or people-orientedness in the appropriate space provided next to the Target. (The overall level can also be indicated on the Target by circling the appropriate percentile range block on the horizontal scale that separates the top and bottom quadrants.)

## Relationships Between Quadrants' Levels and Overall Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

The following is a statement of the basic relationships between the overall levels of the top and bottom quadrants and the overall levels of task- and people-orientedness.

An individual's overall level of task-orientedness (or people-orientedness) depends upon the overall level of concern for task accomplishment (or concern for people) and the overall level of task-related ability (or people-related ability), but particularly upon the level of concern, since it is more important and is given more weight. Obviously, the higher the overall levels of both top and bottom quadrants—particularly the motive/attitudinal traits quadrant—the higher the individual's overall level of task-orientedness (or people-orientedness) and the greater the probability that he or she will actually behave in a highly task-oriented (or people-oriented) manner.

These basic relationships are reflected in all three of the following examples:

- A. An individual's level of people-orientedness is almost certain to be within, say, the "low high" (78th to 89th percentile) range, and the individual will tend to behave in a rather highly people-oriented manner, if (a) his or her level of concern for people (weighted average of the levels of people-related motive/attitudinal traits) lies within the "low high" range; and (b) his or her overall level of people-related ability (weighted average of the levels of people-related capabilities) is either equally high, slightly higher, or not significantly lower.
- B. An individual's level of task-orientedness is almost certain to be within, say, the "low" (5th to 11th percentile) range, and the individual will tend to behave in a manner that is not particularly task-oriented, if (a) his or her level of concern for task accomplishment (weighted average of the levels of task-related motive/attitudinal traits) lies within the "low" range; and (b) his or her overall level of task-related ability (weighted average of the levels of task-related capabilities) is either equally low, slightly lower, or not significantly higher.
- C. An individual's level of people-orientedness is almost certain to be within, say, the "low average" or "low medium" (24th to 40th percentile) range, and the individual will tend to behave in a manner that is nearly medium or average in people-orientedness, if (a) his or her level of concern for people (the overall level of the people-related motive/attitudinal traits quadrant) lies within the "low average" or "low medium" range; and (b) his or her overall level of people-related ability (the overall level of the people-related capabilities quadrant) is either the same, not too much higher, or not too much lower.

## Interpretation of The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>

### **Phase 5: Determining What The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> Indicates About an Individual's Style Tendency**

Before we proceed with a discussion that will help Target users to understand, explain, assess, and predict an individual's managerial or leadership style in terms of task- and people-orientedness, several points should be made very clear.

As shown in the booklet on *Nonpersonal Influences on Managerial and Leadership Behavior*, external factors such as

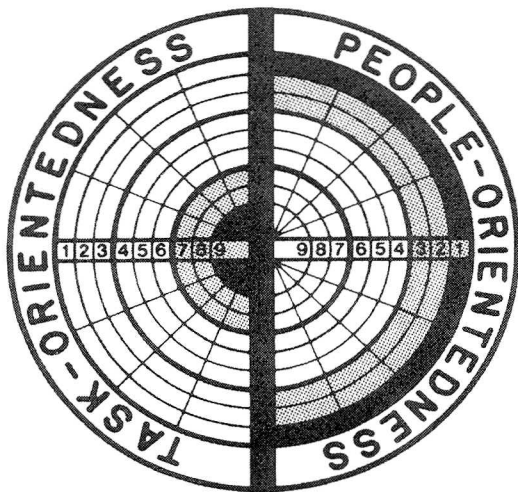
the natures of jobs, social norms and sanctions, the styles of superiors and colleagues, the nature and structure of an organization, and outside forces all influence an individual's style. As indicated in the introduction to this booklet, they can also influence the levels of an individual's personal characteristics over a period of time. The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>, however, does not take these influences into account—at least not explicitly. It only indicates an individual's levels of specific characteristics, groups of characteristics, and overall task- and people-orientedness at a given point in time (without indicating the manner in which or extent to which external factors may have influenced these levels).

*Thus, what the Target indicates, essentially, is an individual's tendency toward a particular managerial style (regardless of his or her occupational specialty). However, because it does not indicate whether this tendency is being reinforced or overridden by external influences, it does not necessarily prove that the style indicated is actually that used by the individual. Nevertheless, by indicating how the individual could tend to behave in the absence of contravening or modifying influences (as though the person were operating within a vacuum), the Target helps one to understand, explain, assess, or predict the individual's style.*

Below are five prominent headings—one for each of the five distinctive styles described in (Chapter 8 of *N-GMD*). Under each heading we do three things. *First*, to help Target users determine whether or not an individual's Target profile indicates a tendency toward that particular style, we specify the percentile level ranges of task- and people-orientedness that underlie a definite tendency toward that style. *Second*, to show that what the Target indicates makes sense, we point out relationships between the levels of certain characteristics and some of the basic behavior patterns associated with that style. (In effect, we show that the attitudes and behavior patterns associated with the style can be due almost entirely to the influences of personal characteristics, and not necessarily to the influences of external factors discussed in Part II.) *Third*, we briefly discuss the susceptibility of this type of individual to external influences (given this type's nature and style tendency).

In discussing the five distinctive style tendencies, we will refer to forty-five of the eighty-one possible combinations of the Target's nine ranges or rings involving task-orientedness and nine ranges or rings involving people-orientedness. The remaining thirty-six combinations lie between, and in many cases border, the more distinctive style tendencies.

**Figure 7: Authoritarian Tendencies:  
Underlying Levels of  
Task- and People-Orientedness**



### Theory X (9,1 OR HT,LP) Tendencies

#### Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual will have a definite tendency to behave in a more or less authoritarian or “X” manner if (a) his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the very high, the high, or the low high range (ring 9, 8, or 7); and (b) his or her level of people-orientedness lies within the very low, the low, or the high low range (ring 1, 2, or 3). Nine combinations of these ranges or rings are possible. (See **Figure 7**.)

It should be apparent that an individual will have the greatest or most definite tendency to behave in a Theory X manner if his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the “very high” range (ring 9, the 97th to 99th+ percentile range) and his or her level of people-orientedness lies within the “very low” range (ring 1, the 1st to 4th percentile range). It must be pointed out, however, that only a relative few “high task, low people” individuals are so high in task-orientedness and, at the same time, so low in people-orientedness. Actually, this combination can be considered abnormal, because the levels of so many underlying characteristics would have to be abnormally high or abnormally low.

Naturally, as the level of task-orientedness decreases and/ or the level of people-orientedness increases, the tendency to behave in another manner increases.

#### Brief Explanation of Theory X Tendencies in Terms of Various Underlying Personal Characteristics

It makes sense that high task-orientedness and low people-orientedness normally lead to Theory X behavior (in the absence of contravening or modifying external influences) when the following relationships between specific characteristics and basic Theory X attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

- A. When individuals have relatively high levels of economic and practical-mindedness values (which largely underlie high task-orientedness) but have relatively low levels of the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control (which largely underlie low people-orientedness), they tend to value task-related results much more highly than people-related results. They also tend to be much more concerned about, and, therefore, do more about, *their own* (rather than their subordinates’) job security, need and goal fulfillment, career success, and financial or material success, which they can achieve by obtaining good task-related results (possibly at subordinates’ expense). In other words, *when relatively high task-oriented motives are not tempered or balanced by relatively high people-oriented motives, the result is very likely to be the highly task-oriented and rather self-centered behavior that is characteristic of the Theory X style.*
- B. When individuals have relatively high levels of ego needs and political and leadership values (which also largely underlie high task-orientedness) but have relatively low levels of unselfish characteristics (such as the social value, the benevolence value, and social conscientiousness), they tend to utilize their positional power or authority to obtain task-related results through people. They also tend to be much more concerned about, and, therefore, do more about, their own ability to control or influence the environment (with which they can obtain the job security, success, recognition, and prestige that they value so highly). Consequently, they are rather unwilling to relinquish power, authority, or influence to subordinates. Doing so would undermine their ability to control or influence their own fulfillment on and through the job. *These tendencies, which also result from an unbalanced combination of task- and people-oriented motive levels, normally lead to the self-centered, power-oriented, self-assertive behavior that is also characteristic of the authoritarian style.*
- C. Very dominant, authoritarian, highly task-oriented behavior can also stem from relatively low levels of people-related capabilities. (It should be pointed out that low levels of these capabilities can be partly attributed to im-



balanced task- and people-related motives. When individuals' economic and practical-mindedness values are high but their people-oriented motive/attitudinal trait levels are low, they tend to perceive task-related capabilities as much more important than people-related capabilities. They are therefore inclined to develop and utilize their task-related capabilities to a greater extent.) When individuals' levels of people-related capabilities are relatively low (and they are not particularly motivated to apply them), they are more or less unable to obtain the people-related results that contribute so much to good, long-term task-related results. To obtain good task-related results, therefore, they must not only capitalize on their task-related capabilities, but must also resort to the use of their positional power or authority in order to get things done by their subordinates. As a result, they tend to value their position-based power or authority highly, and, therefore, use it readily.

- D. When individuals' levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are relatively low and their levels of task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are relatively high, they are inclined to regard people as tools or machines for performing only technical or functional tasks. When their levels of people-related capabilities are relatively low (particularly their levels of social insight, knowledge of HT,HP and "Y" concepts, and understanding of subordinates' characteristics and natures), they are more or less unable to recognize that their subordinates have developable potentials for being more self-directing and self-controlling. Being *both disinclined and unable* to regard subordinates' motives and capabilities in a more Theory Y than Theory X manner, they tend to plan, direct, and control subordinates' activities personally. They also tend to treat subordinates like machines—insensitively, impersonally, and caring only about their productivity and maintenance (with maintenance rather than motivator factors).
- E. When individuals' levels of task-related capabilities are relatively high, and when they value the use of these capabilities highly, they tend to be very confident of their ability to perform integrative functions personally (rather than participatively). This self-confidence contributes to their tendency to plan, direct, and control subordinates' activities. Also, high confidence in one's own capabilities—coupled with low confidence in subordinates' capabilities—leads to an "I'm more OK than my subordinates" attitude. This attitude largely underlies directive and controlling behavior.
- F. **Exhibit 2** (next page) shows that the "average male" is higher in economic and political values but lower in the social value than the "average female." (These differences

between male and female value systems are mostly a function of socialization or conditioning processes that traditionally have prepared males and females for different roles. Because increasingly larger numbers of females are adopting roles, attitudes, and behavior patterns traditionally associated with males, and because males are beginning to experiment with roles, attitudes, and behavior patterns traditionally associated with females, the differences shown in Exhibit 2, although still evident across the population as a whole, have begun to become less pronounced.)

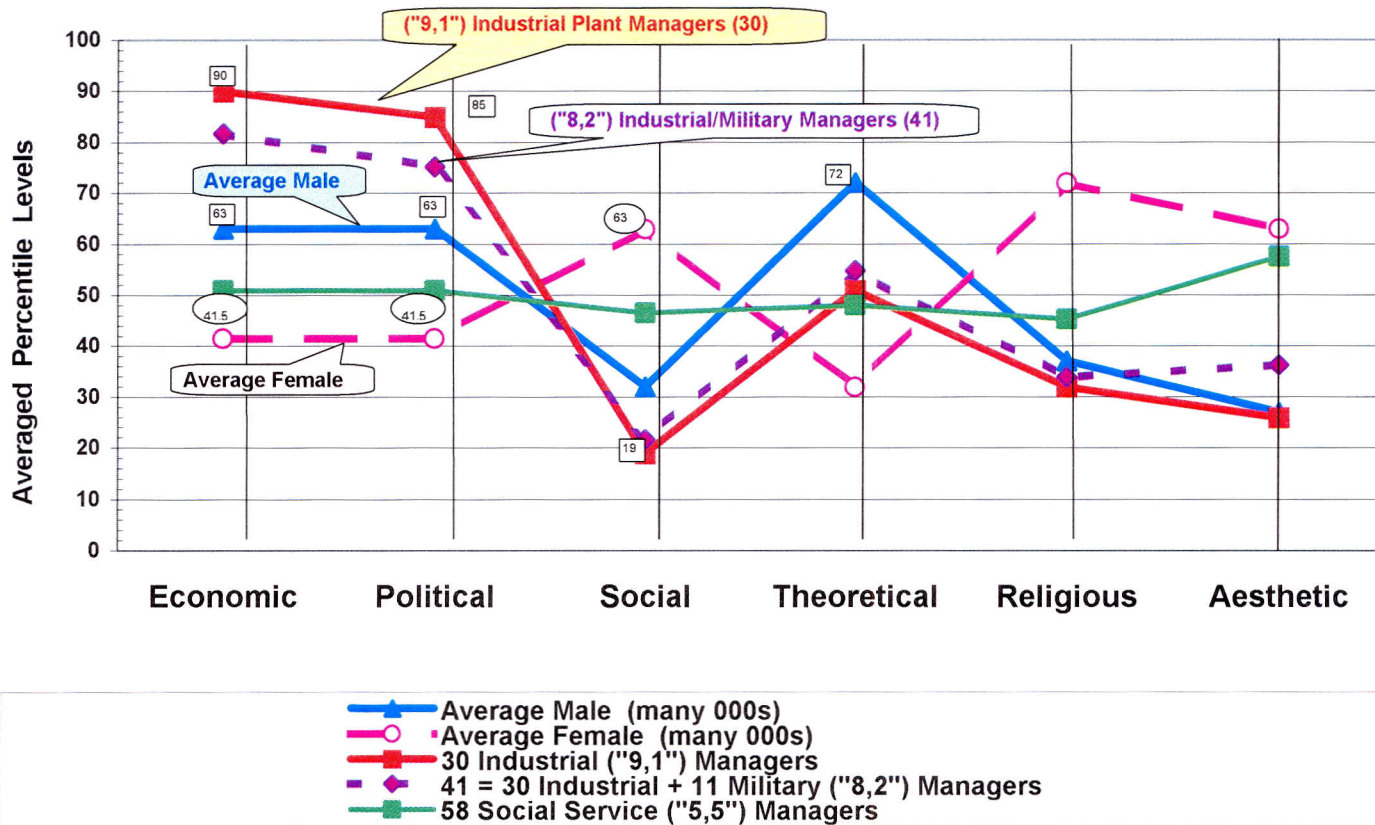
Exhibit 2 also shows that the "average HT,LP or X manager" is significantly higher in economic and political values and significantly lower in the social value than the "average male." (We should add that the average profile of military officers whom we have tested—using the *Study of Values* instrument—is almost identical to the average profile of the industrial plant managers whom we have tested.) *This indicates to us that the Theory X style is a very masculine ("macho") style.* Males in our society—particularly those in managerial or leadership positions where tasks at low levels of the organization are traditionally manual or physical and highly masculine—are conditioned to value economic and power-related matters very highly and to be self-confident, self-assertive, oriented toward career and financial success, competitive, insensitive, and emotionally undemonstrative (on the job, at least). Consequently, they (a) measure how OK they and others are in these terms, (b) constantly try to prove themselves to themselves and others in these terms, and (c) hesitate to share their managerial or leadership functions and power with subordinates (in large part so as not to jeopardize their masculine identities and reputations). These tendencies, we find, are very characteristic of Theory X, directive and controlling behavior.

### Susceptibility to External Influences

As one would expect, individuals having a "high task, low people" nature are very susceptible to Theory X-oriented external influences. In fact, their tendency toward X behavior is reinforced when (a) their subordinates' tasks are mechanistic; (b) their bosses' and colleagues' styles are Theory X; (c) the norms of social groups with which they either associate or have contact are X-related; (d) their organizations' structures are essentially mechanistic; and (e) outside forces or factors contribute to mechanistic organizational influences.

On the other hand, people-oriented influences (which involve greater emphasis on socially conscientious, selfless attitudes and behavior) do not alter these individuals' nature and style tendency appreciably—at least in the short term. Although this is partly due to their relatively low levels of people-related capabilities, it is mostly due to their relatively low levels of

Exhibit 2: A Comparison of Value Profiles



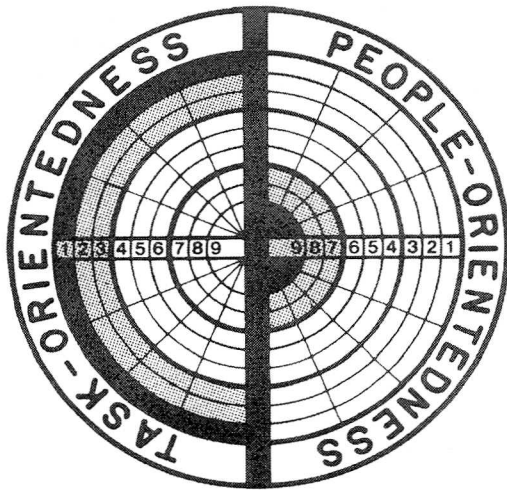
people-related motive/attitudinal traits. Indeed, the lower the levels of their key people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, the more difficult it is for them to develop (or for others to develop in them) more people-oriented motives, personality traits, attitudes, capabilities, and related behavior patterns.

In effect, we have just explained two phenomena that have been mentioned earlier. First, these individuals' relatively low levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are mostly responsible for the difficulty with which they adopt and develop highly people-oriented, Theory Y or HT,HP attitudes and behavior patterns. Although they may, for example, learn such concepts and practices, they will not be particularly inclined to accept them, use them, and habituate their use *unless* their levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are raised significantly. (Unfortunately, raising the levels of these traits can be very difficult even over the long term.) Second, rela-

tively low levels of these traits are also responsible for these individuals' adoption of a "softer Theory X mode" (vs. a "hard mode") when they are faced with permissive or middle-of-the-road influences on their natures, attitudes, and style tendencies.

We should add at this point that there are more managers and leaders who behave in an essentially Theory X or HT,LP manner than there are managers or leaders who have "high task, low people" natures. The reasons will become apparent when we discuss the susceptibility of those having "medium task, medium people" natures to various mechanistic or Theory X-related external influences.

**Figure 8: Permissive Tendencies:  
Underlying Levels of  
Task- and People-Orientedness**



### Permissive (1,9 or LT,HP) Tendencies

#### Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual will have a definite tendency to behave in a more or less permissive manner if (a) his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the “very low,” the “low,” or the “high low” range (ring 1, 2, or 3), and (b) his or her level of people-orientedness lies within the “very high,” the “high,” or the “low high” range (ring 9, 8, or 7). Nine combinations of these ranges or rings are possible. (See Figure 8.)

It should be apparent that an individual will have the greatest or most definite tendency to behave in a permissive manner if his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the very low range (ring 1, the 1st to 4th percentile range) and his or her level of people-orientedness lies within the very high range (ring 9, the 97th to 99th+ percentile range). It must be pointed out, however, that only a relative few “low task, high people” individuals are so low in task-orientedness, and, at the same time, so high in people-orientedness. Actually, this combination can be considered abnormal, because the levels of so many underlying characteristics would have to be abnormally low or abnormally high.

Naturally, as the level of task-orientedness increases and/or the level of people-orientedness decreases, the tendency to behave in a permissive manner decreases and the tendency to behave in another manner increases.

#### Brief Explanation of Permissive Tendencies in Terms of Various Underlying Personal Characteristics

It makes sense that low task-orientedness and high people-orientedness normally lead to permissive behavior (in the absence of contravening or modifying external influences) when the following relationships between specific characteristics and basic permissive attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

- A. When individuals have relatively high levels of social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, and social maturity (which largely underlie high people-orientedness) but have relatively low levels of economic and practical-mindedness values (which largely underlie low task-orientedness), they tend to value people-related results more highly than task-related results. They also tend to be more concerned about, and, therefore, do more about, their subordinates’ need fulfillment, comfort, and contentment than their productivity or performance. In other words, *when relatively high people-oriented motives are not tempered or balanced by relatively high task-oriented motives, permissive attitudes and behavior tend to result.*
- B. Even though relatively high levels of key people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits underlie a more selfless, people-oriented nature and style tendency, the permissive tendency is normally underlain by rather self-centered motive/attitudinal traits as well. We are referring to social needs, the concern for (interpersonal) recognition, and (interpersonally-oriented) ego needs, all of which tend to be relatively high in permissive individuals. While relatively high levels of these characteristics can indicate a somewhat insecure self-image or identity, they do indicate a concern for self-image-reinforcing relationships with people (rather than a concern for people). As a result, these individuals are inclined to be “nice guys or gals” for their own sakes as well as for the sakes of their subordinates. They are also inclined to measure their personal success and how OK they are in terms of how well their subordinates like them (rather than in terms of task-related results). These points largely explain why such individuals tend to behave toward subordinates in a manner that more or less says, “I’ll be nice to you and keep you contented so that you’ll like me and let me know I’m OK.”

What we have just said, in effect, is that relatively high levels of social needs, the concern for (interpersonal) recognition, and (interpersonally-oriented) ego needs are key indicators of a permissive tendency—even though these traits have not been designated as key people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits on the Target. Thus, when other characteristics' levels indicate a “low task, high people” nature, one should take special note of these traits, also.

- C. When individuals are relatively high in both selfless and self-centered people-related motive/attitudinal traits, but are relatively low in political and leadership values (which also largely underlie low task-orientedness), they tend not to be self-assertive (dominant) and not to exercise their positional power or authority. They also tend to be rather concerned about their subordinates' ability to control or at least influence their environment (so that they can fulfill their own needs and reach their own goals through their jobs). Consequently, they are much more willing (than people having “high task, low people” natures) to relinquish managerial responsibilities and authority to subordinates and let them plan, coordinate, and control their own activities. These tendencies, which also result from an unbalanced combination of motive levels, are characteristic of the permissive style.
- D. Unassertive, people-oriented, non-task-oriented behavior can also stem from relatively low levels of task-related capabilities. (It should be pointed out that low levels of these capabilities can be partly attributed to unbalanced levels of task- and people-related motives. When individuals' people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are significantly higher than their task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, they tend to perceive people-related capabilities as much more important than task-related capabilities. They are inclined, therefore, to develop and utilize their people-related capabilities to a greater extent.) When individuals' levels of task-related capabilities are relatively low (and they are not particularly motivated to use them), they must rely and capitalize on their people-related capabilities (particularly on their sociable personalities) to obtain good people-related results and acceptable task-related results. Consequently, they tend to value their personality-based influence, and, therefore, readily apply it in a non-directive manner.
- E. When individuals are relatively high in the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, and self-control, they are inclined to regard subordinates' motives, capabilities, and behavior in a very favorable, flattering, and tolerant manner. When their levels of people-related capabilities are also relatively high (particularly their social insight, knowledge of HT,HP or team con-

cepts, and understanding of subordinates' characteristics and behavior), they are able to recognize that subordinates are capable of greater self-direction and self-control. Being *both inclined and able* to regard subordinates' motives and capabilities with respect and confidence, such individuals tend to let their subordinates plan, direct, and control their own activities to a greater extent.

It should be pointed out, however, that permissive individuals are probably somewhat lower than HT,HP or “Y” individuals in special people-related capabilities such as social insight, knowledge of HT,HP or participative concepts and practices, and understanding of subordinates' characteristics and behavior. If this were not so, they would recognize that merely keeping subordinates comfortable and contented—and not emphasizing that they perform better both individually and as a team—does not fulfill them completely and does not fully unlock their inner motivation. In other words, when individuals are well above average but still not high enough in the special people-related capabilities just mentioned, they tend to form and act upon somewhat misled, superficial, and dysfunctional impressions regarding the natures of their subordinates. Consequently, their resulting permissive behavior cannot produce the people-oriented results that they believe it will produce.

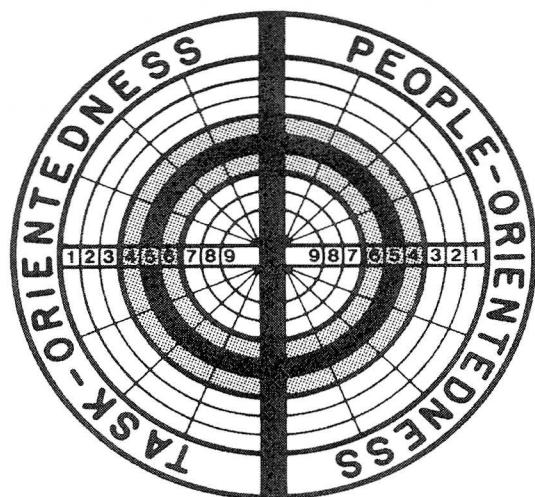
### Susceptibility to External Influences

Naturally, individuals having a very socially oriented “low task, high people” nature tend to be influenced by social factors (such as group norms and sanctions) more than by task-related, organizational, or (nonsocial) outside factors. Of course, their permissive natures and style tendencies are reinforced when (a) their bosses' and colleagues' styles are permissive; (b) the norms of social groups with which they either associate or have contact are permissive and associative; and (c) their organizations' structures are essentially permissive.

Because these individuals' levels of task-related capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits are relatively low, task-oriented influences that involve greater emphasis on task-related results do not alter their natures or style tendencies appreciably—at least in the short term. Indeed, the lower the levels of their key task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, the more difficult it is for them to develop (or for others to develop in them) more task-oriented motives, capabilities, personality traits, attitudes, and behavior patterns.

We should add that some individuals whose natures are not “low task, high people” also behave in a rather permissive manner. The reasons will become apparent when we discuss the susceptibility of individuals having “medium task, medium people” natures to various permissively-oriented external influences.

**Figure 9: Middle-Road Tendencies:  
Underlying Levels of  
Task- and People-Orientedness**



### Middle-Road (5,5 or MT,MP) Tendencies

#### Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual will have a definite tendency to behave in a more or less middle-of-the-road manner if (a) his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the “low average,” the “average or medium,” or the “high average” range (ring 4, 5, or 6), and (b) his or her level of people-orientedness lies within one of the same three ranges or rings. Nine combinations of these ranges or rings are possible. (See **Figure 9**.)

It should be apparent that an individual will have a tendency to be “right in the middle of the road” if his or her levels of task- and people-orientedness both lie within the “average or medium” range (ring 5, the 41st to 60th percentile range).

Naturally, as the levels of task- and people-orientedness either increase or decrease, the tendency to behave in a middle-road manner decreases and the tendency to behave in another manner increases.

#### Brief Explanation of Mid-Road Tendencies in Terms of Various Underlying Personal Characteristics

It makes sense that medium or average task- and people-orientedness normally lead to middle-of-the-road behavior (in

the absence of contravening or modifying external influences) when the following relationships between various characteristics and basic mid-road attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

- A. When individuals have medium or average levels of economic and practical-mindedness values (which largely underlie medium task-orientedness), and when these levels are tempered or balanced by medium or average levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, and self-control (which largely underlie medium people-orientedness), they tend to value both task- and people-related results to the same (medium) degree. They also tend to have and to demonstrate a medium level of concern for both their own and their subordinates' job security, need fulfillment, goal attainment, career success, and financial or material success. These tendencies are characteristic of the middle-of-the-road style.
- B. When individuals have average or medium levels of political and leadership values (which largely underlie medium task-orientedness), and when these levels are tempered or balanced by medium or average levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control, such individuals tend to be about medium in self-assertiveness and to exercise a medium degree of positional power or authority. They also tend to have a medium level of concern for their subordinates' ability to control or at least influence their environment (with which they can influence the fulfillment of their own needs and goals to some extent). Consequently, such individuals are inclined to let subordinates plan, direct, and control their own activities to some extent (to a greater extent than “X” individuals, but to a smaller extent than permissive individuals).
- C. When individuals' overall levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are average or medium and their overall levels of people-related capabilities lie within or close to the medium or average range, they are *both inclined and able* to regard subordinates' motives, capabilities, and behavior with a medium level of respect, tolerance, and confidence. As a result, they tend to let subordinates plan and control their activities to some extent. They also tend to produce good (but not the best) people-related results.
- D. When individuals' overall levels of task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are average or medium and their overall levels of task-related capabilities lie within or close to the average or medium range, they are *both inclined and able* to behave in a medium task-oriented manner and to obtain average (or perhaps slightly better-than-average) task-related results.



### Susceptibility to External Influences

Unlike individuals with a “high task, low people” nature (who are more susceptible than other types of individuals to “X” influences, but are not particularly susceptible to people-oriented influences), and unlike individuals with a “low task, high people” nature (who are more susceptible than other types of individuals to people-oriented influences, but are not particularly susceptible to task-oriented influences), individuals having a “medium task, medium people” nature are relatively more susceptible to all external influences. The following are several examples of the implications.

These individuals will tend to behave in a more *Theory X* than mid-road manner when most of the following circumstances exist: (a) their subordinates’ jobs are essentially mechanistic; (b) their bosses’ and colleagues’ styles are essentially authoritarian; (c) the norms of social groups with which they either associate or have contact are X-related; (d) their organizations’ structures are essentially mechanistic; and (e) outside factors or forces exert mechanistic influences. If these conditions persist over the long term, these individuals may develop a more “high task, low people” nature and style tendency.

“Medium task, medium people” individuals will tend to behave in a more *permissive* than mid-road manner when most of the following circumstances exist: (a) their subordinates’ jobs are very organic and their subordinates are highly capable and motivated; (b) their bosses’ and colleagues’ styles are permissive; (c) the norms of social groups with which they either associate or have contact are permissive and associative; (d) their organizations are essentially unstructured; and (e) outside forces or factors do not exert mechanistic influences. If these conditions persist over the long term, these individuals may develop a more “low task, high people” nature and style tendency.

“Medium task, medium people” individuals can also behave in a more *nonmanagerial* than mid-road manner if one or more of the following circumstances exist: (a) they have been assigned and are simply waiting out particularly insignificant, frustrating, dissatisfying, or otherwise unfulfilling jobs; (b) their superiors have consistently thwarted their initiative and best efforts, causing them to adopt a “what’s the use” attitude; (c) they have been passed over for promotion several times, causing them to give up trying to do a good job; and/or (d) they are nearing retirement and do not want to “rock the boat.” Such circumstances can occur in organizations that are dominated by Theory X individuals. If these circumstances should change for any reason, “medium task, medium people” individuals would tend to adapt to the new set of circumstances.

Fortunately for themselves and their organizations, *mid-road managers have a better chance of developing a “high task, high people” nature and style tendency than either “high task, low people,” “low task, high people,” or “low task, low people” individuals.* Such development can occur when most of the following conditions exist: (a) their subordinates’ jobs are essentially organic (or are being enriched significantly); (b) their bosses’ and colleagues’ styles are HT,HP or “synergistic” (or their bosses and colleagues are earnestly developing HT, HP-related characteristics, attitudes, and behavior patterns); (c) the norms of social groups with which they either associate or have contact are “Y-” or team-oriented (or are becoming more Y- or team-oriented through team development); (d) their organizations’ structures are essentially organic (or are becoming more team-oriented through a systematic, top-down approach to organizational development); and (e) outside forces or factors exert organic rather than mechanistic types of influences (or mechanistic influences are being dealt with in a more organic manner).

### Nomanagerial (1,1 or LT,LP) Tendencies

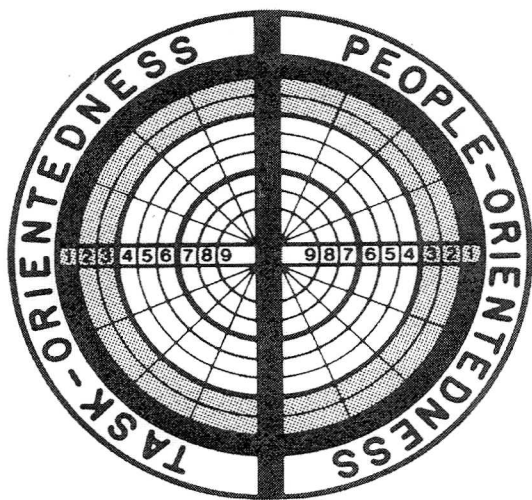
#### Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual will have a definite tendency to behave in a more or less nonmanagerial manner if (a) his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the “very low,” the “low,” or the “high low” range (ring 1, 2, or 3), and (b) his or her level of people-orientedness lies within one of the same three ranges or rings. Nine combinations of these ranges or rings are possible. (See **Figure 10**.)

It should be apparent that an individual will have the greatest or most definite tendency to behave in a nonmanagerial manner if his or her levels of task- and people-orientedness both lie within the “very low” range (ring 1, the 1st to 4th percentile range). It must be pointed out, however, that only a very few “low task, low people” are so low in both task- and people-orientedness (are “very low task, very low people”). Indeed, it is extremely rare to find any adult who is so low in so many task- and people-related characteristics.

As a matter of fact, relatively few adults are “low task, low people” *by nature*. The explanation primarily involves underlying motives. To be “low task, low people” by nature, a person would have to be relatively low in key task-related motives (such as the economic, political, and leadership values) *and* in key people-related motives (such as the social and benevo-

**Figure 10: Nonmanagerial Tendencies:  
Underlying Levels of  
Task- and People-Orientedness**



lence values). This combination of motive levels, however, is very unusual to say the least. Negative or reverse correlations generally exist between the economic, political, and leadership values (on the one hand) and the social and benevolence values (on the other hand). In other words, most people's economic, political, and leadership values tend to be relatively low when their social and benevolence values are relatively high—and their social and benevolence values tend to be relatively low when their economic, political, and leadership values are relatively high. This means that it is very unusual (if not virtually impossible) to find any individual who is relatively low in *all five* important task-and people-related motives, and who, therefore, can be “low task, low people” *by nature*.

Who, then, is by nature the “low task, low people” individual? In our opinion, he or she may be the highly intellectual and/or aesthetic (artistic) person whose high intellectual and/or aesthetic values are offset by relatively low economic, political, and social values.

Naturally, as an individual's levels of task-and people-orientedness increase, the tendency to behave in a nonmanagerial manner decreases and the tendency to behave in another manner increases.

**Brief Explanation of Nonmanagerial Tendencies  
in Terms of Various  
Underlying Personal Characteristics**

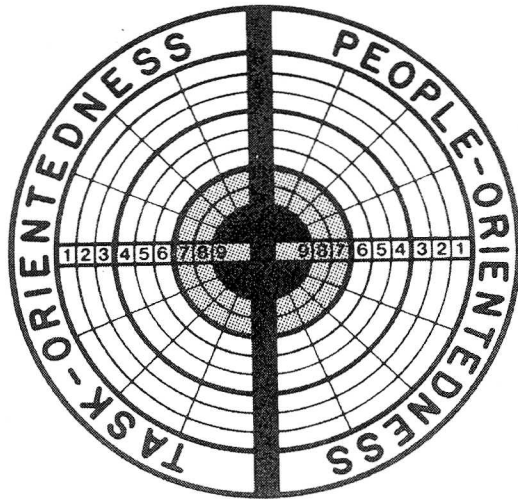
It makes sense that low task- and people-orientedness lead to nonmanagerial behavior (in the absence of contravening or modifying external influences) when the following relationships between various characteristics and certain nonmanagerial attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

- A. When individuals have relatively low levels of economic and practical-mindedness values (which largely underlie low task-orientedness) and also have relatively low levels of social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, social maturity, and sociability (which largely underlie low people-orientedness), they tend to demonstrate very little concern for either task-or people-related results.
- B. When individuals have relatively low levels of political and leadership values (which also largely underlie low task-orientedness), they tend to exercise very little positional power or authority.
- C. When individuals' overall levels of task- and people-related motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities are all relatively low, they tend to be *both disinclined and unable* to function satisfactorily in a managerial or leadership position.

This being the case, very few “low task, low people” individuals are ever considered for managerial or leadership positions. Even fewer are ever placed in such positions. Most nonmanagers, therefore, are what we call *Type 1*. These are the managers who are actually higher in task- and/or people-orientedness by nature, but who have become nonmanagers for the reasons mentioned earlier: (a) they are waiting out unfulfilling jobs; (b) their initiative and best efforts have been thwarted by superiors and they have adopted a “what's the use” attitude; (c) they have been passed over for promotion several times and have given up trying to do a good job; and/ or (d) they are nearing retirement and do not want to “rock the boat.” *Type 2* non-managers, on the other hand, are those who are nonmanagerial *by nature*.

We would, however, point out the following: The closer individuals are to a “low task, low people” nature (and the smaller the effort being made to develop and unleash their potentials), the greater the probability that they will (a) be assigned the least desirable, most unfulfilling jobs; (b) be passed over for promotion; and (c) be directed and controlled by most superiors. In other words, the circumstances that lead to nonmanagerial behavior can be partly attributed to the nature of an individual—at least in some cases.

**Figure 11: HT,HP or Team/Participative Tendencies: Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness**



### Susceptibility to External Influences

Being relatively low in most personal characteristics, “low task, low people” individuals tend to lack self-confidence, be submissive, and be susceptible to strong task- and people-related influences. This can be especially true if, for one reason or another, they do not want to “rock the boat.” Nevertheless, the degree to which they will actually behave in a more task- and/or people-oriented manner is greatly limited by their low levels of task- and people-related motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities.

We should add that, of all types of individuals, we would expect Type 2 nonmanagers to experience as much if not more difficulty developing the higher levels of motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities that underlie tendencies toward more task- and people-oriented behavior.

### High Task, High People (9,9 / Team) Tendencies

#### Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

An individual will have a definite tendency to behave in a more or less HT/HP, team, participative, or “Y” manner if (a)

his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the “low high,” the “high,” or the “very high” range (ring 7, 8, or 9), and (b) his or her level of people-orientedness lies within one of the same three ranges. Nine combinations of these ranges or rings are possible. (See Figure 11.)

While possible, all nine combinations are not particularly probable. Some, however, are more probable than others. Combinations involving higher task-orientedness than people-orientedness—or vice versa—are more probable than combinations involving equally high levels of task- and people-orientedness. Combinations involving lower levels of task- and people-orientedness are more probable than combinations involving higher levels of task- and people-orientedness. The least probable of all nine combinations is the “*very high* task, *very high* people” combination. Being this high in both task- and people-orientedness would mean being very high in almost all Target traits. This is virtually impossible. In fact, being very high in certain traits is generally considered to be dysfunctional if not undesirable.

The following six points explain the statements made above.

**First:** No individual is—or can be—a “perfect” manager or leader.

**Second:** If it is essentially true that one level of basic needs must be regularly and adequately satisfied before the next higher level can become an intense motivator of behavior, and if it is true that satisfied needs diminish in motivational intensity, then it is virtually impossible for an individual to be very high in social, ego, and self-actualization needs at the same time.

**Third:** Being very high in a personality trait is generally associated with compulsive, abnormal, dysfunctional, undesirable behavior. For example: Very high *self-confidence* is associated with a disinclination and inability to recognize that one is not perfect and that there is room for self-improvement. It is also associated with cockiness and arrogance. Being very *vigorous* is associated to some extent with a lack of self-control and frenetic activity. Very high *sociability* (extreme social extroversion) is often perceived by others as insincere, untrustworthy behavior. A very high level of *dominance* is associated with overly aggressive, unrestrained, socially unconscientious, domineering behavior. Very high *social conscientiousness* is sometimes associated with compulsive unselfishness—or what some have called a “martyr complex.” Very high *responsibility* is associated with compulsively “keeping one’s nose to the grindstone” (being a “workaholic”). Very high *social conscientiousness and responsibility* are associated with being irritated by, critical, intolerant, and suspicious of, and antagonistic toward others (especially when these levels are not balanced by a fairly high level of adaptability). Very high *adaptability*



(flexibility) is associated with inconstancy of purpose and vacillation. Very high *original thinking* is often associated with indecisiveness and impracticality. Very high *emotional stability* and *self-control* are often associated with a very dull personality and lifestyle.

For most if not all personality traits, then, it is “better” (more functional) to be “relatively high” than to be “very high.”

It should be pointed out, however, that being relatively high by nature in some personality traits tends to be more or less incompatible with being relatively high by nature in others. For example: According to those who gather statistical data on the existence of either positive or negative correlations between traits, a *negative or reverse correlation* tends to exist between self-control and traits such as vigor, dominance, and sociability (at least in most people). (This means that when self-control is high, the other traits tend to be relatively low—and when self-control is low, the other traits tend to be relatively high.) Data also indicates that, in most people, a *positive correlation* tends to exist between self-control and traits such as social conscientiousness and responsibility. (This means that when self-control is high, the other traits’ levels also tend to be high—and when self-control is low, the other traits’ levels also tend to be relatively low.) Thus, if self-control is relatively high, then vigor, dominance, and sociability are likely to be relatively low, while social conscientiousness and responsibility are likely to be relatively high.

**Fourth:** As in the cases of certain personality traits, relatively high levels of certain “valued matters” tend to be more or less incompatible and improbable. For example: A *negative or reverse correlation* exists between the social value (a selfless value that has a positive correlation with benevolence) and the economic and political values (self-centered motives that have a mutual positive correlation and also have positive correlations with practical-mindedness and leadership values respectively). In other words, when the social value is relatively high, the economic and political values (each) tend to be relatively low—and when the economic and political values are relatively high, the social value tends to be relatively low.

These correlations are substantiated rather well by the value profiles in Exhibit 2 on page 32. Note, for example, that the average male’s higher economic and political values are partly “offset” by a lower social value, while the average female’s higher social value is partly “offset” by lower economic and political values. Note especially that the “average Theory X manager’s” exceptionally high economic and political values are largely “offset” by an exceptionally low social value.

Exhibit 2 and the Intercorrelation Table in the Supplementary Manual indicate the following: Relatively high levels of all three values (economic, political, and social values, which

are weighted heavily on the Target)—and other values with which they have positive correlations and are also weighted heavily on the Target—are not likely to be found in any individual. This means that, as stated earlier, very few individuals are likely to be “relatively high task, relatively high people” by nature, and that very few if any individuals will be (or can be) “very high task, very high people” managers by nature. It also means that combinations of task- and people-orientedness involving equally high levels of both are much less likely than combinations involving higher task-orientedness than people-orientedness—or vice versa.

**Fifth:** It is very difficult for an individual to acquire or develop very high levels of specialized skills. It is even more difficult for an individual to acquire all the knowledge necessary to be very high in just one knowledge factor on the Target.

**Sixth:** Whereas self-centered ego needs can be tempered by self-awareness, self-control, and worthwhile, socially-oriented motives, few if any human beings can constantly keep them under control. Thus, these needs often lead most individuals to believe that they are more capable than their subordinates and just as capable as their superiors, even though these beliefs may not be true. Also, when confronted by the conflicts that constantly occur between their own and others’ egos and wills, individuals tend to protect and strengthen their own egos when they are threatened (unless they have what some have called the “martyr complex”). Equally important, people’s egos stand in the way of personal development and improvement. Their egos are mostly responsible for their saying to themselves, “I’m OK the way I am and don’t really need or want to change.” In fact, in all of our experience working with people in the areas of personal and managerial development, *people’s egos have seemed to be the most significant obstacles to improvement*. This has been especially true of Theory X managers and others who tend to be relatively low in self-awareness, adaptability, and self-honesty.

These human frailties prevent individuals from becoming “perfect persons.” They also prevent them from becoming ideal managers and leaders.

Given the six points raised above, one more important point must be made. By explaining why it is virtually impossible to be a “very high task, very high people” individual—and why it is rather improbable even to be a “relatively high task, relatively high people” individual—we do not mean to suggest that it is useless to strive for “perfection.” On the contrary. In fact, the point we wish to emphasize here is that everyone can stand some improvement. The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> provides a bulls-eye at which to aim.

**Our prescription:** *Individuals should aim at developing very high levels of basic abilities, specialized abilities, and*

*job-related knowledge factors, but should aim at developing “relatively high” (certainly “above average”) rather than “very high” levels of task- and people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits.*

Always striving to improve the capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits that underlie tendencies toward “high task, high people” attitudes and behavior is the mark of a top-notch manager or leader. It is also the mark of a top-notch organization.

### **Brief Explanation of HT,HP Tendencies in Terms of Various Underlying Personal Characteristics**

It makes sense that relatively high task- and people-orientedness lead to HT,HP behavior (in the absence of contravening or modifying external influences) when the following relationships between various characteristics and basic HT,HP attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

- A. When individuals *are* above average to relatively high in the economic and practical-mindedness values, and the associated tendencies *are* balanced or tempered by above average to relatively high levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control, they tend to be rather highly concerned about both task- and people-related results. They also tend to demonstrate concern for both their own and their subordinates’ job security, need and goal fulfillment, career success, and financial or material success.
- B. When individuals *are* above average to relatively high in the political and leadership values, and the associated tendencies *are* balanced or tempered by above average to relatively high levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control, they tend to accept but not to rely on their position-based power or authority. Rather than valuing and exercising their positional power or authority, they value, earn, and exercise *benevolent influence* (conscientiously applied personal influence that is earned by demonstrating expertise, competence, trustworthiness, and concern and respect for subordinates). Rather than making subordinates feel powerless and incompetent by manipulating, directing, and controlling them, they guide subordinates’ participation in integrative matters, giving them opportunities to influence the fulfillment of their own needs and goals. These behavior patterns are characteristic of a mature team player—the HT,HP manager or leader.
- C. When individuals’ levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are above average to relatively high, they are inclined to feel warmly toward and to empathize with

their subordinates. They are also inclined to regard subordinates’ natures and behavior with favor, fairness, respect, and confidence (rather than with irritation, suspicion, criticism, or antagonism). Also, when their levels of people-related capabilities are high (particularly their levels of social insight, adaptability, knowledge of HT,HP concepts and team, participative/developmental practices, and understanding of subordinates’ characteristics), they are able to recognize that their subordinates possess inner motivation that can be released and potentials that can be developed and utilized. They are also able to recognize that people-related results contribute significantly to task-related results, and vice versa. Being *both inclined and able* to regard subordinates in a Theory Y manner, they tend to *work with their subordinates in an understanding, sensitive, congenial, participative, developmental manner, always emphasizing their development, performance, and satisfaction.*

- D. Equally high emphasis on both task- and people-related results—and benevolent guidance of subordinates’ participation in integrative activities—are also due to the combined influences of high levels of task- and people-related capabilities. (It should be pointed out that high levels of both sets of capabilities can be partly attributed to above average to relatively high levels of both task- and people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits. When both sets of motive/attitudinal traits are above average to relatively high, individuals tend to perceive both task- and people-related capabilities as being important. They are therefore inclined to develop and utilize both to a relatively high degree.)

When individuals’ levels of task- and people-related capabilities are relatively high, and they value and are motivated to use all their capabilities, there are at least three significant influences on their behavior.

First: They tend to be very confident of their ability to obtain excellent task- and people-related results. In some individuals this might lead to an inflated, unrealistic self-image and a tendency to be directive and controlling. In “high task, high people” individuals, however, this is much less likely to occur. Certainly they have dignity, self-respect, and self-confidence. But because their relatively high levels of adaptability, self-control, other capabilities that contribute to honest self-awareness, and capabilities that enable sensitivity to others’ needs and feelings, they maintain a healthy, realistic self-image and keep their egos under control. They are aware of their weaknesses, but are neither overly self-effacing nor ego-defensive. They recognize that even though they are OK, they can always improve themselves. They are not insecure and do not have to prove themselves constantly to themselves and to others. They are not so intent on protecting and strengthening their own self-images that they are unaware of the needs, ideas, and feel-

ings of others. Enabling others to fulfill their needs and goals contributes to the fulfillment of these individuals' own needs. Consequently, their egos are not threatened if they share their influence and integrative responsibilities with subordinates. On the contrary. Self-confidence and a healthy self-image enable them to be team players and to guide rather than direct and control subordinates.

**Second:** They are both inclined and able to recognize and compensate for any "natural incompatibilities" that may exist between their levels of certain characteristics. For example: First they will exercise the self-control necessary to guide participative formulation of a task- and people-oriented course of action, and then they will "shift gears" and guide activities vigorously, assertively, conscientiously, and congenially.

**Third:** They are able to obtain excellent task-and people-related results without having to be directive and controlling. This not only reinforces their motivation to continue emphasizing both types of results, but it also contributes to and reinforces their reliance on benevolent influence rather than on positional power or authority.

In short, "relatively high task, relatively high people" individuals are *both motivated and able* to be team players, team builders, developers, thinkers, and communicators. As we said earlier, *they care enough and are capable enough to develop the best, to provide the best, and to expect the best. As a result, they obtain the best in terms of task-and people-related results.*

### Susceptibility to External Influences

As could be expected, "high task, high people" individuals' nature and style tendency are developed and reinforced by external influences such as HT,HP styles of superiors and colleagues, team-oriented norms of social groups, an organic organizational structure, a participative, developmental organizational atmosphere, and outside factors or forces that exert more organic than mechanistic influences on jobs of subordinates, colleagues, and superiors.

If, on the other hand, external factors exert influences in the directions of other styles, it can be somewhat more difficult for these individuals to behave in a participative, developmental, "high task, high people" manner. Even so, since they have above average to relatively high levels of both task-and people-related characteristics, they are more inclined and able to recognize and cope with adverse or contravening influences than are other types of managers.

## **Phase 6: Determining What The Managerial Target® Indicates About an Individual's Overall Level of Managerial or Leadership Effectiveness**

Before we proceed with a discussion that will help Target users to understand, assess, explain, or predict an individual's managerial or leadership effectiveness, several points should be stated clearly.

*The Managerial Target® does not account for external influences on an individual's managerial or leadership effectiveness—at least not explicitly. What it indicates, essentially, is an individual's tendency toward a particular level of effectiveness in the absence of contravening or modifying external influences. Because it does not indicate whether this tendency is reinforced, altered, or overridden by external influences, it does not necessarily prove that the individual is performing or will perform at the level indicated. Therefore, to understand, assess, explain, or predict an individual's effectiveness appropriately, one must also consider the external influences to which that person is being or will be subjected.*

As one would expect, an individual's level of task-orientedness largely influences his or her task-related results. Similarly, an individual's level of people-orientedness largely influences his or her people-related results. Thus, one might assert the following: (a) the task-related results an individual obtains are due to that individual's "task-related effectiveness," which in turn is a function of his or her level of task-orientedness; and (b) the people-related results an individual obtains are due to that individual's "people-related effectiveness," which in turn is a function of his or her level of people-orientedness. But is it really appropriate to talk in terms of task- and people-related effectiveness? We think not.

As discussed in the booklet on *Managerial and Leadership Behavior* (and Chapter 8 of *N-GMD*), task-related results (subordinates' performance and development) and people-related results (subordinates' satisfaction and development) are inter-related and interdependent. Task-related results are influenced by people-related results; and people-related results are influenced by task-related results. This means that . . .

- a. *an individual's task-related results cannot be wholly attributed to his or her level of task-orientedness; they must also be partly attributed to his or her level of people-orientedness; and*
- b. *an individual's people-related results cannot be wholly attributed to his or her level of people-orientedness; they must also be partly attributed to his or her level of task-orientedness.*

In view of this, we think it a bit pointless—although possible and useful—to think in terms of “task-related effectiveness” and “people-related effectiveness.” In our judgment, it is more appropriate to think in terms of *overall managerial or leadership effectiveness* and to relate an individual’s levels of task- and people-orientedness directly to overall effectiveness.

Assessing, explaining, or predicting an individual’s level of managerial or leadership effectiveness in terms of personal characteristics is essentially a matter of averaging that individual’s levels of task- and people-orientedness. Before outlining the simple Target-based procedure, however, we should describe how we arrived at the weighting system we currently use. To do this, we will discuss several alternative weighting systems and explain why we found the first two to be unacceptable.

### The “Traditional Weighting System”

The weights that can be given to task-orientedness and people-orientedness largely depend upon the definitions of “management” and “managerial effectiveness” that can be used.

If we were to accept the traditional (authoritarian) definition of management, then we might define an effective manager as “one who gets high performance or productivity out of people.” Using this working definition of an effective manager, we would be inclined to place total emphasis on productivity and disregard people completely. Thus, we would give task-orientedness a weight of “1” and people-orientedness a weight of “0.” But in view of all our previous discussion, we obviously found this weighting system to be completely unacceptable.

### A “More Modern” Weighting System

If we were to accept a more modern definition of management, we might define an effective manager as “one who gets tasks accomplished efficiently and effectively *through* people.” Using this working definition of an effective manager, we might express the following views.

A. People are in organizations to perform purposeful work—preferably fulfilling work. A manager’s or leader’s main objective, therefore, is to get tasks accomplished efficiently and effectively. His or her second objective is to accomplish the first objective in a manner that benefits subordinates as well as the organization. In other words, task-related results—and therefore task-orientedness—must be emphasized most highly, but this emphasis must be tempered and supported by a “substantial” emphasis on people-related results—and therefore people-orientedness.

B. Take, for example, HT,HP/team and Theory X managers. HT,HP managers are the most effective of all types of managers. They obtain excellent task- and people-related results in both the short term and the long term because they are highly task- and people-oriented. Theory X managers, on the other hand, get very good task-related results in the short term because they are highly task-oriented. But since they are not particularly people-oriented, they get poor people-related results in both the short and the long term. While this “constrains” their task-related results and overall managerial effectiveness in the short term, it significantly undermines their task-related results and reduces their overall managerial effectiveness over the long term. By comparing team/participative and Theory X managers in these respects, it becomes apparent that high managerial effectiveness in both the short and the long term requires high task-orientedness—but high task-orientedness tempered and supported with “substantial” people-orientedness.

These views could lead us to the following conclusions:

- A. Task-orientedness is the primary input to overall managerial or leadership effectiveness in both the short and the long term, even though people-orientedness is virtually as important because it tempers and supports task-orientedness.
- B. In the short term, particular individuals’ levels of managerial effectiveness will be closer to their levels of task-orientedness than to their levels of people-orientedness. In the long term, their levels of effectiveness will remain about the same as in the short term *if* their levels of people-orientedness more or less equal their levels of task-orientedness. However, if their levels of people-orientedness are lower than their levels of task-orientedness, their levels of long-term managerial effectiveness will tend to be at least one level lower than their short-term levels.

If we were to accept these views and conclusions, we would probably be inclined to assign a weight factor of 2 to the level of task-orientedness and a weight factor of 1 to the level of people-orientedness (a 2:1 ratio). Using “T” for the level of task-orientedness and “P” for the level of people-orientedness, the resulting formula would look like this:

$$\frac{(2T + P)}{3} = \text{(Short-Term) Level of Managerial or Leadership Effectiveness}$$

Given the above formula, the five distinctive types of managers would have the following “managerial effectiveness scores” (on a 9-point scale):

9,9 (HT,HP; Team; Synergistic)	9.0
9,1 (Authoritarian)	6.3
5,5 (Mid-Road; Consultive)	5.0
1,9 (Permissive)	3.7
1,1 (Nonmanager)	1.0

To estimate long-term effectiveness, one would subtract one level (or more) from the short-term level. For example: The 9,1 manager would score a 6.3 in the short term, but would probably tend to score a 5.3 (or lower) over the long term.

### Our Present Weighting System

At first, the above weighting system might seem to make sense. This is largely because the resulting scores appear to be “in the ball park.” However, it is obviously incompatible with what we have been saying about the *virtually equal importance of both task- and people-orientedness with respect to managerial effectiveness*. Task-orientedness only seems to be more important when one accepts the “more modern” definition of effective management (“getting tasks accomplished through people”).

Recognizing this, we concluded that the “more modern” definition may no longer be up-to-date and relevant enough to be satisfactory. Thus, we decided to adopt what we consider to be a more appropriate definition: *An effective manager or leader is one who, being both motivated and able to do so, maximizes subordinates’ short- and long-term performance, development, and satisfaction to the extent permitted by uncontrollable factors operating within and upon the organizational environment.* This definition encompasses (a) the spirit and intent of Theory Y, (b) the three major aspects of Raymond Miles’ Human Resources Approach, and (c) time considerations. It also contains an important proviso. *It acknowledges that even the most motivated and capable, most highly task- and people-oriented manager or leader cannot maximize subordinates’ performance, development, and satisfaction if organizational factors such as bosses’ and colleagues’ styles, the organization’s information and control systems, social pressures within the organization, and other external factors prevent him or her from doing so. In other words, the efforts of a potentially effective manager or leader can be thwarted by various factors beyond his or her control, thereby rendering the him or her somewhat ineffective.* (This is a major point in the case for developing an entire organization and management team in a systematic manner.)

Based on the definition we have adopted, which implicitly

gives task- and people-orientedness equal emphasis, and, therefore, equal weights, the obvious formula for determining overall managerial effectiveness is:

$$\frac{T+P}{2} = \text{(Short-Term) Level of Managerial or Leadership Effectiveness}$$

Given this formula, the five distinctive types of managers would have the following “managerial effectiveness scores” (on a 9-point scale):

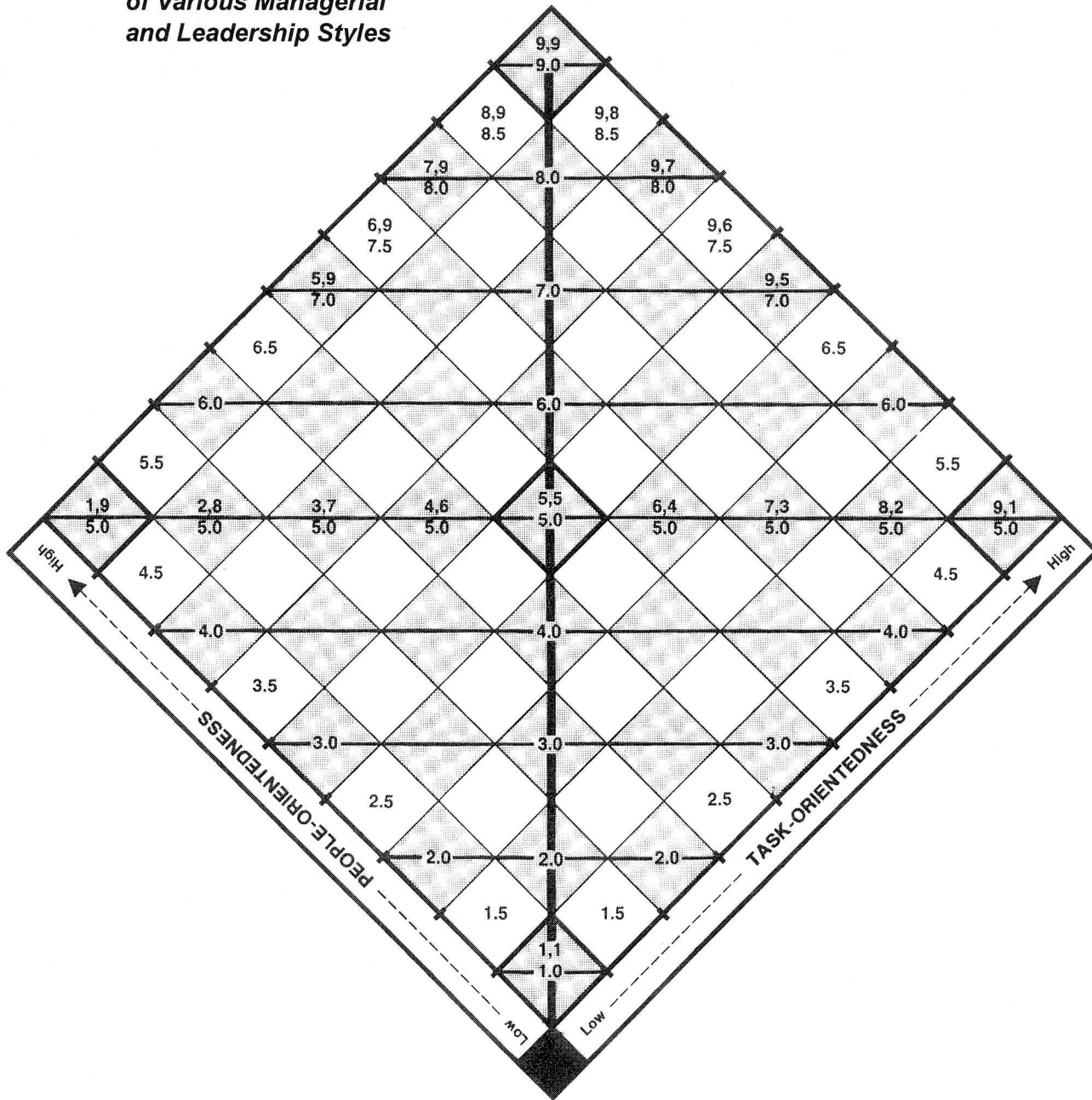
9,9 (HT,HP; Team; Synergistic)	9.0
9,1 (Theory X; Authoritarian)	5.0
5,5 (Mid-Road; Consultive)	5.0
1,9 (Permissive)	5.0
1,1 (Nonmanager)	1.0

At first glance, the 9,1 manager’s score might not seem to give enough credit for task-related results; and the permissive manager’s score might seem to give too much credit for people-related results. Nevertheless, we adopted this formula *in principle* when we considered two points. First, the 9,1 and 1,9 managers’ scores look out of line only when they are compared with the scores obtained using the weighting system derived from the “more modern” definition of effective management. Second, **Figure 12** puts the 9,1 and 1,9 scores in their proper perspective by indicating the scores of various styles.

Figure 12 (next page) is an adaptation of Blake and Mouton’s nine-level grid design. To derive the figure, we have rotated a grid 45 degrees counterclockwise. The vertical line from the 1,1 style (1.0 effectiveness) to the 9,9 style (9.0 effectiveness) constitutes the “managerial effectiveness scale.” Several styles (combinations of levels of task- and people- orientedness) have been included on the figure as reference points (the 1,1 style; the 5,5 style; the 9,1 style; the 1,9 style; the 2,8 and 8,2 styles; the 3,7 and 7,3 styles; the 4,6 and 6,4 styles; the 9,5 and 5,9 styles; the 9,6 and 6,9 styles; the 9,7 and 7,9 styles; and the 9,8 and 8,9 styles). Note that all the “diamonds” on a particular horizontal line represent the same managerial effectiveness score. (Horizontal lines have been drawn through the shaded “diamonds,” but not the unshaded “diamonds.”) Also note how the scores increase from the 9,1 and 1,9 positions as individuals increase in their levels of task- and people-orientedness.

Before actually adopting the above formula, however, we experimented with several variations on it. While these formulas were more complex and represented an attempt to arrive at a formula in a somewhat more scientific manner, they all produced approximately the same results.

**Figure 12: Comparison of Overall Effectiveness of Various Managerial and Leadership Styles**



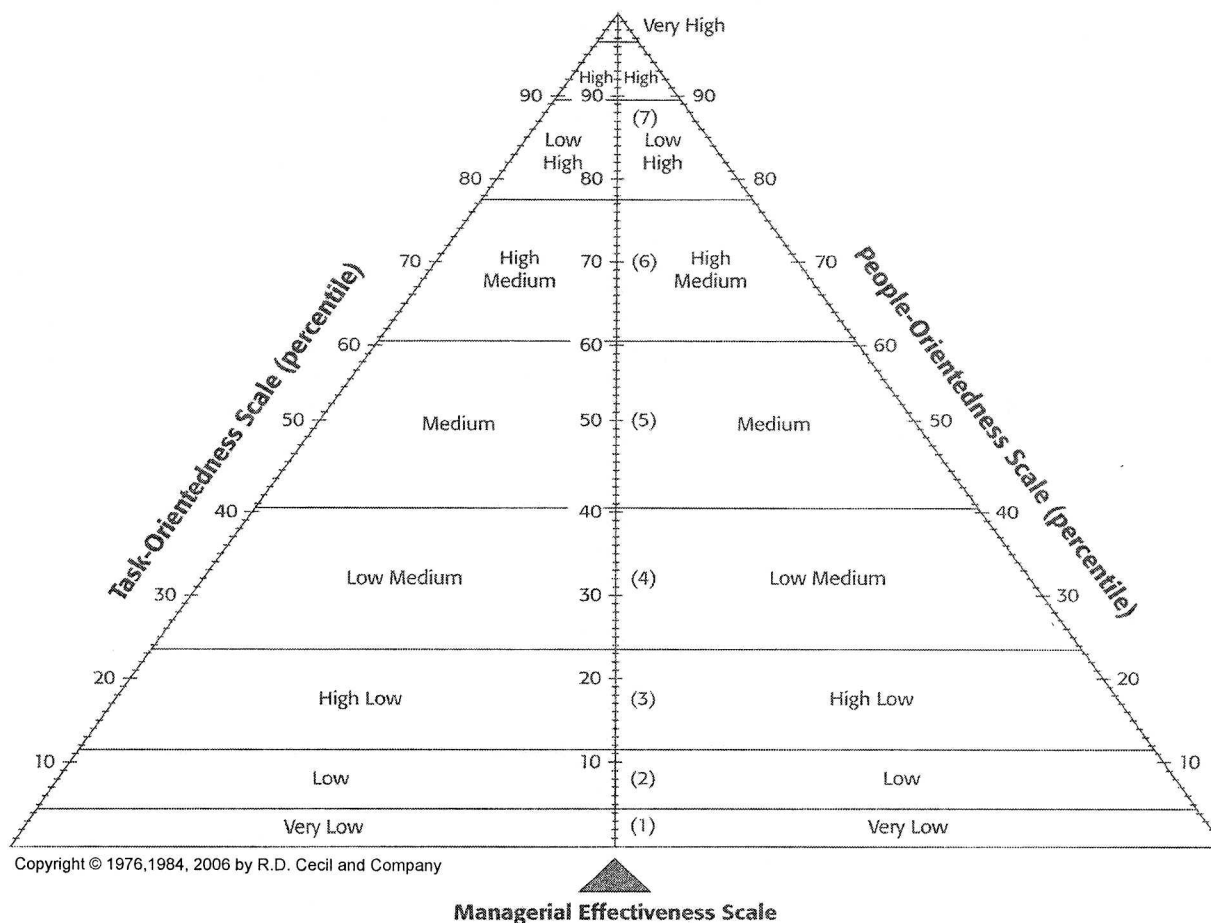
We finally decided to adopt the first formula for several reasons: First, it is straightforward and easy to understand. Second, it acknowledges that task-related results influence and are related to people-related results—and vice versa. Third, it gives equal emphasis to both task-orientedness and people-orientedness. Fourth, it acknowledges that a truly effective manager must maximize performance, development, and satisfaction—not just productivity through people. And fifth, the results it produces make sense within the context of Figure 12.

**Interpretive Procedure**

Our procedure for assessing, explaining, or predicting an individual's tendency toward a particular level of managerial or leadership effectiveness involves the use of **Figure 13** (on the next page).

To understand how Figure 13 has been derived, imagine placing The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> flat on a table with the bot-

**Figure 13: Target-Based Indicator of an Individual's Tendency Toward a Particular Level of Overall Managerial or Leadership Effectiveness**



the bottom of the Target toward you. Then, imagine raising it by the center into a conical shape (much like raising the center of a round tent). Next, imagine suspending a plumb line from the apex of the cone to the bottom. Now, if you were to view the raised Target from the edge of the table, it would appear to be a two-dimensional, nine-level pyramid—Figure 13. On the left side is the task-orientedness scale, which previously went from “very low” on the outside of the Target to “very high” in the center, but now goes from “very low” at the bottom of the pyramid to “very high” at the top. On the right side is the people-orientedness scale, which has been transposed and graduated in the same manner. The plumb line appears as the middle scale—the scale for indicating an individual’s tendency toward a particular level of managerial or leadership effectiveness. It, too, goes from “very low” at the bottom to “very high” at the top. (Implicit in this Target-based model is the premise that the influences of motive/attitudinal traits on managerial effectiveness are about twice as important as the influences of

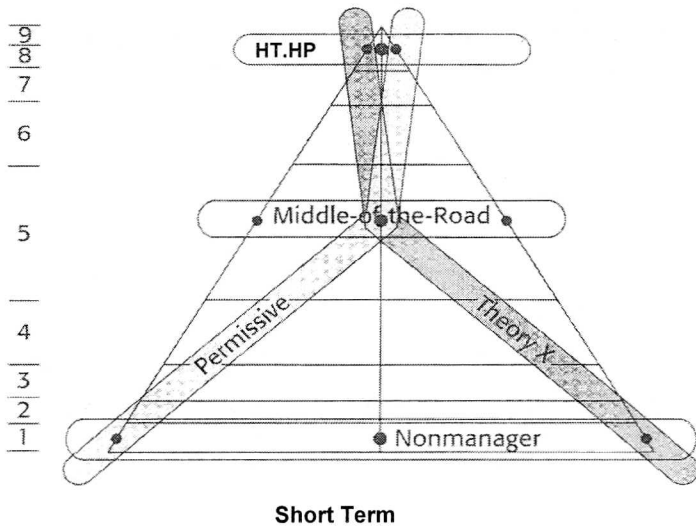
capabilities, just as their influences on managerial style tendencies are about twice as important.)

**Step 1:** Indicate the individual’s level of task-orientedness on Figure 13 by putting a large dot on the left side of the figure at the appropriate percentile level.

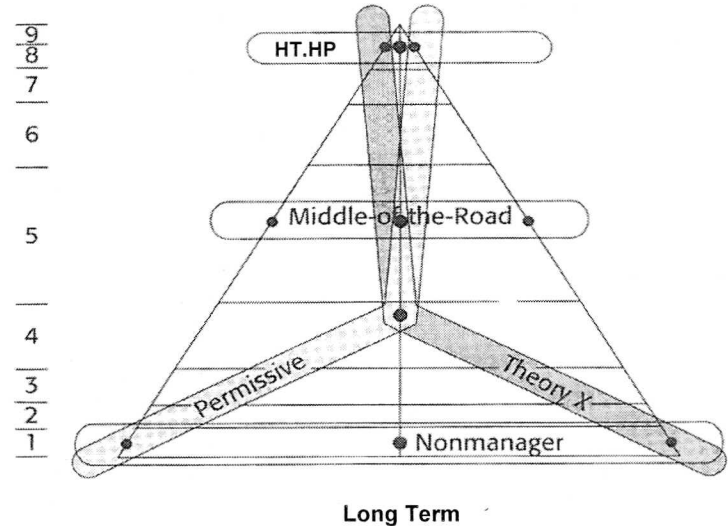
**Step 2:** Indicate the individual’s level of people-orientedness on the right scale of Figure 13 in the same manner.

**Step 3:** Obtain an indication of the individual’s tendency toward a particular level of *short-term managerial or leadership effectiveness* by computing an (unweighted) average of his or her levels of task- and people-orientedness. (Simply add the percentile levels of task- and people-orientedness, and then divide the sum by 2.)

**Figure 14: Short-Term Effectiveness Tendencies of Five Types of Managers**



**Figure 15: Long-Term Effectiveness Tendencies of Five Types of Managers**



**Step 4:** Obtain an indication of the individual's tendency toward a particular level of *long-term managerial or leadership effectiveness* in the following manner:

- A. If the individual's levels of people-orientedness and task-orientedness are more or less the same (in the same percentile range), that individual's long-term level of effectiveness is likely to be about the same as his or her short-term level.
- B. If the individual's level of people-orientedness (or task-orientedness) is significantly lower than his or her level of task-orientedness (or people-orientedness), that individual's long-term level of effectiveness is likely to be at least one range lower than his or her short-term level.

**Step 5:** Indicate the individual's (calculated) level of short-term effectiveness on Figure 13 by putting a large dot at the appropriate point on the center (vertical) scale. Then indicate the individual's (estimated) level of long-term effectiveness on Figure 13 by putting a small dot at the appropriate point on the scale.

Using this procedure, the short- and long-term levels of effectiveness of the five distinctive types of managers or leaders would be more or less as indicated in Figures 14 and 15. Note that the most significant changes over time occur in the cases of Theory X and Permissive managers. (We have assumed in these models that the various types of managers or leaders will be responsible for the same units and subordinates from the short term into the long term.)

### **Concluding Comments on the Usefulness of The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup>**

As we acknowledged earlier, TheManagerial Target<sup>®</sup> is not a perfect model. Like any other model, it has certain limitations. Because of its limitations, it does not necessarily provide absolutely accurate or reliable indications of individuals' natures, managerial or leadership style tendencies, or tendencies toward particular levels of overall managerial or leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, even with its limitations, the Target is an extremely useful analytic, diagnostic, and developmental tool when it is used and interpreted properly.



## The Target as an Analytic Tool

First: Proper, conscientious use of the Target provides extremely valuable *learning experiences*.

When we present this model in our seminars, workshops, and management (team) development programs, we first instruct participating managers or leaders in Target concepts, preparation procedures, and interpretation. We then guide participants' use of the Target as a tool for gaining greater self-awareness and understanding. Using the Target as a self-analysis tool helps managers and leaders do the following:

- a. perceive themselves in specific rather than general or ambiguous terms;
- b. identify what they do not know or have not been able to "pin down" about themselves, thereby establishing a basis for filling any gaps in their self-knowledge;
- c. develop very useful insights into their natures and managerial or leadership behavior; and
- d. accept some insights into themselves that they might otherwise have difficulty accepting.

Detailed self-analysis not only increases self-awareness and understanding, but also forms a basis for the development of more functional task- and people-related characteristics, attitudes, and behavior patterns.

Once they have become familiar with Target procedures and interpretation (through continued personal use over a period of some months), managers and leaders can also use the Target as a tool for doing the following:

- a. analyzing their subordinates in specific rather than general or ambiguous terms;
- b. identifying what they do not know about their subordinates, thereby establishing a basis for filling the gaps in their knowledge; and
- c. developing useful insights into their subordinates' natures, attitudes, and behavior.

These types of learning experiences not only increase interpersonal understanding and sensitivity, but they also contribute to managers' and leaders' development of more functional interpersonal attitudes and behavior patterns. (Here we are assuming that the Target is being used in a constructive manner. Some individuals can be tempted to use it to identify subordinates' weaknesses and then use the resulting insights to their own personal advantage.)

Second: The Target can be used to verify and explain the results of various tests and indices that are sometimes used to help individuals identify, consider, and improve their mana-

gerial or leadership behavior and effectiveness.

Contrary to what some people might suppose, we have not designed The Managerial Target<sup>®</sup> to compete against grid-oriented models and testing instruments. True, the Target has certain advantages over grid models: it can relate personal characteristics, attitudinal concerns, and behavior patterns to managerial and leadership style and effectiveness tendencies. On the other hand, grid-oriented models have certain advantages over the Target: while the Target model can show different managerial or leadership styles' positions, grid models can show their relative positions more simply.

Actually, the two types of models complement each other. When used together for certain purposes, the advantages of each can be used to compensate for the limitations of both. For example: While grid models essentially indicate the *net effect* of personal and external factors' influences on style tendency, they cannot indicate the extent to which personal and external factors have separately affected task- and people-related concerns and/or behavior. Similarly, while the Target essentially indicates personal factors' influences on style tendencies, it is not capable of separating out the effects of external factors' influences on the development of and changes in those characteristics. However, when the two models are used in conjunction with each other, the results of grid-oriented test instruments can be compared with Target results to gain insight into the extent to which external factors may be either reinforcing or contravening personal style and effectiveness tendencies. If, for instance, the Target indicates a "medium task, medium people" personal style tendency, and a grid instrument indicates a "high task, low people" style tendency, comparing the two results may indicate that a MT,MP individual is being influenced by a HT,LP environment to behave in an authoritarian manner.

Third: The Target can also be used during selection (hiring and promotion) processes, BUT *should only be used for the following purposes:*

- a. to assure consideration and evaluation all of the many personal characteristics that affect an individual's technical or functional performance, managerial or leadership style, and level of managerial or leadership effectiveness;
- b. to help keep validated psychological measurement data and personal observations regarding an individual's characteristics organized; and
- c. to help predict (very cautiously and fairly) what an individual's style and level of effectiveness *might be* if he or she were placed in a particular position where particular task-related, social, organizational, and outside factors were operating.

Even though The Managerial Target® is the only model we are aware of that relates the levels of many specific personal characteristics to managerial style and effectiveness tendencies, *we must caution Target users not to base selection decisions solely upon consideration of tendencies that are indicated by the Target.* There are two major reasons:

First, in addition to personal characteristics, many external factors affect how an individual will behave if he or she is placed in a particular position. The influences of these factors must also be considered. For example: A “high task, high people” individual may not be able to achieve “high managerial effectiveness” if (a) subordinates’ jobs are highly mechanistic; (b) bosses’ and colleagues’ styles are Theory X; (c) pervasive social norms are Theory X-related; (d) facilities and equipment are inadequate; (e) the organization does not have adequate managerial/supervisory training and organizational development programs; and (f) the organization’s information and control systems are inadequate.

Second, we have only recently begun to document the Target’s validity and reliability. Therefore, *we highly recommend interim local validation by organizations that wish to use the Target as an assessment and development tool.* As we compile validation data, it will be furnished to Target users upon request and will be presented in subsequent Supplementary Manuals.

### **The Target as a Diagnostic and Developmental Tool**

First: Because the Target relates many specific motives, attitudinal traits, and capabilities to managerial behavior and effectiveness, it can be used to identify and capitalize on individuals’ specific strengths and to diagnose and remedy their specific weaknesses.

Second: Because it relates a comprehensive list of capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits to managerial behavior and effectiveness, it enables individuals to develop themselves and their subordinates in a very comprehensive, systematic manner. This is extremely important, because developmental efforts cannot be fully effective and cannot result in permanent improvements unless various important characteristics (each of

which can influence changes in the others) are synergistically improved or further developed.

Third: Managers and leaders can also use the Target to monitor, evaluate, and improve development programs. By working up Target profiles on themselves and their subordinates at regular intervals (e.g., at least annually), and then by comparing the most recent profiles with past profiles, they can (a) evaluate their own and their subordinates’ developmental progress; (b) determine the manner in which external factors may be either reinforcing or hindering development; (c) evaluate development programs and make any appropriate modifications to them; and (d) initiate steps to bring about changes in those external factors that are hindering development.

In concluding Section 1, we should emphasize several insights provided by the Target.

First: A person having a very high overall level of task-related motive/attitudinal traits coupled with a very high overall level of people-related motive/attitudinal traits virtually does not exist. Therefore, when hiring or selecting people for managerial or leadership jobs, managers should not bother to look for individuals having overall motive/attitudinal trait level combinations such as 9,9 or 9,8 or 8,9. Instead, they should look for individuals having combinations such as 6,5 or 7,6 or 6,6 or 5,7. *The important thing is that the overall levels of these two sets of traits be (a) above average to relatively high, and (b) more or less balanced [so that task-related (self-centered) motives are balanced by people-related (selfless) motives]. Having found this above average to relatively high balance, the next step is to work on developing the individual’s task- and people-related capabilities.*

Second: Through their own promotion or selection, managers often inherit managerial or supervisory subordinates who are not “relatively high task, relatively high people” individuals. In these cases, managers should initially work on developing subordinates’ task- and people-related capabilities and behavior. Improving certain task- and people-related knowledge factors and skills can help to improve task- and people-related attitudes. Improving task- and people-related capabilities, attitudes, and behavior, in turn, can help to improve task- and people-related motive/attitudinal traits.

## SECTION 2

### Influences of Subordinates' Characteristics and Behavior on Managerial and Leadership Behavior (and Vice Versa)

We touched on this subject in the booklet on *Managerial and Leadership Behavior* (and Chapter 8 of *N-GMD*) as we described how managers' views about people's natures can influence their managerial styles. At that point, however, we did not explicitly describe personnel's characteristics and their influences on managerial behavior. Actually, the earlier discussion was rather simplistic. It did not take into account complex cause and effect relationships among the many factors operating within organizations. The complexity of this subject becomes more apparent when we recall some of the factors already discussed in previous booklets or chapters.

As we mentioned in the *Behavior* booklet and Chapter 8 of *N-GMD*, managers' views about subordinates' natures can be one thing, and subordinates' actual natures (characteristics) can be quite another. Managers' views—whether correct or not—are influenced either directly or indirectly by many factors. Among them are:

- a. managers' views concerning the natures of "average people," which are generally the bases for their assumptions about the natures of their subordinates;
- b. subordinates' actual characteristics, which do influence their attitudes and behavior to a great extent;
- c. managers' interpretation of subordinates' behavior, through which they form impressions about (a) what subordinates are capable of doing, (b) how subordinates are normally inclined to behave, and (c) what motivates subordinates to behave as they do; and
- d. managers' own natures, which influence their views about people in general and their interpretation of subordinates' behavior.

Other factors are involved, also. As we showed in the materials on Non-Personal Influences, managers' characteristics, attitudes, and behavior are influenced by many task-related, organizational, social, and outside factors. Most of these factors also influence subordinates' characteristics, attitudes, and behavior. For example:

- A. Job descriptions, which generally specify skill requirements, largely determine the types of people who are selected to fill particular jobs. In addition, the natures of people's jobs influence their attitudes about the work they do.
- B. Organizational structures and practices influence person-

nel's attitudes regarding their organizations and superiors.

- C. The natures of jobs and organizations affect groups' attitudes, which are reflected in social interactions that influence behavior.

Still more factors are involved. As we discuss in the materials on Personal Influences, managers' own personal characteristics affect their attitudes. Their attitudes, in turn, affect their decisions, managerial practices, and interpersonal behavior. Their decisions, practices, and behavior, in turn, affect such matters as job descriptions, organizational structures, social interactions, and subordinates' attitudes and behavior.

At this point, one might ask several questions: Have we just come full circle? Do subordinates' natures and behavior affect managerial behavior? Or do managers' natures, attitudes, and behavior affect subordinates' natures, attitudes, and behavior? The answer is "both." Actually, each of the two phenomena comes into play at different points in a complex, self-perpetuating process. As we will show, however, managers' natures, attitudes, and behavior largely determine how subordinates' attitudes and behavior will affect theirs.

Having covered many factors in our materials on managerial/leadership behavior, we can now describe personnel's characteristics and discuss their complex cause and effect relationships with other factors. We can also raise some points not mentioned previously.

Several approaches can be used to develop perspectives on this complicated subject. We have chosen to divide this section into three sub-sections. In the first sub-section we will cover two subjects in general terms. First, we will review the different sets of managerial views about the natures of people. Second, we will continue our discussion in Section I of Personal Influences by describing how managers' own natures can affect their views about people. In the second sub-section we will get more specific. First, using organizations engaged in heavy industry as a specific context, we will describe jobs and structures in mechanistic organizations. Second, we will describe the backgrounds, characteristics, attitudes, and behavior of workers, first-line supervisors, and managers in these mechanistic environments. In the third sub-section we will provide an overall perspective on the system of causes and effects existing in mechanistic organizations.

## General Perspectives

### Major Views About People

Probably the most significant frames of reference concerning managers' views about their subordinates were offered by Douglas McGregor and Frederick Herzberg. Since we discussed these two frames of reference in considerable detail in *Behavior*, we will simply review them very briefly here.

#### McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Views

Douglas McGregor<sup>37</sup> identified two different sets of views held by two types of managers.

Some managers view "average people" in a Theory X manner. They see them as being lazy, unambitious, unreliable, resistant to change, not too bright, self-centered, unconcerned about organizational objectives, and needful of close supervision. Thus, if these Theory X managers see their subordinates as "average people," they will tend to behave toward them in an authoritarian, directive and controlling, Theory X manner.

Other managers view most people in a Theory Y manner. They see them as being responsible, fairly bright, able to adjust to change, reliable, concerned about organizational objectives, desirous of assuming control over their work lives, and developable human resources. As a result, these Theory Y managers tend to behave toward subordinates (at all levels) in a more participative and developmental, Theory Y manner.

#### Herzberg's Views on Motivation

Frederick Herzberg<sup>38</sup> identified two distinct sets of motivational factors. According to Herzberg, managers' behavior toward subordinates reflects their assumptions about which factors actually motivate people on the job.

Some managers assume that pay, rewards, working conditions, and other maintenance factors are what motivate subordinates. These (Theory X) managers, therefore, will use maintenance factors as positive and negative stimulators to "motivate" subordinates.

Other managers ("Y") perceive that, to be truly motivated from within, subordinates must be fulfilled by meaningful work, autonomy, opportunities to achieve, and other motivator factors that can be associated with or incorporated into the work itself. These (Theory Y) managers, therefore, will make

sure that maintenance factors are adequate, will behave in a more participative, developmental manner, and will attempt to enrich subordinates' jobs.

### How Managers' and Leaders' Natures Tend to Affect Their Views

As H. M. Thomlinson once said, "We see things not as they are, but as we are." It is human to judge people and their behavior based on our own knowledge, experience, skills, attitudes, values, goals, and interests. It is also human to see in others what is in ourselves. Since managers and leaders are just as human in these respects as anyone else, their views about subordinates can be just as much a function of their own natures as a function of subordinates' natures.

Good examples of this principle can be found in each of four distinctive types of managers, whom we described in earlier in section on Personal Influences using The Managerial Target.<sup>®</sup>

#### HT,LP or Theory X Managers and Leaders

Being high in task-related motives (such as the economic and political values) and in certain related personality traits, but being relatively low in people-related motives and capabilities (such as the social value, benevolence, and social insight), managers who are Theory X by nature tend to . . .

- a. judge how "OK" people are on the basis of their power, influence, and financial or material success;
- b. look for and find these motives in other people (before looking for and finding other motives);
- c. recognize a certain amount of self-centeredness and manipulateness in subordinates (because these tendencies are part of their own natures);
- d. find more "bad" (human and job-related weaknesses) than "good" (human and job-related strengths or potentials) in subordinates;
- e. view subordinates' behavior as being solely a function of their characteristics;
- f. look for causes and effects that revolve around the "mechanics" of the operation and around organizational dynamics—and therefore manage only what they are concerned about and can see;
- g. focus on productivity with little or no regard for people;
- h. fail to recognize that subordinates' apparent lack of motivation can actually be attributed to unfulfilling jobs, negative social pressures, an authoritarian organizational environment, and their own Theory X behavior toward subordinates;

- i. conclude that subordinates are “motivated” primarily by maintenance factors and by both tangible and psychological rewards and punishments; and
- j. either establish or perpetuate mechanistic structures and practices that are designed to “motivate,” direct, and control personnel.

In short, because they are Theory X by nature, these managers see subordinates in an “X” manner—and behave toward them accordingly.

### **LT,HP or Permissive Managers and Leaders**

Being high in people-related values, personality traits, and capabilities, but being relatively low in task-related motives, managers who are permissive by nature tend to:

- a. judge how “OK” people are in terms of sociability, altruism, and social maturity;
- b. look for and find these characteristics in people (before looking for and finding other characteristics);
- c. see people as being good, honest, and hard-working;
- d. conclude that people are motivated mostly by socially-oriented needs;
- e. emphasize social relationships in the workplace; and
- f. let subordinates work with very little direction and control.

In short, because they are permissive and affiliation-oriented by nature, these managers see the affiliative side of people—and behave toward them accordingly.

### **MT,MP or Middle-Road Managers and Leaders**

Because their task- and people-related motives are more or less balanced, managers who are middle-road by nature tend to:

- a. judge people in a balanced manner;
- b. look for and find a balance among various motives in other people;
- c. look for and find human strengths and weaknesses in people;
- d. be somewhat sensitive to people;
- e. manage tasks and people to a medium degree; and
- f. treat people fairly well and look to them for decision-making input (but still exercise final control).

In short, because they are middle-road by nature, they view subordinates in a middle-road manner—and behave toward them accordingly.

### **HT,HP or Team/“Y” Managers and Leaders**

Possessing an “above average balance” between task- and people-related motives, and having relatively high levels of task- and people-related capabilities (knowledge, insight, sensitivity, etc.), managers who are HT,HP by nature tend to:

- a. judge people in a balanced manner;
- b. find both self-centered and selfless motives in people;
- c. work to accentuate strengths, to improve on weaknesses, and to develop potentials;
- d. be sensitive to people as well as being concerned about their performance;
- e. look for and find cause and effect relationships among people, tasks, and other factors—and therefore *manage both what they can and cannot see*;
- f. recognize that their own behavior affects subordinates’ characteristics, attitudes, and behavior;
- g. recognize that people may not be performing as well as they might because their knowledge and skills may need further development;
- h. recognize that an apparent lack of motivation may well be due to unfulfilling jobs that require the incorporation of motivator factors into them;
- i. treat subordinates as adults (because they themselves are adults);
- j. respect subordinates for what they are and what they have the potential to become, but do not disrespect them for what they are not or have not yet become; and
- k. either establish or perpetuate participative structures and practices that are designed to develop personnel and to improve their working relationships and environment.

In short, because these managers are HT,HP and team-oriented by nature, they view subordinates in a Theory Y manner—and behave toward them accordingly.

## **Specific Phenomena in Very Mechanistic Environments**

As we have performed consulting and training services for various organizations, we have seen real world examples of the phenomena mentioned above. The most striking examples have been in heavy industry and the military, where (a) jobs traditionally have been filled by men, (b) organizations have been male-dominated at every level, and (c) traditional male attitudes and behavior patterns have created, fostered, and perpetuated mechanistic environments.

Examples of organizations engaged in heavy industry include metals producers, auto manufacturers, and heavy equipment manufacturers. These and similar organizations can be placed into two general groups. The first group is composed of companies that, within the last several decades, have (a) provided rather extensive management training, and (b) at one time introduced Quality Circles and similar approaches at the worker level. These organizations have become somewhat less mechanistic than the second group. The second group is composed of companies that have been doing neither (a) nor (b) and have remained very mechanistic in nature. It is this second group—the “very mechanistic” organizations engaged in heavy industry—that we will use as the specific context for discussing personnel’s characteristics, attitudes, and behavior.

We have chosen these organizations for four reasons. First, they have the most mechanistic environments. Second, they tend to experience the greatest amount of friction between management and the workforce. Third, they are in the most need of improvement. And fourth, many of the phenomena we will be describing can also be found in other types of organizations.

Before describing personnel’s characteristics, let us briefly review the description of mechanistic organizations that we presented in the Non-Personal Influences section.

## Jobs and Structures in Very Mechanistic Organizations

### Managers’ Jobs

In general, managerial jobs below the top level have the following characteristics:

- A. They involve responsibilities for these integrative functions:
  1. setting goals, planning, and making major decisions;
  2. structuring lower levels of the organization;
  3. establishing job descriptions and working procedures;
  4. obtaining desired levels of performance or productivity; and
  5. analyzing and solving problems.
- B. They are oriented toward integrating activities at the worker level, where the work being done is basic to the organization’s success.
- C. They involve accountability for costs, profits, return on investment, and other financial factors.
- D. They revolve around day-to-day operations.

- E. Because of the organic activities involved, they provide significant opportunities for the fulfillment of higher-level needs, and, therefore, are inherently motivating.

Top managers’ jobs are similar to their subordinate managers’ jobs in all but one important respect. Rather than revolving around day-to-day operations, they revolve around dealing with outside groups and organizations (e.g., financial institutions, industry associations, major customers and suppliers, boards of directors, stockholders, government agencies, and the general public). As a result, top managers generally do not have (or take) the time, have the awareness, or have the inclination to improve their organizations’ structures and environments—even though they may be ultimately responsible for doing so.

If high-level managers are “X” or authoritarian by nature and by organizational conditioning (as they tend to be in very mechanistic industrial organizations), they will either (a) initially design mechanistic jobs and structures, or (b) foster and contribute to their continued existence.

### First-Line Supervisors’ Jobs

In general, supervisors’ (foremen’s) jobs have the following characteristics:

- A. They involve *limited* responsibilities for integrative think-work such as major goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, or decision-making.
- B. They involve *some* responsibilities for providing input to the formulation of job descriptions and working procedures.
- C. They involve *major* responsibilities for scheduling, directing, and controlling workers’ activities.
- D. They are less mechanistic than worker-level jobs, but are still less organic than managerial jobs. Thus, they provide limited opportunities for fulfillment of high-level needs.

As discussed earlier with regard to Figure 20 on page 98 of the booklet on *Nonpersonal Influences* (and Chapter 9 of *N-GMD*), managers (and leaders) in mechanistic organizations view planning, problem solving, and decision making as *their* responsibilities. They establish workers’ job descriptions and work procedures. To make sure that workers perform their jobs in the prescribed manner, they establish mechanistic structures downward throughout the organization. These structures include job descriptions for first-line supervisors that make them the “organizational agents for direction and control.”

## Workers' Jobs

In general, worker-level jobs (in very mechanistic organizations engaged in heavy industry) have these mechanistic characteristics:

- A. They require the use of relatively few, low-level skills.
- B. The skills they require are essentially manual or physical rather than mental.
- C. They are physically strenuous and tiring.
- D. They are performed under dirty, dangerous, uncomfortable working conditions.
- E. Their formal descriptions include few if any responsibilities for goal setting, planning, problem solving, or decision making.
- F. Performing them does not require any more than an elementary to high school education.
- G. They normally include little if any direct accountability for costs.
- H. Given the requirements of these jobs, they can be filled with people who are average in terms of their mental capacities, education, and training.
- I. Because these jobs are relatively dull, monotonous, boring, strenuous, dirty, dangerous, and uncomfortable, because they have relatively low organizational status, and because they offer little opportunity for personal creativity or self-expression, they are inherently unfulfilling, dissatisfying, and unmotivating.

If managers and supervisors are HT,LP or "X" by nature and by organizational conditioning (as they tend to be in very mechanistic industrial organizations), they are very likely to regard workers as relatively average, unmotivated, and not too smart.

## Organizational Structure

Mechanistic environments do not simply involve mechanistic worker-level jobs and directive, controlling supervision. They also involve (a) many levels of authority; (b) strictly delineated lines of authority and channels of communication (which tend to restrict both horizontal and vertical communication); and (c) many formal policies, rules, and procedures at all levels. In general, therefore, they can be described as restrictive, directive and controlling, and rather impersonal—not just at the worker level, but at middle and upper levels as well.

Given the context described briefly above, we can now describe the backgrounds, characteristics, attitudes, and behavior of personnel at various levels in highly mechanistic organizations. As we describe various groups, we will be making some *very broad generalizations*—not only about the individuals in them, but also about the basic similarities and differ-

ences among them. Thus, we must acknowledge that there are *possible exceptions* to much of what we will be saying.

## Industrial Workers

### Workers' Backgrounds

On the average, workers in heavy industry are male and tend to come from lower- to middle-level socio-economic groups. At these socio-economic levels, roles and gut-level values, which have been learned from parents and other adults, tend to revolve around economic matters and other traditional male concerns.

In general, these individuals have an educational level ranging from elementary school to high school. They have not been exposed to college-level ideas, concepts, theories, and intellectual disciplines that would enable them to think in more conceptual or abstract terms (in addition to the more concrete terms in which they tend to think). Their lack of a higher education can be due to these and other factors: (a) their parents' valuing other areas more than education; (b) their development and pursuit of non-academic interests; (c) peer pressures; (d) financial inability to gain a higher education; and/or (e) grades not high enough to enter college (or to obtain a scholarship).

They have probably been exposed to machines and mechanical concepts while (a) taking industrial arts courses; (b) being raised on a farm or working in a mechanically-oriented family business; (c) working in summer or part-time jobs that are mechanically oriented; and/or (d) tinkering with automobiles and other machines.

They have probably had no training in accounting and may or may not own stock in the organizations for which they work. As a result, they have little understanding of and concern for organizational objectives involving such matters as costs, profits, return on investment, and shareholders' dividends.

These generalizations can apply more to older workers than to younger workers. A considerable number of younger workers have gone to college, but, unable to find a job in their field, have taken factory jobs to earn a living.

### Workers' Characteristics

In terms of their mental abilities, workers tend to be higher in mechanical comprehension than in academic intelligence. As a matter of fact, given the skill requirements of worker-level jobs in heavy industry, workers are usually hired for their mechan-

ical skills, manual skills, and physical abilities rather than their intellectual abilities.

In general, average workers can think in concrete terms better and more easily than in conceptual, abstract, or intellectual terms. This is largely a function of their average level of academic intelligence and their lack of a higher education.

In terms of their value systems, average industrial workers are not much different from “the average male.” (See Exhibit 2 on page 32 of this booklet.)

- A. Economic value: While some workers have levels in the lower ranges and some have levels in the higher ranges, most workers have levels that fall in and around the high average or medium range. Thus, in general, workers are higher in the economic value than in the other valued matters. This can be a function of several factors: (a) during their formative years, being conditioned in male-oriented values and attitudes by adults and peers; (b) as adults, having responsibility for the economic well-being of their families; (c) being at a socio-economic level where financial security can be difficult to achieve; (d) striving to achieve economic success, which is a traditional sign of success in our society; and (e) being concerned about having enough money to fulfill higher-level needs off the job (because these needs cannot be fulfilled on the job).
- B. Political value: While some workers have levels in the lower ranges and some have levels in the higher ranges (e.g., workforce leaders), most workers have levels that fall in and around the average to high average ranges. Thus, in general, workers are almost as high in this value as they are in the economic value. This can be due to early conditioning in male-oriented values and attitudes. It can also be very much due to the mechanistic organizational environment. Personnel do not get along well in mechanistic organizations unless they either have or develop a concern for or sensitivity to other people’s power, authority, and territory.
- C. Other valued matters: As might be expected, average workers tend to be lower in the social, intellectual, religious, and aesthetic values than in the economic and political values.

Generalizing about workers’ personality traits is more difficult. Levels of these traits vary from high to low across a standard distribution (of the male population). In other words, in each particular trait, some workers are high, some are low, and most are in the average range.

Average workers’ self-images, identities, and egos revolve around their highest values and interests (e.g., economic and political values). They also tend to revolve around their physical capabilities and masculinity more than their mental capabilities. This phenomenon, we think, is largely due to workers’ not having progressed beyond elementary school or high school. During these formative years, masculinity becomes an extremely important aspect of a male’s identity. Obtaining a higher education, however, alters males’ self-images. It exposes individuals to ideas, socio-economic and cultural milieu, and career potentials that broaden the base of their identities and enable them to associate their self-images with concerns other than masculinity. This “concern for masculinity,” we find, is more evident in the behavior of younger personnel and workforce leaders than in the behavior of older, more mature workers (who have had longer exposure to life’s experiences and the world around them). Regardless of age, however, workers in general tend to value traditionally masculine characteristics such as dominance (assertiveness), decisiveness, competitiveness, firmness, vigor, and the tendency to suppress or hide emotions.

In one-on-one relationships with their family members and friends, workers can be as interpersonally sensitive, conscientious, and compassionate as any other human beings. However, when they work and interact with groups who share discontent with jobs and superiors, the social norms that develop and the peer pressures that are exerted can adversely affect their otherwise responsible, conscientious attitudes and behavior. Social dynamics within and between work groups also tend to foster territorialism, competitiveness, and other typically male behavior. (This also applies to groups composed of their superiors.)

In general, these *are* “average people.” They are decent and hard-working. Like their superiors and any other human beings, they are not altogether good or altogether bad. While they have various strengths, they also have human weaknesses. For example, when they are not treated well by others, they can be inclined to retaliate. Compared to the people who supervise and manage them, they are different in some respects and similar in other respects. But these differences and similarities make them no better or worse. While they may not seem to be motivated, they have the motivation within them waiting to be unlocked. While they may not have the thought-oriented skills that many of their superiors might possess, they have potentials for learning analytic methods and developing goal-setting, planning, and problem-solving skills. While they may not be as intelligent and highly educated as many of their superiors, they still have good minds and considerable experience, which, when they are given the opportunity, they can use to formulate many work- and cost-saving ideas.



## Normative Attitudes

The following attitudes have been paraphrased from the results of surveys conducted in several very mechanistic environments. They are certainly not all the attitudes that can be held by worker personnel, but they are some of the main attitudes that underlie their behavior—behavior, which, in turn, tends to elicit “X” or HT,LP behavior from managers and supervisors.

### Attitudes toward their work:

- A. Most workers are discontented in one way or another with the work they do. It does not seem to them to be meaningful or important. Consequently, it does not make them feel important.
- B. Most are also dissatisfied with their working conditions and their relationships with superiors.
- C. Considering the way they are treated by their superiors, they will put in their time and do a decent day’s work at a pace they consider to be reasonable.
- D. They do not want other members of their work group to outperform them and get performance standards raised.
- E. Many if not most prefer to do their work, get the work-day behind them, and then forget about their work and related problems when they go home.

### Attitudes toward their superiors:

- A. They do not like to be told how to do something, especially by superiors who do not have as much (technical) job experience as they do.
- B. They can more easily respect and relate to those who demonstrate masculine characteristics.
- C. They are more inclined to respect and trust those who have considerable on-the-job experience than those who have more education but less experience.
- D. They want to be respected for what they are; they do not want to be disrespected for what they are not.
- E. They feel that *they* are not being paid to solve problems—their bosses are.
- F. They would prefer to be left alone by their bosses. They feel that their chances of being left alone are greater if they cover up their mistakes and do not tell their bosses about problems.
- G. They feel that managers do not keep them informed about what is going on in the organization—and why. As a result, they feel somewhat uncertain, insecure, disrespected, and alienated.
- H. They feel manipulated and used by their superiors.
- I. They see bosses as their adversaries.
- J. They are inclined to want to “get even” with those who crack the whip on them.

Are these attitudes functional for either organizations or their worker personnel? Certainly not. But they are the attitudes that tend to develop and persist in organizations where jobs and structures are mechanistic and bosses behave toward subordinates in an authoritarian, directive and controlling manner.

## Resulting Behavior

Because of the natures of their jobs and organizations, and because of the way they are treated by their superiors, workers in these very mechanistic environments become bored, frustrated, insecure, alienated, distrustful, discontented, resentful, and antagonistic. As a result, they (a) do not always perform or produce to the most desirable levels; (b) do not do much original thinking on the job; (c) demonstrate relatively little loyalty to their bosses and organizations; (d) can often be uncooperative, critical, and vindictive; and (e) appear to have relatively little concern for organizational objectives. *Because their ego needs are not satisfied by the working environment or the work itself, they are concerned about money, which they will use to satisfy their higher-level needs off the job.* On occasion they may subtly sabotage the efforts of their bosses and the objectives of their organizations. *Thus, to supervisors and managers who are HT,LP by nature, they will appear to have natures that require Theory X direction and control.*

## First-Line Industrial Supervisors

### Supervisors’ Backgrounds and Characteristics

Most supervisors in heavy industry have been promoted from worker-level jobs. Consequently, they share the same general backgrounds, basic mental capacities, and basic values as worker-level personnel. However, while there are these similarities, there are also some differences. These individuals would probably not have been promoted to their supervisory positions if one or more of the following were not the case: (a) they were more technically proficient than their co-workers; (b) they were senior and had more job experience; (c) they displayed more motivation; (d) they seemed to be smarter, more imaginative, or more adept at solving problems and making decisions; (e) they possessed a little more education; and/or (f) they seemed to be better able to “handle people.”

### Supervisors’ Behavior

The question is, “How is this group inclined to behave toward former co-workers and peers who are now their subordinates—especially when the attitudes and behavior expected by

their new subordinates are in conflict with the attitudes and behavior expected by their new bosses and fellow supervisors?"

Even though supervisors may want to adhere to their former co-workers' expectations, and even though they may recognize or may have been taught that Theory Y views rather than Theory X views actually apply to their subordinates, they can still tend to behave in a "high task, low people" manner (which is essentially a "masculine manner").

As we have discussed in the sections on personal and non-personal influences, many factors influence managerial and supervisory behavior. Although views about subordinates are important factors, their influences can be overridden by the influences of various combinations of the following factors.

These factors were discussed earlier in Section 1:

- A. Because they still have more or less HT,LP natures, they can still tend to view subordinates in a more or less Theory X manner.
- B. Because they still have more or less HT,LP natures, they can still be concerned about exercising their power or authority.
- C. Even though they previously worked with their subordinates (as co-workers), they were the ones promoted. Consequently, they can feel that they are "more OK" than their subordinates.

These factors were discussed at some length in the section on non-personal influences:

- D. The HT,LP style is probably the example that their bosses have set for them. Thus, it is the style that they have been learning.
- E. It is the style that their job descriptions call for (implicitly if not explicitly) and their bosses expect them to use.
- F. Because mechanistic jobs are easy to direct and control, supervisors are inclined to be directive and controlling.
- G. Because the HT,LP style probably pervades the organization, other supervisors (as well as managers) are probably using it. Consequently, supervisors can exert "X"-enforcing social pressures to keep each other from using the "softer" styles that might undermine their own authority.

These are additional factors not previously discussed:

- H. Whether consciously or unconsciously, supervisors usually recognize that using styles other than "X" could pose a threat to their identities, reputations, and working relationships. For example: Their use of the permissive style could appear to be weakness to their subordinates and bosses. Their use of the consultive style might seem indecisive to their subordinates and bosses. Their use of the participative style could seem weak, indecisive, unmasculine, and too "intellectual" to their subordinates and many of their superiors. (Compared to other styles, the participative style is a more reasoned, balanced, intellectual approach to management. It revolves around determining "what's right" rather than "who's right." Thus, it is contrary to the natures of most personnel in mechanistic organizations, who are more inclined to be concerned about "who's right.")
- I. Supervisors are generally aware that their subordinates understand, can relate to, and will respond to assertive, decisive, masculine, "X" behavior (largely because they have been conditioned to do so).

## **Industrial Managers**

Managers in very mechanistic organizations engaged in heavy industry can be divided into many sub-groups. For the sake of keeping the discussion manageable, however, we will discuss two major sub-groups: (a) managers who have come up through the ranks; and (b) managers who have entered management with a higher education.

### **Up-Through-the-Ranks Managers' Backgrounds, Characteristics, Attitudes, and Behavior**

This first group can be further divided into (a) those who have been trained in modern management techniques, and (b) those who have not. For the sake of this discussion, let us assume that all managers in this group have received some type of managerial training, or at least have read about some of the more modern management approaches.

In general, these managers tend to be somewhat older and more experienced than managers who have not come up through the ranks. They share socio-economic backgrounds, educational backgrounds, and basic values with both workers and supervisors. However, compared to workers and supervi-

ors, they (a) tend to be somewhat more intelligent and ambitious; (b) have probably received more management training; (c) have more experience dealing with costs, profit and loss statements, balance sheets, investments, and other business matters; (d) have greater cost and/or profit responsibilities; (e) have acquired higher socio-economic status; (f) have been exposed to more ideas, concepts, and theories; (g) have been exposed to more diverse socio-economic and cultural milieu; and, therefore, (h) tend to be wiser and to possess broader perspectives on the world, business, and human nature.

Does this mean that they will view personnel below them in a more Theory Y than Theory X manner and behave accordingly? Not necessarily.

A few of these managers do view subordinates in a more Theory Y manner and try to behave accordingly—even in the face of mechanistic or “X”-related influences exerted by tasks, organizational factors, social factors, outside factors, and personnel’s behavior.

A larger number of these managers view subordinates in a more Theory Y manner, too, but still behave in a Theory X manner—usually for the same reasons as supervisors (A through I on page 56). Even so, they are more likely to behave in a “softer X” manner. Some may even try a more consultative or participative approach. But if things go wrong while they are trying other approaches, they will be inclined to revert to authoritarian, directive and controlling behavior.

An even greater number of managers in organizations that are still very mechanistic do not view their subordinates in a Theory Y manner. Regardless of whatever experience, training, and exposure they might have had, they have retained Theory X views for several probable reasons: (a) the (very) HT,LP natures they had when they began their careers have not changed; (b) their “X” natures have been reinforced by organizational influences; (c) their HT,LP natures have distorted their perceptions of organizational interactions and have negated the effects of whatever training they might have received; (d) their original Theory X views about people have been reinforced by their bosses and colleagues; and (e) their original views have been reinforced by the worker-level behavior they have observed in their mechanistic organizations.

Individuals in this last group tend to have the following “X”-oriented attitudes:

- A. It’s my job to do the planning, problem solving, and decision making. I wouldn’t have this job if I weren’t able to think better than my subordinates.
- B. I worked hard to get where I am, so my subordinates should work hard and “pay their dues,” too.
- C. I have to select managers and supervisors below me

who have more or less the same attitudes about managing people that I do, or I will have problems with them.

- D. This is a “dog eat dog” world. If I’m going to provide a better standard of living for my family and send my kids to college, I’ve got to get myself promoted into higher-paying jobs. Getting promoted means that I have to do several things. First, I have to select subordinates who won’t outshine me. Second, I have to control my subordinate managers and supervisors so they won’t make mistakes that will make me look bad. And third, I have to play the game better than my competitors. If they can’t play it as well as I can, that’s their tough luck.
- E. I know how to make my style work, but I’m not so sure about making other styles work. The more people-oriented styles just don’t get the job done—especially when you have to deal with some of the people I do.

If these up-through-the-ranks managers are in high- or top-level positions, they will definitely contribute to and perpetuate a mechanistic, HT,LP, Theory X environment.

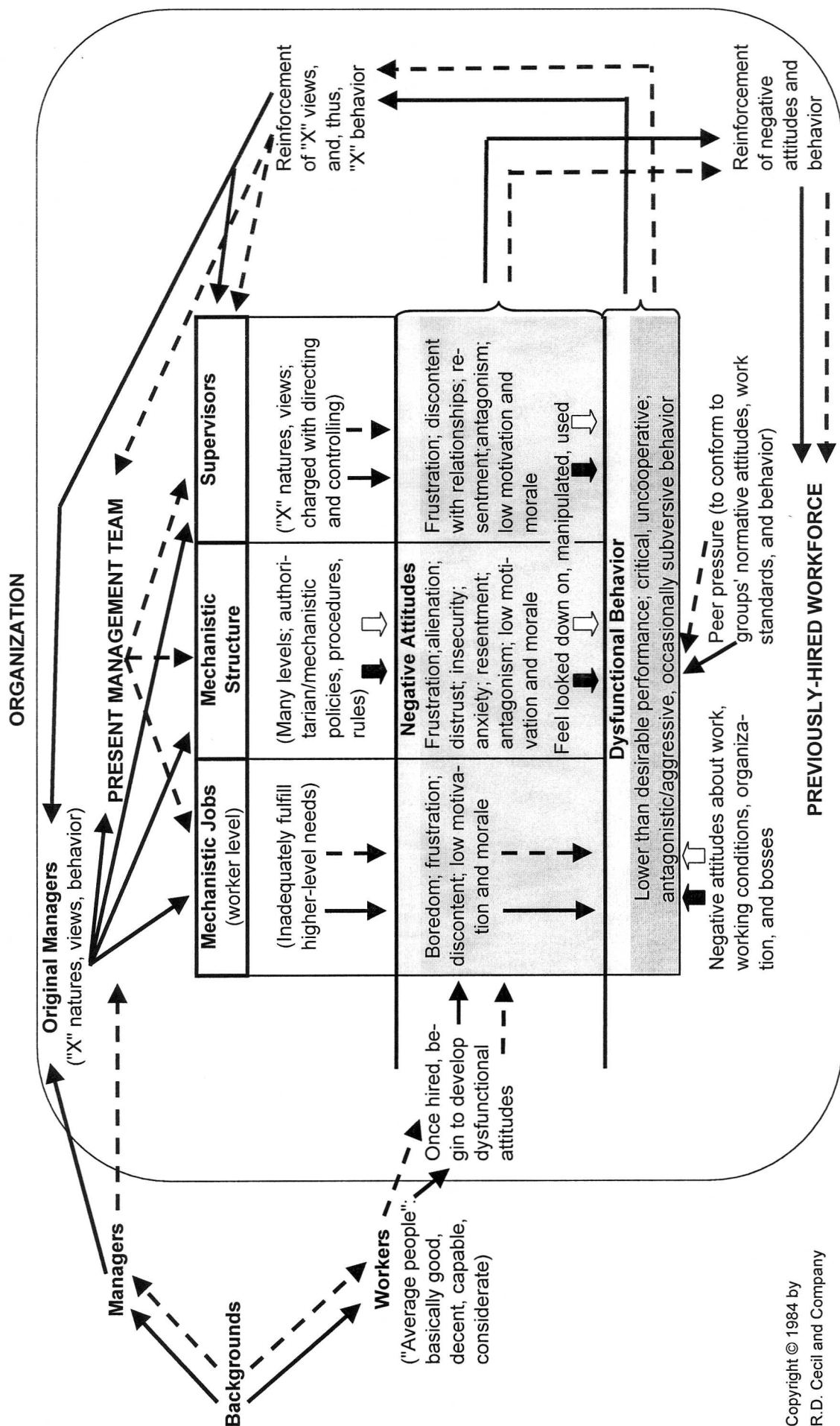
### **More Educated Managers’ Backgrounds, Natures, and Behavior**

The more highly educated managers are different in various respects. In general, they . . .

- a. tend to be younger and less experienced than the first group;
- b. are likely to have been raised in middle- to upper-level socio-economic backgrounds;
- c. are likely to have been raised during times when emphasis was being placed on being sensitive to people and treating them with understanding and compassion;
- d. can tend to value social and intellectual matters more highly than the first group;
- e. can have identities that revolve around personal achievement more than power, financial success, and masculinity.
- f. may have earned advanced business, law, or engineering degrees;
- g. have probably been exposed to more modern management concepts, methods, and procedures;
- h. tend to attach more importance to education and analytic methods than to experience; and
- i. perceive their organizational status as being more a function of their education than their experience.

How do these people view supervisors and worker personnel? In a more Theory Y manner than many other managers. How do they behave toward supervisors and workers? Cer-

**Figure 16: Cause and Effect Relationships Among Socio-Technical Factors Operating in a Mechanistic Industrial Environment**



tainly they attempt to behave in a more consultive if not participative manner than other managers in their organizations. These attempts, however, can be thwarted by bosses and colleagues who are more Theory X by nature.

What we find particularly interesting are the working relationships between this group and the older, more experienced, less educated managers. The more educated group values methods, while the other group values experience. In other words, each group values its own forte. For this reason, and also because of possible differences between their socio-economic backgrounds, each group tends to be somewhat critical and suspicious of the other. Battles of wills and egos are not unusual. It would help if both groups were to acknowledge that they do not know it all, that each has something to offer the other, and that they could all benefit if they would put their heads together.

### An Integrated Perspective

**Figure 16** (facing page) is a model we have devised for summarizing this discussion and putting it into perspective. The figure depicts a scenario occurring in a heavy industrial organization that has remained highly mechanistic.

The scenario actually began when the original top-level managers of the organization first established it. Mostly for the sake of worker efficiency, they designed worker-level jobs having mechanistic characteristics. Because these managers had traditional HT,LP natures, they also had traditional Theory X preconceptions about the “average people” they hired to fill worker-level jobs. To integrate mechanistic jobs and the people in them, they established a mechanistic structure, which consisted of (a) directive and controlling job descriptions for first-line supervisors, (b) authoritarian organizational policies and procedures, (c) strict lines of authority, and (d) mechanistic channels of communication. To complete the organizational structure, the original managers filled managerial and supervisory jobs below them with personnel who more or less shared their Theory X attitudes about managing people.

The “average people” who were originally and subsequently hired into the growing workforce entered the organization with the characteristics we described above. These characteristics were largely the result of influences exerted by families, peer groups, schools, and early job experiences during workers’ formative years. Although workers generally entered the organization with positive attitudes and good intentions, they were immediately subjected to organizational influences that brought about dysfunctional attitudes and behavior:

- A. The mechanistic natures of their jobs bred boredom and provided inadequate fulfillment of higher-level needs. These phenomena, in turn, spawned frustration, discontent, and low on-the-job motivation and morale.
- B. The implementation of authoritarian rules, policies, and procedures bred frustration, alienation, suspicion, distrust, insecurity, anxiety, and low morale.
- C. The exercise of strict supervisory direction and control bred frustration, discontent, resentment, and antagonism.
- D. The mechanistic structure and the directive and controlling practices of managers and supervisors made workers feel looked down on, manipulated, and used.

Thus, during the years of the organization’s formation and growth, the causal factors in A through D aroused workers’ human weaknesses and generated negative attitudes by either threatening or reducing the fulfillment of their higher-level needs—especially their ego needs. The results of these negative attitudes included (a) less than desirable performance, and (b) critical, uncooperative, antagonistic, aggressive, retaliatory behavior.

This behavior reinforced the early management team’s Theory X preconceptions about the natures of their personnel, thereby turning their preconceptions into hardened views. These views, in turn, reinforced their HT,LP behavior. Thus, the self-perpetuating cycle through which managers and subordinates in mechanistic environments adversely affect each other’s attitudes and behavior was well underway.

Due to the attitudes and selection policies of their predecessors, managers and supervisors who have been promoted or hired more recently also tend to be HT,HP by nature and to hold Theory X views about people in general. Their initial Theory X views and behavior patterns have been and continue to be reinforced by (a) the attitudes and behavior of more senior managers and supervisors, and (b) their own observation of personnel’s on-the-job behavior.

Similarly, the workers hired more recently are not only subjected to the influences of A through D above, but are also subjected to two additional influences. First, the previously-hired workers openly discuss their discontent with their jobs and speak critically about their bosses and organization. This focuses new workers’ attention on the negative aspects of their jobs and working environment. Second, the previously-hired workers exert peer pressures that promote new workers’ conformity to existing normative attitudes, group performance standards, and behavior. Thus, while the development of previously-hired workers’ dysfunctional attitudes and behavior patterns occurred over some period of time, the development of new workers’ dysfunctional attitudes and behavior patterns is exacerbated and accelerated.

Again, workers' behavior patterns simply reinforce the Theory X attitudes and behavior of managers and supervisors. Thus, the cycle through which managers and personnel in (very) mechanistic organizations adversely influence each others' attitudes and behavior continues to be perpetuated.

Implicitly if not explicitly, we have been saying three things in this section.

First: Although subordinates' characteristics, attitudes, and behavior do influence managers' attitudes and behavior, they do not do so as significantly as managers' characteristics, attitudes and behavior affect their subordinates' attitudes and behavior. Basically, *managers' natures are the most significant causal factors. Their natures are largely responsible for their views about people and their creation and/or perpetuation of conditions that influence subordinates' attitudes and behavior (which, in turn, reinforce managers' attitudes and behavior).*

Second: Subordinates' basic characteristics are one thing; the attitudes and behavior patterns that they develop are another. Take workers in heavy industry. Regardless of the natures of the organizations that hire them, these workers enter their respective organizations with roughly the same general backgrounds and characteristics as those described above. Once they are on the job, however, the natures of their respective organizations will largely determine the attitudes and behavior patterns that they develop. For example: If they have been hired by highly mechanistic organizations such as the ones described above, these organizations' "X"-oriented management structures, practices, policies, and procedures will awaken and intensify their *human weaknesses* (the "darker side" of human nature), thereby causing them to develop dysfunctional attitudes and behavior patterns. If, on the other hand, they have been hired by the heavy industrial organiza-

tions that are becoming more participative, these organizations' more HT,HP or "Y"-oriented management structures, practices, policies, and procedures will awaken and intensify their *human strengths and potentials* (the "brighter side" of human nature), thereby causing them to develop more positive attitudes and more functional behavior patterns. (In this latter case, the scenario would be just the opposite of the one outlined above).

Third: It would be unfair to "blame" either managers, supervisors, or workers for the situation described above. Workers in mechanistic organizations are not really responsible for the attitudes and behavior patterns that they (a) learn during their formative years, and (b) develop while working in mechanistic organizations. The same applies to supervisors and managers, whose attitudes and behavior patterns have also been affected by developmental influences and organizational conditioning. In fact, everyone in mechanistic organizations either has been or is being conditioned by various factors to think, feel, and behave as they do. Even the original managers, who started the process, cannot really be blamed. They, too, were the products of traditional role and attitude development. In addition, modern concepts were relatively undeveloped and little known when they were probably structuring their organizations. Nonetheless, *present top managers will be at fault if, upon being exposed to modern concepts, they do not do something constructive about their organizations' structures and the characteristics, attitudes, practices, and interpersonal behavior of their subordinate managers and supervisors.*

A major problem confronting top managers of mechanistic organizations is how to break the self-perpetuating cycle described above. This is the subject of Chapters 11 and 12 in *N-GMD*. In them we will be talking about organizational "hospitalization" versus merely applying band-aids.

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