CHAPTER EIGHT

Managerial and Leadership Styles

INTRODUCTION

What This Chapter Is About

A *managerial* or *leadership style* can be defined in a number of ways. Simply put, it is how one behaves toward people in order to get things done either through or with them. We prefer this definition: how a manager interacts with and behaves toward subordinates in the process of performing integrative functions of the managerial process. In other words, a managerial or leadership style includes these basic elements: (a) the approach one takes (or role one plays) with respect to the performance of integrative functions; (b) one's motivational and integrative practices; and (c) one's interpersonal behavior patterns. Each manager's set of practices and behaviors is unique.

Management theorists and practitioners have devised numerous concepts and frames of reference for describing management or leadership styles, gaining greater insight into why they are used, and better understanding their effects on personnel. Indeed, according to Turner and Muller (2005), extensive research has shown that managers' behavior greatly affects personnel. As a result of years of study, researchers and practitioners have also developed many concepts, perspectives, and practices that can help managers maximize the motivation, development, performance, and job satisfaction of their subordinates.

This chapter begins by reviewing several theories concerning motivation on the job—most notably those of Maslow and Herzberg. Then, it describes five distinctive managerial or leadership styles, drawing on the concepts or models of notables such as McGregor, Tannenbaum and Schmidt, Likert, Blake and Mouton, Miles, Fiedler, Lawrence and Lorsch, Hersey and Blanchard, and Ouchi.

What Consultants, Trainers, and Facilitators Can Get Out of This Chapter

Motivation is a topic of continuing interest to managers. Many theories of motivation have been proposed. But how can those theories be applied in one organizational setting, and to what

purpose should they be applied? These are questions that consultants, trainers, and facilitators should ponder as they read this chapter.

After studying this chapter, consultants, trainers, and facilitators should be able to help participants

- Analyze individual and group motivation based on traditional theories of motivation
- Brainstorm ways to creatively reinvent those theories as needed in one corporate culture
- Recognize the limitations of what a manager can do to motivate his or her staff and what individual staff members must do to motivate themselves
- Gain greater impact from efforts to improve individual motivation by seeing how motivation can affect productivity and turnover

What Practicing Managers, Participants, or Students Can Get Out of This Chapter

After studying and discussing this chapter, the student or seminar participant should be able to

- Put what he or she has already learned about managerial or leadership styles into a broader perspective
- Better understand the dysfunctional aspects of certain managerial or leadership styles, and subsequently avoid them
- Identify, better understand, and evaluate his or her own and others' managerial or leadership style
- Better understand how managerial styles and management functions interrelate, and improve how he or she behaves toward and interacts with subordinates when guiding or performing those integrative functions
- Better identify what he or she is doing right and why, as well as what he or she could be doing better and how
- More effectively adjust, modify, or further develop the aspects of his or her managerial or leadership style that need improving
- More effectively improve or further develop the managerial attitudes, skills, and behavior of his or her subordinates
- More effectively participate in bringing about organization-wide improvements in managerial, supervisory, and leadership attitudes, skills, and behavior

How Instructors and Participants Can Use the CD-ROM's Supplementary Materials

The accompanying CD-ROM contains the following materials for Chapter Eight:

- *Chapter Eight Study Guide.* This class or seminar session preparation guide should be completed by participants prior to class or seminar sessions. It can also be used in preparation for the superior-subordinates discussion, OD application, and team-building sessions at the end of Module 2 (following Chapter Twelve).
- *Checklist of HT,HP (High Task, High People) Attitudes and Behavior Patterns.* It is only because of its length that this important checklist is not in this book. After students or seminar

participants have read the chapter, they should read this document in order to determine which of their own attitudes and behavior they need to improve or further develop. Then, during the superior-subordinates discussion, OD application, and team-building sessions that follow the completion of the training in Part Two, participants can use it to identify which attitudes and behavior patterns associated with the HT,HP (team or participative) style are being displayed by work groups, units, or their organization as a whole. It helps sort out (a) which existing attitudes and behaviors are functional; (b) which are exerting dysfunctional influences on their own and others' motivation, attitudes, capabilities, work behavior, interpersonal interactions, and performance; and (c) which should perhaps be improved or further developed.

THE BASICS OF MOTIVATION

Considerable research has shown that a manager or leader's behavior can greatly affect personnel's motivation (London, 1993; London & Bray, 1984). Therefore, before beginning to describe managerial styles, we must first discuss the basics of what motivates people in organizations. This is important because perspectives on motivation not only help describe styles but also help us understand why certain styles are more effective than others.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

One of the most well-known and widely used frames of reference concerning the most basic human needs or drives is the hierarchy of needs developed by Abraham Maslow (1943). He grouped human needs and drives into five categories: physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualization. (Two other important theorists described three sets of basic human needs or drives. McClelland focused on the needs for power, achievement, and affiliation [McClelland, 1961, 1987; McClelland and Burnham, 1976]. Alderfer [1969, 1972] proposed existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.) Maslow's model deserves particular attention because most motivational frames of reference can be related to it.

Maslow's ascending arrangement of need categories is portrayed as a pyramid in Figure 8.1. His hierarchy is based on several general observations and conclusions about human motivation and behavior. First, Maslow observed that human beings are seldom, if ever, completely satisfied. When we get something we want, we turn to wanting something else. Second, he noted that when one level of needs is satisfied, our behavior becomes directed toward satisfying the next higher level. From these and other observations, he concluded that (a) unsatisfied needs are motivators, but satisfied needs are not; and (b) certain needs must become adequately and regularly satisfied before others can begin to motivate behavior.

As people's lower-level needs become regularly and adequately satisfied, they become more motivated by higher-level needs—especially ego needs. However, sudden deprivation of lower-level needs—for example, due to an accident or disaster—can reduce people to attempting to satisfy self-preservation needs.

Herzberg's Hygiene (Maintenance) and Motivator Factors

The theories formulated by Frederick Herzberg (1966, 1968) deal more directly with people's motivation on the job than do earlier theories. He identified two sets of work-related needs:

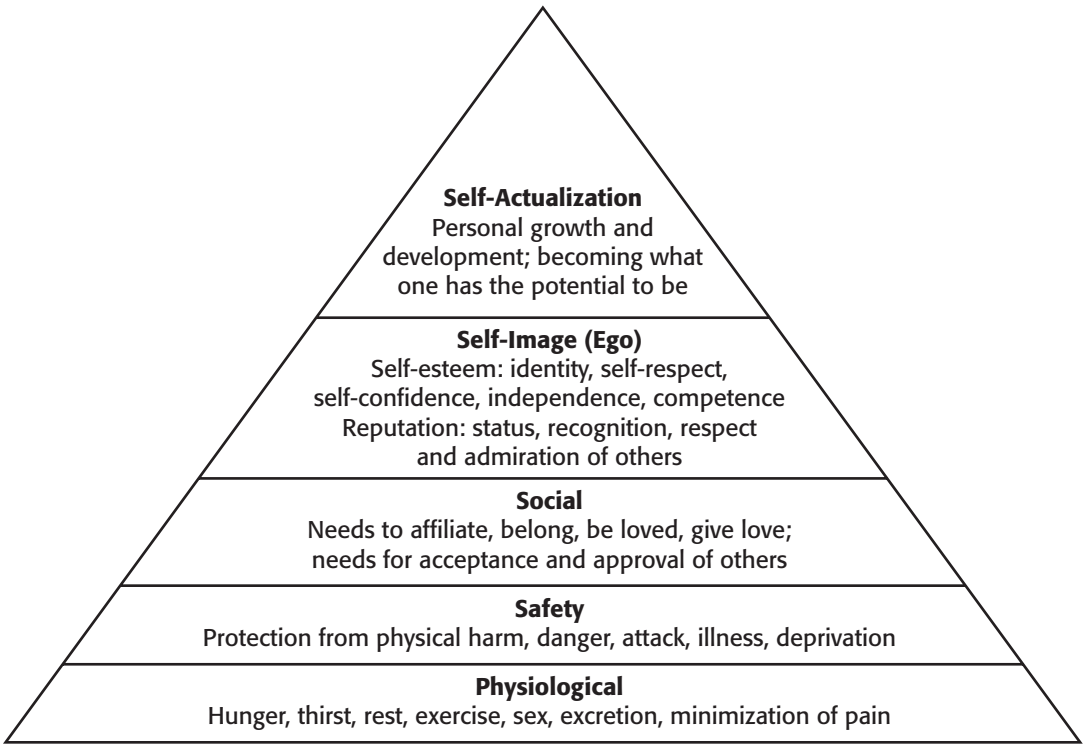

Figure 8.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Maslow, A. H. (1998). *Maslow on Management.* Published by John Wiley & Sons.

hygiene factors and motivator factors. (Hygiene factors have since become known as *maintenance factors,* the term that will be used here.) Both sets of factors are listed in Table 8.1.

Herzberg's *maintenance factors* are important to personnel because they are vehicles through which one or more of Maslow's basic internal needs can be satisfied. For example,

- Money, rather than being a need or drive per se, is actually a vehicle (a medium of exchange) for obtaining necessities of life such as food and shelter. It can also be used as a vehicle for enhancing self-esteem, gaining others' acceptance, achieving recognition, gaining social status, or satisfying other basic needs or drives. In fact, when higher-level needs such as self-esteem, status, power, and recognition cannot be fulfilled on the job, people often use the money they make to "buy" satisfaction of these needs off the job (for example, by purchasing status symbols such as big cars or nice homes).
- Job security represents a steady income with which an individual can fulfill personal and family needs over the long term. Thus, it can reduce fear of deprivation and strengthen a sense of long-term physical and psychological well-being.
- Working conditions primarily affect personnel's physical comfort and safety but can affect the satisfaction of their social and ego needs as well.
- Interpersonal relations with superiors, coworkers, and subordinates are vehicles through which social and ego needs can be fulfilled.

Table 8.1. Herzberg's Maintenance and Motivator Factors

	Maslow's Needs Primarily Affected	Other of Maslow's Needs Affected
MAINTENANCE FACTORS		
1. Organizational policies and administration	**All needs**	
2. Technical managerial or supervisory practices	**All needs**	
3. Interpersonal relations with manager or supervisor	Social, ego	
4. Working conditions	Physiological, safety	Social, ego
5. Salary, wages, and benefits	Physiological, safety, ego	Social, self-actualization
6. Relationships with co-workers	Social, ego	
7. Personal life	**All needs**	
8. Relationships with subordinates	Social, ego	
9. Status	Ego	
10. Job security	Physiological, safety	Social, ego, self-actualization
MOTIVATOR FACTORS		
1. Opportunity for personal achievement	Ego, self-actualization	By enabling personnel to develop, advance, and take advantage of more favorable maintenance factors, motivator factors also enable them to satisfy lower-level needs more fully.
2. Recognition	Ego	
3. Interesting work	Ego, self-actualization	
4. Responsibility (and freedom to act independently)	Ego, self-actualization	
5. Opportunity for advancement	Ego, self-actualization	
6. Opportunity for personal growth and development	Self-actualization, ego	

Source: Herzberg, F. (1988). *Herzberg on Motivation.* Published by Penton/IPC. Reprinted with permission.

- Managerial or supervisory practices can affect the fulfillment of all basic needs and drives.
- Organizational policies and administration affect job security, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, managerial and supervisory practices, and other factors—all of which, in turn, affect the fulfillment of all the needs and drives.

Thus, when maintenance factors are adequate, they contribute to the satisfaction of one or more needs, but when they are inadequate, they contribute to a lack of satisfaction of basic needs.

Herzberg's *motivator factors* are also vehicles through which basic internal needs and drives can be fulfilled. As indicated in Table 8.1, they primarily affect the fulfillment of higher-level ego and self-actualization needs. By enabling personnel to advance and to take advantage of more or better maintenance factors, they also enable personnel to satisfy lower-level needs more fully. When motivator factors are present and adequate, they contribute to the satisfaction of one or more needs. When they are absent or inadequate, they contribute to a lack of satisfaction of various needs.

Factors' Effectiveness

Herzberg likened the use of maintenance factors as positive stimulators to the use of carrots or sugar. Positive use of maintenance factors entices people into doing things more willingly and rewards them for behaving in the desired manner. Put another way, using maintenance factors positively is like pulling instead of pushing. Such use has grown as managers have found that carrots work better than sticks in most situations. But although maintenance factors can be used to stimulate personnel and get them moving, Herzberg concluded that they are not really motivators, for the following reasons:

First, when maintenance factors are used negatively by withholding or withdrawing them in order to threaten or punish personnel, they are certain to be perceived as inadequate. Herzberg pointed out that *inadequate maintenance factors create dissatisfaction.* Dissatisfaction generates resentment and antagonism, which reduce personnel's effort and cooperation.

Second, even when maintenance factors are used positively and are made more than adequate, they still do not satisfy personnel enough to motivate them. Herzberg found that improving or increasing maintenance factors to adequate levels can remedy most existing dissatisfaction. But he also found that raising them above adequate levels does not fully satisfy or really motivate people. Proof of this can be seen in those who have far more than adequate salaries, benefits, status, time off, working conditions, and social relationships but are still not very happy or productive on the job.

Third, Herzberg believed that neither negative nor positive use of maintenance factors constitutes motivation. He pointed out that the person being stimulated will move, but the individual who is doing the stimulating is really the one who is motivated. He also pointed out that externally stimulated movement is short-lived, so stimulation must be applied continually to obtain continual movement. To him, that did not constitute motivation. He believed that personnel are motivated when they want to do something, need no external stimulation, and continue to move under their own power.

As a result of twelve studies that he conducted, Herzberg (1968) concluded the following: First, *maintenance factors are primarily responsible for dissatisfaction on the job.* Thus, the *absence of dissatisfaction* depends mostly on adequate maintenance factors (used positively). Second, *motivator factors are the real keys to motivation,* because they are the ones that are primarily responsible for high job satisfaction, high on-the-job motivation, and high job performance.

Motivator factors are more effective for two reasons. Herzberg pointed out the first reason: maintenance factors are a limited and less effective type of motivator because they are *extrinsic motivators*—that is, they are related much more directly to the job environment than to the work itself. If the work itself is not intrinsically satisfying and motivating, then raising maintenance

factors to higher levels will not increase an individual's motivation. Motivator factors, on the other hand, are *intrinsic motivators* that can be incorporated into or associated with the work itself, thereby making it more inherently satisfying and motivating.

Herzberg proposed *job enrichment* as a means of incorporating motivator factors into people's jobs. One mode of enrichment that he suggested was reengineering jobs (by redesigning or restructuring tasks) in order to (a) make jobs more complex and challenging, so that they offer greater opportunity to achieve something significant and worthwhile (the first motivator factor in Table 8.1), and (b) make jobs more meaningful and less routine and boring, so that they are more interesting (third factor). He also recommended that managers (a) demonstrate recognition of and respect for subordinates' capabilities, potentials, and worth (second factor); (b) give praise or recognition when challenging tasks have been done well (second factor); (c) give subordinates greater responsibility for their own performance and greater independence to act on their own initiative (fourth factor); (d) provide more opportunities for advancement (fifth factor); and (e) provide more opportunities for personal growth and development (sixth factor), especially opportunities for personnel to develop skills that increase their qualifications for advancement.

There is an important second reason that motivator factors are more motivating than maintenance factors: as shown in Table 8.1, *motivator factors make greater contributions to the fulfillment of very motivating higher-level needs—especially ego needs* (such as the needs for competence, independence, achievement, power, and recognition). This is significant, because, in our own view and that of others, ego needs are the most intense inner motivators of most people's behavior. When ego needs and associated motives can be fulfilled through the work itself, personnel tend to work harder and perform better, as if they had built-in generators motivating them and keeping them moving under their own power.

In discussing the participative or team managerial style later in this chapter, we will point out that encouraging and guiding subordinates' participation in integrative functions amounts to incorporating motivator factors into subordinates' jobs. Adding motivator factors helps to make subordinates' jobs their own "baby," something of their own making rather than the boss's or the organization's.

BASIC FRAMEWORKS FOR UNDERSTANDING MANAGERIAL AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

Motivation and behavior research conducted during the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s drew considerable attention to the human aspects of organizations. It also highlighted the fact that managerial and supervisory behavior affect people's productivity and satisfaction on the job. Since the mid-1940s, therefore, a number of notable experts have studied managerial behavior and developed theories concerning managerial styles.

Putting various styles into perspective first requires establishing a frame of reference. Figures 8.2 and 8.3 show variations on a well-known grid concept that will be described shortly. The figures have two axes. The horizontal axis indicates a person's level of *task-orientedness* (degree of concern for and attention to subordinates' productivity or performance), which can range from low to high. The vertical axis indicates a person's level of *people-orientedness* (or degree of concern for and attention to people's needs, feelings, and relationships), which can also range from low to high. Several grid concepts suggest that *a manager's style is largely a function of his or her combination*

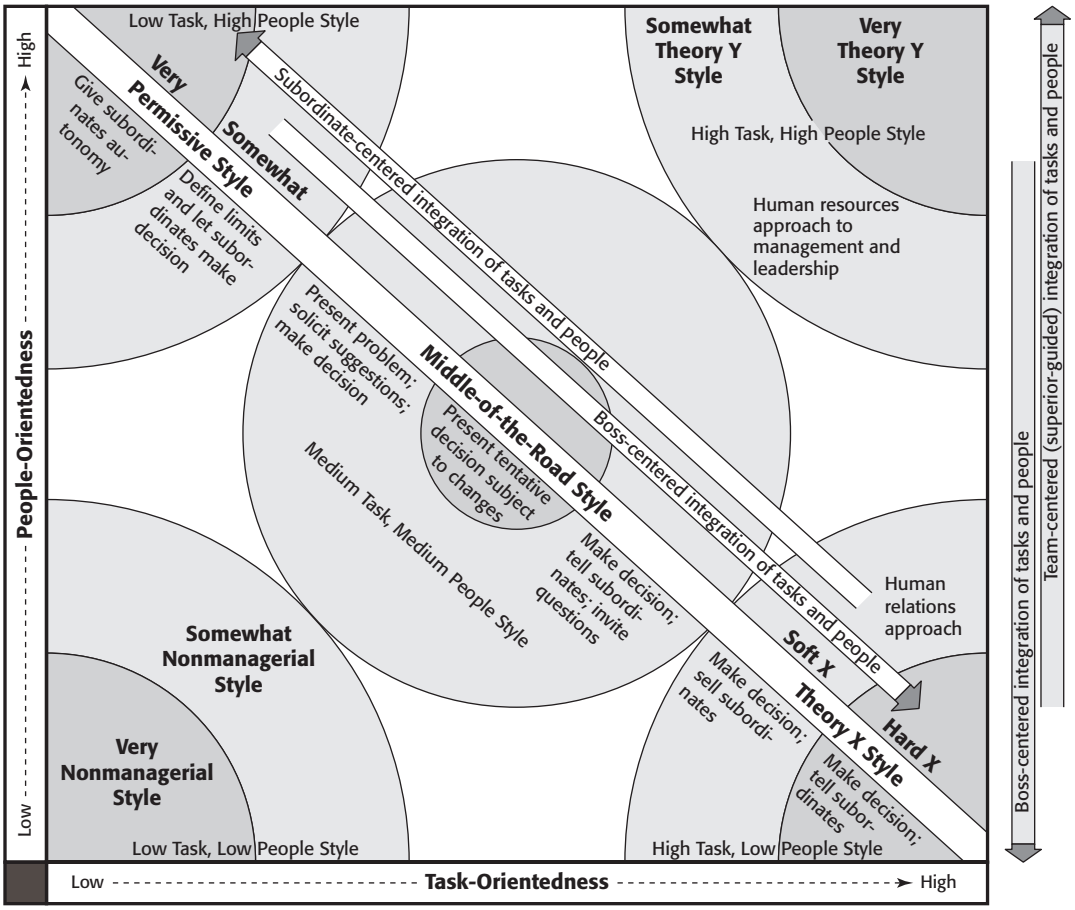

Figure 8.2. Conceptual Comparison of Five Managerial Styles

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of levels of parameters similar to task-orientedness and people-orientedness. (That combination of levels lies at a point on the grid where the manager's level of task orientation intersects with his or her level of people orientation.) As mentioned later in this chapter, various terms can be used to describe these two dimensions. However, the preferred terms in this book are *task orientation* or *task-orientedness* and *people orientation* or *people-orientedness*. This is largely because they can be used to describe both underlying attitudes and actual behavior. Other reasons are explained in Chapter Ten.

As mentioned earlier, different styles reflect different sets of interactions with others while performing management functions. Figure 8.3, which uses the same grid framework as Figure 8.2, is extremely useful for showing how different managers interact with subordinates when performing integrative functions. In the top right corner, it indicates that according to most modern management thinkers, integrative functions should not be considered just the manager's responsibility but should be considered the responsibility of the entire team, with the manager guiding subordinates' participation.

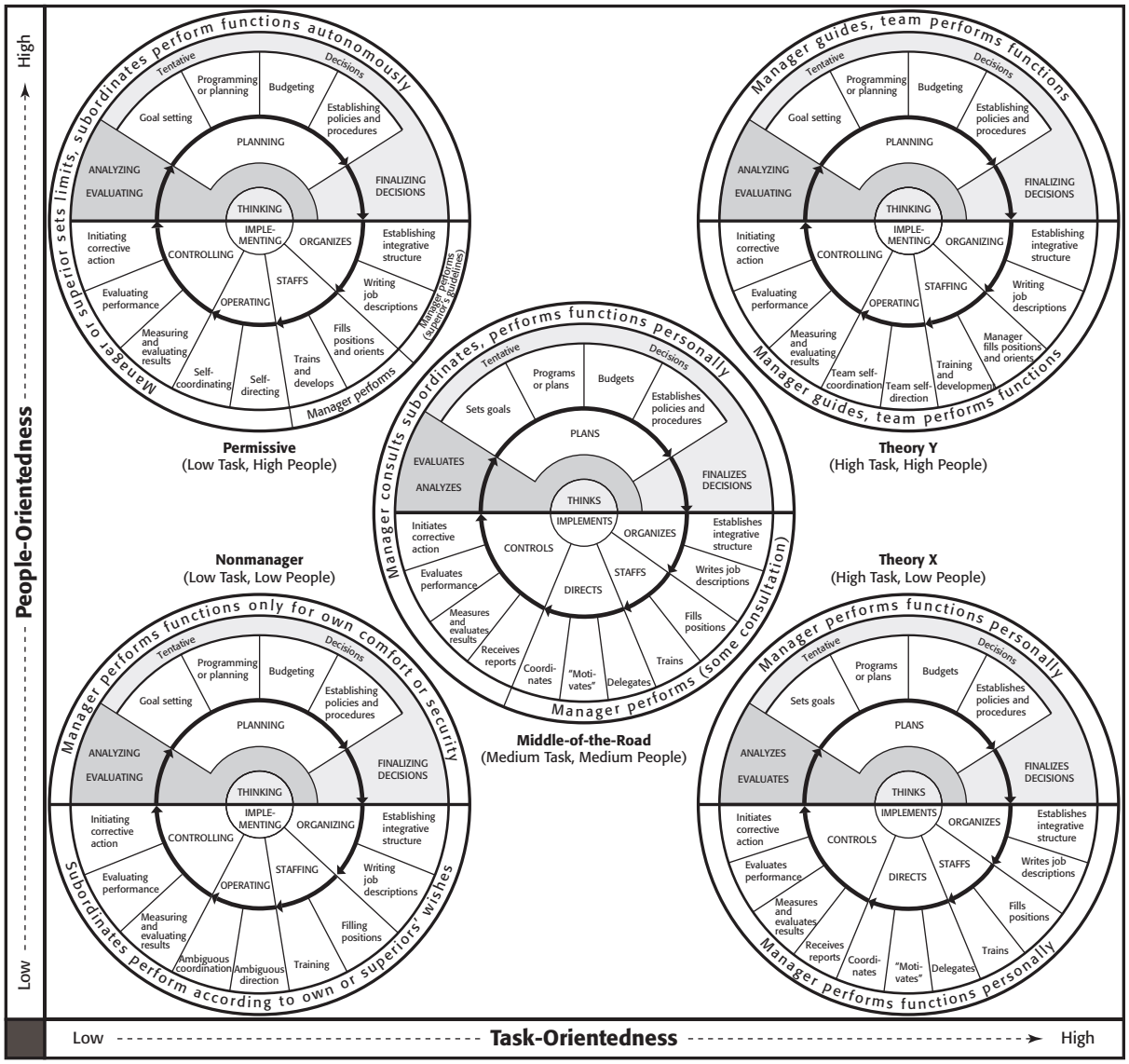

Figure 8.3. Comparison of Five Managerial Styles in Terms of Performance of Integrative Functions

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All five distinctive managerial styles are described in detail in Table 8.2.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Styles

Douglas M. McGregor (1957) was a professor at MIT's School of Industrial Management when he first published his managerial style theories. He believed that managers were influenced to behave in one of two basic ways by their views about subordinates. He called the two styles the *Theory X style* and the *Theory Y style.*

Table 8.2. Comparative Descriptions of Five Managerial or Leadership Styles

THEORY X STYLE (High Task Orientation, Low People Orientation)	THEORY Y STYLE (High Task Orientation, High People Orientation)	PERMISSIVE STYLE (Medium Task Orientation, Medium People Orientation)	MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD STYLE (Medium Task Orientation, Medium People Orientation)	NONMANAGERIAL STYLE (Low Task Orientation, Low People Orientation)
Trying to maximize subordinates' performance or productivity but doing little about their on-the-job satisfaction	Trying to maximize subordinates' performance and satisfaction (through participative, developmental practices that foster a team atmosphere, enable subordinates to contribute to their full potential, enable the team to work together efficiently and effectively, and enable subordinates to fulfill their own needs and goals as they strive to achieve organizational objectives)	Trying to maximize subordinates' contentment and morale by fostering a comfortable, congenial work atmosphere, but doing little about their performance	Trying to achieve a balance or compromise between subordinates' performance and satisfaction	Trying to maintain a comfortable, secure, tension-free atmosphere for oneself but doing very little about subordinates' performance or satisfaction
Personally performing goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making activities of any importance to the unit	Encouraging and guiding subordinates' participation in important (rather than trivial) goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making processes	Making few clear-cut decisions personally, letting subordinates handle most of them	Personally performing goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making functions of major importance but leaving routine integrative functions to subordinates	Letting superiors establish most goals, plans, solutions, and decisions, and delegating any unavoidable integrative tasks to subordinates
Very clearly defining and prescribing subordinates' responsibilities, authority, and working procedures	Encouraging and guiding subordinates' participation in defining their responsibilities, formulating and improving their working procedures, and formulating challenging personal performance and development goals	Trusting subordinates to recognize or determine their own responsibilities, authority, and working procedures	Outlining job descriptions for subordinates that emphasize technical, functional, or professional responsibilities	Letting superiors formulate subordinates' job descriptions and working procedures
Prescribing high performance standards (goals) for subordinates		Fostering a comfortable work tempo and letting subordinates perform to their own standards	Establishing medium performance standards for subordinates	Letting subordinates perform to their own standards
Personally directing (and coordinating) subordinates' efforts and tightly controlling their activities (closely monitoring their activities, requiring regular status reports from them, regularly evaluating their results, and personally initiating corrective action), in order to prevent subordinates from taking risks and making mistakes	Encouraging and guiding subordinates' exercise of a significant degree of self-direction and self-control, and encouraging subordinates to venture in new directions and to take initiative in developing and acting on innovative ideas	Trusting subordinates to do whatever is necessary to produce acceptable results, seldom giving them directions, monitoring their activities, or evaluating their progress or results	Personally directing subordinates' efforts (telling them in a nice way what to do) and then monitoring activities and evaluating results on a regular basis (but spending as little time as possible doing so)	Not being at all directive or controlling and not involving oneself in integrative processes; simply letting subordinates do things on their own and informing them of superiors' decisions and instructions when they are issued
Communicating mostly decisions and instructions to subordinates	Communicating mostly advice and information to subordinates	Communicating mostly information and guiding suggestions to subordinates	Communicating mostly decisions and instructions to subordinates (but in a low-key manner)	Communicating mostly superiors' decisions and instructions to subordinates but otherwise being relatively uncommunicative
Relying heavily on position-based power or authority in order to maintain discipline, exercise control, and get things done	Earning and employing expertise-based personal influence and setting a good example in order to enhance the effectiveness of one's encouragement and guidance of subordinates	Relying on personality-based influence (and seldom asserting position-based power) when asking, suggesting, cajoling, or using friendly persuasion in order to get things done	Exerting position-based power or authority in a low-key manner when trying to get things done	Seldom exercising position-based power or authority

Employing persuasion, threats, rewards, and punishments to motivate (drive) subordinates	Intensifying and releasing subordinates' inner motivation by providing adequate maintenance factors and by incorporating motivator factors into their jobs (both with and through their participation)	Employing maintenance factors only as positive (not negative) psychological stimulators, but insufficiently and ineffectively incorporating motivator factors into subordinates' jobs	Adequately employing maintenance factors as positive stimulators (and not using them as negative stimulators) but not incorporating motivator factors into subordinates' jobs to the extent possible	Doing very little to stimulate, satisfy, fulfill, or motivate subordinates
Requiring information from subordinates but neither soliciting their ideas, suggestions, or opinions nor trying to find merit in them	Encouraging subordinates' open and honest upward communication of ideas, suggestions, feelings, and opinions, and looking for merit in them even if one disagrees with them	Listening to subordinates' ideas, feelings, opinions, and complaints in order to determine what can be done to make them more comfortable and happy	Listening to subordinates' ideas, suggestions, and opinions in order to formulate better goals, plans, and solutions; make better decisions; and keep in touch with what is going on in the unit	Paying little attention to subordinates' ideas, suggestions, feelings, or opinions
Providing subordinates with technical, functional, or professional training only, doing nothing to develop their managerial (integrative) and interpersonal potentials	Encouraging and guiding development of subordinates' technical, functional, or professional capabilities; integrative skills; interpersonal attitudes and skills; and communicative skills	Concentrating on improving subordinates' personal well-being and growth but doing little to develop their integrative, interpersonal, and technical, functional, or professional capabilities	Providing subordinates with adequate training in managerial (integrative) and technical, functional, or professional knowledge and skills	Providing subordinates with technical, functional, or professional training only when forced to do so by superiors, and doing nothing to develop subordinates' interpersonal or integrative capabilities
Behaving insensitively toward subordinates, interacting impersonally with them, and being aloof and difficult to approach	Showing interest in, sensitivity to, respect for, and trust in subordinates, and being easy to approach even when under pressure.	Being highly sensitive to subordinates, interacting frequently and gregariously with them, and being easy to approach	Being moderately interested in and sensitive to subordinates; trying to be "one of the gang"	Behaving indifferently toward subordinates
Smothering or denying interpersonal conflicts with discipline and tight control	Encouraging and guiding subordinates in confronting and resolving their interpersonal conflicts	Trying to smother conflicts by accommodating subordinates' wishes and promoting good fellowship	Trying to resolve conflicts by prescribing a compromise that is more or less agreeable to those involved	Disregarding or sidestepping interpersonal conflicts
Not accepting subordinates' mistakes (especially when they have caused personal embarrassment); concentrating on determining who caused a problem and reprimanding them rather than on helping them remedy the situation and prevent it from occurring again	Accepting subordinates' mistakes—especially when they show that they have learned from them—and helping subordinates remedy situations and prevent them from occurring again	Ignoring subordinates' mistakes and sidestepping problems, trusting that subordinates will somehow remedy or solve them	Tolerating subordinates' mistakes and taking action to solve the problems created by them	Ignoring (and often being completely unaware of) subordinates' mistakes and the problems created by them, unless they have threatened or disturbed the status quo
Giving subordinates some information about what is going on in the organization but not telling them all that they might want or think they need to know	Keeping subordinates fully informed of what is happening in the organization—whether good or bad—and telling them whatever they want or think they need to know	Always painting a rosy, optimistic picture of what is going on in the unit and the organization	Telling subordinates only what they really need to know about what is going on in the organization	Telling subordinates very little about what is going on in the organization
Expecting good performance from subordinates but saying little about their performance unless something goes wrong	Readily praising or giving credit to subordinates when they have performed a challenging task well; constructively giving corrective feedback when problems occur	Frequently praising and seldom criticizing subordinates, even though they may not be performing very well	Praising more than criticizing subordinates' performance	Saying little or nothing about subordinates' performance

The Theory X (Authoritarian) Style. McGregor asserted that the following *Theory X views* of subordinates underlie the Theory X style: people in general (average persons) are lazy, unambitious, unreliable, resistant to change, and not particularly bright; they dislike work, shun responsibility, and prefer to be led; they are motivated mostly by economic gain, threats, rewards, and punishments; and, therefore, they cannot be trusted to perform well without frequent stimulation and constant supervision. McGregor maintained that managers who believe that their primary function is to achieve organizational objectives by obtaining the best possible performance, and who view their subordinates in this "Theory X" manner, are inclined to use a directive and controlling, impersonal style—the Theory X style. Often called the *authoritarian, traditional,* or *mechanistic* style, it involves the basic practices listed in Table 8.2, including (a) personally setting goals and performance standards, formulating plans, and making all decisions; (b) telling decisions to subordinates and giving them orders or instructions; and then (c) closely monitoring and tightly controlling subordinates' subsequent activities. (Theory X managers or leaders can also be described in the terms indicated in Table 8.3, which appears later in this chapter.) Since the manager does all the creative thinking, decision making, and directing, subordinates cannot see their job as their own "baby"—their own enterprise. Such managers are most likely to be found in hierarchical organizations or organizations having predominantly physical or manual tasks and traditionally masculine attitudes (for example, the military or heavy industry).

Authoritarian practices and interpersonal behavior patterns reflect a high level of task-orientedness but a low level of people-orientedness. Indeed, they reflect a general tendency to emphasize task-related results at the expense of people-related results (such as subordinates' development, fulfillment, and job satisfaction). Therefore, as shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3, McGregor's Theory X style appears at the lower right corner of the grid framework—the "High Task, Low People" or HT,LP corner.

A number of problems are associated with Theory X behavior. While this style of management is capable of maximizing productivity or performance in the short term, it cannot do so over the long term, largely because the manager not only is insensitive and impersonal but also uses negative psychological stimulation almost exclusively. (Thus, Theory X managers are often called whip-crackers, hardnoses, and disciplinarians.) Theory X management also falters in the long term because the manager makes all the decisions, issues orders or instructions, and, in effect, is constantly expressing the following to subordinates in an implicit or explicit manner: "I'm OK, but you're not as OK as I am. I know what needs to be done and how and when to do it, but you don't. So I'll do all the thinking, tell you what to do, and then make sure that you do it." This unflattering, even insulting message usually comes through to subordinates loud and clear. Subordinates feel powerless over their work lives. The results, as many managers and leaders have found, are negative attitudes such as dissatisfaction, resentment, and antagonism. Such attitudes undermine morale and cooperation and often lead to adversarial relationships and the subtle sabotaging of operations. These short- to intermediate-term results reduce operational efficiency and effectiveness over the long term. Incidentally, the non-people-oriented Theory X style has been largely responsible for the organization of workers into labor unions. As one anonymous observer put it: "People don't unionize simply to get higher wages. They also do it so they can get even with the people who crack the whip on them."

The Theory Y (Participative) Style. *Theory Y views,* to paraphrase McGregor, are as follows: people are *not* by nature lazy, unambitious, unreliable, thick-headed, resistant to change, or

unconcerned about their organizations' objectives; they *can* be more self-directing, self-coordinating, and self-controlling—and want to be; they have untapped capacities for assuming greater responsibility and performing more challenging tasks—and want to develop and use these capacities; their potentials *can* be developed and released; they are motivated by opportunities to develop and use all of their potentials, to achieve their own goals, and to fulfill their own needs; and are therefore worthy of a manager's attention, respect, and confidence. McGregor maintained that managers who believe their function is to obtain high performance and achieve organizational objectives both through and with people, and who view their subordinates in a Theory Y manner, are inclined to use the Theory Y style. This style, which more recently has been called the *participative, developmental, organic, democratic, team, team-building, human resources, 9,9,* or *HT,HP style,* is considered by many to be the ideal style.

The integrative practices and interpersonal behavior patterns associated with the Theory Y style are described in Table 8.2. Figures 8.2 and 8.3 show this style's grid position at the top right or "High Task, High People" (HT,HP) corner. To a great extent, HT,HP practices and behavior patterns are focused on creating and maintaining an atmosphere in which subordinates can reach their own goals and fulfill their own needs best by channeling their efforts toward objectives that they have participated in formulating. Equally important, participative practices help make subordinates' jobs more intrinsically satisfying and motivating. By encouraging and enabling subordinates to participate in integrative functions affecting them and their jobs, managers *enable subordinates to take part in making their jobs their own* (rather than simply the boss's or the organization's).

Theory Y managers follow the Golden Rule. They do unto subordinates as they would have their own bosses do unto them. Some may follow the "Platinum Rule" by doing unto subordinates as *subordinates* would have done unto them. The traits of Theory Y managers are also described later in the chapter in Table 8.3.

Although Theory Y managers behave in a highly people-oriented manner, they are not soft or permissive and do not emphasize subordinates' satisfaction at the expense of their productivity. Instead, they place *equally high emphasis on subordinates' performance, development, and satisfaction.* According to Collins (2005), many have also described these effective leaders (and managers) as humble, internally motivated, willing to accept blame, and willing to bestow praise.

Participative managers or leaders are most likely to be found in organizations that must respond to frequent and unpredictable changes in technological or market environments and that are not steeped in traditional authoritarian managerial attitudes and practices.

Three Additional Managerial Styles

Three other styles identified by Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell (1962) are described here in order to fill in the models in Figures 8.2 and 8.3. Their model will be described later in the chapter.

The Permissive Style. The permissive style, a soft style that is also known as the *permissive, laissez faire* ("leave them to do as they please"), or *country club style,* is the direct opposite of the Theory X style in most respects. Basically, it involves putting much greater emphasis on people and their relationships than on productive results. The practices and interpersonal behavior patterns of the permissive style are listed in Tables 8.2 and 8.3. It is located at the "Low Task, High People" (LT,HP) position in Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

Table 8.3. Summary Comparison of Five Managerial or Leadership Styles

TYPE OF MANAGER	High Task, Low People	Low Task, High People	Medium Task, Medium People	Low Task, Low People	High Task, High People
COMMON NAMES OR DESCRIPTIONS	Authoritarian, traditional, hard, directive, controlling	Permissive, soft, laissez faire	Middle-of-the-road, firm-but-fair, consultive	Nonmanagerial	Participative, team, synergistic
OTHER NAMES					
General					
Blake and Mouton (1964)	9,1	1,9	5,5	1,1	9,9
McGregor (1957, 1960)	Theory X	[Soft]	[Middle-of-the-road]		Theory Y
Likert (1961)	System 1 (to System 2)		System 3		System 4
O'Brien (1982)	High assertiveness, low responsiveness	Low assertiveness, high responsiveness	Medium assertiveness, medium responsiveness	Low assertiveness, low responsiveness	High assertiveness, high responsiveness
Atkins (1991)	Controlling-taking	Supporting-giving	Conserving-holding		Adapting-dealing
McManus (1980s)	Dominance	Steadiness		Compliance	Influence
Merrill and Reid (1999)	Driver	Amiable	[Analytical]		Expressive
Conflict management					
Zoll (1974)	Domination	Suppression	Compromise	Evasion	Synergistic
Hall (1986)	Win-lose	Yield-lose	Compromise	Lose-leave	Dominant-warm
Simpson (1977)	Power	Suppression	Compromise	Denial	Integration
Thomas-Kilmann (1974)	Competing	Accommodating	Compromising	Avoiding	Collaborating
Performance evaluation					
Lefton (1977)	Dominant-hostile	Submissive-warm		Submissive-hostile	Dominant-warm
GENERAL BEHAVIOR	Director, controller, commander, dominator, driver, taker, competitor, utilitarian, results seeker, blamer, attacker, disciplinarian	"Country clubber," pleaser, supporter, giver, accommodator, suppressor, yielder	Compromiser, balancer, performer, workaholic	Avoider, isolationist	Thinker, communicator, achiever, developer, team builder, integrator, positive stroker, confronter, influencer
	Superior, self-centered, aggressive, hostile, exploitative; dreads failure, avoids defeat	Warm, submissive, amiable, responsive, insecure, dependent, affiliative, benevolent, associative, protective	consultive, changeable; anxious about criticism and censure	Apathetic, indecisive, evasive, pessimistic, compliant, submissive; fears rejection, avoids separation and hopelessness	Self-actualized, optimistic, realistic, self-assured, assertive, responsive, supportive, expressive

What manager emphasizes or attempts to maximize	Productivity	Satisfaction	Balance or compromise between productivity and satisfaction	Comfortable atmosphere for self	Productivity and satisfaction (through participation and development)
Significant underlying personal traits	Ego; high economic and political values; low people-related values	High people-related values; low economic and political values		(vary)	Mature balance between selfish and selfless orientations
Attitudes about self and subordinates in terms of ego states and life positions ("I'm OK, You're OK")	[Parent] I'm OK, but you're not OK (or are not as OK as I am).	[Child] You're OK, I'm not OK (or am I OK?)	[Somewhat adult] We're both pretty much OK, but I may be a little more OK than you.	People who help me or don't bother me are OK; the rest are not OK or don't matter.	[Adult] I'm OK, and you're OK (but we can all become better and do better with help from each other).
Socio-technical factors that manager analyzes or considers	Considers only task-related and organizational factors	Considers mostly individual and social factors	Analyzes mostly task-related and organizational factors but also considers individual and social factors to some extent	Thinks only about personal situation and maintaining a comfortable, worry-free atmosphere for himself or herself	Analyzes all variables: task-related, individual, social, organizational, and external
What manager integrates	Mostly integrates tasks with tasks (mechanics of the operation)	Mostly integrates people with people (social interactions and atmosphere)	Integrates both tasks and people to a balanced (medium or average) degree	Integrates little	Integrates tasks with tasks, people with their tasks, and people with people (people with the organization)
Manager's basic approach	Superior-centered direction and control	Subordinate-centered autonomy	Compromise or balance between superior- and subordinate-centered	No approach (stays out of the way)	Team-centered (with superior-guided participation of subordinates in integrative functions)
What manager runs or manages	Runs what can be seen (tasks and people's activities)	Runs what can be felt or sensed (people's emotions and interactions)	Runs or manages tasks, activities, and some interactions	Does not run or manage much of anything	Manages what can be seen (tasks, activities, interactions), what cannot be seen (thinking processes, attitudes, needs), and what can be felt or sensed (emotions)
What manager communicates	Instructions, decisions, orders	Feelings, support	Mostly instructions and decisions	Seldom communicates	Advice, information, guidance
Behavior in terms of the Golden Rule	Does to subordinates (directs and controls them) so that they will not make boss-embarrassing mistakes	Does well (is nice) to subordinates, so that they will like and do well to (be friends with) him or her	Does pretty much all right by everyone (organization and people)	Doesn't do much to or for anyone, so that no one will bother him or her	Does to subordinates as he or she would have his or her own boss do to him or her (or perhaps better, as subordinates would have done to them)

The Middle-of-the-Road (Consultive) Style. The middle-of-the-road style is also known as the *consultative* or *firm-but-fair* style. (*Consultative* will be used here.) As shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3, it is a "Medium Task, Medium People" (MT,MP) style that lies in the middle between the Theory X style and the permissive style. The middle-of-the road style involves (a) putting equal, medium emphasis on both task-related and people-related results, (b) trying to strike a balance or compromise that is neither too hard nor too soft on subordinates, (c) exercising a medium degree of direction and control, and (d) behaving in a congenial interpersonal manner. The practices and interpersonal behavior patterns of the middle-of-the-road style are listed in Tables 8.2 and 8.3.

The Nonmanagerial Style. A fifth grid-oriented style is called the *nonmanagerial style* or *impoverished management.* As shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3, it occupies the "Low Task, Low People" (LT,LP) position on a grid framework. Nonmanagers do little managing or leading. Instead, they (a) avoid managerial responsibilities, (b) let superiors and subordinates make decisions, and (c) do little about subordinates' performance or satisfaction. Such individuals may have been passed over for promotion several times or may have given up trying to do a good job. They just want to stay out of everyone's way and not make waves. Other related behavior is described in Table 8.2.

Table 8.3 summarizes the five distinctive managerial or leadership styles that have just been described.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Continuum of Management Styles

Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt (1958) conceptualized a continuum of possible styles that includes the following: (1) manager makes a decision and announces it; (2) manager makes a decision and sells it to subordinates; (3) manager makes a decision, presents it, then invites questions; (4) manager presents a tentative decision that is subject to change; (5) manager presents a problem, gets suggestions, and then makes decision and announces it; (6) manager defines limits and asks a group of subordinates to make the decision; and (7) manager allows subordinates to function within limits defined by superiors. When these styles are placed on the grid framework in Figure 8.2, they range down the diagonal continuum from "very permissive" to "hard Theory X." In other words, subordinate-centered #7 is at the top left corner, and boss-centered #1 is at the bottom right corner on the grid in Figure 8.2.

Several assumptions underlie Tannenbaum and Schmidt's model: (1) One cannot be highly task-oriented *and* highly people-oriented at the same time. One can either be highly task-oriented, highly people-oriented, or somewhere in between. (2) There is an almost inescapable, built-in trade-off between task-orientedness and people-orientedness. To become more task-oriented, one would necessarily become less people-oriented—and vice versa. (3) Therefore, the middle-of-the-road style is probably the best, because it represents an achievable balance or compromise between the two extremes. These assumptions are almost certainly erroneous, for reasons that will be discussed later in the chapter.

Likert's Four Management Systems

Rensis Likert (1961) accepted other researchers' notion that the division of labor in complex organizations inevitably creates problems involving cooperation. In his opinion, the natural tendency in hierarchical organizations is to resort to mechanisms of control, such as coercion and economic rewards, which intensify the conflicts between individuals and groups that arise naturally through the division of labor. So he studied the forms of organization that most

successfully overcome the motivational problems inherent in most organizations. He found that successful organizations are made up of cohesive work groups (tightly knit social subsystems) that effectively integrate their activities through common participation in an organizational culture or climate. He also found that interpersonal and intergroup conflicts can be minimized through organization-wide commitment to the development of interpersonal skills for working in groups and to group decision making. Likert recognized that the creation of effective groups does not solve problems of cooperation, because it can tend to increase conflicts *between* groups. Therefore, he emphasized the importance of establishing a consistent interactive climate throughout an organization. The following are three of the tactics he suggested: First, rotate managers between functions. Second, establish multiple overlapping group memberships. One way is to establish "linking pin" relationships that foster and enable vertical communication and integration between an organization's levels (as shown in Figure 4.2 on page 74). Another way is to form matrix groups that foster and enable horizontal communication and integration among specialized functional units or departments (as shown at the bottom of Figure 6.1 on page 126). Third, establish a participative, developmental climate throughout the organization.

Likert proposed that there are essentially four managerial styles or *systems.* He called them *systems* because he recognized that a particular managerial style tends to pervade a given organization in a systemic manner.

System 1 is a highly task-oriented, structured, and exploitative authoritarian system. It corresponds to the Theory X, "high task, low people," or mechanistic style, in which people are managed (directed and controlled) through fear and coercion.

System 2 is a benevolent, authoritative, "public relations–conscious" system in which people are managed by using carrots rather than sticks. In our opinion, this system corresponds to the soft Theory X style where it borders on the middle-of-the-road style (as shown in Figure 8.2).

System 3 is a consultive system. It involves the use of carrots, sticks, and two-way communication. We equate it with the middle-of-the-road style shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3 and described in Tables 8.2 and 8.3.

System 4 is a participative, team, group, or employee-centered system. We equate it with the Theory Y (or participative) style. Management has complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Broad goals, plans, and policies are established at the top, but middle and lower levels are delegated authority to make important decisions about specific operating goals, plans, and procedures. Communications flow freely both vertically and horizontally throughout the entire organization. Motivation is unlocked within subordinates as they participate in goal-setting, planning, coordination, and evaluation processes. Superior-subordinate interactions reflect a high degree of congeniality and mutual respect and trust. Because integrative responsibilities and authority are diffused throughout the organization, and because communication and interaction are open, honest, and cooperative, the formal and informal processes tend to be identical. Emphasis is placed on developing effective work groups. Work groups are integrated (coordinated) through "linking pins" (generally the heads of groups, who are also members of higher-level groups).

Although Likert felt that System 4 was the most effective, he acknowledged that subordinates' reactions to a particular practice or behavior pattern could depend on the behavior they expected. If, for example, a manager began behaving more democratically than subordinates had come to expect, the subordinates might find the behavior bewildering or objectionable. Likert felt,

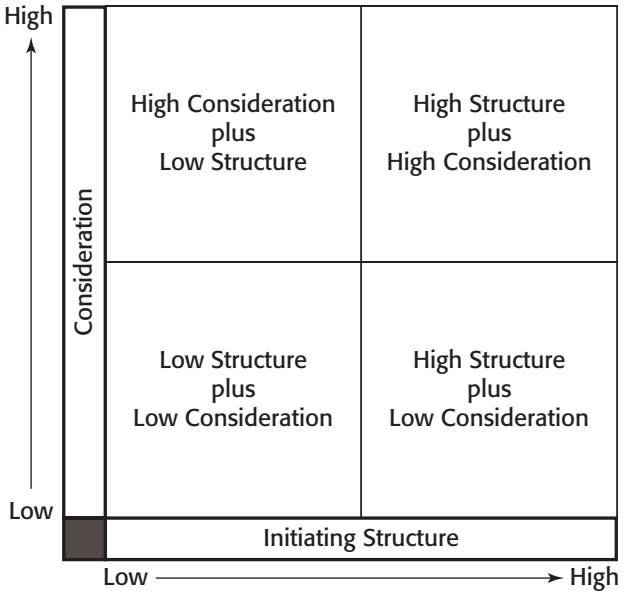

Figure 8.4. The Ohio State Model of Leadership Behavior

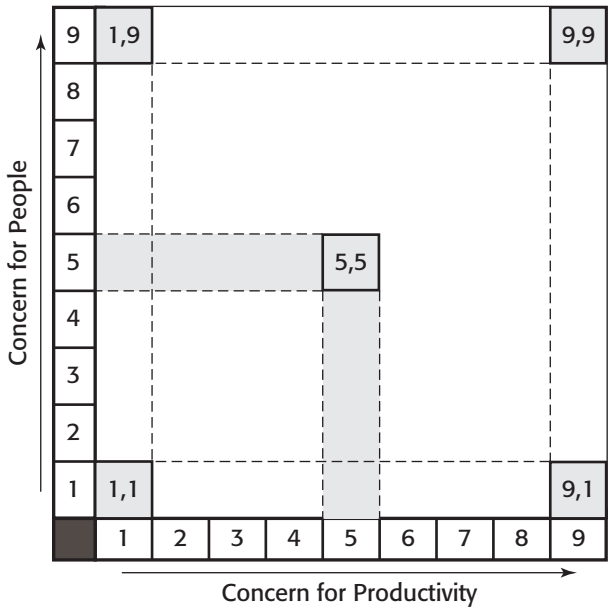

Figure 8.5. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid®, Adapted to Show Five Distinctive Styles

Source: Adapted from Blake and Mouton, 1964. Used with permission from Grid International, Inc.

therefore, that moving an organization to System 4 from System 1 should involve a phased, organization-wide transition from System 1 to System 2 to System 3 to System 4.

System 4T was more recently proposed by Likert and Likert (1976). They saw a causal relationship between managerial styles and business performance. As a result, they conceived a "Total Model Organization," which involves System 4 plus (a) setting high performance goals; (b) using well-developed leader skills and knowledge; and (c) providing planning, resources, equipment, and help for subordinates.

System 5 anticipates the evolution of organizations. Likert (1977) described it as a "system of the future" in which hierarchical authority will have disappeared and been replaced with overlapping work groups and the integrative roles of "linking pins."

The Ohio State Studies' Grid Framework

Probably the earliest research concerning a two-dimensional, grid-oriented description of leadership styles was begun at Ohio State University in 1945. This ongoing research has been reported by Fleishman and Harris (1962); Korman (1966); Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, and Stogdill (1974); and others.

A likeness of the Ohio State model is shown in Figure 8.4. It describes styles in terms of the levels of two types of behavior patterns. (Blake and Mouton's model, shown in Figure 8.5, will be discussed shortly and is shown here to facilitate comparison of several grid-based models.)

The first dimension (on the horizontal axis) is labeled *Initiating Structure.* It involves the following: planning, organizing activities, assigning tasks, establishing job procedures, defining working relationships with subordinates, and emphasizing task achievement and productivity. Other frames of reference, developed since the Ohio State studies began, contain similar attitudinal or behavioral terms for this dimension: "job-centered," "directive and controlling," "concern for productivity," "task-orientedness," "task behavior," and "assertiveness."

The second dimension (on the vertical axis) is labeled *Consideration.* It involves interpersonal aspects of managerial behavior that demonstrate (a) trust in, respect for, and warmth toward subordinates and (b) concern for subordinates' well-being, needs, and feelings. It also involves some emphasis on two-way communication and subordinates' participation in decision making. Others' frames of reference contain similar attitudinal or behavioral terms for this dimension: "employee-centered," "supportiveness," "human relations–oriented," "concern for people," "relationship behavior," "responsiveness," and "people-orientedness."

Asserting that the structure and consideration dimensions are separate, the researchers plotted leader behavior on two separate axes instead of a single continuum. The results, as shown in Figure 8.4, are four grid quadrants. Each quadrant represents one of four basic combinations of levels of the two behavioral dimensions: (1) high structure plus low consideration; (2) high structure plus high consideration; (3) high consideration plus low structure; and (4) low structure plus low consideration.

The Ohio State studies did not result in the formulation of a managerial style theory per se. However, this two-dimensional concept did contribute to the more recent development of two well-known two-dimensional theories proposed by Blake and Mouton (attitudinal dimensions) and Hersey and Blanchard (behavioral dimensions).

It should also be noted that Fleishman and Korman are among the situational (contingency) management theorists who believe that (a) there is no one best style that fits all circumstances, and (b) one's choice of a style should be contingent on certain situational factors.

Blake and Mouton's Grid Concept

The Managerial Grid® concept of Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell (1962) enabled them to illustrate the five distinctive styles in the grid framework shown in Figure 8.5.

Like the Ohio State model, their grid has two axes. The horizontal axis is labeled *Concern for Productivity.* The vertical axis is labeled *Concern for People.* Each axis indicates an individual's level of the particular concern, starting at the lower left corner with "1" (low) and ranging to "9" (high). The model's premise is that a manager's style is a function of his or her particular combination of levels of concern for productivity and concern for people.

The *9,1 style* represents the combination of a very high concern for productivity and a very low concern for people. It can be equated with the Theory X, authoritarian, or "high task, low people" (HT,LP) style in Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

The *1,9 style,* which Blake and Mouton also called the "country club style," represents a very low concern for productivity and a very high concern for people. It can be equated with the permissive or "low task, high people" (LT,HP) style shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

The *5,5 style* represents a medium concern for productivity coupled with a medium concern for people. It is the consultive, middle-of-the-road, or "medium task, medium people" (MT,MP) style shown in Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

The *1,1 style* represents the lowest concern for both productivity and people. Blake and Mouton called this the "nonmanagerial style." Its position is at the lower left corner on a grid framework—the "low task, low people" (LT,LP) position in Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

The *9,9 style* represents the highest concern for both productivity and people. It can be equated with the participative, team, or "high task, high people" (HT,HP) style and with what we and others believe McGregor meant by "Theory Y." Blake and Mouton believed that the 9,9 style is superior to all others.

Blake and Mouton observed that managers are inclined to use the style they prefer, but will resort to a backup style if the preferred style does not seem to be getting the desired results. They also observed that there are more than just the five distinctive styles (for example, 8,1; 7,2; 6,5; 3,8; 2,4; 9,5). Therefore, they warned against thinking solely in terms of the five distinctive styles.

These styles do not correspond to the styles on the Ohio State model, because Ohio State's combinations of two *behavioral* dimensions are not the same as Blake and Mouton's combinations of two underlying levels of *attitudinal* dimensions—concerns for productivity and people. Because the two types of underlying attitudes are interrelated and interacting, Blake and Mouton separate their grid levels with a comma (for example, 9,9). They do not describe and explain the resulting behavior as being "task behavior" or "people behavior." In contrast, the Ohio State model does not *explain* tendencies to behave in certain ways in terms of underlying traits or attitudes. Instead, it *describes* styles in terms of combinations of levels of two separate types of behavior (consideration and structure). The level of one type of behavior does not influence and is not dependent on the other. To indicate this, the word *plus* has been inserted between the two types of behavior, as shown in Figure 8.4.

Blake and Mouton's grid concept represented a breakthrough in managerial style theories. The grid framework enabled theorists and practitioners to conceptualize, examine, and relate a wide variety of styles. However, many managers did not accept the Theory Y and 9,9 concepts at first. Many still do not, even though participative or team management has been advocated in many publications for years and is being practiced successfully in many organizations. A major reason is that many still hold mistaken, conventional views such as the following: "Task-oriented

behavior and associated task-related results are different from people-related behavior and associated people-related results. Task-oriented behavior, aimed at obtaining task-related results involving subordinates' productivity or performance, is boss-centered. On the other hand, people-oriented behavior (being nice, warm, friendly, and supportive and trying to make others happy and comfortable) is aimed at obtaining people-related results involving subordinates' satisfaction, so it is subordinate-centered. Therefore, trade-offs exist between task-oriented behavior and people-oriented behavior and, thus, between task-related results and people-related results. For example, spending time behaving one way precludes spending time behaving the other. Thus, behaving one way a higher percentage of the time means behaving the other way a proportionately lower part of the time. Also, to obtain really good results of one kind, one must sacrifice results of the other kind. Thus, one can only obtain combinations of results such as 'high task and low people,' 'low task and high people,' or 'medium task and medium people.' Given these trade-offs, therefore, it is not possible to maximize both the performance and the satisfaction of one's subordinates. That is, one cannot behave in a 'high task, high people' manner and cannot obtain both high task- and people-related results at the same time." As a result of these attitudes, many managers will be task-oriented and push subordinates hard to get a project completed on time, then will be people-oriented and have a party for subordinates.

One reason for these mistaken views is that many managers have not yet been shown convincingly enough why and how they can be highly task-oriented and highly people-oriented at the same time.

Miles's Human Resources Approach to Management

The human resources approach to management, proposed by Raymond E. Miles (1975), is probably the best instructional tool for explaining how it is possible to be highly task-oriented and highly people-oriented at the same time—without having to make trade-offs. Figure 8.6 is a slightly modified version of his model. It shows managers how to bring about a sequence of beneficial causes and effects, which, once begun, tends to reinforce and perpetuate itself.

First, participative managers initiate and sustain the approach by continually encouraging and guiding the following: (a) subordinates' participation in important goal-setting, planning, decision-making, and problem-solving processes that affect them and their jobs; (b) subordinates' greater direction, coordination, and control of their own activities; and (c) subordinates' greater exercise of creativity and initiative in all their integrative and technical activities. In the short term, these managers enable their subordinates to participate in integrative functions with adequate effectiveness by providing them with training in management concepts and methods and group process procedures. In addition, they encourage, guide, and provide technical, functional, or professional training for their subordinates.

Participative, developmental practices directly produce one primary and several secondary results.

The primary result, as indicated by the bold arrow on the left side of Figure 8.6, is individual and team *development*. Participative, developmental practices further develop, improve, or increase the following:

a. Subordinates' goal-setting, planning, decision-making, and problem-solving capabilities—partly through training but, more important, through experiential learning (learning by doing) gained during their participation in think-work processes

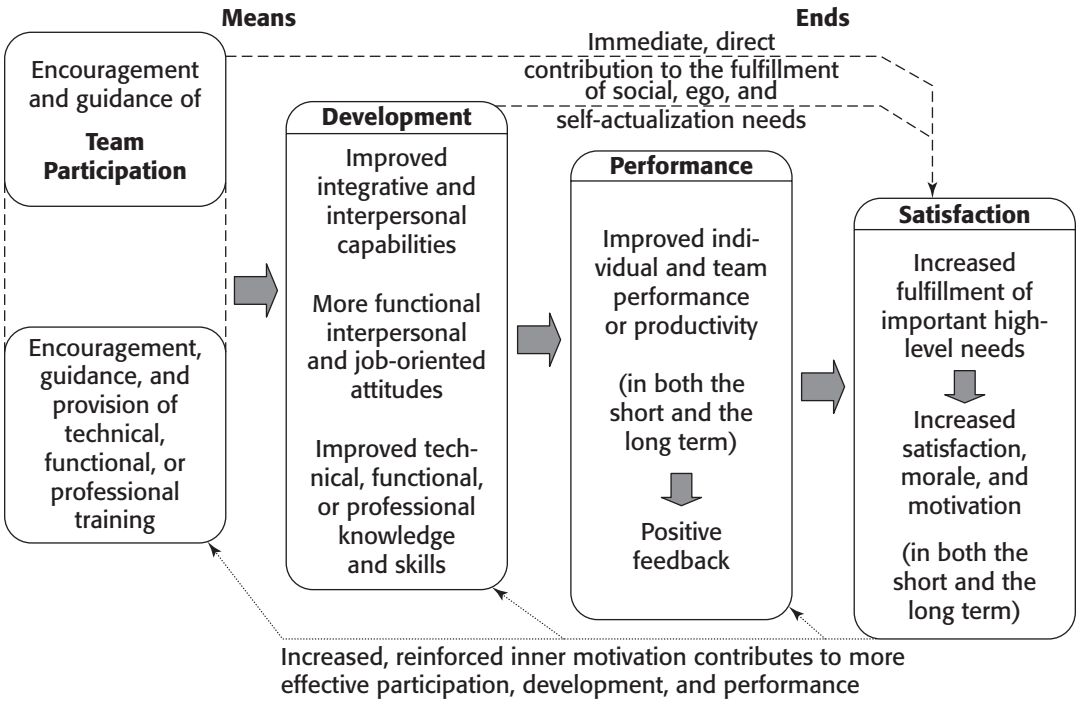

Figure 8.6. Miles's Human Resources Approach to Management

Source: Adapted from Miles, 1975. Used with permission.

b. Subordinates' capacities for greater, more efficient, and more effective self-direction, self-coordination, and self-control—both through training and through experiential learning

c. Subordinates' potentials for exercising more creativity and initiative—through training and experiential learning

d. Subordinates' technical, functional, or professional knowledge and skills

e. Team-oriented attitudes, skills, and working relationships that are conducive to highly effective teamwork

f. Subordinates' exposure to the knowledge, skills, experience, job responsibilities, job characteristics, job interdependencies, and problems of their superiors, coworkers, and subordinates, which, in turn, improves their understanding of and attitudes toward the jobs and people around them

g. Subordinates' interpersonal skills (for example, communication skills, interpersonal awareness, and sensitivity)

By developing items e and f, participation in group processes also helps reduce interpersonal and interdepartmental conflicts, which often stem from a lack of understanding of other people, their jobs, and their problems.

The preceding practices also contribute to managers' development. As managers train, advise, relate with, inform, and guide their subordinates, and as they set a good example for them, they further develop or improve their own integrative and interpersonal skills and attitudes.

Several of the secondary effects produced by participative practices are *motivational.* As indicated by the dashed line at the top of Figure 8.6, subordinates' participation in integrative processes contributes directly to fulfillment of their higher-level needs or drives and, thus, to their morale and motivation:

a. Participation makes subordinates' jobs more interesting, challenging, and inherently motivating. As subordinates incorporate more of their own ideas into their job descriptions, working procedures, performance goals and standards, and solutions to problems, their jobs become more their own.
b. Participation enables subordinates to incorporate their own feelings, needs, and goals into unit and organizational goals, plans, policies, procedures, solutions, and decisions. This (1) increases their awareness of, acceptance of, and commitment to organizational goals, plans, policies, and procedures; (2) increases their motivation to implement these types of decisions (because they are internally motivated to fulfill the personal needs, motives, and goals incorporated in them); and (3) eventually leads to an increase in their job satisfaction (because the implementation of plans, policies, procedures, solutions, and decisions—and the subsequent achievement of goals—result in fulfillment of the personal needs and goals incorporated in them). This type of motivation, in fact, is the essence of the people-related aspects of the management by objectives concept developed by Peter Drucker (1954).
c. Participation demonstrates a manager's trust in and respect for subordinates, which contribute to fulfillment of their ego-related needs and motives.
d. Participation enables subordinates to contribute more of their knowledge, experience, and opinions to management processes, thus helping them feel more useful and important and thereby contributing to fulfillment of their ego-related needs and motives.
e. Participation gives subordinates opportunities to relate with each other and their superior, contributing to fulfillment of both social- and ego-related needs and motives.
f. Participation helps develop subordinates' desire to participate further, to be more self-directing and self-controlling, and to exercise more creativity and initiative.

Subordinates' participation in integrative processes also produces these secondary *performance-related* effects:

a. By enabling subordinates to contribute more of their knowledge and experience to integrative processes, participation directly improves the quality of team analyses, goals, plans, solutions, and decisions. Since the quality of performance largely depends on the quality of these inputs, it also improves the quality of individual and team performance indirectly.
b. Participation provides subordinates with the firsthand knowledge and understanding of goals, plans, solutions, and decisions that enables them to exercise greater and more effective self-direction, self-coordination, self-control, creativity, and initiative. By doing so, it further improves individual and team performance indirectly.

As shown by the bold arrow in the middle of Figure 8.6, the ongoing development of subordinates' (and managers') potentials in various areas directly improves *individual and team performance* or productivity. Improved attitudes, skills, and team working relationships enable both managers and their subordinates to accomplish their tasks and work together with increased

efficiency and effectiveness. Another result, as indicated by the dashed line at the top of Figure 8.6, is *motivational.* The development of subordinates' technical, integrative, and interpersonal skills and attitudes contributes directly to the satisfaction of their *self-actualization motives.* To a significant degree, these motives are unlocked and stimulated by greater fulfillment of social- and ego-related motives (through use of participative, developmental, performance-improving practices) and by the development of subordinates' job-related and interpersonal maturity.

It should also be noted that enhanced performance also increases on-the-job satisfaction, as shown by the bold arrow on the right of Figure 8.6. When personnel perform better, they take more pride in their work, which in turn increases their satisfaction. And as shown by the dotted lines, their satisfaction reinforces all other aspects of their activities.

The human resources approach can be summarized by describing it simply in terms of means and ends: Participation is a primary means. Development is a primary means. Maximized individual and team performance and satisfaction are the equally important ends.

The human resources model enables us to recognize two extremely important points: (a) *Task-related results can also be people-related results, and people-related results can also be task-related results.* (b) *Likewise, task-oriented behavior can also be people-oriented behavior, and people-oriented behavior can also be task-oriented behavior.* Here is why: while participation, development, performance, and satisfaction could each be considered essentially either task-oriented or people-oriented, each can also be the other and produce indirect or direct people-related or task-related results. For example, the expectation of high performance is normally considered task-oriented. But because exceptional performance contributes directly to an individual's sense of self-worth and personal accomplishment and, thus, to on-the-job satisfaction or fulfillment, it produces people-related results in addition to task-related results. Thus, *an emphasis on high performance can be considered people-oriented as well as task-oriented.* Similarly, development could be considered essentially people-oriented, inasmuch as development helps to fulfill ego and self-actualization needs or motives. But because development also contributes to better individual and team performance, it produces task-related results in addition to people-related results. Thus, *emphasis on development can be considered task-oriented as well as people-oriented.*

Each of these factors, then, is directly or indirectly both task- and people-oriented, especially when they are all emphasized within the context of the human resources approach and the spirit and intent of the Theory Y style. What is the spirit and intent of Theory Y? *To emphasize productivity for the sake of people as well as for the sake of productivity and to emphasize people for the sake of productivity as well as for the sake of people.*

Putting the approach into greater perspective requires explaining what it does not involve and comparing it with the distorted and manipulative *human relations approach* to participation, which Miles (1975) also described. In this approach, managers who hold Theory X views of subordinates may use participation as a task- rather than people-oriented manipulative gimmick or bribe to (a) increase subordinates' satisfaction, morale, motivation, and effort; (b) decrease their resistance to organizational objectives; and (c) increase their compliance with authority—all of which these managers hope will improve subordinates' performance. Such managers subvert the participative process in two ways: First, even though they may allow subordinates to participate in certain processes, they will usually go ahead and do what they initially intended to do, regardless of subordinates' inputs. Second, instead of allowing subordinates to participate in important matters, they actually let them participate only in trivial matters.

This approach, often used by Theory X managers to soften their style and to increase subordinates' cooperation, cannot be as effective as the human resources approach. It neither emphasizes nor provides the comprehensive development of subordinates' potentials that would enable them to perform more complex functions better; to be more self-directing, self-coordinating, and self-controlling; and to experience the greater fulfillment that accompanies arriving at a higher plateau in personal and team achievement.

We and many others have concluded that the Theory Y, team, participative, or 9,9 style (and the human resources approach) does more than any other style to fulfill and leverage subordinates' ego and self-actualization needs and thereby maximize their job satisfaction, motivation, morale, and performance. On the other hand, the Theory X or authoritarian style does more than any other style to dissatisfy people in regard to fulfillment of their ego and self-actualization needs and thereby undermines their job satisfaction, motivation, morale, and performance.

Situational (Contingency) Theories

Situational theories hold that there is no one best managerial or leadership style for all situations; one situation may call for the use of one style, while another situation may warrant the use of another style.

Fiedler. Fred E. Fiedler (1963) specifically investigated the effectiveness with which various managerial styles can be used to manage particular types of tasks. Based on data that he had accumulated through the use of an attitude questionnaire called the LPC or "Least Preferred Coworker" (Fiedler, 1951), he arrived at the following conclusions: First, effective leadership is a joint function of two sets of factors: leader characteristics and situational characteristics. Second, factors operating both inside and outside an organization can moderate the effectiveness of a given style. Third, "the effectiveness of a group is contingent on the relationship between leadership style and the degree to which the group situation enables the leader to exert influence" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 248). Fourth, there are three major determinants of a leadership situation. *Leader-member relations* essentially revolve around whether members of the group like the leader. *Task structure* involves four factors: the clarity of goals and task requirements; the degree to which the appropriateness of decisions can be verified; the number of approaches to solving problems; and the number of possible correct solutions. *Position power* involves the leader's ability to dispense rewards and punishments. Fifth, an individual's style is relatively unchangeable, because it is a function of an individual's motivation system. Thus, instead of trying to change the individual, it is easier and more effective over the long term to change the nature of the situation to match the individual's particular style.

Fiedler drew several conclusions that were more or less shared by other contingency theorists: in general, when a group is engaged in uncertain tasks, a rather considerate, supportive, informal leader is most effective. But when a group is engaged in highly certain tasks, a controlling, formal, active leader is most effective. As we will discuss later, however, we believe that the latter conclusion acknowledges the way things are and not necessarily the way they should and can be.

Lawrence and Lorsch. Harvard Business School professors Paul R. Lawrence and Jay W. Lorsch (1967) were influenced by all of the preceding research, concepts, and models, including the work of Fiedler, and by Tom Burns and G. M. Stalker (1961) as well. They were particularly interested in identifying which types of organizational structures would be most effective for dealing

with the market, technological, and other external socio-technical forces that affect activities and interactions in different organizations. They recognized that while some organizations operate in market and technological environments that undergo frequent and unpredictable change, others operate in more stable environments. They also recognized that not all jobs and units in an organization need to adjust or react to the same degree of change.

Lawrence and Lorsch suggested that in order to identify the appropriate structure and managerial style in a given situation, one must analyze the differences among (a) managers; (b) managers' personnel; (c) time, skill, and attitudinal orientations of various jobs; (d) personnel's social orientations; and many other socio-technical factors. Rather than talking in terms of specialization of labor (classical theory), they were talking in terms of differentiation in the natures of tasks and people. Differentiated tasks and people, they said, require effective integration, especially when an organization must react quickly and appropriately to changing external forces if it is to be successful. In such a case, they believed, the most effective structure and style would be an organic structure and a participative style. These were the mechanisms necessary to resolve organizational conflicts brought about by differences in the natures of jobs and individuals.

These and many similar concepts that took account of the complex interrelationships among factors operating in and on organizations greatly influenced the development of the second wave of managerial style theories. Most of these were contingency or situational leadership theories.

Hersey and Blanchard. Formerly called *the life cycle theory of leadership,* the situational leadership model was developed by Paul G. Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1982; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 1996, 2001). Just like the Ohio State model, theirs *describes* four styles in terms of combinations of levels of two *behavioral* dimensions. It also *prescribes* which combinations to use under particular circumstances. Unlike the grid-oriented Blake and Mouton model, however, it does not *explain* leaders' or managers' tendencies to use particular styles. Therefore, it can be considered a more prescriptive than explanatory model.

Hersey and Blanchard's model embodies the following basic views and concepts:

First, there are two basic behavioral components (rather than trait or attitudinal components) of various managerial or leadership styles. The level of *task behavior* (directive and controlling behavior) is essentially the degree to which an individual communicates mostly decisions, instructions, or orders in the process of defining subordinates' responsibilities, setting their performance goals, outlining their work procedures, directing their activities, and coordinating their interactions with others. The level of *relationship behavior* (supportive behavior) is the degree to which an individual interacts personally with subordinates, listens to them, facilitates their efforts, gives them socio-emotional encouragement and support, and rewards them appropriately.

Second, even though having Theory Y assumptions about subordinates and being highly concerned about both productivity and performance enable managers to be effective, there is no single all-purpose superior managerial or leadership style. The more successful leaders are adaptable and can behave in various ways, each of which deals most appropriately with a particular set of circumstances. In other words, using the 9,9, team, or participative style may not always be most appropriate.

Third, it is impossible for a manager to deal with all the interacting variables that influence people's behavior on the job. The key to effective management is dealing with the relationship between leader and follower. Again, this requires using different styles for different sets of circumstances.

Fourth, choosing the right styles to use with particular individuals or groups requires assessing their maturity in regard to each specific task to be performed. Thus, if an individual's maturity level is different with respect to each of four different tasks, it could be appropriate to use four different styles with that one individual. *Maturity* is essentially a combination of two dimensions that affect a subordinate's taking responsibility for self-management, which involves self-direction and self-control. The *job* or *ability dimension* is a function of an individual's levels of job knowledge, past job experience, problem-solving capability, ability to take responsibility, and tendency to achieve results on time. The *psychological* or *willingness dimension* is a function of an individual's levels of self-confidence, self-motivation, conscientiousness, persistence, independence, work ethic, inclination to take responsibility, and need to achieve.

Fifth, there are four basic managerial or leadership styles, which can be indicated on a grid framework. Each style is a particular combination of levels of task behavior and relationship behavior and should be used for a particular maturity level. Here, we abbreviate and paraphrase Hersey and Blanchard's style descriptions:

Telling style. According to Hersey and Blanchard, low maturity calls for a telling style of management. This directive style combines *high task behavior plus low relationship behavior,* which corresponds to the Ohio State model's "High Structure plus Low Consideration" position in the bottom right quadrant of Figure 8.4. Hersey and Blanchard say that the telling style is appropriate when subordinates have neither the willingness nor the ability to take responsibility for doing something. Telling involves (a) communicating clear decisions, instructions, and orders that specify what, where, how, and when, and (b) tightly supervising activities and interactions. It puts little emphasis on supportive behavior, because subordinates might view that as being permissive or weak. Hersey and Blanchard asserted that this style will not come across to a subordinate as being Theory X if the leader initially formulates a mutual agreement participatively with the subordinate regarding the subordinate's performance goals and what the leader can do to help the subordinate attain those goals.

Selling style. According to the situational model, low to moderate maturity calls for the selling style. This style combines *high task behavior plus high relationship behavior,* which corresponds to the Ohio State model's "High Structure plus High Consideration" in the top right quadrant of Figure 8.4. In this case, a subordinate wants to take responsibility for self-management regarding a task but is incapable of doing so. The style's directive aspect is meant to compensate for the subordinate's lack of ability. Its supportive aspect is aimed at reinforcing willingness and enthusiasm. Selling can also involve explaining decisions and instructions so that subordinates will more readily accept what they are being told. Blanchard (1991) has also referred to this style as the "coaching style." (Note that this style *does not* correspond to the "high task, high people," Theory Y, or participative style that is described in Tables 8.2 and 8.3. And although its description sounds like a description of the soft Theory X style, Hersey and Blanchard probably would not equate the two.)

Participating style. Moderate to high maturity calls for *low task behavior plus high relationship behavior,* which corresponds to the Ohio State model's "High Consideration plus Low Structure" position in the top left quadrant of Figure 8.4. In this case, a subordinate is capable of doing what the leader wants but lacks the requisite self-confidence and enthusiasm. The style involves subordinate participation in decision making, with the leader mostly facilitating the process with supportive, two-way communication. Blanchard (1991) has also referred to this as the "supporting style." (Note that this style does not correspond to the "low task, high people" or permissive

style described in Tables 8.2 and 8.3. And although its description sounds somewhat like the "high task, high people" or participative style described in those tables, it does not fully correspond to that description, either.)

Delegating style. When a subordinate has high maturity with respect to a particular task, the situation calls for *low task behavior plus low relationship behavior,* which corresponds to the Ohio State model's "Low Structure plus Low Consideration" position in the bottom left quadrant of Figure 8.4. In this case, the subordinate possesses both the ability and the motivation to be self-managing and, therefore, needs little direction or support. While the leader may identify problems and make decisions, the subordinate is allowed to decide on his or her own how to implement a plan. (Note that this style does not correspond to the "low task, low people" or nonmanagerial style described in Tables 8.2 and 8.3. Although its description sounds somewhat like the permissive style described in those tables, we do not think that Hersey and Blanchard would equate their delegating style with permissiveness.)

Hersey and Blanchard recognized that attempting to increase an individual's or group's maturity level directly from the low or first level to the third or fourth level too quickly could create productivity, emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral problems. Therefore, they recommended using training, development, and a succession of styles to increase subordinates' maturity incrementally—for example, (1) using the telling style for people at the first or lowest level of maturity in order to get them to the second level; (2) using the selling style for people at the second level of maturity in order to get them to the third; (3) using the participating style for people at the third level to get them to the fourth; and (4) using the delegating style for people who are getting to or are already at the fourth level of maturity.

Because the situational leadership model contains important developmental concepts, it is discussed further and compared with a synergistic development model in Chapter Eleven.

Ouchi's Theory Z

The concept of "Type Z organizations" was originated by William G. Ouchi and A. M. Jaeger (1978). Ouchi (1981) then proposed Theory Z, which grew out of extensive research into typical American and Japanese organizations. He found that the typical American organization (the A model) has these characteristics: (a) short-term employment, (b) rapid evaluation and promotion, (c) specialized career paths, (d) explicit control mechanisms, (e) individual decision making, (f) individual responsibility, and (g) segmented concern for individuals. In contrast, he found that the typical Japanese organization (the J model) has different characteristics: (a) lifetime employment, (b) slow evaluation and promotion, (c) nonspecialized career paths, (d) implicit control mechanisms, (e) collective responsibility, (f) collective decision making, and (g) holistic concern for individuals (and their families). Because the J model did not seem workable in American organizations due to American cultural phenomena and organizational traditions, Ouchi proposed Theory Z as a vehicle for helping American organizations become more efficient and competitive. The following are the essential elements of his Z model:

1. *Long-term employment.* Lengthy employment enables an individual to be rather completely socialized into the organizational culture.
2. *Moderate career specialization.* Rotating people through various functions helps an organization integrate its internal parts.

3. *Slower evaluation and promotion.* Promoting employees more slowly ensures that an individual is not advanced to a responsible position until thorough socialization has occurred.
4. *Consensual (participative) decision making.* Together with a shared culture, participative decision making reduces the need for explicit supervision, coordination, and evaluation.
5. *Implicit informal control* (together with explicit performance measurements and formal procedures for performance evaluation)
6. *Individual responsibility*
7. *Holistic concern for personnel,* including their families. Through longer-term employment, interpersonal relationships have an opportunity to broaden and deepen, resulting in superiors' development of holistic concern for subordinates.

The Z type's emphasis on long-term employment necessitates a reciprocal commitment between the employee and the organization. The employee is expected to be patient and tolerant and to believe that everyone will benefit when their group or organization is successful. Ouchi asserted that Z-type organizations will be successful and competitive only if employees receive appropriate education and development in areas such as decision making, interpersonal relations, and communication. Such development allows them not only to develop the skills necessary for them to make effective contributions to the organization but also to learn about and accept the validity of the system and to become willing to make the necessary changes.

Because several practices embodied in the Theory Z approach are similar to high task, high people practices mentioned in Tables 8.2 and 8.3, and because several others are more or less in keeping with the spirit and intent of the Theory Y style, we essentially equate Theory Z with the high task, high people style. However, because certain key practices are designed to foster the development of cohesive organizational cultures similar to those found in clans, we consider the Z model to be a hybrid HT,HP or participative approach.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Distinctive managerial or leadership styles have been described and explained in various ways by numerous experts. It is interesting to note, however, that all their concepts or models describe or explain styles in terms of combinations of levels of two factors: (a) productivity or task orientation, and (b) people.

While the discussion in this chapter could be called more conceptual than practical, it is still practical to the extent that it helps managers and leaders assess which styles they are inclined to use most and then determine the implications for themselves, their subordinates, and their organization as a whole.

Probably the most practical tool associated with this chapter is the Checklist of HT,HP (High Task, High People) Attitudes and Behavior Patterns on the CD-ROM. First, it presents HT,HP attitudes in various management-related areas. Then it provides a detailed checklist of HT,HP behavior patterns and management practices. This tool helps managers identify (a) which HT,HP attitudes they and their subordinates should begin to form or further develop and (b) which

HT,HP behaviors and practices they and their subordinates should begin to emulate, further develop, and make habitual. We strongly recommend reading the checklist at this point.

The checklist can also be used during the superior-subordinates sessions at the end of Module 2 in order to identify whether HT,HP attitudes and behaviors are evident in units and in the whole organization. Participants can then determine which attitudes, behaviors, and practices should be adopted and emphasized throughout the managerial, supervisory, or leadership team.

Chapter Nine begins to explain why different people use different styles due to the influences of *nonpersonal* or *external* factors on their attitudes and behavior.