

CHAPTER TEN

Personal Influences on Managerial Behavior

INTRODUCTION

What This Chapter Is About

This chapter discusses how managers', supervisors', and leaders' attitudes and behavior can be affected by their own personal characteristics. Basically, it integrates or unifies the approaches taken by others. For example, Blake and Mouton's descriptive model explains five distinctive styles in terms of combinations of levels of two motivational or attitudinal aspects—the concern for productivity and the concern for people. Hersey and Blanchard's more prescriptive situational leadership model describes four styles in terms of levels of two types of behavioral aspects—task behavior and relationship behavior. The MAP wheel, used by Traininghouse (2000), a division of HRD Press, discusses managerial behavior in terms of task competencies and people competencies. This chapter will describe and explain managerial styles in terms of all three aspects. To do so, it divides the types of personal traits shown on the right side of Figure 9.1 (page 197) into four groups. Then it partly attributes managerial and leadership behavior to combinations of levels of two groupings of motive/attitudinal traits and two groupings of capabilities.

This discussion also unifies insights into the interacting influences of both personal and nonpersonal variables on managerial styles. *Not only do personal characteristics affect managerial behavior directly, but they determine how managers' attitudes, capabilities, and behavior will be affected by the numerous nonpersonal factors operating around them* (also shown in Figure 9.1). For example, their traits influence (a) which nonpersonal factors do and do not receive their attention; (b) how they interpret what their attention focuses on; (c) how and to what extent their perceptions of people, task activities, organizational matters, social interactions, and outside forces are filtered, colored, or possibly distorted; (d) to which factors they are and are not motivated to respond; (e) the manner in which they formulate a response; (f) how appropriately

they actually respond; and (g) how and to what extent their characteristics are altered as a result of their perception of and response to the nonpersonal influences.

Still, one must keep in mind that it is the *net effect* of all personal and nonpersonal influences that results in an individual's managerial or leadership behavior. Unfortunately, the exact degree to which behavior is influenced by any single trait, group of traits, single nonpersonal variable, or group of nonpersonal variables cannot be determined, due to the extraordinary complexity of interactions among the many personal and nonpersonal influences listed in Table 3.1. In other words, it is virtually impossible to (a) isolate the effects of certain traits without also considering the effects of nonpersonal influences or (b) attribute a specific behavior pattern to just a few personal or nonpersonal influences.

Nevertheless, The Managerial Target® model presented here was designed as a *self-awareness tool* to (a) help managers and leaders understand the personal influences on their managerial or leadership styles and (b) help them understand how their personal traits can affect the ways and degrees to which they might be influenced by nonpersonal influences. Because the model is being introduced publicly for the first time, this chapter explains it in some detail so that readers will understand the concepts well enough to apply them adequately.

The first section of this chapter discusses concepts that underlie The Managerial Target and sets the stage for further description of the model.

The second section of the chapter describes The Managerial Target model's design or structure. This part describes methods for calculating overall trait levels and discusses what they indicate about one's managerial or leadership style tendencies.

The third section of the chapter explains high task, low people (Theory X, authoritarian, or 9,1) behavior in terms of underlying levels of task- and people-related traits. It also discusses the authoritarian manager or leader's susceptibility to nonpersonal socio-technical influences.

The fourth section explains high task, high people (Theory Y, participative, team, or 9,9) tendencies in terms of underlying levels of task- and people-related traits, then goes on to discuss the participative manager or leader's susceptibility to nonpersonal socio-technical influences.

The fifth section outlines how to determine what The Managerial Target indicates about an individual's overall level of managerial or leadership effectiveness.

The chapter's sixth section discusses how to use The Managerial Target as an analytic, self-awareness, and learning tool and an organizational diagnostic and developmental tool.

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

How much do managers value people, production, or both? And why do they value each to some particular extent? This chapter focuses on these complex and important questions. After studying the chapter, consultants, trainers, and facilitators should be able to help participants

- Reflect on their own value system and the extent to which they emphasize people, production, or both
- Identify ways to use The Managerial Target to improve themselves and their influences on their unit and their organization as a whole
- Build individual and group action plans for management improvement and organizational change to create a work environment that supports Managerial Target concepts and implements high task, high people practices

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

- Better understand tendencies to use the various styles based on one's own (and others') levels of certain personal characteristics or groups of characteristics
- Identify and more effectively deal with personal characteristics that are exerting dysfunctional influences on his or her own managerial, supervisory, or leadership attitudes and behavior
- Identify and more effectively participate in dealing with personal socio-technical factors that are exerting dysfunctional influences on superiors' and colleagues' managerial or leadership attitudes and behavior
- More effectively improve or further develop the managerial knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behavior of his or her subordinates
- More effectively participate in dealing with personal socio-technical factors that are exerting dysfunctional influences on motivation, attitudes, behavior, interactions, and performance throughout the organization
- Better understand personal traits' influences on subordinates' (and others') motivation, attitudes, interactions, and behavior, and thereby more insightfully and wisely evaluate their performance (or behavior, relationships, and so on)

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

The accompanying CD-ROM contains the following material for Chapter Ten:

- *Chapter Ten Study Guide*. This class or seminar session preparation guide should be completed by students and seminar participants for the same reasons mentioned in earlier chapters.

In addition, the following form, which can be found with the Module 2 preliminary materials on the CD-ROM, is relevant for this chapter:

- *Personal Inventory Form*. This form should have been filled in before beginning Chapter Eight. Each participant should have used it to assess his or her own levels of the many personal characteristics described in Table 10.1. If, as described in the introduction to Part Two, psychological instruments that measure drives, values, personality traits, and capabilities have been administered in order to help increase the self-awareness of participants in the MD/OD program, the resulting scores can be converted into adult percentile levels (using conversion tables usually provided with instruments such as the Study of Values) and indicated on the Personal Inventory Form. Then, as described later in this chapter, they can be transferred to a copy of The Managerial Target (Figure 10.4) to help determine a manager or leader's inclination to use a particular managerial or leadership style. The use of The Managerial Target model is described in this chapter.

CONCEPTS UNDERLYING THE MANAGERIAL TARGET

Figure 10.1 illustrates that a manager or leader's style (behavior toward and interaction with subordinates) is like the small tip of an iceberg visible above the ocean's surface. His or her underlying personal nature lies more or less hidden beneath the surface. Another way to relate managers' styles and their personal natures is to think of the icebergs as pyramids. As shown in Figure 10.1, managers' styles are internally influenced by their natures. Underlying their natures, in turn, are their levels of two aspects: first, an overall level of *task-orientedness* (a combination of concern for, attention to, and ability to obtain productivity or task-related results) and, second, an overall level of *people-orientedness* (a combination of concern for, attention to, and ability to sense and deal with the needs and feelings of other people).

Attitudes about task accomplishment and people are also parts of managers' natures, reflecting managers' levels of task- and people-orientedness. Underlying their task-orientedness, people-orientedness, and associated attitudes, in turn, are managers' levels of (a) specific task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, (b) specific task-related capabilities, (c) specific people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, and (d) specific people-related capabilities. *Motive/attitudinal traits* include basic needs or drives, values, interests, goals, expectations, beliefs, biases, and certain personality traits. *Capabilities* include basic mental abilities, knowledge, experience, specialized abilities or skills, physical traits and abilities, and certain personality traits. Therefore, an individual's managerial or leadership nature can be described and explained in terms of different combinations of levels of task-orientedness and people-orientedness, different sets of associated attitudes, and different combinations of levels of specific underlying task-related and people-related characteristics.

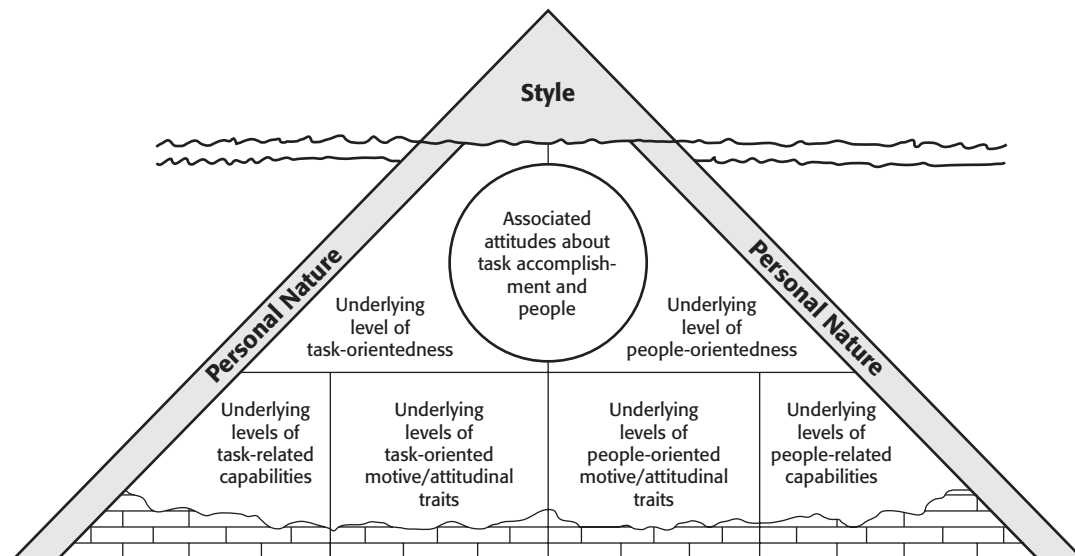


Figure 10.1. Relationships Among Personal Influences Underlying an Individual's Managerial or Leadership Style

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Thus, as illustrated at the bottom of Figure 10.1, unlike two-dimensional models that deal separately with concerns, behaviors, and competencies, this four-dimensional model accounts for all these aspects. That is why it is appropriate to use the terms *task-orientedness* (or level of the task orientation) and *people-orientedness* (or level of the people orientation). Essentially, the words *orientation* and *orientedness* can be construed to encompass all of the following: (a) attitudinal concerns; (b) behavior patterns; (c) a variety of associated integrative and interpersonal attitudes; and (d) integrative and interpersonal capabilities. This is important for three reasons:

First, *how managers or leaders actually behave largely depends on their levels of various concerns and capabilities*. The importance of both types of inputs can be illustrated by looking at two different types of individuals, who, even when they have been introduced to participative concepts and practices, still have difficulty behaving in a high task, high people manner.

Take permissive managers as a first example. These individuals are typically high in their concern for people. As a result, they emphasize people, their feelings, and their social relationships. Such managers are also inclined to be high in people-related capabilities such as interpersonal sensitivity and communicative skills. However, they may be significantly lower in people-related capabilities such as knowledge of motivational and managerial concepts. As a result, they may fail to recognize two things: (a) that subordinates' ego and self-actualization needs must be satisfied just as much as their social needs and (b) that emphasizing task-related results can be highly people-oriented as well as task-oriented. Thus, while these managers may be motivated to behave in a highly people-oriented manner, they may not actually be able to behave that way as effectively as they might. In effect, the people-orientedness of their behavior may be limited by an inadequate overall (averaged) level of people-related capabilities. Even so, their high level of concern for people cannot help but be reflected in their behavior, thereby making up for their low level of capabilities to some extent. Normally, therefore, their actual behavior is inclined to be less people-oriented than their high level of concern but more people-oriented than their low level of certain important capabilities.

In other words, the fact that an individual is a "9" or high in concern for people does not necessarily mean that he or she will behave in a highly people-oriented manner—especially if his or her interpersonal skills have not been adequately developed.

Next, take typical Theory X managers, whose level of concern for subordinates probably has remained relatively low, even though (a) they may have been indoctrinated in Theory Y concepts and (b) their people-related capabilities may have been developed to a relatively high (averaged) level. *If* these managers stop to think about what they are doing, they can behave in a highly people-oriented manner by consciously using their interpersonal skills and by purposefully applying whatever participative, developmental, people-oriented practices they have learned. Unfortunately, because their people-related motive/attitudinal traits are not particularly people-oriented (are not very high), they are not particularly concerned about their subordinates. As a result, they generally do not stop to think about people, and their own task-oriented motives and attitudinal traits mostly shape their behavior.

In other words, these managers may be able to behave in a highly people-oriented manner, but they are not really motivated or inclined to do so. In effect, their low concern for people limits the use of their capabilities. Even so, their overall high level of capabilities is bound to be reflected in their behavior, thereby making up for their low level of concern to some extent. Normally, therefore, these managers' actual behavior tends to be less people-oriented than their high overall level of capabilities but more people-oriented than their much lower level of concern. R. D. Cecil saw this very phenomenon when conducting a train-the-trainer program at a

senior-level military school. The instructors, all officers having master's or doctoral degrees in management, taught Theory Y, team, participative leadership. They knew the concepts and practices backward and forward. But during discussions over dinner with their enlisted subordinates, Cecil was told a number of times how authoritarian their superiors really were. Apparently, the officers were participative or even permissive among themselves, but treated their enlisted personnel in a soft Theory X manner.

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

Second, the terms *orientation* and *orientedness* are used because an explanation of the origins of attitudes should take into account capabilities as well as concerns. Attitudes are influenced not only by drives, values, and certain attitudinal traits that are reflected in concerns but also by capabilities such as intelligence, knowledge (or lack of it), and experience (or lack of it).

Third, individuals' motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities tend to influence each other—either directly or indirectly.

The following two examples show how managers' *capabilities* can influence their motives and attitudinal traits: First, if managers possess an overall *high* level of, say, task-related capabilities, they are very likely to have or to develop a high concern for task accomplishment. This is because their well-developed capabilities enable them to get tasks accomplished successfully and to experience the positive feedback that generally accompanies success. Positive feedback, in turn, gives managers psychological pleasure, which over time either forms or reinforces a high concern for or interest in task accomplishment. Second, take the opposite situation. If managers possess an overall *low level* of task-related capabilities, they are more likely to have or to develop a low concern for task accomplishment. This is because their inadequate capabilities render them relatively ineffective and unsuccessful at getting tasks accomplished. As a result, they experience negative, unpleasant feedback that over time can either form or reinforce a low concern for or interest in task accomplishment. In much the same manner, managers' overall level of people-related capabilities can influence their level of concern for people. Thus, in general, *the better that managers' task- or people-related capabilities are, the higher their concern for task accomplishment or people (respectively) tends to be or become.*

The following are two examples of how managers' *concerns* (or motive/attitudinal traits) can influence their capabilities: First, if managers' concern for people is *high*, they are more likely to be motivated to acquire or develop the capabilities that will enable them to relate with, develop, and fulfill subordinates effectively. Second, take the opposite situation. If managers' concern for people is *low*, they are much less likely to acquire or develop people-related capabilities. Managers' level of concern for task accomplishment influences their overall level of task-related capabilities in much the same manner. Thus, in general, *the higher managers' concerns for task accomplishment and people are, the better their task- and people-related capabilities (respectively) tend to be or become.*

The points just raised demonstrate that behavior, underlying orientations, and associated attitudes are functions of both capabilities and concerns. They also confirm that any truly insightful discussion of managerial or leadership behavior and development must take account of both.

THE MANAGERIAL TARGET®

Figure 10.2 is a simplified version of The Managerial Target®, which was first developed and copyrighted in 1976 and trademarked in 1977. It is an evolving attempt to incorporate the trait assessment aspects of clinical psychology into a managerial style and effectiveness model. (Figure 10.3, which relates distinctive Target styles to a grid framework, is explained in the next section.)

The Target's Design

The model has nine concentric rings, which correspond to the nine levels on Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid®. Level 1 (the ring on the outer edge of the Target) is "very low" (even though it is a big ring) and level 9 (in the bull's-eye) is "very high" (even though it is a small ring). The Target is split down the middle, with the task orientation hemisphere on the left side, and the people orientation hemisphere on the right. Being in the outside circle in both task (left arc of the entire ring) and people (right arc of the ring) indicates "very low task, very low people" (or the extreme nonmanager). In the bull's-eye area (two small, connecting left and right arcs), a manager is very high task, very high people (or 9,9, very Theory Y, highly team, or very participative and developmental). Note in Figure 10.3 that both hemispheres are split into a top and bottom quadrant, for a total of four dimensions.

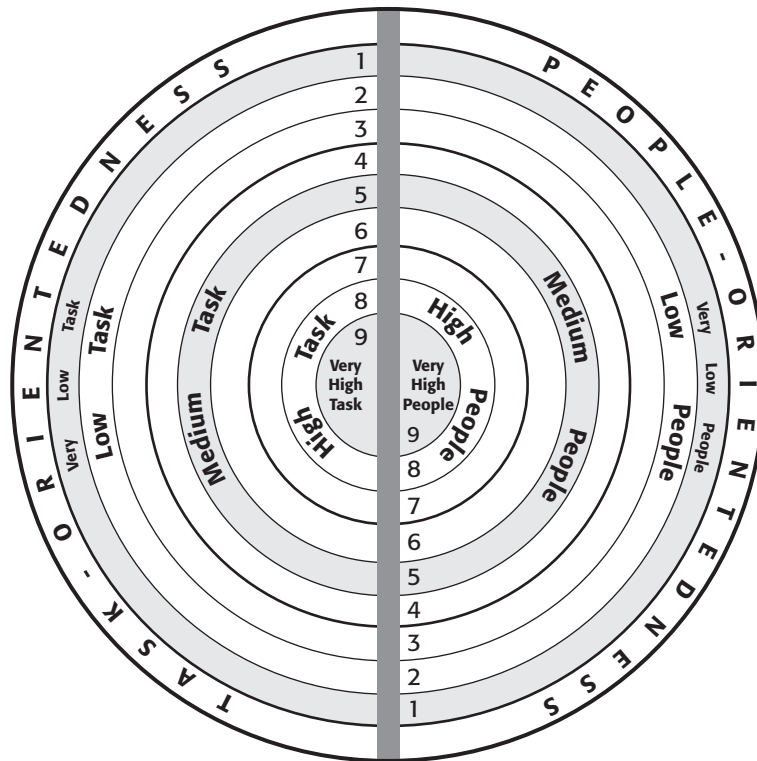


Figure 10.2. The Managerial Target® (Simplified Version)

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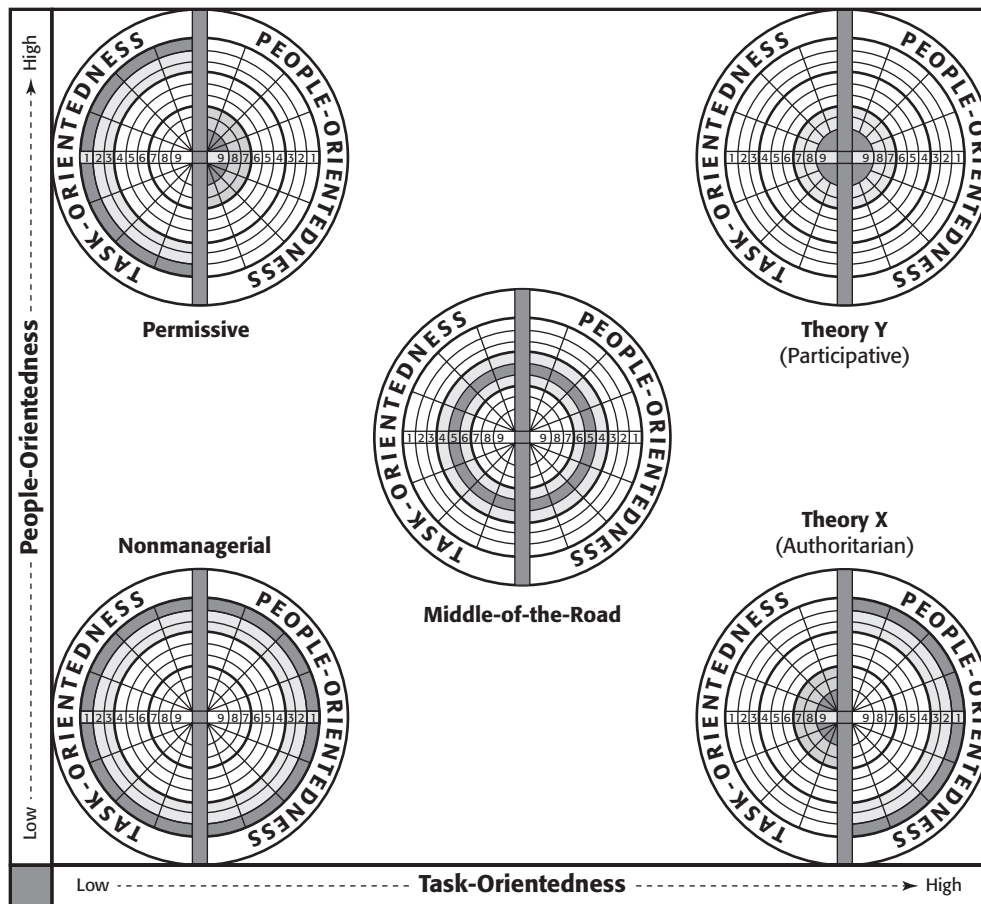


Figure 10.3. Target Representations of Five Distinctive Styles on a Grid Framework

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Each of the five distinctive styles described in Chapter Eight can be described using this model. Because many people are accustomed to thinking about managerial or leadership styles in terms of their positions on a grid framework, Figure 10.3 is provided here to help them make the transition from a grid to The Managerial Target. It shows where Target representations of the five distinctive styles fall on a grid framework. Note that the most stereotypical levels of task- and people-orientedness are indicated with the most darkly shaded arcs, while less extreme combinations are indicated with more lightly shaded arcs. For example, as shown in the top right corner of Figure 10.3, a very Theory Y or HT,HP individual's levels of task-orientedness and people-orientedness are both in the darkest-shaded "very high," level 9 rings or bull's-eye of The Managerial Target. However, team, participative, or HT,HP managers who are not quite as high in task- and people-orientedness would have combinations of the two lower, more lightly shaded levels (arcs) of task- and people-orientedness. On the other hand, in the bottom right corner of Figure 10.3, a very Theory X individual's level of task-orientedness would be in the heavily shaded, "very high" arc of the ring (the left half of the bull's-eye of the Target), but his or her level of people-orientedness would be in the heavily shaded "very low" arc of the ring on the

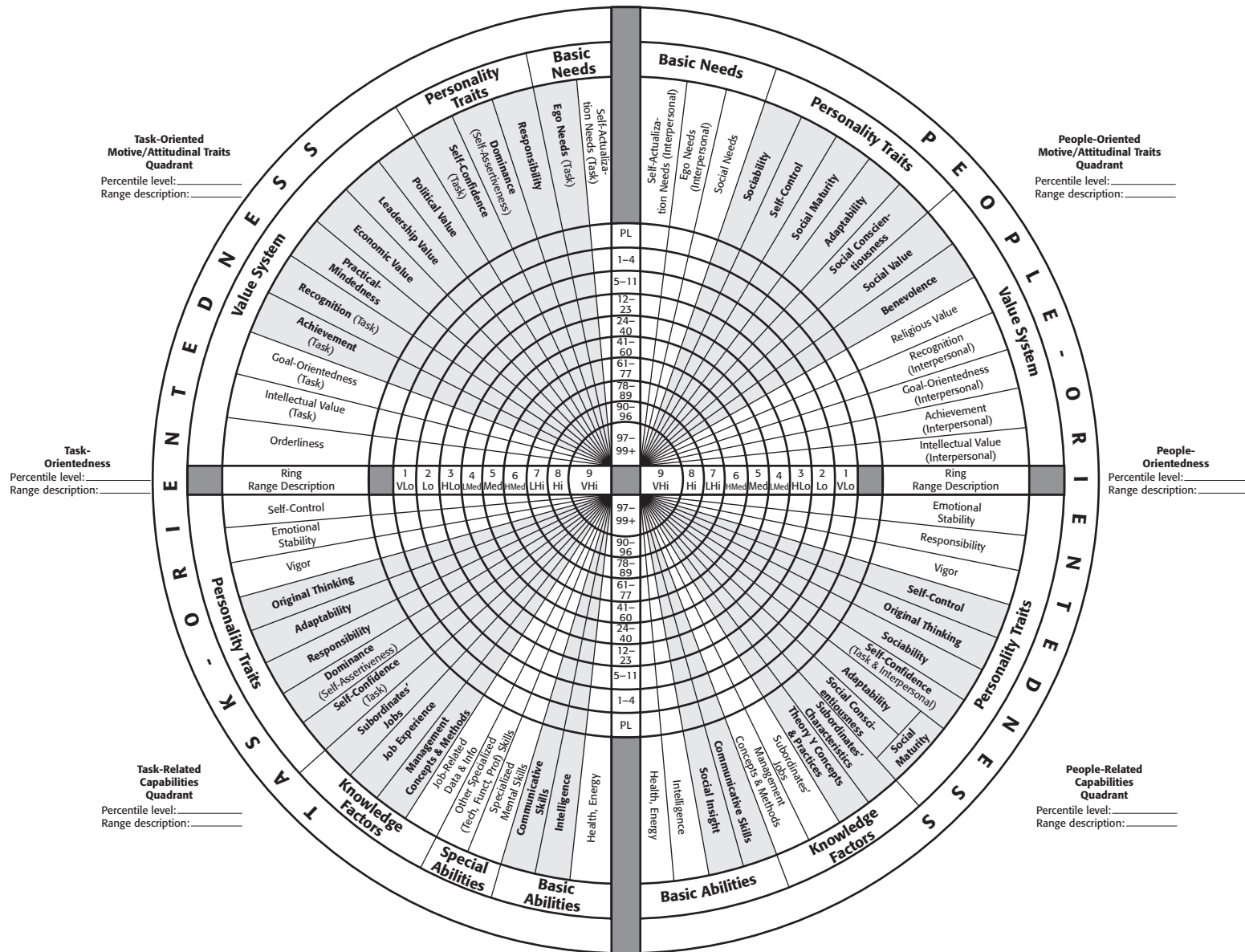


Figure 10.4. The Managerial Target® (Expanded Version)

Note: Key motive/attitudinal traits and special capabilities are shown in bold and their wedges are shaded. Please see back of book for an enlarged version of this figure.

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very outside of the Target. Less Theory X individuals would have the less high combinations of task- and people-orientedness indicated by the two lightly shaded levels (or arcs of rings) on each side of the Target. In the center of Figure 10.3, the most middle-of-the-road, “medium task, medium people” manager—a 5,5 manager—would be indicated by the two darkly shaded, connecting task and people arcs. Less middle-of-the-road managers would have other combinations of levels of task- and people-orientedness indicated by lightly shaded arcs. And so on.

Remember that a particular manager or leader’s (primary) style may be (a) one of the five distinctive styles, (b) closer to one than another, or (c) somewhere between two or more of the various styles.

Figure 10.4 is the expanded version of The Managerial Target®. Basically, it shows what Blake and Mouton’s grid shows, but in a slightly different manner that enables the superimposition of specific traits in wedges on the model. As a result, the model shows how combinations of levels of four groups of traits tend to underlie each one of the five distinctive managerial styles—as though a person were operating in a vacuum and were not also being influenced by the natures of jobs, organizational factors, social variables, and outside forces. (These other factors, however, may well have played roles in the development of the individual’s motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities.)

On the task-orientedness side are the *task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant* (above) and the *task-related capabilities quadrant* (below). Similarly, on the people-orientedness side are the *people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant* (above) and the *people-related capabilities quadrant* (below). The four quadrants represent the four dimensions of managerial or leadership behavior. Each quadrant indicates the major types of traits involved (needs/drives, values, personality traits, knowledge factors, and skills). Each quadrant also contains specific personal characteristics (in slices or wedges of the pie) that relate to that particular quadrant. The traits with shaded wedges are considered to be key or special, because they appear to have greater influences on managerial behavior.

Note that each of the rings is numbered from 9 (“very high,” in the bull’s-eye) down to 1 (“very low,” in the outer ring or set of connected arcs). Also note that each ring corresponds to a range of percentile levels (from 1–4 in ring 1 to 97–99+ in ring 9). The PL (percentile level) ring (outside the “1” or lowest level), when filled in, shows an individual’s percentile level for each trait (converted from the raw score on a psychological assessment instrument) on the model. This and other Managerial Target-related procedures will be discussed later in this chapter.)

All characteristics on The Managerial Target are defined in Table 10.1. (It should be noted that in the narrow left-hand column, traits actually on the Target are shaded and also indicated with a “T” for task-related traits, “P” for people-related traits, and “B” for traits that are both task- and people-related.) Table 10.2 lists and compares terms for values and personality traits found on psychological tests that instructors or consultants might use in conjunction with The Managerial Target. Definitions on Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey’s Study of Values (original version); Gordon’s Survey of Personal Values; and Gordon’s Survey of Interpersonal Values are being used in this book with the permission of their current publishers. Other traits’ definitions have been synthesized from *Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary* (2003) and the definitions and descriptions found in the manuals of psychological test instruments designed to measure those traits. The right-hand column of Table 10.1 identifies “Related Traits or Resulting Behavior” based on (a) various instruments’ definitions of traits, (b) trait intercorrelation tables provided by the publishers of several instruments, and (c) cause-effect relationships that we have observed over the years.

Table 10.1. Descriptions of Personal Characteristics

	CAPABILITIES	RELATED TRAITS OR RESULTING BEHAVIOR
<i>BASIC MENTAL AND PHYSICAL CAPABILITIES</i>		
B Academic Intelligence	The ability that enables one to understand, learn, and think about things of a visual, verbal, or abstract nature. Someone who is low in this ability tends to understand and think about things in very concrete, specific, factual, or visually oriented terms. Someone who is high can also understand, learn, and think in terms of more complex, verbally oriented constructs, such as ideas and concepts, and in terms of abstract constructs, such as numbers and symbols. (Tests measure vocabulary and visual, verbal, and abstract [numerical] logic.)	Judgment; social insight; communicative skills; imagination; creativity; analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities; abilities to learn, grow, and cope with change
P Social Insight (Social Intelligence)	The ability to understand and judge social behavior and to respond with understanding and tact in interpersonal situations. The level of this ability is influenced by one's level of intelligence and maturity and by the amount of social interaction that one has experienced.	Social maturity; mature relations; people sense; interpersonal awareness and sensitivity; functional social behavior
B Communicative Skills	These include verbal abilities to express information and ideas in oral or written form and nonverbal abilities involved in communicating feelings, thoughts, and attitudes without using words (for example, through gestures, tone of voice, or facial expressions).	Persuasiveness; interpersonal relations; interpersonal effectiveness
B Health, energy	The vitality, strength, and energy to be alert and active on the job.	Industriousness; activity; stamina
<i>SPECIALIZED MENTAL ABILITIES</i>		
Mechanical Visualization (Spatial Thinking)	The ability that enables one to visualize and to manipulate objects, parts of objects, or other visual arrangements in space. Influences one's mechanical comprehension.	The specialized mental abilities described here may or may not be involved in the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job. When they are involved, they influence one's technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness.
Mechanical Comprehension (Mechanical Intelligence)	The ability to comprehend and solve mechanical problems. Level of ability is influenced by one's capacity for mechanical visualization, knowledge of mechanical principles, and experience working with mechanical objects or applying mechanical principles.	
Clerical (Perceptual) Speed and Accuracy	The ability to work quickly and accurately with details (to shift the focus of attention from one word, number, or graphic symbol to another quickly and accurately). Not to be confused with secretarial skills such as typing and shorthand.	
<i>OTHER SPECIALIZED SKILLS</i>		
	Skills (other than the specialized mental abilities just described) that relate to the technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job (for example, the ability to operate a particular machine or type of equipment or the ability to perform specific operations on data or information).	Technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to develop these specialized skills in subordinates
<i>KNOWLEDGE FACTORS</i>		
T Management Concepts, Methods, Practices	Concepts, principles, methods, and procedures involved in integrative (managerial) activities such as analyzing, goal setting, planning, budgeting, decision making, organizing, staffing, providing guidance, evaluating results, and problem solving.	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to cope with and influence change; ability to develop subordinates' managerial skills
P Team Concepts and Practices	Participative, developmental, task- and people-oriented practices that develop and utilize subordinates' potentials, take into account their needs and feelings, and maximize their performance and on-the-job fulfillment, motivation, and morale.	Integrative competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to obtain the best possible task- and people-related results; ability to develop subordinates' potentials
T Job-Related Data and Information	Information relating to integrative and technical, functional, or professional aspects of one's job—for example, job objectives and responsibilities; capabilities and other traits required by the job; organizational objectives, policies, and procedures; unit and organizational operating plans and budgets.	Integrative and technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to develop personal potentials; ability to develop subordinates' potentials

Table 10.1. (Continued)

	CAPABILITIES	RELATED TRAITS OR RESULTING BEHAVIOR
T Job Experience	Everything learned on the job, especially a knowledge of or feel for what can, should, or might happen under various circumstances or when various courses of action are taken.	Judgment; ability to assess probabilities; analytic, goal-setting, planning, problem-solving, and decision-making effectiveness; technical, functional, or professional competence, efficiency, and effectiveness; ability to cope with and influence change; ability to develop subordinates' potentials
B Subordinates' Jobs	Job-related information (as described earlier) pertaining to subordinates' jobs. Includes a knowledge of the characteristics required and the standards of performance that can reasonably be expected.	Integrative competence (efficiency, effectiveness); ability to select, train, develop, and evaluate subordinates effectively
P Subordinates' Characteristics	Awareness of each immediate subordinate's capabilities, motive/attitudinal traits, attitudes, potentials, strengths, and weaknesses.	Interpersonal sensitivity and understanding; effectiveness of goal-setting, planning, training, development, evaluation, conflict resolution, and problem-solving activities
MOTIVE/ATTITUDINAL TRAITS		
<i>BASIC NEEDS/DRIVES</i> (Maslow, 1943, 1987)		
Physiological Needs	The needs for food and water, sex, rest, exercise, and shelter from the elements, and the needs to excrete waste and to minimize pain. Self-preservation needs.	
Safety Needs	The needs for protection against physical harm or attack, danger, illness, and deprivation.	
P Social Needs	The needs to affiliate with others, to obtain their approval or acceptance, to belong, and to give and receive friendship and love.	Sociability
B Ego Needs (Self-Image)	The needs for self-esteem, self-confidence, an identity, independence, power, influence over others, personal achievement, knowledge, competence, a good reputation, status, prestige, recognition, and others' admiration.	Self-confidence; personal pride; ambition; achievement value; self-centeredness; dominance; sociability; economic and political values; ego-defensiveness diminishes self-awareness and self-improvement
B Self-Actualization	The needs to fulfill one's potentials, to become what one can become, and to develop oneself to the fullest.	Ambition; achievement; personal development and improvement
<i>VALUED MATTERS</i> (Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1960a, 1960b; Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Allport, 2002)		
B Intellectual (Theoretical) Value	Concerns for truth, knowledge, and study, which underlie tendencies to use intellectual capacities, to be analytic, to search for causes, and to structure knowledge.	Rationality, objectivity; judgment; innovativeness; original thinking; depth of thought; inclination to learn; inclination to solve problems
T Economic (Business) Value	Concerns for monetary matters, material things, the usefulness or practicality of things, and business or financial success.	Practical-mindedness; cost-consciousness; competitiveness; ambition (success consciousness); concern for task results and operational efficiency
T Political Value	Concerns for power, prestige, position, authority, and influence over others. The need for power.	Dominance (self-assertiveness); leadership value; ambition; competitiveness; respect for authority
P Social (Altruistic) Value	Concerns for people's well-being, social justice, and the public good. Love of and concern for people. Altruism. Social morality and ethics.	Self-sacrifice; selflessness; benevolence; social maturity; social conscientiousness
P Religious (Spiritual) Value	Concerns for spiritual truth, religious experiences, religious beliefs, and religious activities. Also, concern with moral ethics espoused by religious groups.	Interpersonal morality; benevolence; social conscientiousness; responsibility
Aesthetic (Artistic) Value	Concerns for beauty, harmony, grace, symmetry of form, and other aesthetically pleasing qualities in one's experiences (even if one is not an artist).	

(Continued)

Table 10.1. Descriptions of Personal Characteristics (Continued)

	MOTIVE/ATTITUDINAL TRAITS	RELATED TRAITS OR RESULTING BEHAVIOR
PERSONAL ("COPING") VALUES (Gordon, 1960a, 1997a)		
T Practical-Mindedness	Concern for getting one's money's worth (getting full use or value from something or someone). Related to the economic value.	Cost-consciousness; practicality; concern for task-related results and operational efficiency
B Goal-Orientedness	Tendencies to work toward definite objectives, to persevere until a job is completed, and to think ahead to the future consequences of one's actions.	Persistence; responsibility; ambition; future-orientedness; judgment in decision making
B Achievement	Concern for accomplishing something significant, which underlies tendencies to set personal standards high, to seek challenges, and to try to do something better than it has ever been done before. The need to achieve.	Initiative; industriousness; innovativeness
T Orderliness	Concerns for having well-organized work habits, doing things in a systematic manner, and keeping things arranged in an orderly manner.	Organization; effectiveness of approach to integrative matters
Decisiveness	Tendencies to make decisions quickly, to stick to them, and to hold strong convictions or opinions.	
Variety	Tendencies to pursue new and different activities, to travel to strange or unusual places, to shun the routine, and to seek adventure, risk, and danger.	Risk taking
INTERPERSONAL VALUES (Gordon, 1960b, 1997b)		
T Leadership	Concern for having a position of leadership or authority (being in charge of or having influence over others). Related to the political value and the need for power.	Dominance (self-assertiveness); competitiveness; ambition; forcefulness
B Recognition	Concerns for attracting notice and being admired, looked up to, respected, and considered important.	Ego needs; self-assertiveness; success-orientedness
P Benevolence	Concerns for helping others, sharing things with them, doing things for them, and being generous to them.	Interpersonal sensitivity and attentiveness; social conscientiousness; selflessness; kindness; concern for people; social maturity
Support	The desire or need to be treated with kindness, understanding, and consideration, and to receive encouragement from others.	
Conformity	Concern about doing what is expected, accepted, proper, or socially correct, which underlies a tendency to closely follow rules, policies, regulations, and group norms. (High conformity can be dysfunctional if behavior patterns to which a person conforms are somehow inappropriate.)	
Independence	Tendencies to be self-sufficient, to resist restriction, to do things for oneself, to make one's own decisions, to do what one wants, and to do things one's own way.	
PERSONALITY TRAITS (See Table 10.2 for source measurement instruments.)		
B Vigor	Tendencies to be active, energetic, and full of vitality and to maintain a lively, rapid pace when working, moving, or speaking.	Industriousness
B Self-Confidence	Tendencies to be poised, confident, self-assured, well-adjusted, and free of self-consciousness, feelings of inferiority, and excessive self-criticism.	Self-assertiveness; decisiveness; sociability (social extroversion); original thinking; leadership
T Dominance (Ascendancy or Self-Assertiveness)	Tendencies to be self-assured, self-assertive, verbally ascendant, extroverted, and aggressive (to take the initiative in dealing with people, to dominate conversations, to make independent decisions, to assume authority or group leadership, to influence or persuade others, to organize social activities, and to promote new projects). Related to the political and leadership values.	Forcefulness; aggressiveness; leadership; self-centeredness; ego needs and drives; control of situations; active participation in activities; emotional stability
P Sociability	Tendencies to be gregarious, outgoing, and genuinely interested in interpersonal contact (to seek and enjoy people's company, to mix well with people, and to make friends easily).	Friendliness; congeniality; social needs; ego needs; gravitation toward social groups

Table 10.1. (Continued)

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

Sources: Information on the Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey Study of Values is used with the permission of Richard Kopelman, Janet Rovenpor, and Robert Allport.

Information on the Gordon Survey of Personal Values and Survey of Interpersonal Values has been used with the permission of NCS Pearson, Inc.

While many traits can be measured by using psychological instruments, some traits—such as certain knowledge factors—cannot be measured and must be estimated (with great care, objectivity, honesty, and fairness).

Figure 10.5 shows how to fill in on The Managerial Target the converted percentile levels of many measured traits and the estimated levels of unmeasured traits. For measured traits, first translate each raw psychological assessment score into a percentile level (relative to, for example, a general adult population). Next, write the percentile level in the PL ring at the outside end of the trait's wedge. Then identify the percentile level's appropriate range on the nine-level

Table 10.2. Values and Personality Traits Measured by Various Instruments

	MOSTLY VALUES			VALUES AND PERSONALITY TRAITS				PERSONALITY TRAITS				
Authors	Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (1960a, 1960b); Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Allport (2002)	Gordon (1960b, 1997b)	Gordon (1960a, 1997a)	SHL Group (1995)	SHL Group (1999)	Gough (1996)	United Consultants (1975)	Cattell, Cattell, and Cattell (1972, 1993)	Gordon (1963, 2005)	Thurstone (1950, 1991)	Guilford, Guilford, and Zimmerman (1963, 1978)	Bernreuter Humm-Wadsworth (1933), (1935)
INSTRUMENT	Study of Values (SOV)	Survey of Personal Values (SPV)	Survey of Interpersonal Values (SIV)	Motivation Questionnaire (MQ)	Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ)	California Psychological Inventory (CPI)	Triadal-Equated Personality Inventory	16 PF (Personality Factor) Questionnaire	Personal Inventory/Profile	Temperament Schedule	Temperament Survey	Personality Inventory; Temperament Scale
VALUES-ORIENTED TRAITS (Concerns)												
Power/authority	Political		Leadership	Power, status	Influence, controlling							
Economic/material	Economic	Practical-mindedness		Material reward	Caring			Practical				
Social/altruistic/humanitarian	Social		Benevolence									
Religious/spiritual	Religious											
Intellectual/theoretical	Theoretical				Conceptual							
Aesthetic	Aesthetic											
Achievement		Achievement		Achievement	Achieving							
Recognition			Recognition	Recognition			Recognition					
ON BOTH VALUES AND PERSONALITY INSTRUMENTS												
Organized		Orderliness			Detail-conscious							
Independence			Independence	Autonomy	Independent-minded	Achieve via independence	Independence	Self-sufficient				
Goal-orientedness		Goal-orientation			Forward-thinking							
Conformity			Conformity		Rule following	Achieve by conformance	Conformity					

(Continued)

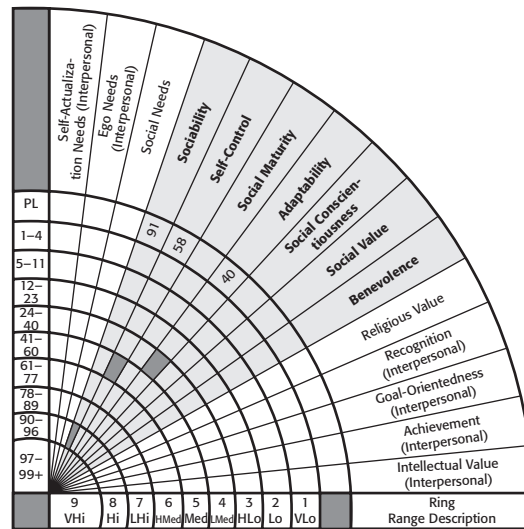


Figure 10.5. Assessment and Estimated Data Filled in on The Managerial Target

stanine distribution: 1–4, 5–11, 12–23, 24–40, 41–60, 61–77, 78–89, 90–96, or 97–99+. Finally, as shown in Figure 10.5, darken that percentile range’s ring where it intersects the trait’s wedge. For unmeasured traits, record the estimated levels in a similar manner.

Technical Notes:

1. The CD-ROM contains a Study of Values Conversion Table for converting raw scores on the Study of Values into adult percentile levels. This conversion table was provided by Houghton-Mifflin’s Test Development and Research Department (1976). (At that time, Houghton-Mifflin published the Study of Values.)
2. For other values and personality measurement instruments, convert raw scores into percentile levels using the appropriate tables in those instruments’ manuals.
3. The stanine (nine-level) distribution was provided by Houghton-Mifflin’s Test Development and Research Department (1976).

Weights Given to Traits in the Quadrants

Each characteristic in a quadrant is important because it (a) significantly influences task- or people-orientedness in some way, or (b) indicates an inclination toward a particular managerial style. However, it should be apparent that all characteristics in a quadrant are not equally important in these respects. Each has its own relative level of importance—whatever that level may be. The shaded traits in the four quadrants are considered to be either “key motive/attitudinal traits” or “special capabilities.” Based on R. D. Cecil and Company’s and others’ studies and observations, these traits are believed to have greater influences on behavior and so are given more weight.

Because quadrant characteristics are unequal in their importance, computing a weighted average of their levels is more appropriate than computing a simple arithmetic average. A weighted average should be used when the items differ in importance and it is advisable to take these

differences into account. Ideally, the relative importance of each characteristic in a quadrant should be determined precisely, so that quadrant characteristics can be assigned accurate weights. The more accurate the weights assigned, the more accurate the weighted average will be. Unfortunately, assigning accurate weights to characteristics is virtually impossible. There is presently no scientific way to determine, either accurately or with certainty, any characteristic's relative level of importance. This difficulty is attributable to two major causes: First, the relationships between personal characteristics and task- and people-orientedness are too complex to make such determinations. Second, it is impossible to determine the extent to which personal attitudes and motives have been and are being affected by countless nonpersonal socio-technical factors.

Faced with these obstacles, a weighting system considered to be satisfactorily realistic was eventually adopted, even though that system may not produce the most accurate indication of one's nature and style tendency. So that Target users can understand the system and will be able to interpret what each quadrant's overall percentile level indicates, the following is an abbreviated rationale for using the current weights.

Weights Given to Traits in the Two Motive/Attitudinal Traits Quadrants. The key traits (the shaded traits) in these quadrants have been judged to be about five times as important or influential as the unshaded traits. Thus, in the two motive/attitudinal traits quadrants, a weight factor of 5 has been assigned to each key trait and a weight factor of 1 to each of the other traits. This judgment is based on the previously mentioned observations and studies, which generally indicate the following:

First, most key traits influence an individual's overall concern for task accomplishment or overall concern for people in more significant ways and to greater degrees. For example, key *task-oriented* motive/attitudinal traits (such as the political, economic, and achievement values) greatly influence the concern for task accomplishment, largely because they constitute rather self-centered motives (involving power, financial or material success, and career success) that can be fulfilled by producing good task-related results. The leadership, practical-mindedness, and recognition values closely correspond to the first three values (respectively). Some might say they that they are being double counted, which is true to an extent. (However, they are being averaged.) They are included on the Target so that when a person says, "I'm not that high (or low) in this trait," it is possible to point to at least one other trait with which it has a high positive correlation and say, "The level of this corresponding trait indicates that you probably are." Other traits such as ego needs and self-assertiveness traits tend to *reflect* several of those values. Key *people-oriented* motive/attitudinal traits (such as the social/altruistic and benevolence values) *constitute* selfless motives, thereby underlying the concern for people to a very great extent. The benevolence value can be used to confirm high or low levels of the social value. Personality traits such as social conscientiousness and social maturity tend to *reflect* these more unselfish motives.

Second, key traits are more reliable indicators of tendencies toward particular managerial styles. Particular levels of these traits tend to be found in particular types of managers. For example, it is in the key *task-oriented* motive/attitudinal traits (such as the political and leadership values, the economic and practical-mindedness values, and the achievement value and concern for recognition) that Theory X managers tend to be relatively high, permissive managers tend to be relatively low, middle-of-the-road managers tend to be about average or medium, and Theory Y managers tend to be well above average but not extremely high. Similarly, it is in the key *people-related* motive/attitudinal traits (such as the social and benevolence

values, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control) that Theory X managers tend to be relatively low, permissive managers tend to be relatively high, middle-of-the-road managers tend to be about average or medium, and Theory Y managers tend to be well above average but not extremely high. (These phenomena will be discussed further in conjunction with Figure 10.8.)

Third, key traits largely determine the primary area (task accomplishment or people) in which an individual channels or seeks to fulfill other traits in these two quadrants (for example, ego and self-actualization needs, intellectual concerns, and goal-orientedness).

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

Weights Given to Characteristics in the Two Capabilities Quadrants. The shaded special task-related capabilities and special people-related capabilities in these quadrants have been judged to be about twice as important as the unshaded capabilities in the two quadrants. Thus, they are each given a weight of 2, while a weight of 1 has been assigned to each of the other capabilities. Again, these judgments are based on previously mentioned observations and studies.

Special *task-related* capabilities appear to (a) exert greater influences on one's ability to behave in a manner consistent with the levels of one's task-related motives; (b) exert greater influences on the efficiency and effectiveness with which one obtains task-related results (integrates tasks, human resources, and other resources for which one has managerial responsibility); or (c) exert greater influences on subordinates' attitudes about one's technical or functional professionalism, which, in turn, influence the effectiveness of one's relationships with subordinates. Likewise, special *people-related* capabilities (a) exert greater influences on one's ability to behave in a manner consistent with the levels of one's people-related motives; (b) exert greater influences on the effectiveness with which one obtains people-related results (integrates people with their tasks and people with people in order to maximize their development, performance, and satisfaction); or (c) exert greater influences on subordinates' feelings and interpersonal attitudes toward a person, which, in turn, influence the effectiveness of that person's relationships with subordinates.

Although the capabilities' and motive/attitudinal traits' weights were not determined scientifically, they are considered to be in the ballpark, for the reasons just cited.

Calculating (Estimating) the Overall Weighted Average Percentile Level for Each Quadrant

Once all the measurement scores and estimated figures have been filled in, each quadrant's overall weighted average percentile level is *estimated* (rather than reliably determined to be fact) by performing several calculations. The following is the quickest procedure. It should be performed for each of the four quadrants.

1. Add the percentile levels of all *key traits* or *special capabilities* in the quadrant.
2. Multiply the sum obtained in step 1 by the appropriate weight factor (5 for key motive/attitudinal traits; 2 for special capabilities).
3. Add the percentile levels of the remaining characteristics in the quadrant. (Because the remaining characteristics in all four quadrants each have a weight factor of 1, there is no need to multiply by a weight factor.)

4. Add the results of steps 2 and 3.
5. Compute the quadrant's overall percentile level by dividing the results of step 4 by the total number of weights in the quadrant. For the task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant, divide the sum obtained in step 4 by 54. For the people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant, divide the sum obtained in Step 4 by 43. For both the task-related capabilities quadrant and the people-related capabilities quadrant, divide the sum obtained in step 4 by 27.
6. Record the overall quadrant level (expressed as a percentile figure) in the space provided next to the quadrant. Write the descriptive term for this percentile level in the space provided directly below (for example, "Hi," "Med," "Lo," "VLo").

Weights Given to the Quadrants

An earlier section of this chapter gave three reasons for asserting that both motives and capabilities are important influences on an individual's nature, managerial or leadership behavior (style), and managerial or leadership effectiveness. Here the issue is their relative importance. Of the two inputs, more importance can be attributed to motive/attitudinal characteristics (as a group) than to capabilities (as a group). This judgment is based on many individuals' observations and studies (especially those of experts like Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland, and Drucker), which indicate that *motivational factors are the primary personal influences on behavior*.

For the following reasons, a weight factor of 2 is assigned to each of the two motive/attitudinal traits quadrants, while a weight factor of 1 is assigned to each of the two capabilities quadrants. First, it is motivation that transforms *available capabilities* (which can be likened to potential energy) into *applied capabilities* (which can be likened to kinetic energy or motion). Second, the overall level of an individual's motive/attitudinal characteristics influences the manner and spirit in which, the degree to which, and the efficiency and effectiveness with which that individual uses his or her capabilities. On the other hand, without adequate levels of various capabilities, an individual is less able to behave in the way in which he or she is motivated to behave. In fact, when an individual's levels of capabilities exceed the levels of motive/attitudinal traits, that individual's higher-level capabilities are bound to be reflected in his or her behavior (even though he or she may not be particularly motivated to use them), thereby compensating for his or her lower motivation to some extent. However, the degree to which higher levels of capabilities compensate for lower levels of motivational factors does not appear to be as great as the extent to which higher levels of motive/attitudinal traits compensate for lower levels of capabilities.

All of this is tantamount to saying that managerial behavior and effectiveness are two-thirds due to motivation and one-third due to ability. These weights seem to be fairly realistic and satisfactory, even though they may not produce the most accurate indications or explanations of an individual's overall levels of task and people-orientedness, managerial style tendency, or overall level of managerial effectiveness.

Weighting motive/attitudinal traits quadrants twice as heavily as capabilities quadrants seems to be most appropriate for *explaining existing behavior*. However, with respect to *changing behavior*, somewhat more emphasis should be placed on improving capabilities. This is because (a) behavior can generally be altered more easily and effectively than attitudes and the values, interests, and other traits that underlie them, and (b) improving knowledge, skills,

and behavioral inclinations helps bring about improvements in attitudes (because positive feedback from more functional behavior increases and reinforces more functional attitudes).

Calculating (Estimating) a Manager's Overall Weighted Average Percentile Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

To *estimate* a person's overall level of task-orientedness, simply calculate the weighted average of the two quadrants' weighted averages. The task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits quadrant is given a weight of 2, while the task-related capabilities quadrant is given a weight of 1. The overall level of people-orientedness is found in the same manner, using the same 2:1 weight ratio for the top and bottom quadrants. Thus, for each orientation, the top quadrant's overall weighted average percentile level is multiplied by 2 and added to the bottom quadrant's overall weighted average percentile level, and that sum is divided by 3. The result is the weighted average percentile level for that orientation (task hemisphere or people hemisphere of the model).

In addition to some double counting due to the use of two traits to identify certain tendencies, psychometricians (experts who develop measurement instruments) might bring up another technical problem, which should be acknowledged. All traits on The Managerial Target look as though they have the same distribution of scores (because all of their slices are the same length from the outer edge of the Target to the center), but they actually do not. Distributions of raw scores (and percentile levels) differ from trait to trait. However, stanine distributions have been used on the nine-level model in order to (a) compensate somewhat for this problem and (b) avoid indicating more accurate lengths (distributions), which would make viewing and using the Target rather cumbersome.

We conclude this overview of The Managerial Target with a cautionary reminder. As described in Chapter Nine, an individual's style is influenced by many nonpersonal variables (for example, the natures of jobs; social norms and sanctions; the styles of superiors and colleagues; the nature and structure of his or her organization; and outside forces). These factors can also influence the levels of an individual's personal characteristics over a period of time. The Managerial Target does not take these influences into account—at least not explicitly. It only indicates an individual's levels of specific characteristics, groups of characteristics, and estimated overall task- and people-orientedness at a given point in time, neither indicating nor describing the manner in which or the extent to which nonpersonal factors may have influenced these levels. Thus, what The Managerial Target essentially indicates is an individual's *tendency* toward a particular managerial style (regardless of his or her occupational specialty). However, because it does not indicate whether this tendency is reinforced or overridden by nonpersonal influences, it does not necessarily prove that the style indicated is actually the one primarily being used by the individual. Nevertheless, because it indicates *how an individual might tend to behave in the absence of contravening or modifying influences* (as though the person were operating within a vacuum), the Target can help understand, explain, assess, or predict a person's style.

Again, Figure 10.3 shows how The Managerial Target's combinations of personal traits relate to a grid framework. It only shows forty-five of the eighty-one possible combinations of the Target's nine ranges (or rings) involving task-orientedness and nine ranges (or rings) involving people-orientedness. The remaining thirty-six combinations lie between and, in many cases, border the more distinctive style tendencies.

The next sections explain just two major managerial styles in terms of Managerial Target concepts: (1) the X, authoritarian, or "high task, low people" (HT,LP) style and (2) the Y, team, or "high task, high people" (HT,HP) style. The permissive or "low task, high people" (LT,HP) style

is not discussed, because it is essentially the opposite of the authoritarian or HT,LP style in terms of the influences of levels of characteristics on attitudes and behavior. Nor is the middle-of-the-road or “medium task, medium people” (MT,MP) style discussed, because it is between X and permissive. The 1,1 or LT,LP style is also ignored.

HIGH TASK, LOW PEOPLE (HT,LP), THEORY X, AUTHORITARIAN, OR 9,1 TENDENCIES

Someone who is relatively high in task-related traits but low in people-related traits (especially the motive/attitudinal traits) is inclined to behave in an authoritarian manner.

Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness That Underlie Authoritarian Tendencies

Figure 10.6 shows that an individual will have the greatest or most definite inclination to behave in the most Theory X manner if he or she is very high task, very low people—that is, if his or her level of task-orientedness lies within the very high range (ring 9, the 97th to 99th percentile range) and his or her level of people-orientedness lies within the very low range (ring 1, the 1st to 4th percentile range). These levels are indicated by the arcs with dark shading in Figure 10.6. Less Theory X (soft X) managers have combinations involving the more lightly shaded arcs (in rings 7 and 8 for task-orientedness and in rings 2 and 3 for people-orientedness). (See also Figure 10.3.) (Figure 10.7, which is discussed later in the chapter, is placed here for direct visual comparison with Figure 10.6.)

It must be pointed out, however, that relatively few HT,LP individuals are at the highest level in task-orientedness and at the lowest level in people-orientedness. This combination can be

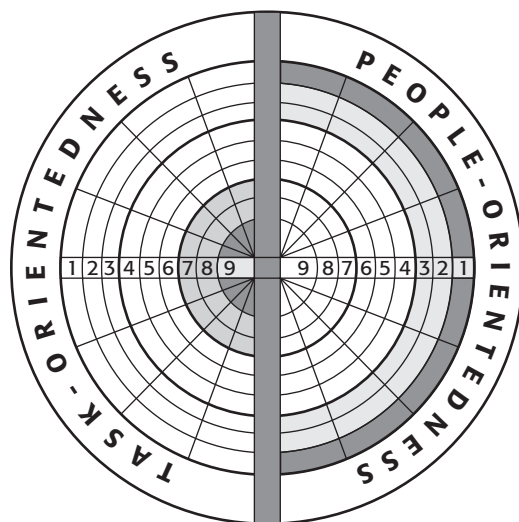


Figure 10.6. Authoritarian Tendencies: Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

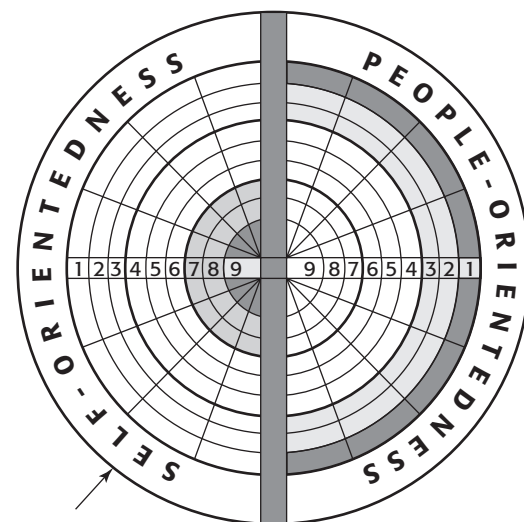


Figure 10.7. “High Self-Orientedness, Low People-Orientedness” on The Interpersonal Target

considered abnormal because the levels of so many underlying characteristics would have to be so abnormally high or so abnormally low.

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

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

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

First, when individuals have relatively *high* levels of economic and practical-mindedness values (which largely underlie high task-orientedness) and have relatively *low* levels of the social and benevolence values, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control (which largely underlie low people-orientedness), they tend to value task-related results much more highly than people-related results. They also tend to be much more concerned about and therefore do more about their own (rather than subordinates') job security, need and goal fulfillment, career success, and financial or material success (which they can achieve by obtaining good task-related results, more or less at subordinates' expense). In other words, when relatively high economic motives are not tempered or balanced by relatively high people-oriented motives, the result is very likely to be the highly task-oriented and rather selfish behavior that is characteristic of the Theory X style.

Second, when individuals have relatively *high* levels of the political and leadership values (which also largely underlie high task-orientedness) and have relatively *low* levels of more unselfish characteristics (such as the social value, the benevolence value, and social conscientiousness), they are inclined to use their positional power or authority to obtain task-related results through people. They are also inclined to be much more concerned about and therefore do more about their own ability to control or influence the environment (with which they can obtain the job security, success, recognition, and prestige that they value so highly). Consequently, they are rather unwilling to relinquish power, authority, or influence to subordinates. Doing so, they feel, would undermine their ability to control or influence forces that affect their own fulfillment on and through the job. These unbalanced tendencies can lead to the self-centered, power-oriented, self-assertive behavior that is also characteristic of the Theory X style.

Third, high needs for career-related achievement and recognition can also lead to more task-oriented, self-centered, and non-people-oriented behavior.

Fourth, very dominant, authoritarian, highly task-oriented behavior can also stem from relatively *low* levels of people-related capabilities. (It should be pointed out that low levels of these capabilities can be partly attributed to unbalanced task- and people-related motives. When individuals' economic and practical-mindedness values are *high*, but their people-oriented motive/attitudinal trait levels are *low*, they tend to perceive task-related capabilities as much more important than people-related capabilities. They are therefore inclined to develop and utilize their task-related capabilities to a greater extent.) When individuals' levels of people-related capabilities are relatively *low* (and they are not particularly motivated to apply those capabilities), they are often unable to obtain the people-related results that contribute so much to good long-term task-related results. To obtain good task-related results, therefore, they not only must capitalize on their task-related capabilities but also must resort to the use of their positional

power or authority in order to get things done by subordinates. As a result, they are inclined to value their position-based power or authority highly and therefore use it readily.

Fifth, when individuals' levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are relatively *low* and their levels of task-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are relatively *high*, they are inclined to regard people as tools or machines for performing only technical or functional tasks. When their levels of people-related capabilities are relatively *low* (particularly their levels of social insight, knowledge of Theory Y concepts, and understanding of subordinates' characteristics), they tend to have difficulty in recognizing that their subordinates have developable potentials for being more self-directing and self-controlling. Being both disinclined and unable to regard subordinates' motives and capabilities in a more Theory Y than Theory X manner, they tend to plan, direct, and control subordinates' activities personally. They are also inclined to treat subordinates like machines—that is, insensitively, impersonally, and caring only about their productivity and “maintenance.”

Sixth, when individuals' levels of task-related capabilities are relatively *high* and when they value the use of these capabilities highly, they tend to be very confident of their ability to perform integrative functions personally (rather than participatively). This self-confidence contributes to their inclination to plan, direct, and control subordinates' activities. Also, high confidence in one's own capabilities, coupled with low confidence in subordinates' capabilities, leads to an “I'm more OK than my subordinates” attitude. This attitude largely underlies directive and controlling behavior.

Seventh, Figure 10.8 shows that in the United States, the average male is higher in the economic and political values but lower in the social value than the average female (Allport, Vernon,

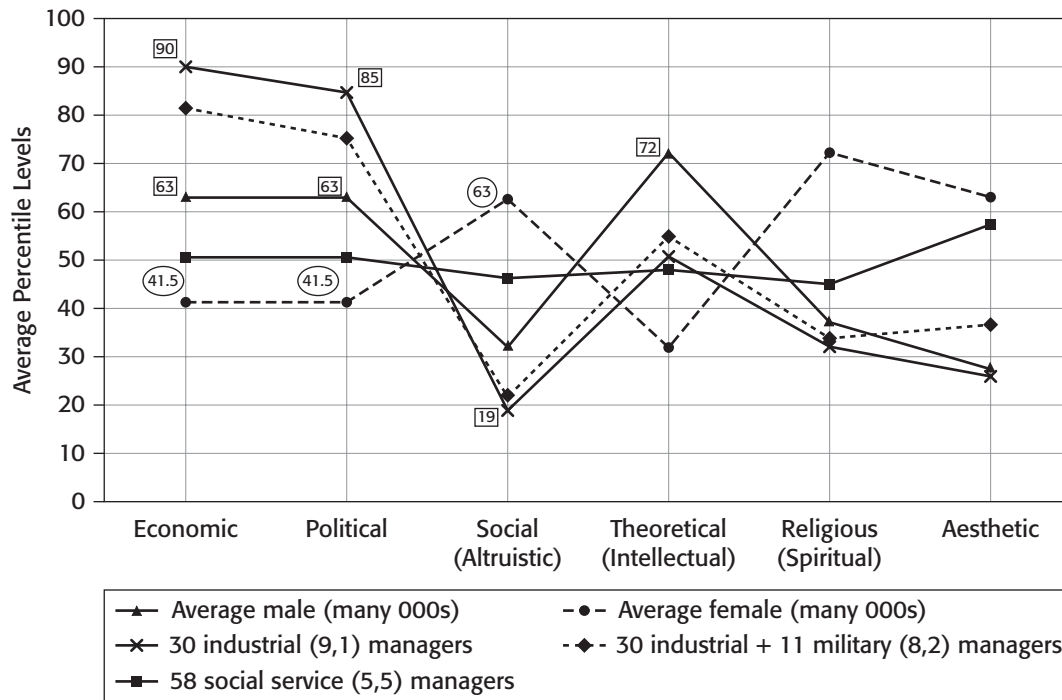


Figure 10.8. A Comparison of Values Profiles

and Lindzey, 1960b, pp. 11, 25)—as is almost certainly the case in some other countries, cultures, or areas. These differences between male and female value systems are mostly a function of socialization and conditioning processes that traditionally have prepared males and females for different roles. Today, increasingly larger numbers of females are adopting roles, attitudes, and behavior patterns traditionally associated with males, and males are beginning to experiment with roles, attitudes, and behavior patterns traditionally associated with females. As a result, the differences shown in Figure 10.8, though still evident across the population of the United States as a whole, have begun to become somewhat less pronounced.

Figure 10.8 also shows that the average Theory X (9,1) manager (for example, a traditionally authoritarian military officer or industrial plant manager) is significantly higher in the economic and political values and significantly lower in the social value than the average male. This indicates that the Theory X style is a very masculine (macho) style. Males in Western and many other societies—particularly those in managerial or leadership positions in organizations in which tasks at low levels are traditionally manual or physical and highly masculine—are conditioned to value economic and political matters very highly and to be self-confident, self-assertive, oriented toward career and financial success, competitive, and rather insensitive and emotionally undemonstrative (on the job, at least). Consequently, they are inclined to (a) measure how OK they and others are in these terms, (b) constantly try to prove themselves in these terms, and (c) hesitate to share their managerial or leadership functions and power with subordinates, in large part so as not to jeopardize their masculine identity and reputation. These tendencies are very characteristic of Theory X behavior.

Given the preceding discussion, another model should be mentioned. As will be discussed in Chapter Fourteen, The Interpersonal Target™ describes distinctive interpersonal styles, which have names very similar to those of the major managerial styles. That model is almost exactly like The Managerial Target, with one major exception. As shown in Figure 10.7 on page 233, the label of the task-orientedness hemisphere has been replaced with *self-orientedness*. Just like “high task, low people” managers, “high self, low people” individuals are *high* in more selfishly oriented values such as the economic, political, and achievement values and are *low* in selfless values such as the social (altruistic) and benevolence values. Thus, their associated attitudes tend to be as follows: “My own career, financial, and material success—and my own power, ability to control others, and ability to influence my environment—come first. I may care about my family and may want to make enough money to send my kids through college, but other people, including my subordinates, have to do for themselves and get where I am just like I did.” Such attitudes are dysfunctional for relationships with and do a disservice to not only subordinates but also colleagues, superiors, organizations, and outsiders.

Authoritarian Managers’ Susceptibility to Nonpersonal Influences

As one would expect, individuals having a high task, low people nature tend to be particularly susceptible to Theory X-oriented nonpersonal influences. Indeed, their inclination toward Theory X behavior is reinforced when (a) their subordinates’ tasks are very mechanistic; (b) their superiors’ and colleagues’ styles are Theory X; (c) the norms of social groups with which they associate are Theory X-related; (d) their organization’s structure is essentially mechanistic; or (e) outside forces or factors contribute to mechanistic organizational influences.

On the other hand, people-oriented influences do not alter these individuals’ nature and style tendency appreciably—at least in the short term. Although this is partly due to their relatively low levels of people-related capabilities, it is mostly due to their relatively low levels

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

In effect, the preceding section explains two phenomena that have been mentioned in Chapters Eight and Nine. First, these individuals' relatively low levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are largely responsible for the difficulty with which they adopt and develop highly people-oriented, Theory Y attitudes, and "high task, high people" behavior patterns. Although they may, for example, learn Theory Y concepts and practices, they will not be particularly inclined to accept them, use them, or make habits of them unless their levels of people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits are raised significantly. Unfortunately, raising the levels of these traits can be very difficult, even over the long term. Second, relatively low levels of these traits are also responsible for these individuals' adoption of a softer Theory X mode when they are faced with permissive or middle-of-the-road influences on their characteristics, attitudes, and style tendencies.

It should be noted at this point that there may be more managers and leaders who behave in an essentially Theory X manner than there are managers or leaders who have high task, low people natures. A major reason could be that there are many medium task, medium people (middle-of-the-road) managers who, because they possess medium levels of task- and people-oriented motive/attitudinal traits, are fairly susceptible to the X-related influences still being exerted by some organizations and some nonpersonal forces. However, that phenomenon may be offset by this one: many managers who are Theory X by nature do not necessarily behave in an X manner, largely because almost forty years of management training and organization development have taught many managers and entire organizations not to tolerate hard Theory X behavior and have taught many managers that they should behave more humanistically and participatively in order to get along with other personnel and get ahead in their organization. But knowing how to behave that way is one thing and actually doing so is another. As M. Scott Myers (1966) reported, a Texas Instruments study showed that many authoritarian managers think they are behaving participatively but that their subordinates do not agree. Again, managers can behave as they have been taught if they think about what they are doing; otherwise, their personal natures tend to shape their behavior and become apparent to others.

How Organizations and Life Can Change People

In the same vein, it is very important to note that over time, average people tend to become increasingly higher in certain values due to organizational phenomena and life in general.

For example, it is very common for individuals' level of the political value to increase as they (a) climb the organizational ladder; (b) are increasingly sensitized to others' power, authority, territories, and influence; (c) taste greater power, authority, or influence as they are promoted; and (d) desire more power for themselves, often at the expense of their subordinates. This tendency is especially common in mechanistic, authoritarian organizational cultures.

Similarly, it is common for high achievers to (a) grow in knowledge and expertise; (b) produce, innovate, or otherwise achieve in their field; (c) taste increasing recognition; and (d) want more of the same, often at subordinates' expense.

It is also very common for individuals' level of the economic value to increase as they (a) are promoted to higher-paying positions; (b) earn more money; (c) taste increasing financial and material success; and (d) and desire more and more of the same, often at subordinates' expense.

All these phenomena may be intensified as individuals (a) have families, (b) become increasingly responsible for their spouses' and children's physical well-being and material comfort, and (c) use increasing power, money, and achievement to provide for their families.

HIGH TASK, HIGH PEOPLE (HT,HP), THEORY Y, PARTICIPATIVE, TEAM, OR 9,9 TENDENCIES

Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness That Underlie Participative Tendencies

Figure 10.9 shows that an individual will have the greatest or most definite tendency to behave in the team, participative, or 9,9 manner if he or she is very high task, very high people—that is, his or her level of *task-orientedness* lies within the very high range (ring 9, the 97th to 99th percentile range) and his or her level of *people-orientedness* lies within the very high range (ring 9, the 97th to 99th percentile range). The arcs for these levels are indicated by dark shading. Less participative (relatively high task, relatively high people) managers have combinations involving the more lightly shaded arcs (in rings 7 and 8 for both task-orientedness and people-orientedness). (See also Figure 10.3.)

While possible, all high task, high people combinations are not particularly probable. Some, however, are more probable than others. For reasons discussed later in this section, combinations involving higher task-orientedness than people-orientedness—or vice versa—are more probable than combinations involving equally high levels of task- and people-orientedness. Combinations involving lower levels of task- and people-orientedness are more probable than combinations involving higher levels of task- and people-orientedness. The least probable of all the combinations is very high task, very high people. Being this high in both task- and people-orientedness means being very

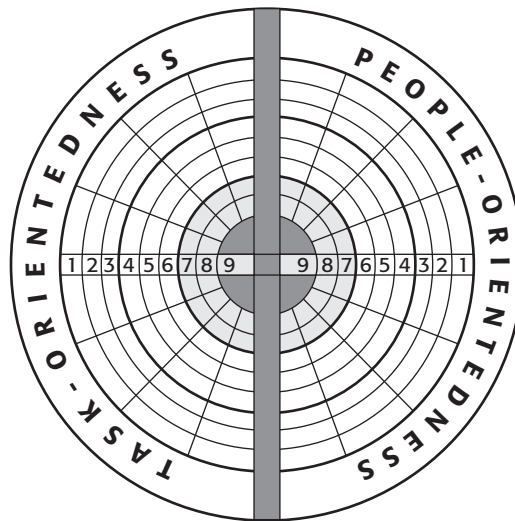


Figure 10.9. Participative, Team, or HT,HP Tendencies: Underlying Levels of Task- and People-Orientedness

high in almost all Target traits, which is virtually impossible. (In fact, being very high in certain traits is generally considered to be dysfunctional or undesirable.) Some of the reasons for the low probability of being high in both task- and people-orientation are as follows:

First, no individual is or can be a perfect manager or leader. Period.

Second, a negative (reverse) correlation exists between the social value (a selfless value that has a positive correlation with benevolence) and both the economic and political values (self-centered motives that have a mutual positive correlation and also have a positive correlation with the practical-mindedness and leadership values, respectively). In other words, when the social value is relatively high, the economic and political values tend to be relatively low; and when the economic and political values are relatively high, the social value tends to be relatively low. These correlations are substantiated by the value profiles in Figure 10.8 and by the inter-correlation tables in the manuals of various assessment instruments. Note in Figure 10.8, for example, that the average male's higher economic and political values are accompanied by a lower social value, while the average female's higher social value is accompanied by lower economic and political values. Particularly note that the average Theory X manager's exceptionally high economic and political values are accompanied by an exceptionally low social value. As just mentioned, the economic and political values are somewhat related and have a positive correlation. For example, money can be used as a vehicle for gaining and maintaining power. In turn, power can be used to become more economically successful. Another example is that a Theory X boss is inclined to use power to control subordinates so that they will not make mistakes, make him look bad, and thereby prevent him from getting promotions, making more money, and gaining more power.

Unfortunately, the consequence of the preceding negative and positive correlations is that virtually no one can be very high in key task-related values (for example, economic and political values) and at the same time be very high in key people-related values (for example, social and benevolence values). Although people would like to think they can be high in most values—such as the “valued matters” in Table 10.1—they cannot be. Because assessment instruments force choices between values, that is not the way it works. People are highest in only one valued matter and are lowest in only one other such value, with the levels of the other valued matters ranging between the highest and the lowest. Indeed, Figure 10.8 illustrates that when the economic and political values are high, the social value is low, because they are opposites (by definition) and have reverse correlations. This basically means that virtually no one can be very high task, very high people by nature—at least in terms of motive/attitudinal traits. Even relatively high levels of key values on the Target are not likely to be found in an individual. It also means that combinations of task- and people-orientedness involving equally high levels of both are much less likely than combinations involving higher task-orientedness than people-orientedness—or vice versa.

Third, being very high in a personality trait is generally associated with compulsive, abnormal, dysfunctional, undesirable behavior. For example, very high self-confidence is associated with a disinclination and inability to recognize that one is not perfect and that there is room for self-improvement. It is also associated with cockiness and arrogance. Being very vigorous is associated to some extent with a lack of self-control and frenetic activity. Very high sociability (extreme social extroversion) is often perceived by others as insincere and somewhat untrustworthy behavior. A very high level of dominance is associated with overly aggressive, unrestrained, socially unconscientious, domineering behavior. Very high social conscientiousness is sometimes associated with compulsive unselfishness—or what has been called a “martyr complex.” Very high responsibility is associated with compulsively “keeping one's nose to the grindstone” (being

a workaholic). Very high social conscientiousness and responsibility are associated with being irritated by, critical, intolerant, and suspicious of, and antagonistic toward others (especially when these levels are not balanced by a fairly high level of adaptability). Very high adaptability (flexibility) is associated with inconstancy of purpose and vacillation. Very high original thinking is often associated with indecisiveness and impracticality. Very high emotional stability and self-control are often associated with a very dull personality and lifestyle. Thus, for most, if not all personality traits, it is better (more functional) to be “fairly high” than to be “very high.”

It should also be pointed out that being relatively high in some personality traits tends to be incompatible with being relatively high in others. For example, according to intercorrelation tables in the published manuals of psychological instruments for measuring the values and personality traits listed in Table 10.1, a negative (reverse) correlation tends to exist between self-control and traits such as vigor, dominance, and sociability. (When self-control is high, the other traits tend to be relatively low; and when self-control is low, the other traits tend to be relatively high.) The tables also indicate that in most people, a positive correlation tends to exist between self-control and traits such as social conscientiousness and responsibility. (When self-control is high, the other traits’ levels also tend to be high; and when self-control is low, the other traits’ levels also tend to be relatively low.) Thus, if self-control is relatively high, then vigor, dominance, and sociability are likely to be relatively low, while social conscientiousness and responsibility are likely to be relatively high.

Fourth, it can be very difficult for an individual to acquire or develop very high levels of specialized skills. It can be even more difficult for an individual to acquire all the knowledge necessary to be very high in just one knowledge factor on the Target.

Fifth, whereas self-centered ego needs can be tempered by self-awareness, self-control, and worthwhile, socially oriented motives, it is difficult for human beings to constantly keep them under control. Thus, ego needs often lead most individuals to believe that they are more capable than their subordinates and just as capable as their superiors, even though these beliefs may not be true. Also, when confronted by the conflicts that constantly occur between their own and others’ wills and egos, individuals are inclined to protect and strengthen their own egos when they are threatened. That is largely why people’s egos stand in the way of personal development and improvement. Their egos are mostly responsible for their saying to themselves, “I’m OK the way I am and don’t really need or want to change.” In fact, in all of our years of experience working with people in the areas of personal, managerial, and organization development, people’s egos have seemed to be the most significant obstacles to improvement. This has been especially true of Theory X managers and those who appear to be lower than many other people in self-awareness, adaptability, and self-honesty.

These human frailties prevent individuals from becoming perfect persons and perfect managers or leaders. However, while it is virtually impossible to be very high task, very high people in terms of key motive/attitudinal traits, we do not mean to suggest that it is useless to strive to be relatively high task, relatively high people. On the contrary, in fact, the point that we wish to emphasize here is that everyone can stand some improvement. The Managerial Target provides a bull’s-eye at which to aim and a framework within which to further develop.

Brief Explanation of Theory Y Tendencies in Terms of Underlying Personal Characteristics

It makes sense that relatively high task- and people-orientedness lead to Y, participative, team-oriented behavior (in the absence of contravening or modifying nonpersonal influences), especially

when the following relationships between various characteristics and basic Theory Y attitudes and behavior patterns are considered.

First, when individuals are above average to relatively high in the economic and practical-mindedness values, and the associated tendencies are balanced or tempered by above average to relatively high levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control, they are inclined to be rather highly concerned about both task- and people-related results. They are also inclined to demonstrate concern for their subordinates' job security, need and goal fulfillment, career success, and financial or material success as well as their own.

Second, when individuals are above average to relatively high in the political and leadership values, and the associated tendencies are balanced or tempered by above average to relatively high levels of the social value, benevolence, social conscientiousness, adaptability, social maturity, and self-control, they tend not to rely on their position-based power or authority. Rather than valuing and exercising their positional power or authority, they value, earn, and exercise *benevolent influence*—that is, conscientiously applied personal influence that is earned by demonstrating expertise, competence, trustworthiness, and concern and respect for subordinates. Rather than making subordinates feel powerless and incompetent by manipulating, directing, and controlling them, they guide subordinates' participation in integrative matters, giving them opportunities to influence the fulfillment of their own needs and goals. These behavior patterns are characteristic of a team player—the Theory Y, participative, or HT,HP manager or leader.

Third, when individuals' levels of people-related motive/attitudinal traits are above average to relatively high, they are inclined to feel warmly toward and to empathize with their subordinates. They may also be inclined to regard subordinates' natures and behavior with favor, fairness, respect, and confidence (rather than with irritation, suspicion, criticism, or antagonism). Also, when their levels of people-related capabilities are high (particularly their levels of social insight, adaptability, knowledge of Theory Y concepts, knowledge of participative and developmental practices, and understanding of subordinates' characteristics), they are able to recognize that their subordinates possess inner motivation that can be released and potentials that can be developed and utilized. They are also able to recognize that people-related results contribute significantly to task-related results, and vice versa. Being both inclined and able to regard subordinates in a Theory Y manner, they are inclined to work with their subordinates in an understanding, sensitive, congenial, participative, developmental manner, always emphasizing and trying to maximize subordinates' development, performance, and satisfaction.

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

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

First, they tend to be very confident of their ability to obtain excellent task- and people-related results. In some individuals, this might lead to an inflated, unrealistic self-image and an inclination to be directive and controlling. In high task, high people individuals, however, this is much less likely to occur. Certainly they have dignity, self-respect, and self-confidence. But because their relatively high levels of adaptability, self-control, other capabilities that contribute to honest self-awareness, and capabilities that facilitate sensitivity to others' needs and feelings, they maintain a healthy, realistic self-image and keep their ego under control. They are aware of their weaknesses but are neither overly self-effacing nor ego-defensive. They recognize that even though they are OK, they can always improve themselves. They are not insecure and do not have to prove themselves constantly to themselves and to others. They are not so intent on protecting and strengthening their own self-image that they are unaware of the needs, feelings, and ideas of others. Enabling others to fulfill their needs and goals contributes to the fulfillment of these individuals' own needs. Consequently, their ego is not threatened when they share their influence and integrative responsibilities with subordinates. On the contrary. Their self-confidence and a healthy self-image enable them to be team players and to guide rather than direct and control subordinates.

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

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

In short, "relatively high task, relatively high people" individuals are both motivated and able to be team players, team builders, developers, thinkers, and communicators. R. D. Cecil often says the following in management seminars, borrowing from Hallmark Cards' motto, "When you care enough to send the very best": "These people care enough and are capable enough to develop the best in subordinates, behave most supportively toward them, and provide them with the best in terms of fulfilling jobs. Then—and only then—do they have the right to expect the best performance from subordinates. And they do. As a result, they are able to obtain the best in terms of task- and people-related results."

"High Task, High People" Managers' Susceptibility to Nonpersonal Influences

As could be expected, HT,HP individuals' nature and style tendency are developed and reinforced by nonpersonal influences such as (a) team or participative styles of superiors and colleagues; (b) Y-oriented norms of social groups; (c) an organic organizational structure; (d) a participative and developmental organizational atmosphere; and (e) outside factors or forces that exert organic influences on the jobs of subordinates, colleagues, and superiors. If, on the other hand, nonpersonal factors exert influences in the directions of other styles, it may be difficult for these individuals to behave in a participative, developmental, HT,HP manner. Even so, since they have above average to relatively high levels of both task- and people-related characteristics, they are more inclined and able to recognize and cope with adverse influences than are other types of managers.

DETERMINING WHAT THE MANAGERIAL TARGET INDICATES ABOUT AN INDIVIDUAL'S OVERALL LEVEL OF MANAGERIAL OR LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

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

Weights Given to Task-Orientedness and People-Orientedness

How one assesses, explains, or predicts one's level of managerial or leadership effectiveness in terms of levels of task- and people-orientedness largely depends on the definitions of *management* and *managerial effectiveness* that one wishes to use. The definition largely determines the relative weights one assigns to task-orientedness and people-orientedness.

The traditional, authoritarian definition of management assumes that people are basically tools of production. Using this definition, one might give task-related results or productivity (and therefore task-orientedness) a weight of 1, while giving people-related results (and therefore people-orientedness) a weight of 0. That definition is obviously unacceptable.

A bit more modern but rather middle-of-the-road definition suggests that managerial effectiveness means getting productivity through people. Using this definition, task-related results might be emphasized by giving task-orientedness a weight of 2 and giving people-related results and people-orientedness a weight of 1. That definition is not the most acceptable, either.

Certainly, one cannot deny that an individual's level of task-orientedness largely influences his or her task-related results. Similarly, an individual's level of people-orientedness largely influences his or her people-related results. Thus, one might assert the following: (a) an individual's task-related results are due to that individual's task-related effectiveness, which in turn is a function of his or her level of task-orientedness; and (b) an individual's people-related results are due to that individual's people-related effectiveness, which in turn is a function of his or her level of people-orientedness. But is it really appropriate to talk in terms of task- and people-related effectiveness? Only superficially. As shown in Figure 8.6 (page 186) and explained on pages 185–188, subordinates' performance, development, and even job satisfaction are all directly or indirectly task-related results; and subordinates' satisfaction, development, and even performance are all directly or indirectly people-related results. The two types of results are interrelated and interdependent. Task-related results are influenced and enhanced by people-related results; and people-related results are influenced and enhanced by task-related results. This means that (a) an individual's task-related results cannot be wholly attributed to his or her level of task-orientedness; they must also be partly attributed to his or her level of people-orientedness; and (b) an individual's people-related results cannot be wholly attributed to his or her level of people-orientedness; they must also be partly attributed to his or her level of task-orientedness.

In view of this, it seems rather pointless to think in terms of task-related effectiveness and people-related effectiveness. In our judgment, it is more appropriate to think in terms of *overall managerial or leadership effectiveness* and to relate an individual's levels of task- and people-orientedness directly to overall effectiveness.

Based on the preceding considerations, R. D. Cecil and Company adopted an even more modern and appropriate definition of management effectiveness: *An effective manager is one who, being both motivated and able to do so, maximizes subordinates' short- and long-term performance, development, and satisfaction to the extent permitted by uncontrollable factors operating within and upon the organizational environment.* This definition encompasses (a) the spirit and intent of Theory Y, (b) the major aspects of Raymond Miles' human resources approach, and (c) time considerations. It also contains an important proviso. It acknowledges that even the most motivated, most capable, and most highly task- and people-oriented manager cannot maximize subordinates' performance, development, and satisfaction if he or she is prevented from doing so by organizational factors such as superiors' and colleagues' dysfunctional styles, badly designed organizational information and control systems, negative social phenomena within and between groups, and other nonpersonal factors. In other words, the efforts of a potentially effective manager can be thwarted by various factors beyond his or her control, thereby rendering the manager somewhat ineffective. This, in fact, is a major point in the case for developing an entire organization and management team in both a systematic *and* systemic manner.

The preceding definition implicitly gives task- and people-orientedness equal emphasis and, thus, equal weights of 1 and 1. Based on this formula, the five distinctive types of managers would have the following managerial effectiveness scores on a nine-point scale:

- High task, high people (HT,HP), 9,9, or team: 9.0
- High task, low people (HT,LP), 9,1, or authoritarian: 5.0
- Medium task, medium people (MT,MP), 5,5, or middle-of-the-road: 5.0
- Low task, high people (LT,HP), 1,9, or permissive: 5.0
- Low task, low people (LT,LP), 1,1, or nonmanager: 1.0

At first glance, the authoritarian manager's score might seem to give too little credit for task-related results; and the permissive manager's score might seem to give too much credit for people-related results. Even so, this formula was adopted in principle based on two points. First, the HT,LP (9,1) and LT,HP (1,9) managers' scores look out of line only when they are compared with the scores obtained using the weighting system derived from the "more modern" definition of effective management. Before actually adopting the preceding formula, however, R. D. Cecil and Company experimented with several variations. While these formulas were more complex and represented an attempt to arrive at a formula in a somewhat more scientific manner, they all produced approximately the same results. The 1:1 formula was finally adopted for several reasons: First, it is straightforward and easy to understand. Second, it acknowledges that task-related results influence and are related to people-related results—and vice versa. Third, it acknowledges that a truly effective manager must maximize performance, development, and satisfaction—not just productivity through people. And fourth, the results it produces make sense within the context of the discussion in the next section.

Interpretive Procedure

The procedure for assessing, explaining, or predicting an individual’s tendency toward a particular level of managerial or leadership effectiveness involves the use of Figure 10.10. To understand how this figure has been derived, imagine placing The Managerial Target flat on a table with the bottom of the Target toward you. Then, imagine raising it by the center into a conical shape (much like raising the center of a round tent). Next, imagine suspending a plumb line from the apex of the cone to the bottom. Now, if you were to view the raised Target from the edge of the table, it would appear to be a two-dimensional, nine-level pyramid—Figure 10.10. On the left side is the task-orientedness scale, which previously went from “very low” on the outside of the Target to “very high” in the center but now goes from “very low” at the bottom of the pyramid to “very high” at the top. On the right side is the people-orientedness scale, which has been transposed and graduated in the same manner. The plumb line appears as the middle scale—the scale for indicating an individual’s inclination toward a particular level of managerial or leadership effectiveness. It, too, goes from “very

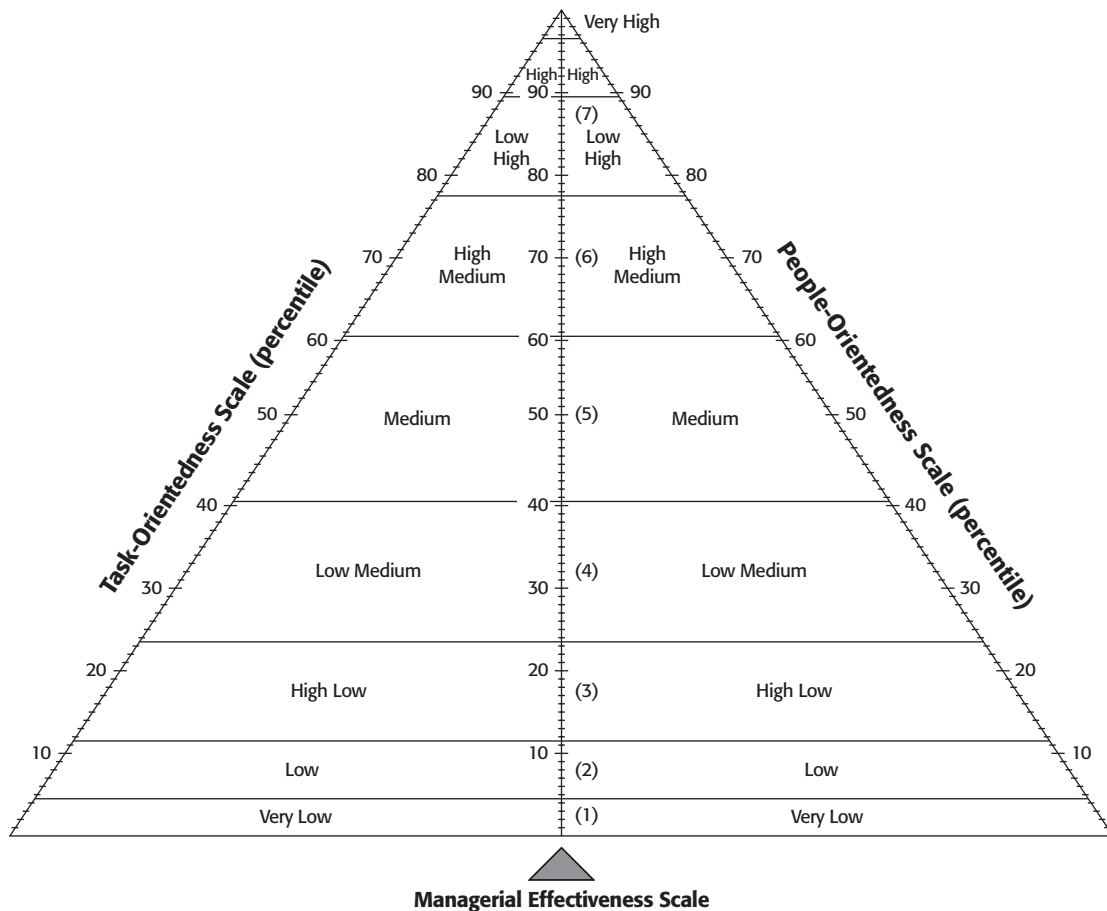


Figure 10.10. Indicator of an Individual’s Tendency Toward a Particular Level of Overall Managerial Effectiveness, Based on The Managerial Target

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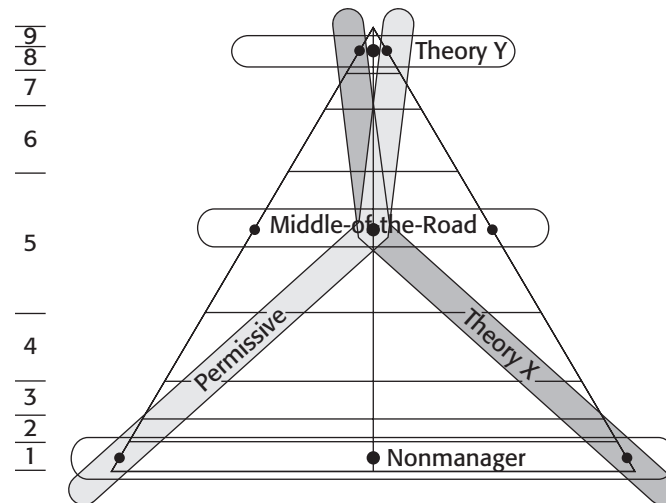


Figure 10.11. Short-Term Effectiveness Tendencies of Five Types of Managers

low” at the bottom to “very high” at the top. Implicit in this Target-based model is the premise that the influences of motive/attitudinal traits on managerial effectiveness are about twice as important as the influences of capabilities, just as their influences on managerial style tendencies are.

The following steps are taken to determine one’s estimated level of managerial effectiveness:

1. Indicate one’s level of task-orientedness on Figure 10.10 by putting a large dot on the left side of the figure at the appropriate percentile level.
2. Indicate one’s level of people-orientedness on the right scale of the figure in the same manner.
3. Obtain an indication of one’s tendency toward a particular level of *short-term managerial or leadership effectiveness* by computing an unweighted average of one’s levels of task- and people-orientedness. (Simply add the percentile levels of task- and people-orientedness, and then divide the sum by 2.)
4. Obtain an indication of one’s tendency toward a particular level of *long-term managerial or leadership effectiveness* in the following manner:
 - If one’s levels of people-orientedness and task-orientedness are *about the same* (in the same percentile range), one’s long-term level of effectiveness is likely to be about the same as his or her short-term level.
 - If one’s level of people-orientedness (or task-orientedness) is significantly *lower* than his or her level of task-orientedness (or people-orientedness), one’s long-term level of effectiveness is likely to be at least one range lower than his or her short-term level.
5. Indicate one’s calculated level of short-term effectiveness on Figure 10.10 by putting a large dot at the appropriate point on the center (vertical) scale. Then indicate one’s (estimated) level of long-term effectiveness on Figure 10.10 by putting a small dot at the appropriate point on the scale.

Using this procedure, the short- and long-term levels of effectiveness of the five distinctive types of managers or leaders would be more or less as indicated in Figures 10.11 and 10.12. Note

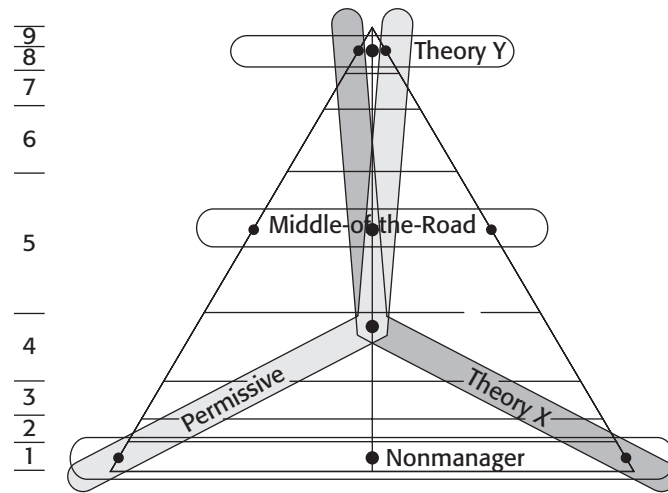


Figure 10.12. Long-Term Effectiveness Tendencies of Five Types of Managers

that the most significant changes over time occur in the cases of Theory X and permissive managers. (It has been assumed in these models that the various types of managers or leaders will be responsible for the same units and subordinates in the short term and the long term.)

PERSPECTIVES ON THE USEFULNESS OF THE MANAGERIAL TARGET

As acknowledged earlier, The Managerial Target is not a perfect model. Like any other model, it has certain limitations. Because of its limitations, it does not necessarily provide absolutely accurate or reliable indications of people's nature, managerial or leadership style tendencies, or tendencies toward particular levels of overall managerial or leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, even with its limitations, the Target is still a very useful analytic, diagnostic, and developmental tool when it is used and interpreted properly.

The Managerial Target as a Personal Analytic, Self-Awareness, and Learning Tool

Proper use of The Managerial Target provides extremely valuable learning experiences. When this model is presented in seminars, workshops, and management or team development programs, participating managers or leaders are first instructed in Target concepts, preparation procedures, and interpretation. They are then guided in their use of the Target as a tool for gaining greater self-awareness and self-understanding. Using The Managerial Target enables them to (a) perceive themselves in specific rather than general or ambiguous terms; (b) identify what they do not know or have not been able to pin down about themselves, thereby establishing a basis for filling gaps in their self-knowledge; (c) develop very useful insights into their nature and managerial or leadership behavior; and (d) begin to accept some insights about themselves that they might otherwise have had difficulty accepting. Detailed self-analysis not only increases self-awareness and self-understanding but also forms a basis for the development of more functional task- and people-oriented characteristics, attitudes, and behavior patterns. (It is assumed that the Target is being used in a constructive manner. Some individuals may be tempted to use

it to identify subordinates', colleagues', or superiors' weaknesses and then use the resulting insights for their own personal advantage.)

Here are several suggestions: Individuals who are much higher in task-orientedness than people-orientedness should make an effort to (a) give more thought to the people-related aspects of their analyses, plans, solutions, and decisions, and (b) further develop their people-related attitudes and skills. Similarly, people who are much higher in people-orientedness than task-orientedness should make an effort to (a) give more thought to the task- or productivity-related aspects of their analyses, plans, solutions, and decisions, and (b) further develop their task-related attitudes and skills.

The Managerial Target as an Organizational Diagnostic and Developmental Tool

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

1. Because the Target relates a comprehensive list of specific motive/attitudinal traits and capabilities to managerial behavior and effectiveness, it enables managers not only to develop themselves but also to develop their subordinates. It helps them (a) analyze their subordinates in specific rather than general or ambiguous terms; (b) identify what they do not know about their subordinates, thereby establishing a basis for filling the gaps in their knowledge; (c) develop useful insights into their subordinates' natures, attitudes, and behavior; (d) identify and capitalize on subordinates' specific strengths; and (e) diagnose and remedy their specific weaknesses. Such activities are extremely important, because developmental efforts cannot result in significant and permanent improvements unless various important characteristics (each of which can influence changes in the others) are comprehensively and systematically improved or further developed.

2. The Target can be used to verify and explain the results of various tests and indexes that are sometimes used to help identify, consider, and improve individuals' managerial, supervisory, or leadership behavior and effectiveness.

Contrary to what some people might suppose, The Managerial Target was not designed to compete against grid-oriented models and testing instruments. True, the Target has certain advantages over grid models: it can relate personal characteristics, attitudinal concerns, and behavior patterns to managerial style and effectiveness tendencies. On the other hand, grid-oriented models have certain advantages over the Target: while the Target model can show different managerial styles' positions, grid models can show their relative positions somewhat more understandably (as intersections of levels of two elements).

Actually, the two types of models complement each other. When used together for certain purposes, the advantages of each can be used to compensate for the limitations of the other. For example, while grid models essentially indicate the net effect of personal and nonpersonal factors' influences on style tendency, they cannot indicate the extent to which personal and nonpersonal factors have separately affected task- and people-related concerns and behavior. Similarly, while the Target essentially indicates personal factors' influences on style tendencies, it is not capable of isolating the effects of nonpersonal factors' influences on those characteristics. However, when the two models are used together, the results of grid-oriented test instruments can be compared with Target results to gain insight into the extent to which nonpersonal factors

may be either reinforcing or contravening personal style and effectiveness tendencies. If, for instance, the Target indicates a “medium task, medium people” personal style tendency, and a grid instrument indicates a high task, low people style tendency, comparing the two results may indicate that a MT,MP individual is being influenced by a HT,LP environment to behave in an authoritarian manner.

R. D. Cecil recalls the following example of nonpersonal influences on people’s natures:

During one top-down, organization-wide MD/OD project conducted at a hospital, we tested the values and personality traits of the entire management team. (Because it was strictly for purposes of self-awareness, individuals’ scores were not fed back to top management.) When we fed back averaged scores for levels and groups in the organization, one average surprised everyone. The supervisory and managerial nurses, rather than being highest in the social value and lowest in economic and political values (as might be expected of altruistic Florence Nightingales), were about as high as their male counterparts in the economic and political values and were almost as low in the social value. After some discussion, the consensus was the following: First, because the nurses did not make large salaries, because many of them were divorced, and because the married nurses were in two-income families that needed their income, they were all largely responsible for their own or their families’ economic well-being. Therefore, economic matters were of great concern to them. Second, their high level of the political value was largely due to one of the most common organizational phenomena. From the time people join an organization, their political concerns steadily increase, because they must be sensitive to other personnel’s territories, authority, influence, and internal politicking. People who are not sensitive to such matters do not last very long or go very high in organizations. Thus, organizations have a tendency to increase personnel’s level of the political value. To what degree were the nurses’ test scores influenced by economic and political phenomena external to their nature? To a great degree.

3. Even though The Managerial Target relates the levels of many specific personal characteristics to managerial style and effectiveness tendencies, we *cannot and do not recommend actually using the Target as a hiring or selection instrument*. There are two major reasons: First, we have only recently begun to better document the Target’s validity and reliability (partly because the Study of Values was not published for a number of years). Even with better validation, it would still be advisable for an organization to locally validate the Target’s use for hiring and selection purposes. That also applies to using the Target internally as *an assessment and development tool*. (As validation statistics are compiled, they will be furnished to Target users on request.) Second, as this book has pointed out numerous times, many nonpersonal factors affect how an individual will behave if he or she is placed in a particular position. The influences of these factors must also be considered. For example, a “high task, high people” individual may not be able to achieve high managerial effectiveness if (a) subordinates’ jobs are highly mechanistic; (b) superiors’ and colleagues’ styles are Theory X; (c) pervasive social norms are Theory X-related; (d) facilities and equipment are inadequate; (e) the organization does not have adequate, organization-wide managerial, supervisory, or workforce training and development programs; and (f) the organization’s information and control systems are inadequate.

Nevertheless, managers should keep in mind several insights provided by the Target. For example, when managers are hiring or selecting managerial or supervisory personnel, they should not bother to look for individuals having overall motive/attitudinal trait level combinations such as “9 task, 9 people” or “9 task, 8 people” or “8 task, 9 people.” As discussed earlier, very few if any such people exist. Instead, they should ask questions that give them insight into whether a candidate possesses a balance between selfish and selfless motives—that is, a person

who is “7 task, 5 people” or “6 task, 5 people” or “5 task, 6 people” in key motive/attitudinal traits. Such people have been fairly well socialized, but not to the point where they are martyrs and impractical. They are not entirely selfish or selfless. Basically, they are highly mature and do not need to put others down in order to put themselves up. The important thing is that the overall levels of these two sets of traits be (a) above average to relatively high, and (b) more or less balanced (so that the more self-centered task-related motives are balanced by the more selfless people-related motives).

It should be acknowledged that managers are not always the ones who select their subordinates. When they are promoted into or selected for a new position, managers often inherit managerial or supervisory subordinates who are not “relatively high task, relatively high people” individuals. The next point gains importance under such circumstances.

4. Whether subordinates have balanced motive/attitudinal traits or not, it behooves managers to take the following steps, based on analyses of their subordinates’ characteristics:

- They should initially concentrate on developing very high levels of both task- and people-related basic abilities, specialized abilities, knowledge factors, and other capabilities for applying high task, high people practices. Improving these various capabilities can help improve both task- and people-related performance or results, which, in turn, generate the positive feedback that can improve task- and people-related motive/attitudinal traits over time.

- Equally important, managers and their organizations should also foster and reinforce team, participative, or developmental behavior and a team atmosphere by (a) establishing organic organizational systems and practices; (b) fostering Y-related attitudes and social norms; and (c) encouraging mutual reinforcement of Y-related attitudes and HT,HP practices among superiors, colleagues, and subordinates. In fact, constantly striving to improve the motives, attitudes, and capabilities that underlie tendencies toward HT,HP behavior is the mark of a top-notch manager or leader. It is also the mark of a top-notch organization.

5. Managers and leaders can also apply Target concepts to help monitor, evaluate, and improve development programs. For example, by using any of their own performance evaluation characteristics that correspond to Target traits, they can work up qualifications profiles on themselves and their subordinates at, say, annual intervals. Then, by comparing the most recent profiles with past profiles, they can (a) evaluate their own and their subordinates’ developmental progress; (b) determine the manner in which nonpersonal factors may be either reinforcing or hindering development; (c) evaluate development programs and make appropriate modifications to them; and (d) initiate steps to positively influence nonpersonal socio-technical factors that may be hindering development.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has attempted to unify several different types of managerial behavior models by using the four-dimensional Managerial Target to integrate (a) *two motive/attitudinal dimensions* (task- and people-related concerns) found in some models with (b) *two behavioral dimensions* (task- and people-related behaviors) in other models and with (c) *two capability dimensions* (task- and people-related competencies) in others. Although The Managerial Target is not the simplest model ever devised, it is descriptive, explanatory, and prescriptive all at the same time.

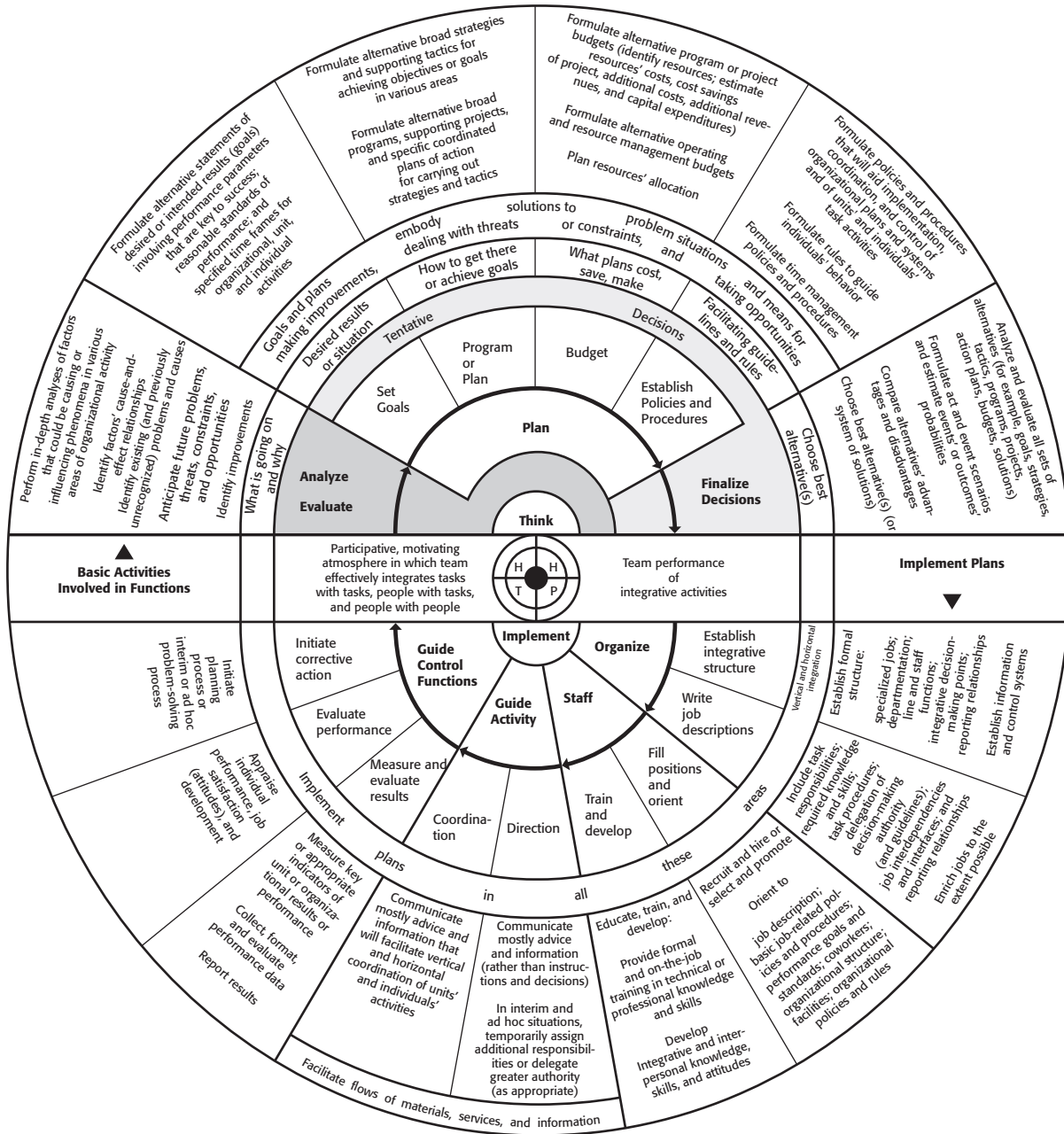


Figure 10.13. The Heart of Participative Management

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"The heart" is the sensitive, caring, and compassionate aspect of HT,HP.

Furthermore, it is not all that much more complex than many organizations' individual performance appraisal forms, which generally cover most of the values, personality traits and capabilities on the Target. The Target organizes all these characteristics into an innovative tool for better understanding and improving managerial and leadership behavior and performance.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter Eight, a managerial or leadership style is the manner in which one interacts with and behaves toward subordinates in the process of performing integrative functions. We obviously believe that there is one best approach for managing people—the high task, high people approach, in which one *guides* his or her *team's* performance of integrative functions. This approach, indicated by the letters HT and HP in the center of Figure 10.13, is the heart of participative management. It reflects a manager's or leader's feelings and attitudes regarding self, subordinates, and relationships with subordinates. Those with this heart are more inclined and able to behave in such a manner than those without it.

Discussion of so many personal (and nonpersonal) influences on managerial and leadership behavior has been partial preparation for the next chapter. Chapter Eleven attempts to deal with one of the most debated management issues: Which is most valid, the “one best style” theory or the situational theory?