ASSESSING STYLES OF CAREER MANAGEMENT

Tom Carney

Different ways of pursuing a career are discussed daily in the workplace and in various publications. We all tend to have views on how to pursue a career. Although the style of career management that a person favors may not be the one that is appropriate to his or her work situation, this style will largely determine the person’s loyalty to the organization and the people in it. The more conscious a person is of various career styles—and of the biases that accompany these styles—the better for all concerned.

The consciousness-raising instrument that follows makes it possible to assess various styles of career management and at least some of their consequences.

ELEMENTS OF THE INSTRUMENT

Four organizational character types appear throughout the literature on organizations:

1. **The Careerist**: These people build networks and find mentors. They are shrewd at all aspects of office politics and very careful to be associated with the right people. Rapid advancement is their primary objective.

2. **The Organizational Entrepreneur or Task-Force Manager**: These people reorganize systems and put together task forces to solve difficult problems. Their constant reshuffling is done with great innovation. Problem solving is their main focus.

3. **The Organization Person**: These people identify with the organization itself. They work at being accepted and think they can advance through loyal, steady service. They primarily “go by the book.”

4. **The Specialist/Expert**: These people see the organization as providing resources for them to develop their specialties. They believe that technical expertise is more important than managerial ability. The attainment of technical proficiency is their primary goal.

Perhaps the most strikingly visible of these character types is the careerist, whose view of organizational communications could be summed up by the common expression: “It’s who you know that counts.” Careerists tend to think that “organizations are people.” They are convinced of the importance of the “grapevine,” of knowing the “right” people, of building a network, and of finding a sponsor. Careerists view an organization as individuals in interaction, with certain individuals interacting more than others. They may see the organizational chart as a network of cliques. Careerists are apt to be shrewd about finding quick paths to advancement.
To the organizational entrepreneur, organizations drive industrial society but are subject to malfunctions and breakdowns and sometimes need extensive redesign. Organizational entrepreneurs are able to restructure the organization in radical new ways with drastic changes in staff and procedure. They can put project teams together rapidly, ignoring rank and status, and can manage these teams to bring projects to production quickly. 

The organization person thinks that the effectiveness of organizations comes precisely from “going by the book”—filling role prescriptions and norms—and having a well-structured, clearly differentiated chain of command. Such people identify with “their” organizations and see the organization as an entity in which one progressively becomes more and more of an “insider.” For them, a career involves three types of movement: upward through promotion, laterally to a more prestigious function or department, and inward to an inner circle of power and prestige.

The specialist/expert sees the organization as providing the resources—facilities, finance, administrative backup—necessary to his or her specialty. As the specialist sees it, organizations exist to “do things,” and the technical experts “get things done.” Specialists see managers as mere paper shufflers.

In their approaches to their jobs, most people exhibit aspects of each of the styles described. The question is “In what proportions and with what level of awareness?”

This instrument is composed of issues in career management. For each issue, four options, each with a different cost-benefit ratio, are presented. The four options for each issue represent the four career-management styles. Thus, the instrument provides a series of rank orderings for which cumulative choices indicate preferences among the styles.

This is a new type of instrument, not obviously tied to any specific theory or viewpoint. Its contents relate directly to everyday dilemmas of the workplace. It is often difficult for respondents to make a choice among the various options, which are scrambled and posed in different ways. The respondents are given only about forty minutes to complete the inventory so that there is little time for second guessing. The cumulative implications of the inventory are not apparent. Usually, the inventory is perceived as an intriguing exercise in consciousness raising, but its findings can be used in a variety of other ways as well.

**USES OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The most obvious use of the instrument is to assess which style is most prominent, which appears least, and so on. The next most obvious use is to determine what mix of styles is favored by the organization for which the respondent works. Step three follows naturally: to determine how well the first two match.

The next round of investigations probably will be to find out how accurate the respondent’s perceptions are. So someone (or, better, several people) who know(s) the respondent will rate the respondent’s most likely choices on the inventory. Then several
other people from the organization in which the respondent works rate the organization’s probable choices on the inventory. Again, there is a check to see how well the respondent’s perceptions match those of the other people. Some biases of style(s) will become evident by this time. Differences in perceptions will not be random.

Another type of investigation is to pick out the type of person with whom the respondent would most (or least) like to work and to have that person complete the inventory. The comparison of the respondent’s and the other person’s preferences will show what mix of styles complements (or jars) those of the respondent. If an individual who is an extreme type of one of the four styles completes an inventory, the results can show how differently the organizational world is perceived by someone with a more extreme style. Discussions between different types of respondents can increase their sensitivity about communicating and working with people whose styles differ from their own.

By comparing one’s own mix of styles with those of the people who are highly successful in the organization, one can see whether the style mix that he or she has—perhaps unconsciously—chosen is realistically matched to the requirements of the organizational situation.

This inventory also can be used to obtain group data. Aggregate data from the inventory also can indicate what strategies people in an organization perceive as rational for survival or advancement. These perceptions are likely to be linked closely with loyalty—or the lack of it.

Obviously, this instrument can be used in conjunction with other instruments or approaches. For instance, it complements a communications audit or Johari Window activity. If another instrument reveals marked differences in the respondents’ perceptions of an organization, this inventory can be used to investigate the likely sources of perceptual bias.

WORKING WITH SCORES

The respondents may wish to compare their responses with those of “the organization,” or they may wish to compare their self-perceptions with someone else’s perceptions of them. Individuals also may wish to contrast their own mixes of styles to the average mixes for their work groups. The instrument also may be used to contrast an individual’s early (on entry) mix of styles with the styles that the person has adopted after a certain period of time within the organization.

The format for comparing scores in Figure 1 presents the data and their implications more clearly than a string of numbers can. A three-by-four table with aggregate data such as the one in Figure 2 can be used to review the primary tendency plus the extreme scores in each category (across, top) for various groups of organizational personnel (down, side). A chart could be used to determine, for instance, which groups “play it safe” in regard to their style mixes and which groups gamble on one particular style or
strategy. The possibilities for charting are numerous. Also, a simple table such as the one in Figure 3 can be used to compare data across variables.

\begin{figure}
\centering
\begin{tikzpicture}
\node at (0,0) (Self) {Self-Perception};
\node at (5,0) (Other) {Other Person's (or Organization's) Perception};
\node at (0,-2) (C40) {C 40};
\node at (5,-2) (C30) {C 30};
\node at (0,-4) (OE24) {OE 24};
\node at (5,-4) (SE28) {SE 28};
\node at (0,-6) (OP18) {OP18};
\node at (5,-6) (OE24) {OE 24};
\node at (0,-8) (SE18) {SE 18};
\node at (5,-8) (OP18) {OP18};
\end{tikzpicture}
\caption{Format for Comparing Scores}
\end{figure}

Notes:
1. Make the size of the circles proportional to the number of points that each style receives.
2. Put the style with most points first and the rest in descending order.
3. Put styles with equal points side by side.
The following points should be considered in working with the instrument or in interpreting scores derived from it:

1. *The stereotypes in the organizational and career literature do not fit actual practice very well.* Organizational personnel tend to adjust their style mixes quite rapidly to fit the objective reality of their work situations. Thus, young women may gamble quite aggressively on a single style when an affirmative action program goes into operation. Young men may, equally realistically, operate cautiously with a balanced mix of styles in such a situation.
2. There is a tendency for people to verbally espouse different styles from those that they actually employ. This disparity can lead to discrepancies between the self-perception of the person involved (often influenced by the talk, despite the actions, of the person involved) and the perceptions of others who are very close to the respondent. Typically, highest and lowest scores are perceived identically by both parties, but styles with the two middle scores are perceived differently.

3. There may be more adherence to a “company person” style than one might expect in light of the findings commonly published about the decline in loyalty to organizations.

People differ remarkably in regard to the clarity and detachment with which they interpret their scores. Merely listening to another person’s discussion of his or her scores can be a source of insight. It is wise to allow plenty of time for a follow-up discussion after the administration and scoring of the instrument. It may be advisable to structure the discussion somewhat, because a discussion of personal styles of any type can engender defensiveness and other dynamics. In particular, the style to which most objection seems to be taken is that of the careerist. Follow-up discussions of the merits and drawbacks of this style tend to become quite heated.

REFERENCES

STYLES OF CAREER MANAGEMENT

Tom Carney

Instructions: There are no right or wrong answers to this instrument, and you cannot “beat” someone else by scoring higher. The instrument investigates the way you perceive and have adapted to your organization’s culture. It does this by requiring you to consider and respond to a variety of organizational issues. You will see the strategies that are implicit in your dealings with the organization and the strategies that are implicit in its dealings with you.

The instrument presents a series of statements on practices, dilemmas, and attitudes that are prevalent in organizations. A variety of responses is possible for each statement; you are to indicate which response is most like what you would do. For purposes of comparison, you also may indicate the response that you think would be favored by your organization.

In each case, after the initial statement or question, four possible responses are presented. Rank order these options, that is, put a “4” next to the one that comes closest to your views on the matter, put a “3” next to the response that fits next best, and so on. Put a “1” next to the option that fits least well with your views. Use only one each of the numbers (4, 3, 2, 1) for each set of choices. Do not give two equal choices.

Try not to answer in terms of what you would ideally like to do or in terms of what you morally ought to do. Your answer should reflect what you feel you would have to do—what would be expedient. If you are answering from the organization’s point of view, think about actual cases. Organizational logic and ethics differ from one organization to another.

I. By and large you can expect an organization to treat you in the following way:

_____ 1. Organizations make most of their decisions impersonally through committees, task forces, standard operating procedures, and so on. You cannot expect an organization to treat you as though one individual is relating to another individual. You will be treated well if you know how to work in the system, have a lot of connections, and are prepared to move about—to go where the company needs to send someone or to threaten to take another job at a critical moment. Essentially, you have to fight for your rights in the dog-eat-dog competitive world of organizational politics.

_____ 2. Organizations look at the bottom line. If you can come through in a crunch, you will be rewarded and advanced. Those who produce get the rewards; otherwise the business goes to the competition. You will be treated well as long as you can identify problems that can be solved successfully, have yourself assigned to solving them, and keep producing results. You cannot expect the organization to support someone who is not
pulling more than his or her weight. You have to be alert, on your toes, and productive.

3. You will be treated well as long as your expertise is crucial to the success of the product(s) on which the company depends. This includes expertise in servicing the main product lines. Technical expertise is basic to the firm’s functioning, so it has to be maintained. Your position will be assured, although you may not rise rapidly, as long as you have technical expertise as the basis for your position.

4. You are safe enough as long as you are in an organization that provides some security of tenure for its employees—or where there is a union to protect you and your job. Basically, the due process protects your rights and guarantees fair and impersonal treatment for employees. After all, all employees are in the same boat, so protecting employee interests is something that most of them can be relied on to do in their own interests.

II. The influence that your supervisor is likely to have over your career opportunities and your satisfaction with your job is:

5. Important, but transitory. Supervisors change, and you advance through different units. What really matters is your peer-group relations (committees make most of the important decisions) and knowing the ropes—how your institution’s procedures really work.

6. Critical. A bad supervisor can derail your career. You cannot afford to have serious problems at any stage in your career, given the competition at your level. Besides, there usually is a mentor behind the early career years of anyone who has “made good” in an organization, and mentors are not apt to back people who have bad relationships with their supervisors.

7. Important, but overrated. Most opportunities come through working on task forces, and these get you out of your supervisor’s control or enable you to switch to another one. Anyone with skills in problem solving is not likely to have supervisor troubles because the supervisor needs the person too much and the person moves from supervisor to supervisor too often.

8. Overestimated. Your work should speak for itself. If your work is needed, and if you are the best in your job, you will advance because the company needs you. Of course, your supervisor can hold you back, but it will cost something because the work will not be done as well and higher management will notice (or you will leave for a more compatible supervisor). The power of your supervisor is in inverse relation to the importance of your professional skills. You are better off putting your time and energy into cultivating them, rather than into cultivating your supervisor.

III. The best way to get ahead in any organization is to:
9. Know who the people are who decide your future, be visible to them, and perform in ways that they will think highly of. Also realize that these people may not all be in the firm for which you now work. Having contacts so that you have opportunities outside your firm does no harm; if your supervisor knows that you are wanted elsewhere, he or she is likely to treat you better.

10. Build up special skills and know-how that will make you the best in your job. Special expertise is always in demand, no matter what the fortunes of your firm may be, so you increase your options and opportunities by developing it.

11. Find the really big or complicated job that most needs to be done, determine how to do it, and make it happen. The people who produce in a crunch are the ones whom the firm advances furthest and fastest.

12. Proceed by the regular route: Obtain the training and experience; then advance in conformity with the career norms. Shortcuts and climbing over other people are apt to misfire. Working night and day to solve problems will cause you to burn out and probably will cause problems at home. It is a question of balance: How much are you willing to pay for quick promotions? You have to weigh the consequences. You owe it to yourself and to your family to have a life outside the job.

IV. By and large, you can expect your peers at work to be:

13. Generally supportive. After all, you are all in the same boat. If the peer group does not look after its own interests within the organization, who will?

14. Important, of course, but the really important colleagues are those who can pull their weight in a crisis—when you have to put a special assignment out or cope with a sudden emergency. Only some of these people are likely to be your peers; many are superiors or subordinates. This is your real work group.

15. Critical to your own growth and development in your specialty and vital to the contribution that this specialty makes to the firm. These people provide backup or complementary services and skills.

16. Your main source of competition in regard to career advancement. Your peers are able to do you serious harm; because they work so closely with you, they know your weaknesses and can sabotage you easily.

V. Personality-related problems erupt in your department or section. You are not directly involved, but the trouble could spread if not handled well and quickly. What would be the best way to react?
17. Deal with the problems humanely and carefully at the unit level. Problems of this sort rarely go away. If ignored they usually become worse, and people take sides. Once a unit’s esprit de corps goes, it is hard for that unit to recover. Get involved if asked to.

18. If you wanted to manage personal problems, you would have become a manager. You produce work; that is what everybody should concentrate on. Let management cope. People should not bring their personality problems to work anyway.

19. You do not have serious personality problems at work without underlying organizational problems. Try an organizational intervention with a third party to defuse things.

20. It depends on who is involved and what the issues are. There are some people in any unit with whom it would not be wise to become involved, and some issues can leave long-lasting ill feelings, even if you manage to resolve them in the best possible way.

VI. You are in mid-career, progressing moderately well, and have just been offered the chance to move into a new line of work in another firm. The work seems more likely to be in demand five or six years in the future than the work you are in now. You might be able to go further in your personal advancement in the new position, but it would mean a lot of retraining on your part. Assuming that the move would create no problems in your family life, what would be the best thing to do?

21. Given the state of the current job market, it probably is best not to switch jobs or firms. You have too much to lose in terms of seniority and “insider” status in your present firm and too many unknowns if you move.

22. Progress in your present firm has been only “moderate”; if you are going to make a breakthrough in your career, it will not be in your present firm. The new line is promising, and there may be more opportunities for promotion in the new firm, so moving seems to be a good idea. You are probably going to have to retrain sometime. Also, the broader experience probably will make you more valuable.

23. The move will be worth the risk only if the new firm will make you the project leader. Make your acceptance of the job conditional on that.

24. You only are really trained once. Mid-career retraining may be fashionable, but it just produces half-trained, overaged workers. You would never be accepted by the younger people who are properly trained in the new line. Forget it.
VII. The current concern with impression management (business dress codes, status symbols, effective resume writing, and so on) is:

_____ 25. A waste of time and effort that would be better spent on doing the job properly. If you develop expertise in the most in-demand specialty within your line of work, then the “window dressing” should not be necessary.

_____ 26. Critically important to one’s career. Appearances count in the real world. You simply cannot afford to be less sophisticated in these matters than your competitors are.

_____ 27. Something you should know about. It probably is of less importance than job-related know-how, but it is useful for smoothing the way in the work environment. There is no point in creating poor impressions.

_____ 28. Probably quite important, something you really should work on. But, for the moment, there are more urgent problems to which you simply must pay attention.

VIII. All this emphasis on “hidden agendas” and on “the games people play” in organizational life is:

_____ 29. Blown out of proportion by people who have an interest in “training” you in how to cope with these things. Business is there to get the job done; if these games do take place, they should not. It is best to ignore the matter.

_____ 30. Something you should pay close attention to or you could find yourself sabotaged when promotions or pay raises are due. Office politics are a fact of life; you have to be able to cope with them.

_____ 31. Something you need to watch for if you are involved in any ad hoc committees or project teams. The various members each tend to lay claim to the highest status and, if these status squabbles get out of hand, the assignment never will be completed on schedule.

_____ 32. Worth knowing about. Such things do tend to happen, although, fortunately, not to a great degree in your work group. But they are not nearly as frequent or as serious as the books would have you believe. In the long run, unless you are honest and play by the rules, you are likely to end up in trouble. Playing games creates too many enemies.

IX. A crisis has developed at work, and your skills are related—marginally, not centrally—to its solution. The organization needs everyone who can to pitch in and help; but there are no sure ways of coping, and some of the proposed measures could misfire badly. What would it be best to do?

_____ 33. Volunteer to help, especially if you can generate good ideas in a crisis and you know where to find effective people to help, on an emergency basis, to make things happen.
34. Avoid getting involved. If there were a technical problem calling for your kind of special expertise, you would help in a flash. But you really would not be very effective working on an emergency task force dealing with an “iffy” project.

35. Be careful. If the difficulty looked like one with which you could be of help, in regard to some specific part, you would be among the first to volunteer; but you would have to be pretty sure that you could be effective. You would not want to be associated with a disastrous failure.

36. Rally round. If the organization suffers, you all suffer. So you should offer your services and pitch in wherever needed.

X. You have a good chance of being promoted at work, but it involves moving out of your special line of work (at which you are expert) and moving into general management. Your reaction is:

37. The management track will take you upward furthest and fastest; no one but an idiot would turn down a chance like this. Besides, if you turn it down, you will soon become known as someone who cannot move outside your specialty or as someone who has “peaked” or cannot respond to a challenge.

38. The general practice is for people at your stage to make this kind of move. There are not many advantages in swimming against the tide, and making the move will keep you in step with the majority of those who were recruited at the same stage.

39. If you want to broaden your expertise and general problem-solving capabilities, you will need to have both managerial and specialist skills. In fact, you will have more chance to use your specialist skills, in the long run, if you have some managerial experience. This combination will make you eligible to work on bigger projects that involve your special skills.

40. Management is a jungle these days. It is not worth the hassles. Besides, in your current job, you are building up real expertise at doing something practical. You would be better off working at becoming a leader in your specialty; that should open all kinds of opportunities without requiring you to go politicking around as a manager.
The instrument is composed of ten theme statements, each of which is followed by four possible responses. For each statement, the responses are rank ordered, so the response of first choice is assigned four points, the second choice is assigned three points, and so on.

*Instructions:* Below are the numbers of the various response options from the instrument. Insert the point value that you gave to each option on the line next to the number of that option. Then read the interpretation on the next page.

**Scoring Code**
- First Choice = 4
- Second Choice = 3
- Third Choice = 2
- Last Choice = 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>OE</th>
<th>OP</th>
<th>SE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**
- C
- OE
- OP
- SE

The total of the scores for each statement is ten points (4+3+2+1). Ten statements times ten points each equals one hundred possible points in all, so the maximum score for any one type of response is forty and the minimum score is ten. You can check your totals as a check on your accuracy of recording.

The four types of response are indicative of four ways of looking at how people should manage their personal careers. A low score (10-19) indicates that you do not generally agree with a particular style of career management. A mid-range score (20-29)
indicates that you sometimes employ that style. A high score (30-40) for any one style indicates that you tend to prefer this mode in managing your career.

The four styles of career management are:

**C:** The Careerist: These people build networks and find mentors. They are shrewd at all aspects of office politics and very careful to be associated with the right people. Rapid advancement is their primary objective.

**OE:** The Organizational Entrepreneur or Task-Force Manager: These people reorganize systems and put together task forces to solve difficult problems. Their constant reshuffling is done with great innovation. Problem solving is their main focus.

**OP:** The Organizational Person: These people identify with the organization itself. They work at being accepted and think they can advance through loyal, steady service. They primarily “go by the book.”

**SE:** The Specialist/Expert: These people see the organization as providing resources for them to develop their specialties. They believe that technical expertise is more important than managerial ability. The attainment of technical proficiency is their primary goal.
COPING WITH AMBIGUITY

Rick Roskin

Budner (1961) defined an ambiguous situation as one that cannot be categorized because significant cues are missing. He identified three types of ambiguous situations: (1) novel—a completely new situation with cues of uncertain utility; (2) complex—a situation with too many cues; and (3) insolvable—a situation with contradictory cues.

Much has been written on intolerance for ambiguity (Frenkel-Brunswick, 1949), the tendency to shut out conflicting elements in the environment, use rigid differentiation, and seek premature closure (i.e., make decisions before collecting all available information). Tolerance of ambiguity has been found to be dependent on capacity, the innate ability to perceive the complexity of a situation, and opportunity, the variety of experiences encountered by an individual.

All managers must cope with ambiguous situations, whether they deal with meeting abstract or concrete objectives; the amount of ambiguity increases as managers move into higher-level positions simply because their positions are defined less clearly, their decisions must relate to long-term goals, their perspectives must be broader, and feedback on their performance is less frequent and less specific.

It can be argued that the higher one’s job level, the more tolerant one must be of ambiguity. Lower-level managers, because their tasks are often more structured, can afford to be less tolerant of ambiguity. This issue was researched by Graves (1966), who argued that some people may remain at certain behavioral levels through their working lives. According to Graves, if an employee’s level is significantly different from his or her manager’s, a deterioration of work standards will result. Therefore, managers must be sensitive to differences and flexible in ambiguous circumstances.

Most people cope with ambiguity by either avoiding it (i.e., denying or ignoring it) or by absorbing it (i.e., accepting and managing it). Either method may be effective, depending on the circumstances. Avoidance can help keep the routines in place and can allow planning, delegation, and the continued best use of technology and resources. It can also lead to perceptual distortion, insensitivity, indecision, and construction of elaborate defense mechanisms. Absorption can help managers to acquire personal skill in problem solving, can allow them the experience of working through new problems, and can lead to innovative solutions. Unskilled managers also can make errors through ignorance and incompetence.
RATIONALE FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Managerial Attitude Questionnaire was designed to tap individual propensity to cope with ambiguity either by seeking closure or by seeking a broad range of options. Those taking the questionnaire are asked to distribute one hundred points over six responses for each of ten situations. A logarithmic transformation is then used to categorize individuals as having high, medium, or low tolerance for ambiguity (Shannon, 1948). The greater the number of categories over which points are distributed, the higher the assumed tolerance. The lower scores may indicate too low a tolerance for ambiguity or singlemindedness, while a high score may indicate lack of a clear direction or too much acceptance of ambiguity.

One bit of data that tends to support such interpretations is that the obtained correlation between scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (1960) and scores on the Managerial Attitude Questionnaire is -.36 in a sample of thirty working adults. This finding indicates that those people who are more tolerant of ambiguity are less dogmatic in their personal belief systems, which is as one would predict.

USES FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Participants may be asked to discuss the ten incidents and the weights they assigned to the various alternatives. This can prove interesting and show those who tend to discriminate the most and the least. Comparisons between groups of students and groups of managers can be made. The following means were computed for business administration students and working adults.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incident</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 90</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 40</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Adults</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| SD       | 23 | 29 | 26 | 30 | 19 | 41 | 30 | 27 | 22 | 31 | 16.55|

Low       | Medium | High
Students   | 0-84   | 85-99  | 100-156|
Managers   | 0-65   | 66-95  | 96-156|

The mean for students is generally about 90, while that for working managers is about 75. This leads to the question of whether experience may result in tunnel vision or may allow people to reject unsound alternatives more easily. Discussions of such questions are fruitful and very useful in management-training groups. Results from the
questionnaire can also be used to help match individual styles of dealing with ambiguity to the proper job niche.

**ADMINISTRATION**

The Managerial Attitude Questionnaire is self-administered and self-scored. It should be completed and scored by most persons in thirty to forty minutes. The interpretation sheet can be directly distributed to the participants after scoring or it can serve as the basis of a lecturette and discussion session following the completion of the instrument.

**REFERENCES**


MANAGERIAL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Rick Roskin

Name: _______________________________________________________________

Employer: ____________________________________________________________

Position with Company: _________________________________________________

Number of People You Supervise: _________________________________________

Length of Time in Present Position: ________________________________________

Formal Management Training: ____________________________________________

Instructions: For each incident below, indicate your degree of approval for each of the interpretations by assigning any number of points from 0 to 100 to any of the interpretations. Total points assigned must equal 100. Assign a number to each interpretation, even if that number is 0.

SAMPLE ITEM

A. A supervisor responsible to you has been absent from work too many times. After you have given this supervisor many reprimands, you find him or her solving a crossword puzzle when he or she should be attending to duties.

   Would you:

   a. 0  Fire him or her in almost all cases
   b. 40  Reprimand but not fire him or her
   c. 0  Overlook the situation
   d. 40  Ask him or her for an explanation
   e. 0  Lay him or her off where regulations allow
   f. 20  Not fire him or her in almost all cases

   _100_
1. You are a supervisor of a small group of workers. Unfortunately, your philosophy and the company’s philosophy conflict, and your influence with upper management is limited. Your group is dissatisfied with company policy.

Would you ask employees:

a. _____ To fall in line in almost all cases
b. _____ To make up their own minds
c. _____ To follow the majority decision of all members
d. _____ To follow your position on issues
e. _____ To communicate their concerns to management
f. _____ Not to fall in line in almost all cases

2. A group of employees under you develops an improved tool capable of increasing productivity by 50 percent. Actual productivity increases 10 percent and quality improves as well. The group withholds information about the tool from the methods engineer.

Would you:

a. _____ Tell the methods engineer in almost all cases
b. _____ Attempt to convince the employees to divulge the information
c. _____ Be satisfied with the 10-percent increase
d. _____ Speak to each worker individually to assess the situation
e. _____ Ask the workers to increase their output
f. _____ Not tell the methods engineer in almost all cases

3. You are a supervisor in the production department of your firm. The firm has stringent regulations against the consumption of alcohol on business premises. One hot afternoon you find an “old timer” drinking a bottle of beer.

Would you:

a. _____ Report the person in almost all cases
b. _____ Reprimand the person and give a warning
c. _____ Ask for an explanation of this behavior
d. _____ Lay off the person as allowed in the union contract
e. _____ Overlook the incident after making certain that the person sees you
f. _____ Not report the person in almost all cases
4. You find out that a shipper has been “working a deal” with the majority of your best salespeople whereby they all gain financially at the expense of the organization. The amounts are not large but the practice is widespread. You are the sales manager. Would you:
   a. _____ Fire all the guilty parties in almost all cases
   b. _____ Fire the shipper and keep the salespeople
   c. _____ Call a meeting to tell the salespeople you know what is happening but not fire anyone
   d. _____ Overlook the situation, assuming it to be a “bonus”
   e. _____ Try to catch the guilty parties in the act
   f. _____ Not fire all guilty parties in almost all cases

5. Due to rapid expansion of your organization, your “open-door” policy is taking up a disproportionate amount of time. Would you:
   a. _____ “Close the door” in almost all cases
   b. _____ Try to have your secretary screen employees before they reach you
   c. _____ Institute a formal communication system such as a company newsletter
   d. _____ Work after hours so as to maintain your close relationship with employees
   e. _____ Set up an appointment book
   f. _____ Not close the door in almost all cases

6. A new production process will increase profits by an estimated 10 percent. It will also significantly pollute a large river running through a nearby town. Government regulations do not affect your firm. Would you:
   a. _____ Introduce the process in almost all cases
   b. _____ Introduce the process only if profits are lower than usual
   c. _____ Introduce the process only if your competitor does
   d. _____ Not introduce the process unless pressured by upper management
   e. _____ Not introduce the process unless residents of the town complain
   f. _____ Not introduce the process in almost all cases
7. A friend is having difficulty at work with subordinates. Informally you have heard it said that your friend is too autocratic and disorganized. The friend has asked you for your opinion of why problems exist.

Would you:

a. _____ Tell your friend what you have heard in almost all cases
b. _____ Tell your friend that he or she is too autocratic but not discuss organizational ability
c. _____ Tell your friend that he or she is disorganized but not discuss his or her autocratic behavior
d. _____ Tell your friend that what he or she does at work is his or her own business
e. _____ Ask your friend what he or she thinks the problem is
f. _____ Not tell your friend what you have heard in almost all cases

8. As manager of a radio station, you are faced with a dilemma. Your program manager works a twelve-hour day, but the popularity of the station is declining and it is losing money. The program manager has worked for your organization for five years.

Would you:

a. _____ Fire the program manager in almost all cases
b. _____ Replace the person and give him or her another job
c. _____ Take over some of the program manager’s duties yourself
d. _____ Ask the person to look for another job but continue to employ him or her
e. _____ Try to determine the person’s weaknesses so that you can help
f. _____ Not fire the program manager in almost all cases

9. Your best salesperson has difficulty relating to peers. The position of sales manager is open, and this salesperson has told you that he or she plans to leave if not promoted.

Would you:

a. _____ Give the person the job in almost all cases
b. _____ Tell the person that he or she needs more management training
c. _____ Tell the person that you hate to lose a great salesperson to gain a questionable sales manager
d. _____ Ask the person what qualities he or she has to do a good job
e. _____ Tell the person to prove that he or she can get along with others first
f. _____ Not give the person the job in almost all cases
10. A bright young scientist has joined your research team in the past few months. The scientist has come to you with a letter from a competing firm offering a job with a 25-percent salary increase.

Would you:

a. _____ Offer an equal salary in almost all cases
b. _____ Ask why he or she is showing you the letter
c. _____ Try to sell the advantages of your firm
d. _____ Tell the scientist that he or she can make as much at your firm after a time
e. _____ Tell the person that loyalty should count for something
f. _____ Not offer to increase salary in almost all cases
### MANAGERIAL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING SHEET

Transfer your raw scores from the questionnaire to the grid below by placing your a, b, c, d, e, and f raw scores for each incident in the appropriate box in Column S. Using the Conversion Table at the bottom of the page, convert each raw score in Column S into an AS converted score and enter the converted score in Column AS.

- Total the AS columns vertically.
- Total all of the AS sums horizontally.
- Divide the total by 10, the number of incidents.
- Note whether your score falls within the low (L), medium (M), or high (H) range. (Round up if .5 or over.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>AS</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>AS</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>AS</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>AS</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>AS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \div 10 = \text{Total Score} \]

#### Conversion Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>4-6</th>
<th>7-11</th>
<th>12-20</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-60</th>
<th>61-80</th>
<th>81-90</th>
<th>91-100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Total Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MANAGERIAL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE INTERPRETATION SHEET

Low Scores (0-75) indicate a self-reported intolerance for ambiguity. Despite complex or contradictory cues, you say you are able to make clear-cut, unambiguous decisions. Those with this style often appear to be able to “cut through the smoke” and recommend a clear-cut course of action in situations in which others are unwilling to move. One of the disadvantages of this style is that you may appear to be precipitous and perhaps even bullheaded.

Medium Scores (75-95) indicate a self-reported moderate tolerance for ambiguity. When the cues in a situation are complex or contradictory, you try to sort them out and narrow the alternatives so that you have identified feasible courses of action. One of the advantages of this style is that you may be seen as a sensitive, understanding person who can see many sides of the problem. One of the disadvantages of this style is that you may be seen as opportunistic or self-serving.

High Scores (96-156) indicate a self-reported high tolerance for ambiguity. You will find it easy to postpone a decision when the cues for decision making are ambiguous or not clear cut. One of the advantages of this style is that you may often appear wise and unwilling to rush into complex or novel situations. One of the disadvantages of this style is that you may appear “wishy washy” and indecisive, surrendering your power to others.

Some interpretative questions to be considered:

- How congruent is your score with your self-perception of your tolerance of ambiguity? This can also be checked with colleagues and associates.
- How congruent is your score with the level of tolerance of ambiguity required at your present level of management?
- What are the possible limitations, if any, of your present level of tolerance of ambiguity on your advancement to higher levels of management?
THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY: MEASURING THE LOCUS OF CONTROL

T. Venkateswara Rao

One of the factors that contribute to the development of any community or nation in modern society is the involvement of its people in economic activities. Thus, many countries are making efforts to promote self-employment and entrepreneurship among their people. David McClelland of Harvard University, through a series of research studies, identified characteristics of entrepreneurs and actually trained people to be entrepreneurs, using experiential methods (McClelland, 1961; McClelland & Winter, 1969). McClelland’s models of Achievement Motivation Training have been used widely and successfully to train a variety of people to become more enterprising and to initiate business activities for economic betterment.

Subsequent research studies and training experiences have revealed that internalization (internal locus of control) is an important characteristic of entrepreneurs (Rao & Moulik, 1978; Rao & Pareek, 1978; Sarupriya, 1982). In fact, an internal locus of control appears to be a primary characteristic of those who act as change agents to improve themselves or their groups, communities, or organizations (Pareek, 1981; Reichard, 1975).

THE CONCEPT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

The concept of locus of control was developed by Rotter (1954) as an extension of his social learning theory. Locus of control describes the ways in which individuals attribute responsibility for events that occur in their lives to factors within themselves and their control or to factors outside their control. Factors within one’s control include one’s abilities, efforts, and the like. Factors outside one’s control include fate, luck, the influence of other powerful people, and the like. The attribution of locus of control affects the way in which people perceive contingency relationships between their actions and outcomes. People who believe that they have some control over their destinies, that is, that control resides within themselves, are referred to as internal locus-of-control oriented or “internals.” People who perceive an external locus of control, who believe that their outcomes are determined by factors extrinsic to themselves such as fate, luck, or powerful others, are called “externals.”
RESEARCH ON LOCUS OF CONTROL

Research on the behavioral patterns of externals and internals suggests that an internal locus of control contributes to effectiveness in organizational roles. For example, the research suggests the following:

1. Externally oriented individuals are more apt to express unrealistic occupational aspirations (DuCette & Wolk, 1972).
2. Externals are less able to cope with the demands of reality (Phares, 1968).
3. Locus of control affects behavior on the job. Internals take better care of equipment; indicate more satisfaction with job training; rate higher in work tolerance; and are more cooperative, self-reliant, and knowledgeable about their work (Tseng, 1970).
4. In studies of job-seeking behaviors of unemployed individuals, internals were found to exhibit more self-direction and to accept more responsibility for their career development (Tiffany, Cowan, & Tiffany, 1970).
5. When appointed as supervisors, internals rely more on personal persuasion, whereas externals are more likely to use coercive power and threats, thus indicating the difference in their perceived expectancy of successful influence (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973).
6. Internals tend to pick people with superior or equal ability as partners to complete a task. Externals are more likely to pick partners of inferior ability and are less confident of the outcomes when relinquishing their personal control, as their fate is perceived as largely influenced by powerful others (Ryckmann & Sherman, 1973).
7. Internals are quicker than externals to adopt innovations and new practices. In agricultural groups, farmers who used new agricultural practices were found to be more internal than others. People with small-family-size norms also tend to be internals (see Pareek & Rao, 1974).

Most of the research indicates that people are handicapped by an external orientation, by failing to exercise control over their environments. Such people do not experience the psychological success that enables them to feel satisfied or successful in their work.

HOW LOCUS OF CONTROL IS DEVELOPED

A person’s locus of control has several antecedents, which may be accumulative or episodic. Accumulative antecedents are events that occur over a long period of time and

---

1 The research findings presented in this article are based on a review of the literature by B.D. Reichard, Jr. (1975). A further review of studies is presented in H.M. Lefcourt (1976).
involve continual exposure. Episodic antecedents are very important events that occur over a relatively short period of time (MacDonald, 1973).

Although relatively little research has been done concerning accumulative events, three important factors have been identified: (a) social discrimination; (b) prolonged, incapacitating disability; and (c) parental child-rearing practices. Lefcourt (1966) states that in all the reported ethnic studies, groups whose social position is one of minimal power on the basis of class or race tend to score higher in the direction of external control. Studies of the deaf have established a relationship between long-term physical disability and externalism. Evidence pertaining to the effects of parental child-rearing practices is more substantial, although it primarily is self-reported data regarding the subject’s childhood experiences. More direct observation of parent-child interactions is needed. Many studies report that externals describe their parents as higher in the use of physical punishment, affective punishment, denial of privileges, and overprotection. Internals, on the other hand, describe their parents as setting predictable standards, using more principled discipline, and being more warm and democratic. In general, internals have been exposed to parental behaviors that foster independence and a belief in being able to manage oneself in order to predictably achieve desired outcomes. There also is some evidence that sex-role stereotyping and social discrimination lead women, as a group, to be more external than men (Rotter, 1966; Feather, 1968).

Episodic antecedents are events of great importance to a person that occur over a relatively short period of time. Examples of these events are natural disasters such as earthquakes or tornadoes, a serious automobile accident, or the death of a loved one. National and worldwide events such as severe recession, inflation, and international affairs also appear to have an impact on internality-externality (Reichard, 1975).

INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERNALS AND EXTERNALS

Characteristics of internals and externals have been identified through both clinical reports and research. Internals are likely to describe themselves as active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent, and effective. Although externals may describe themselves similarly, they are more likely to describe themselves in opposite terms (Hersch & Scheibe, 1967).

Internality has been found to be positively associated with indices of social adjustment and personal adjustment (Hersch & Scheibe, 1967). There also is evidence that internals are more achievement oriented, less anxious, less dogmatic, more trusting, less suspicious of others, less apt to use sensitizing modes of defenses, and more self-confident and insightful. Internals, however, tend to resort to more self-blaming behavior than do externals. Because externals do not perceive outcomes as being the result of their actions, they assume less responsibility or blame. In betting situations, internals are more cautious and conservative than externals; they are “percentage players” in risk situations. Reichard (1975) provides detailed references to research evidence.
Locus of control also indicates an individual’s perception of authority figures. Internals perceive authority as more encouraging of constructive environmental manipulation, as more supportive when difficulty is encountered, as more positively reinforcing, as having more predictable standards, and as acting more on and from issue-oriented reason (Ferguson & Kennelly, 1974). The fact that internals perceive authority figures more positively tends to affect their behavior as managers (as authority figures to their subordinates and as subordinates of others in the organizational hierarchy).

Rotter (1966) states that “theoretically, one would expect some relationship between internality and good adjustment in our culture but such a relationship might not hold for extreme internal scores.” The extremely internalized person may be self-flagellating, while the extremely externalized person may blame outside factors as a defense against admitting personal inadequacies. Extreme externals may be passive in environmental difficulties, resulting in maladjustment to society.

**CHANGING THE LOCUS OF CONTROL**

Any behavior that is learned can be changed. Locus of control is socially learned behavior. The conditions for change include: (a) a desire to change, (b) clarity about the direction of desired change, (c) a clear idea of the present condition, and (d) knowledge of the process or mechanisms of change. Professionally led training programs can help people to change by pointing out the implications of external and internal orientations; by facilitating self-awareness, feedback, and assessment; and by providing mechanisms for change.

It may be hypothesized that change from an external locus of control to an internal one is more time consuming and difficult than change from an internal locus to an external one. Episodic events and frustrating experiences can lead a person to become more external, and such events occur continually in life. However, it is possible to design organizational processes that reinforce and encourage internalism. Internalism can be fostered through training, through specific reward systems, and through experiences of personal success (Pareek, 1982).

**THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY**

The Entrepreneurial Orientation Inventory measures the extent to which a person is internally or externally oriented in relation to various entrepreneurial activities. This instrument is intended to help respondents to assess their own degrees of externalism or internalism. The instrument is designed to provide self-feedback to entrepreneurs, potential entrepreneurs, and trainers of entrepreneurs in a variety of settings. The instrument was developed and has been used by the author during a series of training programs for potential entrepreneurs and trainers of entrepreneurs.

Those who score high on entrepreneurial *internality* are those who believe that entrepreneurs can shape their own destinies through their own capabilities and efforts.
Those who score high on entrepreneurial externality are those who believe that the success of entrepreneurs depends on factors such as chance, political climate, community conditions, and economic environment—factors beyond their own capabilities and control.

**Administration of the Instrument**

The inventory should be administered on the first day of a training program, before any theoretical input is provided, because discussion of the concepts involved could influence the participants’ responses to the form. It also is advisable to administer the inventory along with another instrument (such as Rotter’s [1966] E-I scale or Levenson’s [1973] LOC scale) to measure generalized locus of control.

There are twenty pairs of items in the inventory. For each pair, the respondent is instructed to distribute five points between the two items, depending on the extent to which he or she agrees with each item.

There is no time limit for completing the inventory; however, it should not take more than fifteen minutes. Some respondents may complete it in six to seven minutes.

**Scoring**

The inventory uses the paired-comparison method of response. In each pair of items, one reflects an external focus and the other an internal focus. The respondent is required to indicate agreement more with one item than with the other by distributing an odd number of points (5), thus avoiding equal distribution. Separating the scores for internal items from those for external items over the twenty sets results in two scores (internal and external) for each participant. The two scores should add up to one hundred points.

After participants complete the inventory form, the scoring sheet, which is self-explanatory, should be distributed. The administrator should help the participants to calculate their internal/external ratios, as indicated on the scoring sheet.

**Interpretation and Use**

If both of a respondent’s scores are equal, it indicates that the respondent is as external as he or she is internal in terms of entrepreneurial activities. If one of the scores is greater than fifty, it indicates more of that orientation. The higher a person scores above fifty, the stronger is that orientation. Thus, a person who scores eighty on internal locus and twenty on external locus is indicating a strong internal orientation. Although entrepreneurial internality or externality is highly correlated with general externality-internality or general locus of control, there may not be complete agreement between these two measures. The possibility exists that an individual who is internally oriented in general life situations may report an external orientation in regard to entrepreneurial experiences. This might occur if the person has had cumulative negative experiences in entrepreneurial ventures. However, the possibility that a person who is external in general life situations will be indicated as internal on the inventory is much less.
A short conceptual-input session on locus of control following the scoring of the inventory will help the participants to examine their orientations and to set goals for improving their ability to internalize. Presentation of methods for improving internalization also would be useful. The importance of an internal orientation in management and leadership, entrepreneurship, institution building, change agentry, and so on should be emphasized.

Research has indicated that people with a high internal entrepreneurial outlook are more likely to become successful entrepreneurs. They are more likely to expend effort, become actively involved in the work they do, and be persistent. People with a high external outlook are more likely to leave things to chance. As a result, they may not expend their best efforts.

In training situations, it may be useful to point out these implications. Participants who have extreme scores may be requested to share their views and their experiences. The conceptual framework presented at the beginning of this article may be supplied as reading material.

The inventory is especially useful in training programs on achievement motivation, motivational development, or other forms of entrepreneurial behavior. Managers, planners, change agents, and other organizational members who need to be involved in some risk taking as part of their job functions would benefit especially from this type of training. The inventory also is recommended for use with small-business owners, potential entrepreneurs, and others who are involved or are likely to be involved in economic activities. The instrument is designed for training purposes and is not suggested for use in selection.

REFERENCES


## THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

**T. Venkateswara Rao**

*Instructions:* This inventory contains twenty pairs of statements. In each pair, you may agree with one statement more than the other. You have five points to distribute between the two statements in each pair, to indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements. You may distribute the five points in any combination (0-5, 1-4, 2-3, 3-2, 4-1, 5-0). If you agree slightly more with statement “a” than with “b,” then assign three points to “a” and two points to “b.” If you agree very much with “a” and very little with “b,” assign four points to “a” and one point to “b.” If you agree completely with “a” but do not agree at all with “b,” assign five points to “a” and zero to “b.”

You may not divide your points equally (i.e., 2.5) between the two choices. You must choose one statement with which you agree more and then distribute the points.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. (a) How successful an entrepreneur one will be depends on a number of factors. One’s capabilities may have very little to do with one’s success.  
   (b) A capable entrepreneur can always shape his or her own destiny. 

2. (a) Entrepreneurs are born, not made.  
   (b) It is possible for people to learn to become more enterprising even if they do not start out that way. 

3. (a) Whether or not a salesperson will be able to sell his or her product depends on how effective the competitors are.  
   (b) No matter how good the competitors are, an effective salesperson always will be able to sell his or her product. 

4. (a) Capable entrepreneurs believe in planning their activities in advance.  
   (b) There is no need for advance planning, because no matter how enterprising one is, there always will be chance factors that influence success. 

5. (a) Whether or not a person can become a successful entrepreneur depends on social and economic conditions.  
   (b) Real entrepreneurs always can be successful, irrespective of social and economic conditions. 

---

6. (a) Entrepreneurs fail because of their own lack of ability and perceptiveness. ______
   (b) Entrepreneurs are bound to fail at least half of the time, because success or failure depends on a number of factors beyond their control. ______

7. (a) Entrepreneurs are often victims of forces that they can neither understand nor control. ______
   (b) By taking an active part in economic, social, and political affairs, entrepreneurs can control events that affect their businesses. ______

8. (a) Whether or not you get a business loan depends on how fair the bank officer you deal with is. ______
   (b) Whether or not you get a business loan depends on how good your project plan is. ______

9. (a) When purchasing raw materials or any other goods, it is wise to collect as much information as possible from various sources and then to make a final choice. ______
   (b) There is no point in collecting a lot of information; in the long run, the more you pay, the better the product is. ______

10. (a) Whether or not you make a profit in business depends on how lucky you are. ______
    (b) Whether or not you make a profit in business depends on how capable you are as an entrepreneur. ______

11. (a) Some types of people can never be successful as entrepreneurs. ______
    (b) It is possible to develop entrepreneurial ability in different types of people. ______

12. (a) Whether or not you will be a successful entrepreneur depends on the social environment into which you were born. ______
    (b) People can become successful entrepreneurs with effort and capability irrespective of the social strata from which they originated. ______
13. (a) These days, people must depend at every point on the help, support, or mercy of others (governmental agencies, bureaucracies, banks, etc.).

(b) It is possible to generate one’s own income without depending too much on the bureaucracy. What is required is a knack for dealing with people.

14. (a) The market situation today is very unpredictable. Even perceptive entrepreneurs falter quite often.

(b) When an entrepreneur’s prediction of the market situation is wrong, that person can blame only himself or herself for failing to read the market correctly.

15. (a) With effort, people can determine their own destinies.

(b) There is no point in spending time planning or doing things to change one’s destiny. What is going to happen will happen.

16. (a) There are many events beyond the control of entrepreneurs.

(b) Entrepreneurs are the creators of their own experiences.

17. (a) No matter how hard a person works, he or she will achieve only what is destined.

(b) The rewards one achieves depend solely on the effort one makes.

18. (a) Organizational effectiveness can be achieved by employing competent and effective people.

(b) No matter how competent the employees in a company are, if socioeconomic conditions are not good, the organization will have problems.

19. (a) Leaving things to chance and letting time take care of them helps a person to relax and enjoy life.

(b) Working for things always turns out better than leaving things to chance.

20. (a) The work of competent people always will be recognized.

(b) No matter how competent one is, it is almost impossible to get ahead in life without contacts.
# THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCORING SHEET

Name ________________________________ Date _______________________

*Instructions*: Transfer your point allocations from the inventory form onto this scoring sheet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal Locus of Control</th>
<th>External Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b</td>
<td>2a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>3a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a</td>
<td>4b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b</td>
<td>5a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>6b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>7a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a</td>
<td>8b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9a</td>
<td>9b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10b</td>
<td>10a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11b</td>
<td>11a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12b</td>
<td>12a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13b</td>
<td>13a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14b</td>
<td>14a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15a</td>
<td>15b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16b</td>
<td>16a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17b</td>
<td>17a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18a</td>
<td>18b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19b</td>
<td>19a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20a</td>
<td>20b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Internal _____**  **Total External _____**

Determine the ratios of your internal/external locus of control scores by dividing the total internal score by the total external score. Record the amount here.
Internal/external ratios above 3.0 indicate a high level of entrepreneurial internality; the chances are high that such individuals will initiate entrepreneurial activities. Ratios below 1.0 indicate that the respondent has a more external (less entrepreneurial) locus-of-control orientation. There is a need for this type of person to become more internal in order to be able to initiate and sustain entrepreneurial activities. Ratios above 1.0 indicate possible entrepreneurs. The higher the ratio above 1.0, the more internal the respondent is.
INTERVENTION-STYLE SURVEY

B. H. Arbes

The Intervention-Style Survey (ISS) was developed to assess how the student personnel administrator responds to his or her job responsibilities and to assess how others believe the administrator should respond. People such as vice presidents for student affairs, deans, and their key assistants ordinarily are faced with decisions like those assessed by the ISS. The National Association of Student Personnel Administrators stated that the highest priority in research should be given to inquiries that clarify and delineate the assumptive basis of the student personnel administrator and the way he or she responds in fulfilling assigned responsibilities. This report also stressed the need to be aware of how other members of the academic community think the administrator should respond. An extensive review of the literature revealed a notable lack of studies attempting to assess how the student personnel administrator responds to assigned responsibilities, and no studies have assessed how others believe the administrator should respond to his or her responsibilities.

The ISS is based on a model of managerial leadership and change originated by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. Five definite theories of leadership, with concomitant sets of assumptions and styles of intervention regarding how individuals orient themselves to concern for task and concern for people, are explicated by Blake and Mouton. These five theories, along with Blake and Mouton’s numerical designations, are briefly described below:

1. **Task leader** (9, 1)—Being chiefly concerned with the task and viewing people only in relation to their contributions to the task, this approach defines the change agent’s role as planning, directing, and controlling the behavior of those he or she is trying to change. This approach maintains that people are basically lazy, indifferent, and irresponsible.

2. **Impoverished leader** (1, 1)—This approach emphasizes neither people nor task and avoids involvement. As one cannot really change another person, the impoverished leader sees his or her job as merely telling people the expectations and letting them decide what to do.

3. **Country club leader** (1, 9)—With primary emphasis on people and minimal emphasis on task, this leader’s main concern is with interpersonal relationships.

4. **Middle-of-the-road leader** (5, 5)—This approach emphasizes finding satisfactory and workable solutions through balancing and compromising procedures. This approach values traditions, precedent, and social conventions.
5. Team leader (9, 9)—With emphasis on the interdependence of people by involving them and their ideas in determining the strategies and conditions for task achievement, this approach has maximal concern for task and people.

The content of the ISS was based on Hershenson’s functional organization of student personnel services: internal coordinating, orienting, supportive, and educative. Twelve job situations, three representative of each of Hershenson’s four functional areas, were written. The specific situations were selected as typical of those encountered by a student personnel administrator in meeting his or her usual job responsibilities. All items were submitted to a panel of five judges with the request that they identify the strategy that the various alternatives were supposed to depict. The criterion of agreement chosen for accepting the item was that four judges agree with the intended key, rewriting those items that did not meet this criterion.

An item analysis of the ISS demonstrated that there is a consistency in the way people respond to the twelve items. That is, if a respondent ranks a given style high for one student personnel situation, he or she is more likely to express a high preference for the same intervention style in other situations.

The respondent is presented with a job situation encountered by student personnel administrators and indicates his or her personal preference for each of the five optional responses along a ten-point scale. In so doing, the respondent reveals a preferential ordering of the options and also a scale weight for each option, as there are twice as many scale weights as there are response options. By using such a response format in the ISS, the ipsative character of forced-choice items is partially avoided. Ipsative scores lead to problems in statistical analysis, as they are not independent and therefore do not meet a major assumption on which many statistical procedures are based.

A score for each of the five styles of intervention is obtained by summing the scale weights of the corresponding options for all twelve items. This means that the range of scores for any intervention style is 0 to 108.

Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach’s alpha) and stability estimates of the ISS indicated that the instrument has adequate reliability for group administration and interpretation. However, its utilization for individual interpretation or diagnostic procedures is questionable.

In the study for which the ISS was developed, it was administered to random samples of students (STUD), student personnel administrators (SPA), faculty (FAC), and counselors (COUNS) at the three state universities in Iowa. The scores of the 482 respondents on each style of intervention were analyzed by multiple discriminant analysis, simple ANOVA, t-ratios and chi square. The results of the discriminant analysis, using the Mahalanobis $D^2$, indicated that there are significant differences in the perceptions of student personnel administrators, faculty, students, and counselors as to what intervention styles are appropriate in student personnel job situations. While students and counselors’ perceptions are comparably close to those of student personnel administrators, faculty are distinctly more distant. The “team leader” style had the highest mean response for each group. The differences in the strength of preference that
the four groups attached to the 9, 9 style show that the counselors, with the significantly higher scores, believe strongly that the administrator should use the 9, 9 approach, while the faculty hold this view significantly less firmly. The counselors had the most consistent and most homogenous response tendencies, achieving the highest mean response on the team leader and country club leader styles, and the lowest on the other three styles.

The construction of the ISS and its resultant reliability indicate that the instrument is a tool for further research in the student services area. Also, it could be utilized as a feedback instrument for student personnel administrators by studying the self-other perceptions of how the student personnel administrator reacts to his or her job situation. This could easily be accomplished by administering the ISS to an administrator and then having the other members of the staff complete the ISS on the basis of their perceptions of the administrator’s reactions.

The ISS has value as a training tool for student personnel administrators, not as a specific measuring instrument but as a means to introduce and study the concepts of change strategies and intervention styles. The Blake-Mouton model of change and intervention seems to be highly relevant for student personnel administrators. Its extensive use in other settings and its theoretical and empirical basis make it a useful model to study and utilize. The ISS assesses the various dimensions of this model in relation to student personnel work. Therefore, its use in teaching styles of intervention and change strategies is very feasible.

The instrument can be adapted for use with other administrators by altering the content to conform to the problems usually encountered in a given managerial situation.
INTERVENTION STYLE SURVEY

B. H. Arbes

Name _________________________________  Group ______________________

Instructions: Twelve typical situations that a university student personnel dean encounters in his or her position have been included in this instrument. For each of these situations, five optional ways of responding have been listed.

Each optional response is different from the other four. As you will be asked to differentiate among the five responses, it is necessary that you read all five before answering.

After reading all five responses, select the response that is most similar to the way you would actually react in that situation, and place the letter corresponding to that response (a, b, c, d, e) somewhere on the "Most Similar" end of the ten-point scale.

Next select the response that is least similar to the way you would actually react, and place the letter corresponding to that response (a, b, c, d, e) toward the "Least Similar" end of the scale. Complete your answer by placing the three remaining letters within this most-least range in terms of how well each response reflects the way you would actually react in that particular situation (see example).

Example: I have just won $5,000 in a magazine publisher’s contest. I will probably:

a. Pay off all outstanding bills and place the remaining amount in a savings account.

b. Invest the entire amount in sound stock.

c. Buy a new car.

d. Take an extensive trip.

e. Place the entire amount in my savings account.

Most Similar a d c b e Least
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 Similar

Of the five alternatives, this person chose response “a” as most similar to the way he or she would respond in this situation, although it was not given a ranking of 10. Response “e” was least similar. The respondent ranked responses “d,” “c,” and “b” on the most-least continuum, between “a” and “e,” response “d” being very similar to the way he or she would respond and “b” very dissimilar to the way he or she would respond.

This respondent’s answer could have been:

Most Similar b c d a e Least
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 Similar
In responding to the following twelve items, you are to place yourself in the position of Dean of Students at a large, midwestern, state-supported university. As Dean of Students, you are the chief student personnel administrator at this university and report directly to the president. Included in your division are orientation, placement, alumni relations, counseling, student activities, residence halls, and judicial programs and services.

1. One of the associate deans of students has created a stress situation in the office by criticizing many of my decisions to other members of the staff. In discussing this situation with him or her, I will probably:
   a. Talk as little as possible and wait for the associate dean to ask for my opinion or ideas as he or she feels the need to do so.
   b. Be very active in the discussion so as to clarify for the associate dean the reasons underlying my decisions and the position I feel he or she must adopt.
   c. Listen in a nonjudgmental and accepting manner and allow the associate dean to do most of the talking in the interview.
   d. Be as active as the associate dean and try to arrive at conclusions that represent our joint points of view.
   e. Try to win the associate dean’s respect and then persuade him or her to my point of view.

2. The president of the university has asked me to serve on a committee with various faculty and other deans to devise a proposal for more student participation in campus governance. In these committee meetings, I will probably:
   a. Wait for my opinion to be asked and usually accept the majority opinion.
   b. Assist other members of the committee in clarifying their ideas and emphasize good relations among committee members.
   c. State my ideas and opinions in the context of my contact with student government officers and work toward a feasible, although not perfect, proposal.

d. Encourage all committee members to actively participate in creating the proposal and emphasize understanding of and agreement to a proposal that is satisfactory to all involved.

e. Try to persuade the committee members to accept my point of view and push for a proposal that can realistically be adopted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Least</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similar</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Similar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. In determining the success of my counseling with a student, I will probably emphasize:

a. The extent to which his or her decisions reflect the accepted standard of behavior and the university rules.

b. The extent to which he or she follows expected behavior and the amount of urging necessary on my part to achieve this.

c. The student’s progress toward self-acceptance and personal worth as indications of his or her ability to live with others.

d. The value of particular behaviors in relation to the goals he or she and I have set in the interview.

e. His or her loyalty toward and trust in me in the context of our relationship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Least</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similar</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Similar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. I have just been informed about a group of local residents who want me to abolish the new Sensitivity Training Program organized under my office. Five of them have arranged to meet with me next week. In talking with the five members, I will probably:

a. Answer their questions directly and courteously but not become involved in an active discussion regarding the purpose and goals of the program.

b. Clarify for them the reasons for the program, the position I and the staff have taken in relation to the program, and my authority in relation to such programs.

c. Listen carefully to their comments and assist them in talking about their concerns without explaining my position or the program in detail.

d. Carefully explain the reason for the program and my position, but also assist them in clarifying both their concerns and ways those concerns can be explored in relation to the program.

e. Listen carefully to their comments, but then gradually attempt to gain their acceptance of my office’s position on the new program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Least</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similar</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Similar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Resident hall assistants have not been attending the weekly in-service training programs carefully planned by me and other staff members. It was previously decided that these programs were important for the maximum functioning of the assistants, and the assistants were aware of their expected attendance at these programs before accepting their positions.

To ensure attendance at these programs, I am likely to:

a. Clarify the reasons for the training programs and the consequences of not attending.

b. Arrange a discussion with those not attending and encourage them to explore their personal goals and responsibilities as resident assistants.

c. Carefully outline the reasons for the training program and the expectation of attendance to all resident assistants.

d. Contact each resident assistant not attending and encourage him or her to do so.

e. Arrange meetings with all resident assistants to assess why some are not attending the meetings and discuss alternative in-service training formats.

6. The student-faculty judicial board has asked me to supervise a student placed under strict disciplinary probation for one semester. At the end of this semester, I am to make a recommendation to the board regarding the student’s probationary status based on my evaluation of his or her behavior. In working with this student, I will probably:

a. Meet with the student to review openly our relationship in establishing goals for behavioral change and treat the evaluation as a shared responsibility.

b. Meet with the student informally and as a friend to share my reactions to his or her behavior and encourage him or her to ask questions about a change in his or her behavior.

c. Evaluate the student’s behavior for him or her on the basis of reports, comparing the student with others I have supervised, and on the basis of my understanding of the probationary requirements; then tell the student ways in which he or she can make improvements.

d. Encourage the student to make a personal assessment of his or her behavior and areas for improvement as he or she thinks necessary and then try to stimulate personal commitment and self-confidence on the student’s part.

e. Develop a rather casual relationship with the student, inform him or her of the probationary requirements, and make a recommendation based on the expected behavior of students at the university.
7. A student has recently been referred to me for counseling by a resident hall director. The student’s behavior in the hall has been marked by numerous childlike responses, and both the resident assistant and fellow residents have talked to the director about him or her. It was recommended that the student talk with me about his or her behavior. To help this student change his or her present behavior, I will probably:

a. Encourage the student to identify with a fellow student whom he or she respects and who demonstrates acceptable behavior.

b. Clearly state a single course of action for the student and the consequences for not following that course.

c. Ensure that the student has a choice between various courses of action and is able to explore those actions before making a decision.

d. Clarify the need for and direction of a change in behavior, but leave the decision to change or not change up to the student.

e. Ensure that the student has total freedom from others’ influence in choosing a course of action and has the support of others once he or she chooses.

8. In establishing a new program with an officer of the alumni organization, I discover that my personal negative feelings toward this individual are interfering with my ability to work with him or her effectively. In this situation, I am likely to:

a. Talk to others about their feelings toward this person and, if my feelings are supported, tell the alumnus about my feelings and what he or she is doing to hinder our task.

b. Openly express my feelings to the alumnus and what I think he or she should do to help the situation.

c. Openly express my feelings and encourage him or her to do the same so that personal feelings between us can be cleared up.

d. Try to better understand his or her actions and try to overcome my own negative feelings.

e. Avoid contacts with the alumnus and discuss only necessary agenda with him or her.
9. The Placement Service is a division of my office. As a result of turning down the student government’s proposal for a policy change in the Placement Service, I am presently being criticized and challenged to attend a student government meeting to discuss my position. In this meeting, I am likely to:
   a. React more to the way the students see the issue than the fact that they are challenging me and try to reevaluate their proposal in view of the two positions we are now taking.
   b. Be concerned about my relationship with the student government and inquire about the students’ respect for my judgment.
   c. Discuss and push my position, even if it ultimately means reminding the students of my authority in such policy decisions.
   d. Be concerned but avoid arguing my position and assist the students in clarifying their ideas and opinions about the policy.
   e. Simply remind the students that I have made the decision and explain the basis of my decision rather than becoming involved in an argument.

   Most 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 Least
   Similar

10. The director of the experimental living-learning center (a member of my staff) and the faculty consultant to the living-learning center are in disagreement about the type of programs to be implemented. Their personal dispute is affecting the other staff members in the living-learning center, and other faculty members are also becoming concerned. I have decided to meet with these two people to discuss the situation. In this meeting, I will probably:
   a. Remain neutral or stay out of the argument.
   b. Try to smooth over the feelings and keep the two people working together.
   c. Try to dismiss the conflict and present my views on the disagreement.
   d. Use my position to encourage them to arrive at an equitable solution to the problem situation.
   e. Try to create a situation in which the two people can identify reasons for their conflict and explore means to achieve the goals of the living-learning center.

   Most 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 Least
   Similar

11. The new student-orientation director and his staff have invited me to discuss my ideas and opinions about orientation programs. In making this presentation, I would probably emphasize:
   a. The difference between the high school and college environments and rely on the new students’ ability to understand the implications of these differences.
b. The importance of living up to expectations of the college environment and the consequences of not following these expectations.

c. Helping the new student accept himself or herself as a person so that he or she will have the confidence to choose a course of action.

d. A search for facts or information on the part of the new student so that he or she can evaluate various courses of action in relation to his or her own goals.

e. Winning the students’ respect for the school and then encouraging them to behave in such a way that they win the respect of the school.

12. Because of budgetary cutbacks, no new programs or positions can be added to the Division of Student Affairs. In order to meet the continuing and changing demands placed on my staff, an immediate reorganization of the office is necessary. To ensure staff acceptance of the reorganization, I will:

a. Encourage active participation in the reorganization.

b. Ensure that the person who proposes the reorganization is highly respected by staff members.

c. Explain that failure to accept the reorganization will result in a penalty or loss of possible rewards.

d. Emphasize that the responsibility for adapting to the reorganization is primarily an “individual” undertaking that will result in some degree of personal satisfaction.

e. Carefully outline both the expectations and consequences of not accepting the new organization and leave the staff members to their own means.
INTERVENTION STYLE SURVEY SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Copy your responses to the twelve items onto this sheet. Be sure to note that the order of the letters (a, b, c, d, e) varies for each item. Place the scale value you assigned to the letter “a” on item 1, for example, above the letter “a” on this sheet. Then do the same for all other letters.

Your scores for the five theories of leadership are the sums of the five columns on this sheet.

### Item

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Sums

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(1, 1)</th>
<th>(9, 1)</th>
<th>(1, 9)</th>
<th>(5, 5)</th>
<th>(9, 9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Scales: Impoverished Leader, Task Leader, Country Club Leader, Middle-of-the-Road Leader, Team Leader.
LEAD (LEADERSHIP: EMPLOYEE-ORIENTATION AND DIFFERENTIATION) QUESTIONNAIRE

Russell Doré

DEVELOPMENT

The LEAD (Leadership: Employee-Orientation and Differentiation) Questionnaire was developed to provide an objective measure of attitudes toward methods of successful leadership that would be useful in leadership-training programs. The successful leadership methods were identified in a series of studies by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan and consisted of employee orientation, delegation of authority differentiation of the leader’s role, and creation of teamwork.

A separate scale of thirty items was constructed for each of the four leadership methods by item analysis of a longer experimental form administered to 220 college psychology students. The effects of human relations training on scale scores were determined by administering the instrument to an industrial-psychology class before and after this training, using a general-psychology class for a control.

The repeat reliability correlations of the original scales ranged from .68 to .86, with a repeat reliability of the total score on the questionnaire of .85. The intercorrelations of the scales indicated that the scales measure two relatively independent attitudes: one involving an employee orientation—a belief in the delegation of authority and a belief in the importance of teamwork—and the other involving a differentiation of the leader’s role. These two attitudes appear quite similar to the “consideration” and “initiating structure” attitudes found in studies by E. A. Fleishman. An indication of the validity of the test was demonstrated by the significant correlations of all of the scales with students’ grades in an industrial-psychology course in which the leadership methods were taught. The validity also was shown by the significant increase in mean total score for the students after having completed the industrial-psychology course, while the control group of general-psychology students showed no significant gain.

The original questionnaire was later reduced from 120 items to a more practical length of sixty items. The E scale was made up of one-third items from the original “employee orientation” scale, one-third items from the original “delegation of authority” scale, and one-third items from the original “creation of teamwork” scale, as these three original scales were highly correlated and, therefore, appeared to measure a single variable. The D scale retained all thirty of the original items from the “differentiated role” scale.
Scoring

To score the LEAD Questionnaire, follow these five steps:

1. Set up a scoring template, using an answer sheet. For the E scale, punch out response 1 on the answer sheet for questions 3, 8, 9, 14, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26, 28, 29, 38, 40, and 52. Punch out response 2 on the answer sheet for questions 1, 2, 6, 13, 17, 18, 35, 39, 42, 44, 45, 47, 48, 51, and 57.


3. Lay the E-scale template over the completed answer sheet, and count the number of X’s showing. Write this number in the E blank in the box on the answer sheet.

4. Do the same with the D template, writing the number of X’s showing in the D blank in the box. Add the numbers, and write the total in the blank provided for that purpose.

5. Transfer the scores to the norms and interpretation sheet. Distribute the answer sheets to the respondents who completed them; also distribute copies of the norms and interpretation sheet. Have each respondent mark an X on the E and D continua on the norms and interpretation sheet to show where his or her scores fall. You can also provide a group average (based on the group to which the questionnaire was administered).

SUGGESTED USES

This questionnaire has been used successfully in management seminars in an aircraft plant and in an insurance company. The managers completed the questionnaire; and, in a session following the administration of the questionnaire, a presentation was made on the University of Michigan study (Smith, 1964). The managers were then given their own results, which served as the basis for a discussion of leadership methods. The group averages also served to facilitate discussions of the leadership climate in each organization. A group of respondents can use the norms and interpretation sheet to compare their results with those of the aircraft and insurance managers. In both of those groups, managers from several levels were included. The number of managers in the aircraft-company sample was twenty-six, and the number of managers in the insurance-company sample was 151.
REFERENCES


LEAD QUESTIONNAIRE

Russell Doré

Instructions: This is a survey of your attitudes toward different methods of leadership. In each of the sixty items below there are two statements of things a leader can do or ways in which he or she can act. For each item, put an X on your answer sheet in either the first blank or the second blank, thereby indicating either (1) or (2), respectively, for the statement that you believe is the more important way for a leader to behave. If you think that both alternatives are unimportant for a leader, choose the statement you think is more important.

There are no right or wrong answers; your opinions are what is important. Work rapidly; your first impressions are usually best.

It is more important for a leader:

1. (1) To assign workers to specific tasks.  
   (2) To allow the workers to do the job the way they want to, as long as they accomplish the objectives.

2. (1) To treat all workers equally and according to the rules.  
   (2) To be aware of the feelings of the workers.

3. (1) To be accepted by the workers.  
   (2) To point out the rules and policies in situations in which complaints arise.

4. (1) To be an authority in the type of work that the group does.  
   (2) To explain the reasons for changes.

5. (1) To call the group members together to discuss work.  
   (2) To work right alongside the workers.

6. (1) To make decisions independently of the group.  
   (2) To be a real part of the group.

7. (1) To pitch right in with the workers.  
   (2) To plan the work.

8. (1) To authorize the workers to exercise a high degree of authority and responsibility in making decisions.  
   (2) To supervise the workers closely.

9. (1) To maintain an open, informal relationship with the workers.  
   (2) To have a well-regulated department.

10. (1) To be the most technically skilled member of the work group.  
    (2) To meet with the workers to consider proposed changes.

11. (1) To teach the workers new things.  
    (2) To attempt to vary his or her job only slightly from the jobs of the workers.
It is more important for a leader:

12. (1) To spend over half of his or her time in supervisory activities, such as planning.
   (2) To make prompt, firm decisions.

13. (1) To have a complete knowledge of the technical aspects of his or her job.
   (2) To attempt to place workers in jobs that they desire, whenever possible.

14. (1) To take an interest in the worker as a person.
   (2) To maintain definite standards of performance.

15. (1) To explain each worker’s duties and responsibilities to him or her.
   (2) To spend some of his or her time in helping to get the work done.

16. (1) To allow the workers to do their work the way they think is best.
   (2) To rule with a firm hand.

17. (1) To speak with unquestioned authority.
   (2) To get along well with the workers.

18. (1) To decide in detail how the work will be done by the workers.
   (2) To let the workers make decisions in areas in which they feel competent to do so.

19. (1) To spend considerable time in planning.
   (2) To be respected as a person of superior technical skill in the field.

20. (1) To be proud of the work record of his or her group.
   (2) To create friendly competition among the workers.

21. (1) To have the loyalty of the workers.
   (2) To maintain definite standards of performance.

22. (1) To work hard at all times.
   (2) To schedule the work to be done.

23. (1) To put the group’s welfare above any individual’s welfare.
   (2) To organize the work individually rather than by groups whenever possible.

24. (1) To be an authority in the type of work that the group does.
   (2) To tell poor workers when their work is not measuring up to what it should be.

25. (1) To let the workers set their own pace, as long as they finish the job on time.
   (2) To divide the work load into separate and clearly defined job duties for each worker.

26. (1) To urge the group members to meet together to set group goals.
   (2) To prefer workers who work well alone.

27. (1) To perform the same functions as the workers whenever possible.
   (2) To plan the work.
It is more important for a leader:

28. (1) To prefer workers who do not need much supervision.
    (2) To give exact, detailed instructions for each job.

29. (1) To stand up for the workers when they make mistakes.
    (2) To submit his or her reports on time.

30. (1) To call the group members together to discuss the work.
    (2) To attempt to vary his or her job only slightly from the jobs of the workers.

31. (1) To be respected as a person of superior technical skill in the field.
    (2) To spend over half of his or her time in supervisory activities, such as planning.

32. (1) To be the most technically skilled member of the work group.
    (2) To explain the reasons for changes.

33. (1) To let the workers know how well they are doing their jobs.
    (2) To spend some of his or her time helping to complete the work.

34. (1) To make prompt, firm decisions.
    (2) To spend considerable time in planning.

35. (1) To make decisions independently of the group.
    (2) To urge the workers to work together.

36. (1) To pass along to the workers information from higher management.
    (2) To help complete the work.

37. (1) To be respected as a person of superior technical skill in the field.
    (2) To schedule the work to be done.

38. (1) To foster the workers’ pride in their work group’s accomplishments.
    (2) To discourage talking between workers on the job.

39. (1) To reward the good worker.
    (2) To encourage the workers to assist one another on the job.

40. (1) To feel that he or she belongs in the group.
    (2) To accomplish tasks on the basis of his or her own initiative.

41. (1) To teach the workers new things.
    (2) To help get the work done.

42. (1) To do the important jobs himself or herself.
    (2) To allow the workers to take their rest periods when they wish.

43. (1) To organize new practices and procedures.
    (2) To encourage one worker in the group to speak up for the rest.

44. (1) To set up all projects himself or herself.
    (2) To let the workers make all routine daily decisions.

45. (1) To be trained in the basic technical knowledge needed in the department.
    (2) To keep the workers happy.
It is more important for a leader:

46. (1) To meet with the workers to consider proposed changes.
    (2) To pitch right in with the workers.

47. (1) To discourage strong friendships from forming within the group.
    (2) To foster the workers’ pride in their work group’s accomplishments.

48. (1) To complete the work on time.
    (2) To be friendly toward the workers.

49. (1) To realize that a worker knows when he or she is a slacker without being told.
    (2) To explain each worker’s duties and responsibilities to him or her.

50. (1) To set an example by working hard.
    (2) To spend considerable time in planning.

51. (1) To encourage workers to check with him or her frequently about the work.
    (2) To let the workers decide how to do each task.

52. (1) To allow workers to make decisions concerning their work.
    (2) To prefer workers who are agreeable and willing to follow rules.

53. (1) To be an authority in the type of work that the group does.
    (2) To pass along to the workers information from higher management.

54. (1) To encourage the workers to discover the best job methods by experience.
    (2) To meet with the workers to consider proposed changes.

55. (1) To explain each worker’s duties and responsibilities to him or her.
    (2) To pitch right in with the workers.

56. (1) To plan his or her day’s activities in considerable detail.
    (2) To perform the same functions as the workers whenever possible.

57. (1) To create friendly competition among the workers.
    (2) To urge the group members to meet together to set group goals.

58. (1) To organize new practices and procedures.
    (2) To make his or her job similar to the jobs of the workers.

59. (1) To be skilled in training.
    (2) To set an example by working hard.

60. (1) To work right alongside the workers.
    (2) To try out new ideas in the work group.
### LEAD QUESTIONNAIRE ANSWER SHEET

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E _____
D _____
Total _____

Name ________________________________
LEAD QUESTIONNAIRE NORMS AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Name ____________________________

E (Employee-orientation) ____________
D (Differentiation) ________________
Total LEAD Score ________________

This sheet provides you with some information to help you understand the meaning of your score on the Employee-orientation scale, your score on the Differentiation scale, and your total LEAD score.

If you scored high on the Employee-orientation scale, it means that you tend to agree with the following leadership techniques: being oriented toward your employees as people rather than as means of production, delegating authority and responsibility for decisions to the employees whenever possible, and creating an atmosphere of teamwork and cooperation. If you scored low on this scale, you agree with these methods: assigning all tasks to employees rather than letting them help to decide assignments, making most decisions yourself, supervising closely, stressing rules and work standards, and focusing on individual performance and competition rather than cooperation.
On the Differentiation scale, a high score means that you tend to agree that a leader’s activities are different from those of his or her employees and that the leader’s activities include explaining and discussing changes in the work, planning and scheduling the overall group’s activity, training employees, explaining their job responsibilities, giving them feedback on good and poor performance, and trying out new ideas. If you scored low on this scale, you tend to feel that a leader should stress doing the same kind of activities as the employees, being a high individual performer himself or herself, being an outstanding technical expert in his or her field, and working hard personally to get a big share of the work done.

The Total score is used to summarize your position on the two separate scales. If you are high on both scales, your Total score will be high, and vice versa. A high score on one scale and a low one on the other will result in a middle score on the Total.

Research studies conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan showed that a sample of successful supervisors in several different industries used methods that are reflected on the high end of these scales, and less successful supervisors used methods reflected on the low end of the scales. You can compare your scores on the norms and interpretation sheet with those of a group of twenty-six aircraft-company managers and a group of 151 insurance-company managers who participated in another study. These are group averages, and you should remember that individual scores may vary according to the situation; for example, a supervisor who only supervises one employee may not feel strongly about the importance of Differentiation, as he or she may have to do a great deal of the actual work. It should also be remembered that this questionnaire measures attitudes toward leadership methods, not whether a person is actually using the methods.
THE LEARNING-MODEL INSTRUMENT: AN INSTRUMENT BASED ON THE LEARNING MODEL FOR MANAGERS

Kenneth L. Murrell

Although the learning model presented here was not designed exclusively for managers, the versatility and flexibility demanded by a managerial career require a knowledge of and experience with a variety of learning styles. The Learning Model for Managers introduces four domains of learning based on a person’s preference for cognitive or affective learning and the person’s preference for concrete or abstract experiences. As it is important for managers to learn how to use a variety of learning styles, the manager is given special attention as the model and instrument are discussed.

DEVELOPING THE MODEL AND INSTRUMENT

The idea that people will be able to live a better life if they understand who and what they are goes back at least to the early Greek philosophers. Many aids and guides have been created to help people in today’s world to learn more about themselves. After reading Freedom To Learn (Rogers, 1982) and studying various learning-style models and instruments (e.g., Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1974, and instruments described in Peters, 1985, and in Pfeiffer, Heslin, & Jones, 1976), I saw a need for a different type of learning model and self-awareness instrument. The following goals were important in developing this new model:

1. To create a model that will help to explain the cognitive and affective learning styles in such a way that managers and trainers can gain an appreciation for and understanding of the various ways in which learning takes place;
2. To clarify conceptually what a learning environment is so that participants in a learning program can gain an understanding of what the learning environment is and of how experiential-learning methods differ from other learning methods;
3. To create an instrument, based on the model’s assumptions, that will provide immediate self-awareness feedback to help individuals know more about how they learn;
4. To develop an instrument that will help individuals (a) to connect their awareness of their own learning preferences to the nature of what and how a manager learns and (b) to understand why experiential learning and management development must differ from traditional classroom learning; and
5. To develop an instrument that will generate thought and discussion about the process of learning, so that program content will be seen as only a part of the total learning experience.

**THE MODEL**

The Learning Model for Managers (see Figure 1), which was based on these goals, has been used in industrial settings, in graduate and undergraduate courses on management and organizational behavior, and in offices in the United States and other countries. The instrument is simple to use and is designed to help the instructor or trainer explain the importance of being able to learn in many different ways, including experiential learning.

Learning comes not only through thinking or cognition, but also from experience and affect or feeling. Although some people have realized this fact for a long time, it is still “good news” for many when they discover that it is acceptable to be emotional and have feelings and that they can take pride in being able to learn from emotions and feelings. Although everyone probably has a mixture of learning preferences, a way was needed to identify a person’s preferred position on a continuum from the cognitive to the affective.

---

**Figure 1. The Learning Model for Managers**
The Learning Model for Managers assumes that the difference in a preference on the affective-cognitive dimension of learning is a key factor in how a person learns. This assumption is based on the idea that the affective and cognitive end points can be defined so that they correlate with a people-versus-task orientation (Blake & Mouton, 1984). Although empirical research may not show a strong correlation between a preference for the cognitive style of learning and task orientation, they seem to be closely related because of the similarity in their definitions.

This task-person and cognitive-affective correlation provides an opportunity to use this learning model for stressing the relationship of learning style and personality type to the behavior of a manager. Although managers, like other people, probably prefer learning in a particular way, it is important for them to develop the ability to learn by both thinking and feeling. The model can be used to illustrate this importance. In training managers, the trainer should thoroughly discuss this issue and show how the model correlates with the career changes the managers may expect to face.

The model’s second dimension (the vertical axis) uses, as did Kolb, a concreteabstract continuum. However, this model reverses the positions of the end points in order to place concrete (the “down-to-earth” point) on the bottom and abstract (the “in-the-air” point) on top. A preference for the concrete reflects a person’s desire to come into contact with the real object, to touch it, or even to physically manipulate it. The abstract end of the continuum reflects a preference for dealing with the world in terms of thinking about it and for manipulating ideas or thoughts. The vertical axis represents the way people tend to experience life and is loosely associated with the psychology of Jung (1924). The preference for experiencing life in the concrete indicates a desire to experience through the direct senses.

The Learning Model for Managers, therefore, contains two primary axes, ranging from cognitive to affective in the horizontal dimension and from concrete to abstract in the vertical dimension. The axes divide the model into the following four domains: I, thinking planner; II, feeling planner; III, task implementer; and IV, participative implementer.

**THE INSTRUMENT**

The Learning-Model Instrument can be used in the following ways:

1. To give feedback to individuals on their own preferred styles of learning and domains of strength;
2. To help a new group of trainees or students to learn more about one another in order to work together more effectively; and
3. To provide an overall explanation of the learning environment so that participants will gain a conceptual understanding of the experiential approach to learning.
Validity and Reliability

Establishing validity and reliability of any model and instrument of this type is difficult or impossible. However, if the face validity is positive and if the learning value is apparent, then the material should be useful when it fits the training and learning goals. The results of the instrument are not intended to label the respondents, but simply to give them feedback on their preferred styles of learning.

Administering the Instrument

Although this instrument is particularly helpful to managers and prospective managers, it is appropriate for anyone who desires to know more about his or her own preferences for learning styles. A management-development program, which was built on the model and utilized the instrument, can be summarized in the following way:

The first session met in order to accomplish two things: (1) to allow the participants to become acquainted with at least four other participants and (2) to outline preliminary objectives for the program. During the getting-acquainted process, each person introduced one other person. Later, triads were formed to develop additional program objectives, which then became part of the program outline. The facilitator used a systems framework to explain the relationship of inputs, throughputs, and outputs. The facilitator also gave special attention to the feedback loop and discussed it in terms of the need for communication and self-control in order to make sure that the program was accomplishing its goals and that each participant was receiving what he or she needed.

The next focus was on the learning model. The facilitator explained how the program activities would by necessity be heavily oriented toward experiential learning and would deal directly with the feelings and emotions that would emerge as learning took place in domains II and IV of the model.

The model and instrument were valuable in helping participants to learn something about one another, which in turn helped them in working together more effectively. After the instrument was administered, the results of the last half of the instrument were used to form groups of participants with similar scores. Each group consisted of five to seven members. Within each group, the members compared their responses and tried to determine whether or not the scores seemed valid. They also discussed the results of the first half of the instrument. Then all of the groups held a joint discussion.

Topics for such a joint discussion might include the way men are socialized to be more cognitive and women are socialized to be more affective; how background or academic interests can cause a bias; and how individuals can determine which domain they belong in if their scores place them on an axis. The discussions in both the small and large groups can help participants to be more aware of themselves, of the other participants, and of the kind of learning that will take place in the program.

This particular program was designed to place a heavy emphasis on and to give special skill-building attention to domains II and IV.
**Scoring the Instrument**

The scoring sheet indicates which answers receive a score of one point. The rest of the answers receive a score of zero. The total of the scores in the first half of the instrument is plotted on the vertical axis, and a horizontal line is drawn through the point. The total of the scores in the last half is plotted on the horizontal axis, and a vertical line is drawn through that point. The point of intersection of the two lines indicates the domain of the respondent.

**Interpreting the Scores**

The next four paragraphs give an interpretation of the four end points of the axes in the Learning Model for Managers. Following these are explanations of the four domains in the model.

**Cognitive Learning**

A person who scores low on the cognitive-affective axis shows a marked preference for learning through thought or other mental activity. People who intellectually grasp very quickly what they are trying to learn or who simply prefer to use controlled thought and logic will be found on the cognitive end of this axis. Rationality appeals to these individuals, as do logic and other thinking skills that are necessary for this type of learning. Although this statement is not based on hard research, it appears that a high cognitive orientation correlates with a high task orientation rather than with a people orientation. The research about possible left-versus-right brain functioning correlates a cognitive orientation with individuals who are leftbrain dominant. Therefore, the left side of the axis was deliberately assigned to the cognitive orientation to serve as an easy reminder.

**Affective Learning**

A person who scores high on the cognitive-affective axis shows a marked preference for learning in the affective realm. Such an individual is more comfortable with and seeks out learning from his or her emotions and feelings. These individuals desire personal interaction and seek to learn about people by experiencing them in emotional ways. This type of learner would potentially be highly people oriented. A manager with this orientation would probably seek out social interaction rather than focus exclusively on the task components of the job. In right-brain research, affective learners are said to be more intuitive, more spontaneous, and less linear. They seek out feelings and emotions rather than logic.

**Concrete Life Experiencing**

People with a preference for the concrete enjoy jumping in and getting their hands dirty. Hands-on experiences are important to them. As managers, these people want to keep busy, become directly involved, and physically approach or touch whatever they are
working with. If they work with machines, they will get greasy; if they work with people, they will become involved.

Abstract Life Experiencing
People who prefer this style have no special desire to touch, but they want to keep active by thinking about the situation and relating it to similar situations. Their preferred interaction style is internal—inside their own heads.

The Four Learning Domains
A person is unlikely to be on the extreme end of either axis, and no one type of learning is “best.” Any mixture of preferences simply represents a person’s uniqueness. The model is useful in helping people differentiate themselves, and it offers a method for looking at the way different styles fit together. This section describes the four domains that are represented in the model.

The descriptions of these domains could be of special interest to managers, because they will help the manager understand the relationship between managerial action and learning style. A manager should be capable of learning and functioning well in all four domains, especially if he or she expects to face a variety of situations and challenges. The successful manager is likely to be the one who can operate in both a task and a people environment with the ability to see and become involved with the concrete and also use thought processes to understand what is needed. The normative assumption of the model is that a manager should learn how to learn in each of the four domains. In doing this, the manager may well build on his or her primary strengths; but the versatility and flexibility demanded in a managerial career make clear the importance of all four domains.

Domain I, the Thinking Planner. A combination of cognitive and abstract preferences constitutes domain I, where the “thinking planner” is located. This domain might well be termed the place for the planner whose job is task oriented and whose environment contains primarily things, numbers, or printouts. The bias in formal education is often toward this learning domain, and Mintzberg (1976) was critical of this bias. In this domain things are treated abstractly, and often their socioemotional elements are denied.

The domain-I learner should do well in school, should have a talent for planning, and is likely to be successful as a staff person or manager in a department that deals with large quantities of untouchable things. This domain represents an important area for management learning. Of the four domains, it seems to receive the heaviest emphasis in traditional university programs and in management-development seminars, particularly those in financial management.

Domain II, the Feeling Planner: A combination of affective and abstract preferences constitutes domain II, where the “feeling planner” is located. The managerial style associated with this domain is that of the thinker who can learn and
who enjoys working with people but has limited opportunity to get close to them. This domain is important for the personnel executive or a manager with too much responsibility to interact closely with other employees.

Social-analysis skills are represented in this area. Managers in this domain should be able to think through and understand the social and emotional factors affecting a large organization.

Difficulties in this area sometimes arise when good first-line supervisors who have a natural style with people are promoted into positions that prevent them from having direct contact with others and are expected to determine without concrete experience the nature of and solutions to personnel problems.

Domain III, the Task Implementer. A combination of cognitive and concrete preferences constitutes domain III, where the “task implementer” is located. This domain includes decision makers who primarily want to understand the task and who can focus on the details and specifics of the concrete in a thoughtful manner. If these people are allowed to think about a situation, they can see the concrete issues and, after close examination, can make a well-thought-out decision. A person in this domain is often a task-focused doer. If the interpersonal skill demands are low and if the emotional climate is not a problem, this person is likely to do well.

Domain IV, the Participative Implementer. A combination of affective and concrete preferences constitutes domain IV, where the “participative implementer” is located. The manager with people skills who has the opportunity to work closely with people is found in this category. This is the place where implementers and highly skilled organization development consultants reside. This domain is for those who like to become involved and who have ability and interest in working with the emotional needs and demands of the people in an organization. This is the domain that is emphasized by most of the practical management programs, and it can be used to complement the traditional educational programs of domain I.

REFERENCES


THE LEARNING-MODEL INSTRUMENT

Kenneth L. Murrell

Instructions: For each statement choose the response that is more nearly true for you. Place an X on the blank that corresponds to that response.

1. When meeting people, I prefer
   _____ (a) to think and speculate on what they are like.
   _____ (b) to interact directly and to ask them questions.

2. When presented with a problem, I prefer
   _____ (a) to jump right in and work on a solution.
   _____ (b) to think through and evaluate possible ways to solve the problem.

3. I enjoy sports more when
   _____ (a) I am watching a good game.
   _____ (b) I am actively participating.

4. Before taking a vacation, I prefer
   _____ (a) to rush at the last minute and give little thought beforehand to what I will do while on vacation.
   _____ (b) to plan early and daydream about how I will spend my vacation.

5. When enrolled in courses, I prefer
   _____ (a) to plan how to do my homework before actually attacking the assignment.
   _____ (b) to immediately become involved in doing the assignment.

6. When I receive information that requires action, I prefer
   _____ (a) to take action immediately.
   _____ (b) to organize the information and determine what type of action would be most appropriate.

Copyright © 1987 by Kenneth L. Murrell. Used with permission. This instrument may be freely used for nonprofit educational/training activities. Systematic or large-scale reproduction or distribution may be done only with prior written permission from the author.
7. When presented with a number of alternatives for action, I prefer
   _____ (a) to determine how the alternatives relate to one another and analyze the consequences of each.
   _____ (b) to select the one that looks best and implement it.

8. When I awake every morning, I prefer
   _____ (a) to expect to accomplish some worthwhile work without considering what the individual tasks may entail.
   _____ (b) to plan a schedule for the tasks I expect to do that day.

9. After a full day’s work, I prefer
   _____ (a) to reflect on what I accomplished and think of how to make time the next day for unfinished tasks.
   _____ (b) to relax with some type of recreation and not think about my job.

10. After choosing the above responses, I
    _____ (a) prefer to continue and complete this instrument.
    _____ (b) am curious about how my responses will be interpreted and would prefer some feedback before continuing with the instrument.

11. When I learn something, I am usually
    _____ (a) thinking about it.
    _____ (b) right in the middle of doing it.

12. I learn best when
    _____ (a) I am dealing with real-world issues.
    _____ (b) concepts are clear and well organized.

13. In order to retain something I have learned, I must
    _____ (a) periodically review it in my mind.
    _____ (b) practice it or try to use the information.

14. In teaching others how to do something, I first
    _____ (a) demonstrate the task.
    _____ (b) explain the task.
15. My favorite way to learn to do something is by
   _____ (a) reading a book or instructions or enrolling in a class.
   _____ (b) trying to do it and learning from my mistakes.

16. When I become emotionally involved with something, I usually
   _____ (a) let my feelings take the lead and then decide what to do.
   _____ (b) control my feelings and try to analyze the situation.

17. If I were meeting jointly with several experts on a subject, I would prefer
   _____ (a) to ask each of them for his or her opinion.
   _____ (b) to interact with them and share our ideas and feelings.

18. When I am asked to relate information to a group of people, I prefer
   _____ (a) not to have an outline, but to interact with them and become involved in an extemporaneous conversation.
   _____ (b) to prepare notes and know exactly what I am going to say.

19. Experience is
   _____ (a) a guide for building theories.
   _____ (b) the best teacher.

20. People learn easier when they are
   _____ (a) doing work on the job.
   _____ (b) in a class taught by an expert.
THE LEARNING-MODEL INSTRUMENT SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your responses by writing either “a” or “b” in the blank that corresponds to each item in the Learning Model Instrument.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abstract/Concrete</th>
<th>Cognitive/Affective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Column 1</td>
<td>Column 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ___</td>
<td>11. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ___</td>
<td>13. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ___</td>
<td>15. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ___</td>
<td>17. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ___</td>
<td>19. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ___</td>
<td>21. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. ___</td>
<td>22. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ___</td>
<td>23. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ___</td>
<td>24. ___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ___</td>
<td>25. ___</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total
Circles _____ ___________

Grand Totals

Now circle every “a” in Column 1 and in Column 4. Then circle every “b” in Column 2 and in Column 3. Next, total the circles in each of the four columns. Then add the totals of Columns 1 and 2; plot this grand total on the vertical axis of the Learning Model for Managers and draw a horizontal line through the point. Now add the totals of Columns 3 and 4; plot that grand total on the horizontal axis of the model and draw a vertical line through the point. The intersection of these two lines indicates the domain of your preferred learning style.

The Learning Model for Managers
The cognitive-affective axis or continuum represents the range of ways in which people learn. Cognitive learning includes learning that is structured around either rote storing of knowledge or intellectual abilities and skills, or both. Affective learning includes learning from experience, from feelings about the experience, and from one’s own emotions.

The concrete-abstract axis or continuum represents the range of ways in which people experience life. When people experience life abstractly, they detach themselves from the immediacy of the situation and theorize about it. If they experience life concretely, they respond to the situation directly with little subsequent contemplation.

The two axes divide the model into four parts or domains. Most people experience life and learn from it in all four domains but have a preference for a particular domain. Liberal-arts education has typically concentrated on abstract learning (domains I and II), whereas vocational and on-the-job training usually takes place in the lower quadrants, particularly domain III.

Occupations representative of the four styles include the following: domain I, philosopher or chief executive officer; domain II, poet or journalist; domain III, architect or engineer; and domain IV, psychologist or personnel counselor.

Managerial jobs require an ability to learn in all four domains, and a manager’s development depends on his or her ability to learn both cognitively and affectively. Thus, management education and development demand the opportunity for the participants to learn how to learn in each domain.
MANAGEMENT-STORES SPECTRUM

Kenneth L. Murrell

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF EMPOWERMENT

All members of all organizations are empowered, but to different degrees. Although empowerment can be both self-initiated and inspired by others, management style is one variable that affects the extent of empowerment within an organization. Management styles can vary widely; hence the metaphor of the spectrum of empowerment in management styles. The question is not whether or not the members of the organization are empowered, but how empowered they are encouraged to be by the organizational culture.

The concept of empowerment is itself an evolving one. What is known now about empowerment differs from what was known five years ago; as the 1990s unfold, empowerment also will unfold in unforeseen ways. Pfeiffer, Goodstein, and Nolan (1989) see empowerment in the following way:

Empowerment is getting people to believe they are in charge of their destiny, getting them to believe that what they do is going to impact the system.... Things that empower people in organizations become key elements in making a vital organization that can respond to change. (p. 33)

Vogt and Murrell (1990) make the following point:¹

Empowering is an act of building, developing, and increasing power through cooperation, sharing, and working together. It is an interactive process based on a synergistic, not a zero-sum, assumption about power; that is, the process of empowerment enlarges the power in the situation as opposed to merely redistributing it. (p. 8)

Understanding empowerment requires an understanding of the concept of synergism. When the joint efforts of two or more people are more effective than the sum of their individual efforts, synergism has occurred. In other words, synergy creates a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts. A common example of synergism is found in pharmacology: Frequently the combined effects of two drugs taken together are greater than the sum of the effects of both drugs when taken alone. In many cases, each drug increases the effect of the other. This concept is especially important to organizations that are struggling to grow and to develop with what appear to be limited resources. If the combined efforts of these resources can become greater than the sum of the efforts of the individual resources, then the likelihood of survival and success is greater.

¹ For further exploration of the topic of empowerment, see Judith F. Vogt and Kenneth L. Murrell, Empowerment in Organizations: How to Spark Exceptional Performance, available from Pfeiffer & Company.
In an uncertain economy, making such use of the resources at hand is vital; and the function of change agents becomes all the more critical. A change agent is someone or something that sparks change or paradigm shifts in a given situation. A paradigm is an established pattern of thinking or acting that becomes virtually an automatic response to a situation. A classic story in human resource development (HRD) literature about paradigms (Pfeiffer, Goodstein, & Nolan, 1989) tells of a young wife who was preparing her first Thanksgiving turkey. Her husband watched as she carefully cut off the turkey’s tail. The husband, puzzled at this action, asked why. She replied, “That’s the way my mother always prepares a turkey.” When said mother arrived for Thanksgiving dinner, the curious husband asked her about the turkey tail. Her response was, “Well, my mother was the best cook in the neighborhood, and she always cut off the turkey tail. I don’t know why we do it, but it’s always worked for me.” His curiosity aroused, the husband suggested a “Happy Thanksgiving” phone call to the authority on turkey tails. Grandmother was certainly pleased to hear from the family but was puzzled at their concern about turkey tails. “I don’t know why you cut off turkey tails, but I always cut them off because my roasting pan wasn’t big enough to hold the turkey unless I did.”

When people do what they have always done, they get what they have always gotten. In contrast, when people are open-minded and willing to take risks, paradigm shifts can occur. Such shifts can happen to individuals, societies, or organizations. Conditions that support paradigm shifting at all levels include being proactive, being open to new ideas and new ways of understanding things, and being willing to take risks. A management style that supports paradigm shifting also promotes empowerment.

THE INSTRUMENT

The Management-Styles Spectrum is intended to help the respondents assess the degree to which the climate in their organization supports empowerment. This instrument enables trainers and HRD practitioners to determine the existing organizational-empowerment culture before they begin to examine and implement processes that enhance empowerment.

Validity and Reliability

No reliability or validity data are available for this instrument, but it does have face validity. It can be used for the objectives stated and can provide feedback on empowerment to organizations.

Administration

The facilitator explains the objectives and distributes the instrument. The facilitator asks the respondents to read the instructions and elicits and answers questions about the instructions.
When the respondents have completed the instrument, the facilitator distributes the survey scoring sheet. Respondents are instructed to transfer their scores from the instrument to the survey scoring sheet and to total their scores for each area.

Subsequently, the interpretation sheet is distributed, and the respondents are asked to transfer their totals to this sheet.

The facilitator distributes the spectrum sheet, and the respondents are asked to plot their scores on it for each of the six areas. The spectrum interpretation sheet is distributed, and respondents are asked to read it. The facilitator leads a discussion on what employees can do to empower themselves in organizations represented by each color of the spectrum.

Although individual responses should remain anonymous, an organization may choose to code responses by work unit or department. All responses may then be compiled and arrayed in a format similar to that shown in Figure 1, which displays the number of respondents who gave each possible score to a particular item. The letters correspond to the zones described in the interpretation sheet (red, orange, yellow, green, and blue), in which red represents the least empowering organization and blue represents the most empowering organization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Sample Array for Results from the Management-Styles Spectrum

REFERENCES


Instructions: The following survey is designed to help form a view of your organization’s culture as directly affected by the prevailing management style. There are no right or wrong responses; the best response is the one that most accurately describes your organization. Please respond to each item as truthfully as you can based on your view of the behavior and actions of the managers in your organization and not on your guesses about what might be the “right answer.” This survey is primarily to help your organization to better understand the managerial style being practiced.

As you respond to the statements in the survey, do not try to figure out what the letters “R, O, Y, G, B” mean. They are simply codes that will help in scoring the answers. The position of the letter along the continuum is the important part. Circle the letter that best corresponds to your organization in the setting described. The two endpoints on each continuum, R and B, are defined, whereas O, Y and G indicate varying degrees between the endpoints. Circle the midpoint (Y) only if the typical behavior in the organization falls equally as often at either endpoint; circle O or G, depending on which endpoint more closely resembles your organization. As much as possible, try to determine where the organization most often fits between the two endpoints.

1. In communicating with their subordinates, the managers normally

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide only the information that is absolutely needed to do the job.</td>
<td>Provide more information than is needed and try to help subordinates to understand the larger picture.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. When managers make a decision and take action, they

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are usually in agreement with the other staff concerned; their actions are seen as part of a larger whole.</td>
<td>See themselves as solely responsible; they exert power as necessary.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. In planning work, managers seem to prefer to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do it themselves first, then show their supervisors, then tell their subordinates what to expect.</td>
<td>First work with others to develop a larger plan, then share the planning activity with their subordinates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. When evaluating their subordinates, managers normally

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Share the evaluations and give their subordinates the opportunity to respond.</td>
<td>Fill out the proper forms and send copies to the personnel department but try not to make a big deal out of evaluation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. As leaders, managers always try to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be ahead of their subordinates and know more about the job than their subordinates do so they can lead.</td>
<td>Inspire others, set an example, and work collaboratively with others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. In selecting people as new employees, managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Try to match the job and the person for long-term success.</td>
<td>Try to screen out troublemakers, lazy workers, and people they could not manage well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. In this organization, the perfect information system is one that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gives as many people as possible access to nonconfidential information.</td>
<td>Provides others with only the information they need to do their present jobs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. When under pressure for a fast decision, managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediately make a decision and take responsibility for it.</td>
<td>Quickly size up the situation; determine whether anyone else needs to be involved; and if so, delay making a decision until such people can be included.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. When organizing work for their subordinates, managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carefully explain the larger picture and then work with the groups involved to define their responsibilities and power.</td>
<td>Clearly describe each person’s job, responsibilities, and reporting structure.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. In this organization, the people who work for a particular manager always know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>That the manager is in charge and that his or her evaluations will affect raises and promotions.</td>
<td>How they are doing overall, in what areas they are doing well, and in what areas they need improvement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. When managers try to motivate employees, they

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look for the kinds of work and settings in which the employees can perform best.</td>
<td>Give them rewards and punishment as appropriate.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. When an individual does not perform a job well, that person’s manager usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counsels the person and, if that does not work, looks for a replacement before terminating that person.</td>
<td>Sits down with the person and tries to determine what it will take to get the job done well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. When managers talk about their own jobs with their subordinates, they try to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tell them only what they think the employees have a right to know.</td>
<td>Discuss their work freely in hopes that the employees might be able to assist them or that the managers themselves might be able to help the employees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. When it comes to action, managers are firmly convinced that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The power of the group to decide and act should prevail if the conditions are right and the group has reached an advanced stage of development.</td>
<td>An individual can get much more done more quickly than any group.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. To get a work project accomplished, managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tell their subordinates exactly what to do one step at a time and then tell them how much time they have to complete each step.</td>
<td>Coordinate the total project first and then go back over each step so that everyone knows what is required and how his or her work fits into the project as a whole.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. In order to control the organization, managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help their subordinates to build self-control and to attain higher levels of responsibility in the organization.</td>
<td>Keep a careful eye on all that goes on and make sure there is an established system of controls.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. Managers act as if the best rewards for people are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More money, more time off, and more status.</td>
<td>Recognition and the satisfaction that results from doing a good job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. When working with people, managers act as if

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers can always achieve more; together they can make any situation better; and people learn from working together.</td>
<td>Workers will be rewarded when they do as they are told; if they do not do so, they will be disciplined.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. When managers communicate with their supervisors or those in higher positions, they are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eager to explain what they know and think about any subject that seems important.</td>
<td>Very cautious of what they say lest they give the wrong impression or tell too much.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. When a manager’s supervisor delegates a job, the subordinate manager will usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take full responsibility and get the job done by himself or herself whenever possible.</td>
<td>Work with others in getting the job done, ensuring and sharing success.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. When a work project is very complicated and involved, managers prefer to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work with a team to ensure that all the pieces fit together and that everyone will know what everyone else is doing.</td>
<td>Take complete charge and simplify each part so they can manage it rather than depending on people’s ability to work together.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. Managers act as if the best way to ensure that work is done on time is to

- Set specific deadlines,
- Be sure everyone understands the deadlines and how they affect others’ work and reward and recognize timely performance.
- Constantly monitor progress,
- Disciplines those who are late.

23. In leadership, managers think it is most important to

- Work with people in ways that help the people become more powerful and more successful.
- Always show that they know where they are going and have strength and confidence in their own opinions.

24. If they have worked with people for several years, managers

- Believe those people should know their jobs and know what is expected of them.
- Are able to see how much the employees have grown in their jobs and how much more valuable they are to the organization.

25. When managers receive information, they

- Do whatever they can to ensure that information goes where it is needed to get the job done.
- Make sure information is needed before passing it along.

26. Managers encourage their subordinates to

- Work as part of a team, which is more powerful than individual members and able to do more without the help of managers.
- Work alone and report primarily to their managers, who will take care of them.
27. Managers assume that the best way to design an organization is to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centralize power and authority so that people in higher levels of the organization are the ones who know everything that is going on.</td>
<td>Encourage delegation of authority and power sharing as much as feasible so as to use all employees fully.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. When an employee needs to be disciplined, managers try to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discuss the problem and look for longer-term solutions before punishment is given; they also document the infraction.</td>
<td>Make sure that the punishment fits the crime and that everyone knows what happens to problem employees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29. When managers work with unmotivated employees, they usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Try to determine what it will take to make them work and watch them closely to keep them moving.</td>
<td>Work with them to determine what is going on and then help them to find the work best suited to their abilities or help them to find other jobs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30. If someone is not growing in his or her job in this organization, his or her manager usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tries to understand the problem and do whatever he or she can to help.</td>
<td>Feels that there are no problems as long as the person still gets the work done and works well with the supervisor.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MANAGEMENT- STYLES SPECTRUM SURVEY SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer the letters that you assigned as responses to the appropriate spaces on this sheet. For each of the areas, count the number of times that each letter was used as a response and write that number in the appropriate space. Multiply that number by the figure shown, and add the results in order to find the total numerical score for that area.

Area 1: Management-information and communication-system skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of R responses in Area 1 ____ x 0 = ____
Number of O responses in Area 1 ____ x 2 = ____
Number of Y responses in Area 1 ____ x 5 = ____
Number of G responses in Area 1 ____ x 8 = ____
Number of B responses in Area 1 ____ x 10 = ____
Total for Area 1 = ____

Area 2: Decision-making and action-taking skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of R responses in Area 2 ____ x 0 = ____
Number of O responses in Area 2 ____ x 2 = ____
Number of Y responses in Area 2 ____ x 5 = ____
Number of G responses in Area 2 ____ x 8 = ____
Number of B responses in Area 2 ____ x 10 = ____
Total for Area 2 = ____
Area 3: Project-planning, organizing, and system-integration skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of **R** responses in Area 3 ____ x 0 = ____
Number of **O** responses in Area 3 ____ x 2 = ____
Number of **Y** responses in Area 3 ____ x 5 = ____
Number of **G** responses in Area 3 ____ x 8 = ____
Number of **B** responses in Area 3 ____ x 10 = ____
Total for Area 3 = ____

Area 4: System-evaluation and internal-control skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>_______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of **R** responses in Area 4 ____ x 0 = ____
Number of **O** responses in Area 4 ____ x 2 = ____
Number of **Y** responses in Area 4 ____ x 5 = ____
Number of **G** responses in Area 4 ____ x 8 = ____
Number of **B** responses in Area 4 ____ x 10 = ____
Total for Area 4 = ____
Area 5: Leadership, motivation, and reward-systems skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of **R** responses in Area 5 ___ x 0 = ___
Number of **O** responses in Area 5 ___ x 2 = ___
Number of **Y** responses in Area 5 ___ x 5 = ___
Number of **G** responses in Area 5 ___ x 8 = ___
Number of **B** responses in Area 5 ___ x 10 = ___
Total for Area 5 = ___

Area 6: Selection, placement, and human resource development skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Letter</th>
<th>Circled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of **R** responses in Area 6 ___ x 0 = ___
Number of **O** responses in Area 6 ___ x 2 = ___
Number of **Y** responses in Area 6 ___ x 5 = ___
Number of **G** responses in Area 6 ___ x 8 = ___
Number of **B** responses in Area 6 ___ x 10 = ___
Total for Area 6 = ___
MANAGEMENT-styles spectrum
survey interpretation sheet

Instructions: For each area, transfer the total score from the survey scoring sheet to the lines below.

Total for Area 1
Management-information and communication-system skills: 

Total for Area 2
Decision-making and action-taking skills: 

Total for Area 3
Project-planning, organizing, and system-integration skills: 

Total for Area 4
Systems-evaluation and internal-control skills: 

Total for Area 5
Leadership, motivation, and reward-systems skills: 

Total for Area 6
Selection, placement, and human resource development skills: 

Total for all areas of managerial functions:
Instructions: For each area score, place an X on the area line at the location that corresponds to your score. Also place an X on the continuum to indicate your total score.
MANAGEMENT-STYLES SPECTRUM
SPECTRUM INTERPRETATION SHEET

Red Zone = Area scores of 0 - 7, total scores of 0 - 45.
   Personalized-Power Extreme. This area reflects managers who tightly control the power in the organization. They use the least empowering style of management and are very concerned with control and discipline.

Orange Zone = Area scores of 8 - 20, total scores of 46 - 125.
   Controlling Style. This zone reflects a managerial style that is more control oriented, less empowering, and less oriented toward sharing power. The managers are not extremely control oriented but seldom share power, create power, or help subordinates to become empowered.

Yellow Zone = Area scores of 21 - 29, total scores of 126 - 174.
   Middle-Road Style. The middle-road style combines the two styles of controlling and empowering in somewhat equal proportions. This position reflects managers who rarely act in the extreme in matters concerning the use of power.

Green Zone = Area scores of 30 - 42, total scores of 175 - 254.
   Empowerment Style. Managers in this zone use styles that are more empowering than controlling.

Blue Zone = Area scores of 43 - 50, total scores of 255 - 300.
   Socialized-Power Extreme. This zone reflects managers who share power and employ the most empowering managerial style. This style not only shares power but also creates it.
MANAGERIAL WORK-VALUES SCALE

T. Venkateswara Rao

The term value has been defined as “the excellence or the degree of worth ascribed to an object. Though ascribed to the object and reacted to as if external or objective, value is a function of the valuing transaction, not of the object” (English & English, 1958). By this definition, work value means “the degree of worth ascribed to a particular type of work, activity, or aspect of the work.” This definition of work value makes the term distinct from occupational (or job) preference, because it refers to the degree of worth that is ascribed to it. Whereas preference indicates a general attitude, value implies a stronger attitude or a positive evaluation.

REVIEW OF RESEARCH

From the 1920s through the 1980s, hundreds of investigations were conducted on the question of work values or job attitudes. Douglass (1922) studied 2,844 high school seniors, who gave the following reasons for preferring a job: (1) a general impression of the advantages and attractiveness of the job; (2) the respondent’s own fitness for the job; (3) the job’s financial returns; (4) opportunities for service; and (5) the respondent’s knowledge of his or her fitness for the work based on personal experience. Kornhauser’s 1936 study of 350 Chicago males indicated that security and independence were the most strongly desired aspects of a job by members of lower- and middle-income groups; this contrasted with members of wealthy and upper-income groups, who most desired social approval (Centers, 1949).

Centers (1961), whose many studies stimulated research in this particular field, conducted a nationwide survey of U.S. Americans. Centers found that the respondents desired independence, self-expression, security, the opportunity to serve others, and interesting experience, in that order. They placed less value on dimensions of power, fame, esteem, leadership, and profits.

Centers also found significant differences in value patterns for different occupational groups. Large business owners’ preferences for self-expression, leadership, and interesting experiences were in marked contrast to those of unskilled laborers, who chose security more frequently than any other value.

Ginzberg (1951) theorized that choices made before seventeen years of age were only tentative and that real choices were made only after age seventeen.

Gray (1963) compared the work values of fifty secondary-school teachers, fifty accountants, and fifty engineers. Teachers scored highest on their preferences for social rewards, whereas accountants scored highest on the value of prestige.
Significant gender differences in the ranking of occupational values were reported by Thompson (1966). In this study women placed significantly less emphasis on leadership, pay, and recognition than men did. Men, in contrast, placed less emphasis on self-expression and social service than women did. High achievers valued jobs that encouraged individuality more than low achievers did. High pay, leadership, and interesting and challenging jobs were the other preferences of high achievers.

Domenichetti (1970) found that work values also change as a function of vocational maturity.

Schein (1990) identified the following eight categories of career anchors:
1. Technical/functional competence;
2. General managerial competence;
3. Autonomy/independence;
4. Security/stability;
5. Entrepreneurial creativity;
6. Service/dedication to a cause;
7. Pure challenge; and
8. Lifestyle.

According to Schein, a career anchor represents a person’s self-image of what he or she excels in, wants, and values. Although a person can have only one career anchor, the categories can be arranged in a hierarchy according to what that person would be willing to give up if forced to choose between two anchors.

**Managerial Work Values**

Values often are considered to be organized into hierarchical structures. The concept of a value system suggests a rank ordering of values along a continuum of importance. Two distinct types of values—instrumental (means) and terminal (end) values—make possible two distinct value systems, each with a rank-ordered structure of its own. These value systems are functionally and cognitively connected with each other as well as connected with a person’s attitudes toward other specific objects and situations.

Theoretically, with large numbers of values, a large number of variations in the rankings are possible. It is, however, unlikely that all possible value patterns will exist, because social factors (such as culture, social system, gender, occupation, education, religion, and political orientation) sharply restrict the number of actual variants.

Values impact managerial interactions in a variety of ways. Values influence managers’ choices; choices, in turn, are important in determining managerial effectiveness because they influence outcomes. For example, the values that managers hold may influence their choices of subordinates, their likes and dislikes for given jobs, or the extent to which they involve themselves with certain tasks. A manager may value scientific and theoretical knowledge so much that he or she unconsciously may prefer a
thinker or a theorizer for a routine job. Another manager’s preference for a particular machine may be more a result of aesthetic values than an awareness of the efficiency of that machine. A research-and-development manager may try to economize unnecessarily because of personal economic values, thus limiting his or her ability to experiment with new products. The values an individual holds about different aspects of life constantly affect that person’s choices. Managers are likely to make better decisions in all situations if they act with an awareness of their reasons and with the knowledge of the extent to which their values direct their decisions.

**Dimensions of Work Values**

Because work values are the degree of worth a person ascribes to particular aspects or dimensions of work, identifying the dimensions of work helps in understanding work values. Dimensions of work include the opportunities the work offers for a person to satisfy the following needs:

1. To be creative;
2. To earn money;
3. To be independent;
4. To enjoy prestige and status;
5. To serve others;
6. To do academic work;
7. To have a stable and secure job;
8. To enjoy one’s colleagues; and
9. To have good working conditions.

Managers who prefer academic work may excel as trainers, whereas managers who want to be creative might be more resourceful in research-and-development departments. Managers who prefer service may do well in public services, whereas managers who prefer independence might better join organizations that offer autonomy and freedom. Knowledge of one’s own work values helps a person to choose a job that is congruent with these values and/or to make career decisions that reflect these work values.

**THE INSTRUMENT**

The Managerial Work-Values Scale was first developed to measure the work values of medical doctors (Rao, 1976). Subsequently, the instrument was adapted to measure the work values of managers (Pareek, Rao, & Pestonjee, 1981).

The instrument has been further adapted here to focus more specifically on nine work values, using the paired comparison method to measure their relative strengths.
The work dimensions included are creativity, economics, independence, status, service, academics, security, collegiality, and work conditions.

Of these dimensions, creativity, independence, service, and academics can be considered as *intrinsic* and the rest as *extrinsic* dimensions of work.

This instrument consists of thirty-six pairs of items. Each item in a pair represents one of the nine work dimensions. The respondent distributes three points between the items in each pair, based on personal preferences for that work dimension.

Because each work dimension is compared with eight other dimensions, the maximum possible score for any work value is $8 \times 3$, or 24 points. Thus, the score for any work value could range from 0 to 24.

**Administration and Scoring**

The Managerial Work-Values Scale can be self-administered. When the instrument is used in groups or for training programs, the administrator should have the respondents complete the instrument first, then discuss the concept of work values, and then help the respondents to score their own responses. Each respondent’s scores on each item (1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, and so on) should be transferred to the scoring sheet. The score for each work-value dimension can be obtained by adding scores on all eight items of that dimension. The total of all scores on all work values totals 108 points.

**Interpretation**

Because this scale uses the paired-comparison method and because it is intended to prepare the work-value profile of the respondent, no norms are necessary. On the basis of the scores obtained by a respondent, the corresponding work values can be ranked in descending order of the scores. Thus the highest-scored dimension is the dominant work value of the respondent, and the lowest-scored dimension is the least-valued dimension of work.

Normally, scores between eighteen and twenty-four indicate strongly valued work dimensions. A respondent can have more than one dominant work value. In fact, results for some respondents tend to demonstrate clusters of work values scored as high or low. Explanations for each dimension are provided on the interpretation sheet.

**Validity and Reliability**

Two types of validity have been established for this scale in its original version: content validity and validation with self-ratings. The scale items were given to eighteen research psychologists working in university departments of psychology and other institutes of education and administration. These psychologists were given the definitions of each of the work values and were asked to classify the scale items into work-value categories. Each item was correctly classified into its work-value category by 89 percent of the experts. Eighty-eight of the original ninety items were correctly classified by seventeen
or eighteen of the judges, representing 95 to 100 percent agreement, indicating a high degree of content validity.

Coefficients of correlation were computed between the scores on this scale and self-rankings assigned to the work dimensions by 120 senior medical students as follows:

- Creativity = .86;
- Economics = .64;
- Independence = .39;
- Status = .51;
- Service = .73;
- Academics = .68;
- Security = .65;
- Collegiality = .35; and
- Work conditions = .47.

Given the limitations of self-rankings, these coefficients of correlation indicate a high degree of concurrent validity; all coefficients are significant at the .01 level.

Cluster analysis of the coefficients of correlation obtained on this scale (N = 309 senior medical students from seven medical schools) indicated that the original ten work values fell into four clusters. The first cluster consisted of status, security, economics, and work conditions; the second consisted of creativity and service values; the third consisted of academics and independence values; and the fourth consisted of collegiality and rural. The first cluster consists of extrinsic dimensions, and the next three are more intrinsic in nature.

Test-retest reliability was established by using twenty-six respondents. The test-retest coefficients of correlation obtained were as follows:

- Creativity = .81;
- Economics = .61;
- Independence = .87;
- Status = .81;
- Service = .75;
- Academics = .57;
- Security = .51;
- Collegiality = .57; and
- Work conditions = .29.

Except for work conditions, all coefficients are significant at the .01 level.
Suggested Uses

This instrument has been used in postgraduate programs of management as well as in management-development programs. It is particularly useful as a value-clarification activity, and it can be used in conjunction with any career-development program.

An action plan can be created for helping respondents to bring their careers more closely in line with their work values.

REFERENCES


MANAGERIAL WORK-VALUES SCALE

T. Venkateswara Rao

Instructions: This questionnaire consists of pairs of statements related to work values. Read each pair of statements carefully and assess the relative values of the statements for you. Some alternatives may seem equally attractive or unattractive to you; nevertheless, you must choose between the alternatives. For each pair of statements, you have three points to distribute. For example, read the following pair of statements:

I prefer work in which:

____ 1a. I develop new ideas.
____ 1b. I am paid well.

In the blanks preceding items 1a and 1b, you would distribute points according to the explanations that follow.

- If you prefer “a” and do not prefer “b,” mark the blanks as follows:
  3 1a.
  0 1b.

- If you have a slight preference for “a” over “b,” mark the blanks as follows:
  2 1a.
  1 1b.

- If you have a slight preference for “b” over “a,” mark the blanks as follows:
  1 1a.
  2 1b.

- If you prefer “b” and do not prefer “a,” mark the blanks as follows:
  0 1a.
  3 1b.

Although you will see the same item more than once, proceed through the questionnaire and treat each pair of statements independently. Be sure to use only the combinations of numbers shown. Remember that first impressions are important.

I prefer work in which:

____ 1a. I develop new ideas.
____ 1b. I am paid well.
____ 2a. I do not need to depend on others for help.
____ 2b. I have a prestigious position.
I prefer work in which:

_____  3a. I solve others’ problems.
_____  3b. I have an opportunity to teach others what I know.
_____  4a. I am paid enough that I can have all the things I want.
_____  4b. I have a very secure position.
_____  5a. People respect me.
_____  5b. I teach and do research.
_____  6a. I feel a sense of achievement.
_____  6b. My colleagues and I get along well together.
_____  7a. I have adequate freedom and independence.
_____  7b. I solve others’ problems.
_____  8a. I have the opportunity to invent new things.
_____  8b. I have no fear of losing my job.
_____  9a. I do things the way I please.
_____  9b. I do research.
_____ 10a. I can help others to be happy.
_____ 10b. I have all the physical facilities I need.
_____ 11a. I receive large financial rewards.
_____ 11b. I teach.
_____ 12a. I have high status.
_____ 12b. My physical surroundings are good.
_____ 13a. I help other people.
_____ 13b. I am in no danger of being laid off.
_____ 14a. I have a high salary.
_____ 14b. I am respected by others.
I prefer work in which:

____ 15a. I am an influential person.
____ 15b. Nothing can threaten my job.
____ 16a. I do unique things.
____ 16b. I do not need to depend on others for help.
____ 17a. I do things almost entirely by myself.
____ 17b. I do not fear losing my job.
____ 18a. I earn an adequate income.
____ 18b. I work in pleasant surroundings.
____ 19a. I solve the problems of others.
____ 19b. I have good associates.
____ 20a. I am respected by others.
____ 20b. My colleagues are people I like.
____ 21a. I invent new things and find new ways of doing things.
____ 21b. My surroundings are pleasant.
____ 22a. I have the freedom to do things the way I want to do them.
____ 22b. I am paid enough money.
____ 23a. I have the satisfaction of helping people.
____ 23b. I have good opportunities for salary increases.
____ 24a. I enjoy the company of my colleagues.
____ 24b. I can save money.
____ 25a. I use my great potential.
____ 25b. I have an influential position.
____ 26a. I do things independently.
____ 26b. My coworkers are my friends.
I prefer work in which:

_____ 27a. I can be creative and use my intellect.
_____ 27b. I have an opportunity to teach.
_____ 28a. I have the freedom to do things the way I want to do them.
_____ 28b. My physical surroundings are pleasant.
_____ 29a. I serve others.
_____ 29b. I have high status.
_____ 30a. I am secure in my job at all times.
_____ 30b. Superiors and subordinates get along well with each other.
_____ 31a. I teach and do research.
_____ 31b. I have adequate facilities.
_____ 32a. I can feel I did the job well.
_____ 32b. I satisfy a number of clients.
_____ 33a. My job is secure.
_____ 33b. I have adequate physical facilities.
_____ 34a. I have a steady job.
_____ 34b. I can be an academician.
_____ 35a. I get along well with others.
_____ 35b. I can explore theories of management.
_____ 36a. I like my superiors and subordinates.
_____ 36b. I have all the facilities I need.
MANAGERIAL WORK-VALUES SCALE SCORING SHEET

*Instructions:* Please transfer your scores from the questionnaire to this scoring sheet. Note that the blanks do not necessarily follow in order. Be sure to transfer your scores to the correct blank. When you have transferred all of your scores, total each of the nine columns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Creativity</th>
<th>Economics</th>
<th>Independence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a. _____</td>
<td>1b. _____</td>
<td>2a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a. _____</td>
<td>4a. _____</td>
<td>7a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a. _____</td>
<td>11a. _____</td>
<td>9a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16a. _____</td>
<td>14a. _____</td>
<td>16b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21a. _____</td>
<td>18a. _____</td>
<td>17a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25a. _____</td>
<td>22b. _____</td>
<td>22a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27a. _____</td>
<td>23b. _____</td>
<td>26a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32a. _____</td>
<td>24b. _____</td>
<td>28a. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Academics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2b. _____</td>
<td>3a. _____</td>
<td>3b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a. _____</td>
<td>7b. _____</td>
<td>5b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12a. _____</td>
<td>10a. _____</td>
<td>9b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14b. _____</td>
<td>13a. _____</td>
<td>11b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15a. _____</td>
<td>19a. _____</td>
<td>27b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20a. _____</td>
<td>23a. _____</td>
<td>31b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25b. _____</td>
<td>29a. _____</td>
<td>34b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29b. _____</td>
<td>32b. _____</td>
<td>35b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Security</th>
<th>Collegiality</th>
<th>Work Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4b. _____</td>
<td>6b. _____</td>
<td>10b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8b. _____</td>
<td>19b. _____</td>
<td>12b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13b. _____</td>
<td>20b. _____</td>
<td>18b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15b. _____</td>
<td>24a. _____</td>
<td>21b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17b. _____</td>
<td>26b. _____</td>
<td>28b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30a. _____</td>
<td>30b. _____</td>
<td>31b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33a. _____</td>
<td>35a. _____</td>
<td>33b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34a. _____</td>
<td>36a. _____</td>
<td>36b. _____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MANAGERIAL WORK-VALUES SCALE INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your total score from each of the nine dimensions on the preceding page to the chart below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegiality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The higher your score for a particular dimension, the more value you place on that dimension. On the lines below, list your top-ranked work value (the one with the highest score) on line 1, the second-ranked work value on line 2, and so on through line 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following list explains what each dimension indicates:

1. **Creativity** reflects the extent to which the respondent prefers a job that allows opportunities for achievement and creativity, one in which he or she can use original ideas and have a sense of accomplishment.

2. **Economics** correlates to how much a person values the financial or monetary aspects of a job.

3. **Independence** corresponds to the respondent’s preference for a job in which he or she can work without interference from others and/or without depending on others in order to do a good job.

4. **Status** relates to a person’s values regarding status, prestige, and the need to be respected by others.

5. **Service** refers to the respondent’s desire for work in which he or she can be of service to others.

6. **Academics** indicates a preference for teaching and research-related work.

7. **Security** points to the extent to which a person prefers a secure and permanent job as protection from an uncertain future.

8. **Collegiality** shows the degree to which a person likes to have co-workers, superiors, and subordinates who are friendly and easy to work with.

9. **Work Conditions** refers to the person’s concerns about physical facilities and other work conditions.
MANAGERIAL WORK-VALUES SCALE ACTION PLAN

Instructions: Use the data from the interpretation sheet to evaluate your current job. The work-value dimensions you value most may or may not be present in your job. The following action plan will allow you to outline ways to get more of the dimensions you value most. List your work values in rank order and then assess the degree to which your current job satisfies these values, using a scale of high, medium, and low satisfaction. As an option, you may choose to retake the Managerial Work-Values Scale, responding to the statements from the frame of reference of your present job. The results of the second survey then can be compared with the results of the first survey and an action plan created from that point.

My work values: Degree to which my job satisfies these values:

1. ________________________________ _________________
2. ________________________________ _________________
3. ________________________________ _________________
4. ________________________________ _________________
5. ________________________________ _________________
6. ________________________________ _________________
7. ________________________________ _________________
8. ________________________________ _________________
9. ________________________________ _________________

ACTION PLAN

The outline on the next page allows you to look at the degree to which your job satisfies your work values and make action plans for maintaining the dimensions you like and for changing the dimensions you do not like. Perhaps you rated your job as “high” in satisfying most of your key work values; you might use the outline to make a plan for maintaining that satisfaction. If you rated your job as “low” or “medium” in its ability to satisfy certain work values, decide on the changes you desire and fill out the action plan accordingly.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Value</th>
<th>Change Desired</th>
<th>Assistance Needed</th>
<th>By Whom</th>
<th>Time Line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—BEHAVIOR (MAO-B)

Udai Pareek

A person’s behavior is the result of several factors or motives. A knowledge of the typical, primary motivators of the behavior of people in a work setting can help managers and consultants to deal more effectively with those people. The first step in developing such knowledge is to become aware of one’s own patterns of organizational behavior and to identify one’s own primary motives. The Motivational Analysis of Organizations—Behavior (MAO-B) instrument enables the respondents to identify which of six primary factors motivates their own behavior in their organizational settings. The instrument can be used in managerial and supervisory training, as part of a human resource development (HRD) or team-building program, and for personal growth and development.

RATIONALE FOR THE INSTRUMENT

Murray (1938) developed a long list of human motives or needs. Murray’s work inspired further studies, which have produced different lists of significant behavioral motives. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) suggested three important motives (achievement, affiliation, and power) and also suggested elaborate methods for measuring them. McClelland subsequently demonstrated the importance of the achievement motive for entrepreneurship and marketing (McClelland, 1961; McClelland & Winter, 1971) and of power as a motivator in management (McClelland, 1975; McClelland & Burnham, 1976). He further attempted to identify a pattern of leadership motivation in which power plays a critical role (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Litwin and Stringer (1968) used the three motives of achievement, affiliation, and power in their study of organizational climates and found these motives useful for the study of organizational behavior.

Although McClelland’s study of achievement and affiliation motives showed them to be rather simple variables, he found the motive of power to be a complex one. As he suggested during his study of power (McClelland, 1975), the desire for power contains both an urge to control others and an urge to make an impact. McClelland called these variables personalized power and socialized power. Thus, McClelland seems to suggest three different elements in the power motive: the need to control others (personalized power), the need to make an impact on others, and the need to use power in doing something for other persons and groups—such as in organizations (socialized power). It is helpful to make clear distinctions among these three. Control seems to be focused around keeping track of developments according to an agreed-on plan to be informed.
about “how things are going.” This seems to be an important need or motive in managerial behavior. The so-called socialized dimension of power (reflected in the use of power for the benefit of others) seems to be a separate need or motive. Pareek (1968a, 1968b) suggests that this need is important for social development and calls it the extension motive.

Another motive that is relevant for organizational behavior is that of dependence. Although it generally has been regarded as a negative force, McGregor (1966) recognized the positive value of dependence in management, and Kotter (1979) further drew attention to its importance. Levinson (1982) pointed out the importance of dependence in the development of managers. This need is acknowledged in the process of mentoring (Levinson, 1982), which has received considerable attention in the recent management literature (e.g., Kram, 1985).

Thus, six primary needs or motives that are relevant to an understanding of the behavior of people in organizations have been identified. These are as follows:

1. **Achievement:** Characterized by concern for excellence, competition with the standards of excellence set by others or by oneself, the setting of challenging goals for oneself, awareness of the hurdles that stand in the way of achieving those goals, and persistence in trying alternative paths to one’s goals.

2. **Affiliation:** Characterized by a concern for establishing and maintaining close, personal relationships, a value on friendship, and a tendency to express one’s emotions.

3. **Influence:** Characterized by concern with making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right, and an urge to change matters and (develop) people.

4. **Control:** Characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to be and stay informed, and an urge to monitor and take corrective action when needed.

5. **Extension:** Characterized by a concern for others; an interest in superordinate goals; and an urge to be useful to larger groups, including society.

6. **Dependence:** Characterized by seeking the help of others in one’s own self-development, checking with significant others (those who are more knowledgeable than oneself or have higher status, experts, close associates, etc.), submitting ideas or proposals for approval, and having an urge to maintain an “approval” relationship.

All these needs or motives can be used in explaining the behavior of people in organizations. However, each of these motives can have two dimensions: approach and avoidance. Atkinson (1953) first suggested the concept of avoidance behavior in discussing the achievement motive. It was further elaborated by several authors (Birney & Burdick, 1969; Heckhausen, 1967), and “fear of failure” emerged as an important component of the achievement motive, distinct from “hope of success,” the other component. Much research has been done on fear of failure, which has been found to be
dysfunctional although related to the achievement motive. For example, Varga (1977) showed that hope of success versus fear of failure (approach versus avoidance) was the most important intervening variable in explaining who benefited from achievement-motivation training programs as measured by an increase in entrepreneurial activity. People who were high in achievement motivation but also had a high component of fear of failure failed to start new businesses, in contrast to those who had a high component of hope of success. The concept of approach versus avoidance also is applicable to components of other motivators.

The six motives of achievement, affiliation, influence, control, extension, and dependence have been used in studying the behavior of people in organizations, and no further important managerial motives have been identified. Table 1 summarizes the approach and avoidance dimensions of each of the six motives. The behavior of a manager or employee thus can be analyzed not only in terms of the six primary motives but also from the perspective of (positive) approach or (negative) avoidance, reflected by hope or fear.

Table 1. Approach and Avoidance Dimensions of Six Motives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives</th>
<th>Approach (Hope of)</th>
<th>Avoidance (Fear of)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Success</td>
<td>Failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Inclusion</td>
<td>Exclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>Irrelevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>Impotence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Order</td>
<td>Chaos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Loneliness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An employee’s effectiveness may result from the existence or lack of a particular motivator or from the extent of the approach or avoidance dimension of a particular motivator. The motive, however strong it may be, may be made ineffective by a high degree of fear, i.e., high avoidance behavior. Thus, a high score for a motive on the MAO-B instrument must be assessed in relation to the number of avoidance items in the total score. High avoidance clearly can reduce an individual’s effectiveness.

THE INSTRUMENT

The Motivational Analysis of Organizations—Behavior (MAO-B) instrument was developed to study manager or employee behavior in an organization. The MAO-B contains sixty items, five for each dimension (approach and avoidance) of each of the six previously discussed motives.

Scoring

The total score for each dimension (approach and avoidance) of the six motives can range from 5 to 20. The respondent’s operating effectiveness quotient (OEQ) for each of
the six motive-specific aspects of behavior, defined by the net score of approach dimensions, can be obtained by using the formula

\[
\frac{P-5}{P+V-10} \times 100.
\]

“P” and “V” represent total scores for approach and avoidance dimensions, respectively, of a motive-specific behavior. Table 2 can be used to find the OEQ for each motive-related behavior.

Table 2. Operating Effectiveness Quotients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Avoidance Scores</th>
<th>Approach Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0 50 67 75 80 83 85 87 89 90 91 92 92 93 93 93 93 93 97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0 33 50 60 67 71 75 78 80 82 83 85 86 87 87 87 87 87 87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0 25 40 50 57 62 67 70 73 75 77 78 80 81 82 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0 20 33 43 50 55 60 64 67 69 71 73 75 76 78 79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0 17 28 37 44 50 54 58 61 64 67 69 70 72 74 75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0 14 25 33 40 45 50 54 59 60 62 65 67 68 70 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0 12 22 30 36 42 46 50 53 56 59 61 63 65 67 68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0 11 20 27 33 38 43 47 50 53 55 58 60 62 64 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0 10 18 25 31 36 40 44 47 50 53 55 57 59 61 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0 9 17 23 28 33 37 41 44 47 50 52 54 56 58 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0 8 15 21 27 31 35 39 42 45 48 50 52 54 56 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0 8 14 20 25 29 33 37 40 43 45 48 50 52 54 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0 7 13 19 23 28 32 35 38 41 43 46 48 50 52 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0 7 12 18 22 26 30 33 36 39 42 44 46 48 50 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0 6 12 17 21 25 29 32 35 37 40 42 44 46 48 50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability

The test-retest reliability coefficients for the six dimensions of role behavior (based on a sample of fifty, two months apart) are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MAO-B Variable</th>
<th>Reliability Coefficient</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All of the coefficients are very high, significant at the .001 level. The instrument is thus a highly reliable one.

**Internal Factors**

The MAO-B scores of about 500 employees of a large bank were factor analyzed, rotated by the varimax method. Only those factors with an eigenvalue of 1 or above were taken, extracting in all five factors. The five factors showed that the MAO-B has one factor of personal responsibility, one factor reflecting fear of responsibility, two positive factors related to people (one of personal growth with the help of others and the other encompassing human concern), and one factor of integration and centralization of tasks. Achievement, influence, and control contributed to the personal responsibility factor, whereas dependence and affiliation emerged as independent factors. Extension motivation was distributed into the various factors. Three motives emerged in the behavior of employees; these can be called the achievement motive, the task motive, and the affiliation (or human relationship) motive.

**Validity**

The relationship between effective role behavior (as reflected by the operating effectiveness quotient) and some personality variables was found in a study of five hundred employees, a sample of the employees of a large multi-locational firm. The levels of significance of the correlations appear in Table 3.1

As can be seen from the table, all dimensions of effective role behavior are positively correlated with role efficacy (see Pareek, 1980a, 1980b). It can be said that people who experience higher role efficacy use more effective role behavior on all dimensions. The same is true of the two dimensions of locus of control, internality and externality (see Pareek, 1982). Two types of external locus of control were discovered using the scale by Levenson (1972,1973): externality events caused by others and externality events caused by chance. The correlation values were significant in the expected direction for all dimensions of role-behavior effectiveness. However, the correlation between the control dimension and internality was not found to be significant. It can be concluded that, on the whole, people having a higher external locus of control show less effective role behavior, and those having a higher internal locus of control show more effective role behavior (except, perhaps, on the control dimension).

As can be seen in Table 3, effective role behavior had a significantly negative correlation with the total role-stress score (see Pareek, 1983). Of the total for role stress, four of six correlations were significant at the .001 level; for the “extension” dimension, the correlation was significant at .004; and for affiliation, it was at .002. The correlation value of both of these dimensions (which are of an interpersonal nature) with two role stresses (role isolation and role erosion) were not significant. The correlation value of

---

1 A minus sign indicates that the correlations were negative.
role ambiguity and of role stagnation was not significant respectively with the extension and affiliation dimensions. In summary, people who use more effective role behavior in general experience less role stress. This is particularly true of work-oriented role behavior.

Table 3 also shows the values of correlation between effective role behavior and strategies for coping with stress (avoidance and approach strategies). Effectiveness (OEQ) for all dimensions of role behavior had significant negative correlation with avoidance strategies and significant positive correlation with approach strategies (except for the affiliation dimension, for which the value was not significant). For the avoidance strategies, the correlations were significant at .001 for achievement and influence; at .004 for control; at .014 for extension; and at .036 and .044 for affiliation and dependence. For the approach strategies, the values were significant at .002, .001, and .004 for achievement, influence, and control, respectively, and at .014 and .018 for dependence and extension. It can be concluded that people who demonstrate effective role behavior generally use approach strategies in coping with role stress.

**Norms**

The mean values for the MAO-B scores of a sample of five hundred employees from four banks (Sen, 1982) for the approach and avoidance dimensions and the OEQ are shown in Table 4. These tentatively can be used as cutoff points for interpretation of the

---

*Table 3. Level of Significance of Correlation Between Role Effectiveness Dimensions and Other Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other Variables</th>
<th>Role Effectiveness Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Role Efficacy</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Internality</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Externality (Others)</td>
<td>–.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Externality (Chance)</td>
<td>–.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Externality (Total)</td>
<td>–.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Role Stress</td>
<td>–.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Coping Strategy (Avoidance)</td>
<td>–.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Coping Strategy (Approach)</td>
<td>–.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
Table 4. Mean Values for a Sample of Five Hundred Bank Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Avoidance</th>
<th>OEQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

scores. However, norms should be developed for different groups. The mean values for different levels of employees, as well as different age groups, are shown in Table 5a and 5b.

**ADMINISTERING THE MAO-B INSTRUMENT**

The MAO-B instrument can be administered in a group. The participants should be told that the instrument is meant to provide a profile of motivational aspects of role behavior and that there are no right or wrong answers. If the instrument is used for HRD purposes, the instrument results can be used to help individuals and the group to plan for increased effectiveness in their roles.

If the instrument is used with students of management, they should be asked to respond to the instrument as they would if they were in managerial positions in an organization. The scores can then be discussed to show the motivational trends of the students.

The concepts underlying the instrument should be presented after the respondents have obtained profiles of their motivational tendencies.

Table 5. Mean Values for Levels and Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Top Mgmt</th>
<th>Senior Mgmt</th>
<th>Supervisory</th>
<th>Tellers</th>
<th>&lt;25</th>
<th>26-30</th>
<th>31-35</th>
<th>36-40</th>
<th>41-45</th>
<th>46-50</th>
<th>&gt;50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
USE OF THE MAO-B INSTRUMENT

The MAO-B can be used for self-analysis, for individual counseling, and for organizational and human resource training and development. A respondent can examine his or her scores and then plan to reduce the avoidance behavior of a motive for which he or she received a low OEQ score by examining the related items on the instrument and inferring the behavioral implications. In counseling work, both the counselor and the client can complete the instrument from the client’s perspective; then the counselor can help the client to plan new behavior.

In an HRD or OD training program, the participants can look at their profiles, request feedback from other participants, and then discuss in trios ways of increasing their effectiveness by reducing their avoidance behaviors for the relevant motives. The instrument also can be used in organization development and consulting work to obtain group profiles, to search for organizational factors to explain the profiles, to develop organizational strategies to improve the profiles, and to develop individual strategies to increase employees’ operating effectiveness for the various motives.

REFERENCES


MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—BEHAVIOR (MAOB)

Udai Pareek

Instructions: This inventory can help you to understand how different motivations can affect your behavior and your performance at work. There are no “right” or “wrong” responses; the inventory will reflect your own perceptions of how you act at work, so you will gain the most value from it if you answer honestly. Do not spend too much time on any one item; generally, your first reaction is the most accurate.

For each of the statements, refer to the following scale and decide which number represents how often you engage in the behavior or have the feeling described. Then write that number in the blank to the left of the statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rarely/ Never</th>
<th>Sometimes/ Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/ Frequently</th>
<th>Usually/ Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I enjoy working on moderately difficult (challenging) tasks and goals.
2. I am overly emotional.
3. I am forceful in my arguments.
4. I refer matters to my superiors.
5. I keep close track of things (monitor action).
6. I make contributions to charity and help those in need.
7. I set easy goals and achieve them.
8. I relate very well to people.
9. I am preoccupied with my own ideas and am a poor listener.
10. I follow my ideals.
11. I demand conformity from the people who work for or with me.
12. I take steps to develop the people who work for me.
13. I strive to exceed performance/targets.
14. I ascribe more importance to personal relationships than to organizational matters.
15. I build on the ideas of my subordinates or others.
16. I seek the approval of my superiors.
17. I ensure that things are done according to plan.
18. I consider the difficulties of others even at the expense of the task.
19. I am afraid of making mistakes.
20. I share my feelings with others.
22. I have genuine respect for experienced people.
23. I admonish people for not completing tasks.
24. I go out of my way to help the people who work for me.
25. I search for new ways to overcome difficulties.
26. I have difficulty in expressing negative feelings to others.
27. I set myself as an example and model for others.
28. I hesitate to make hard decisions.
29. I define roles and procedures for the people who work for me.
30. I undergo personal inconvenience for the sake of others.
31. I am more conscious of my limitations or weaknesses than of my strengths.
32. I take interest in matters of personal concern to the people who work for me.
33. I am laissez faire in my leadership style (do not care how things happen).
34. I learn from those who are senior to me.
35. I centralize most tasks to ensure that things are done properly.
36. I have empathy and understanding for the people who work for me.
37. I want to know how well I have been doing and I use feedback to improve myself.
38. I avoid conflict in the interest of group feelings.
39. I provide new suggestions and ideas.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rarely/ Never</th>
<th>Sometimes/ Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/ Frequently</th>
<th>Usually/ Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**40.** I try to please others.

**41.** I explain systems and procedures clearly to the people who work for me.

**42.** I tend to take responsibility for others’ work in order to help them.

**43.** I show low self-confidence.

**44.** I recognize and respond to the feelings of others.

**45.** I receive credit for work done in a team.

**46.** I seek help from those who know the subject.

**47.** In case of difficulties, I rush to correct things.

**48.** I develop teamwork among the people who work for me.

**49.** I work effectively under pressure of deadlines.

**50.** I am uneasy and less productive when working alone.

**51.** I give credit and recognition to others.

**52.** I look for support for my actions and proposals.

**53.** I enjoy positions of authority.

**54.** I hesitate to take strong actions because of human considerations.

**55.** I complain about difficulties and problems.

**56.** I take the initiative in making friends with my colleagues.

**57.** I am quite conscious of status symbols such as furniture, size of office, etc.

**58.** I like to solicit ideas from others.

**59.** I tend to form small groups to influence decisions.

**60.** I like to accept responsibility in the group’s work.
MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—BEHAVIOR (MAO-B) SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your responses from the MAO-B inventory to the appropriate spaces on this sheet. If you entered the number 2 in the blank to the left of item 1, enter a 2 in the blank after the number 1 below; if you entered a 4 as your response to item 13, enter a 4 in the blank to the right of the number 13 below, and so on until you have entered all your responses in the spaces below.

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now sum the numbers that you have entered in each vertical column and enter the totals in the blanks provided. These totals are your scores for the approach-avoidance dimensions of each of the six primary motivators of people’s behavior on the job. Transfer these totals to the appropriate blanks in the two middle columns below.

Achievement A (approach) _____ a (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____
Influence B (approach) _____ b (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____
Control C (approach) _____ c (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____
Dependence D (approach) _____ d (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____
Extension E (approach) _____ e (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____
Affiliation F (approach) _____ f (avoidance) _____ OEQ _____

To compute your operating effectiveness quotient (OEQ) for each motivator, find the value for your approach (capital letter) score for the motivator along the top row of the table that follows, and then find your avoidance (lowercase letter) score for that motivator in the left column. The number in the cell that intersects the column and row is your OEQ score for the motivator. Transfer that score to the tally marked “OEQ” at the bottom of the previous page. Do this for each motivator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Avoidance Scores</th>
<th>Approach Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0 50 67 75 80 83 85 87 89 90 91 92 92 93 93 97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0 33 50 60 67 71 75 78 80 82 83 85 86 87 87 88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0 25 40 50 57 62 67 70 73 75 77 78 80 81 82 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0 20 33 43 50 55 60 64 67 69 71 73 75 76 78 79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0 17 28 37 44 50 54 58 61 64 67 69 70 72 74 75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0 14 25 33 40 45 50 54 59 60 62 65 67 68 70 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0 12 22 30 36 42 46 50 53 56 59 61 63 65 67 68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0 11 20 27 33 38 43 47 50 53 55 58 60 62 64 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0 10 18 25 31 36 40 44 47 50 53 55 57 59 61 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0 9 17 23 28 33 37 41 44 47 50 52 54 56 58 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0 8 15 21 27 31 35 39 42 45 48 50 52 54 56 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0 8 14 20 25 29 33 37 40 43 45 48 50 52 54 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0 7 13 19 23 28 32 35 38 41 43 46 48 50 52 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0 7 12 18 22 26 30 33 36 39 42 44 46 48 50 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0 6 12 17 21 25 29 32 35 37 40 42 44 46 48 50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When you have completed this process for all of your scores, you will have a numerical picture of what typically motivates your behavior at work, whether you respond positively (approach) or negatively (avoidance) to each of the six typical motivators, and how your responses to each motivator influence your operating effectiveness.
MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—CLIMATE (MAO-C)

Udai Pareek

Most organizations have a structure (division of work into units and establishment of linkages among units) and systems (specific ways of managing the major functions of the organization, such as finance, production, marketing, personnel, information, and the relationship with the external environment). Most also have norms (accepted patterns of behavior), values, and traditions; and these three elements constitute the organizational culture. The main actors in the organization are its top leaders; they and the other employees have their own individual needs in addition to those of the organization. All of these organizational components—structure, systems, culture, leader behavior, and psychological needs of employees—interact with one another and create what can be called organizational climate.

Organizational climate can only be discussed in terms of how it is perceived or felt by organizational members. Consequently, a climate may be perceived as hostile or supportive, as conducive to achievement or stifling, and so on. Hellriegel and Slocum (1974, p. 225)—adapting the concepts suggested by Beer (1971); Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970); Dachler (1973); and Schneider (1973)—defined organizational climate as “a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organization and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way that organization and/or its subsystems deal with their members and environment.”

Although most authors have used organizational climate as a descriptive concept, some have used it for classifying organizations into categories. For example, Burns and Stalker (1961) describe organic versus mechanical climates, whereas Likert (1967) proposes four types of climates: exploitive, benevolent, consultative, and participative. Such frameworks generally use described categories. Only one framework, proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968), emphasizes the effect of organizational climate on the motivation of its members. In a rigorous study Litwin and Stringer simulated three different climates (each fostering, respectively, achievement, affiliation, and power motives) and monitored the effects of these climates on productivity. Because climate affects people’s motivation (for example, Likert, 1967), a framework based on motivation seems to be quite relevant in studying organizational climate.
SIX MOTIVES CONNECTED WITH ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Six motives are particularly appropriate in developing a framework that facilitates analysis of the connection between organizational climate and motivation: 1

1. Achievement. This motive is characterized by concern for excellence, competition in terms of the standards set by others or by oneself, the setting of challenging goals for oneself, awareness of the obstacles that might be encountered in attempting to achieve these goals, and persistence in trying alternative paths to one’s goals.

2. Affiliation. Affiliation is characterized by a concern for establishing and maintaining close, personal relationships; an emphasis on friendship; and a tendency to express one’s emotions.

3. Expert influence. This motive is characterized by a concern for making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right, and an urge to change situations and to develop people.

4. Control. Control is characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to be and stay informed, an urge to monitor events and to take corrective action when needed, and a need to display personal power.

5. Extension. Extension is characterized by a concern for others; an interest in superordinate goals; and an urge to be relevant and useful to large groups, including society.

6. Dependency. This motive is characterized by a desire for the assistance of others in developing oneself, a need to check with significant others (those who are more knowledgeable or have higher status, experts, close associates, and so on), a tendency to submit ideas or proposals for approval, and an urge to maintain a relationship based on the other person’s approval.

TWELVE DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Likert (1967) proposed six dimensions of organizational climate (leadership, motivation, communication, decisions, goals, and control), while Litwin and Stringer (1968) proposed seven dimensions (conformity, responsibility, standards, rewards, organizational clarity, warmth and support, and leadership). A review of their studies and those of others indicates that twelve processes or dimensions of organizational climate relate specifically to motivation:

1. Orientation. The dominant orientation of an organization is the main concern of its members, and this dimension is an important determinant of climate. If the dominant orientation or concern is to adhere to established rules, the climate will be characterized

---

1 These six motives are also discussed in “Motivational Analysis of Organizations—Behavior (MAO-B)” by U. Pareek, 1986, in J.W. Pfeiffer & L.D. Goodstein (Eds.), The 1986 Annual: Developing Human Resources (pp. 121-133), San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer & Company.
by control; on the other hand, if the orientation is to excel, the climate will be characterized by achievement.

2. **Interpersonal relationships.** An organization’s interpersonal-relations processes are reflected in the way in which informal groups are formed, and these processes affect climate. For example, if groups are formed for the purpose of protecting their own interests, cliques may develop and a climate of control may result; similarly, if people tend to develop informal relationships with their supervisors, a climate of dependency may result.

3. **Supervision.** Supervisory practices contribute significantly to climate. If supervisors focus on helping their subordinates to improve personal skills and chances of advancement, a climate characterized by the extension motive may result; if supervisors are more concerned with maintaining good relations with their subordinates, a climate characterized by the affiliation motive may result.

4. **Problem management.** Problems can be seen as challenges or as irritants. They can be solved by the supervisor or jointly by the supervisor and the subordinate(s) concerned, or they can be referred to a higher level. These different perspectives and ways of handling problems contribute to the creation of an organization’s climate.

5. **Management of mistakes.** Supervisors’ attitudes toward subordinate mistakes develop the organizational orientation, which is generally one of annoyance or concern or tolerance. An organization’s approach to mistakes influences the climate.

6. **Conflict management.** Conflicts may be seen as embarrassing annoyances to be covered up or as problems to be solved. The process of dealing with conflicts has as significant an effect on climate as that of handling problems or mistakes.

7. **Communication.** Communication, another important determinant of climate, is concerned with the flow of information: its direction (top-down, bottom-up, horizontal), its dispersement (selectively or to everyone concerned), its mode (formal or informal), and its type (instructions or feedback on the state of affairs).

8. **Decision making.** An organization’s approach to decision making can be focused on maintaining good relations or on achieving results. In addition, the issue of who makes decisions is important: people high in the hierarchy, experts, or those involved in the matters about which decisions are made. These elements of decision making are relevant to the establishment of a particular climate.

9. **Trust.** The degree of trust or its absence among various members and groups in the organization affects climate. The issue of who is trusted by management and to what degree is also relevant.

10. **Management of rewards.** Rewards reinforce specific behaviors, thereby arousing and sustaining specific motives. Consequently, what is rewarded in an organization influences the motivational climate.
11. **Risk taking.** How people respond to risks and whose help is sought in situations involving risk are important determinants of climate.

12. **Innovation and change.** Who initiates change, how change and innovation are perceived, and how change is implemented are all critical in establishing climate.

The way in which these twelve dimensions of climate operate in an organization indicates the underlying motive of top management and the principal motive that is likely to be generated and sustained within the organization’s population. When the twelve dimensions are combined with the six motives discussed previously, a matrix is formed that can be useful in diagnosing the motivational climate of an organization.

**THE INSTRUMENT**

The Motivational Analysis of Organizations—Climate (MAO-C) instrument was developed to study organizational climate, specifically with regard to motivation. The instrument employs the twelve dimensions of organizational climate and the six motives previously described. It consists of twelve categories, each of which includes six statements; each of the twelve categories corresponds to one of the twelve climatic dimensions, and each of the six statements represents one of the six motives. Respondents work individually to rank order the six statements within each separate category according to their perceptions of how much each statement is like the situation in their organization (or unit, branch, division, or department within the organization).

**Scoring and Interpretation**

Usually organizational-climate instruments require respondents to rate organizational processes, and respondents tend to assign ratings in the middle of the scale provided for this purpose. The MAO-C, in contrast, is based on rankings so that the respondent cannot escape in the “golden middle.”

After completing the instrument, the respondent refers to the scoring key to discover which motives are indicated by his or her responses and then transfers rankings of motives to the matrix. Then the respondent adds the numbers in each vertical column of the matrix and writes the totals in the appropriate blanks; each of these totals is the score for the related motive or motivational climate. These scores can range from 12 to 72. Next the respondent refers to the conversion table, locates the total for each motive, and writes the corresponding MAO-C index number in the blank provided. The indexes can range from 0 to 100. The following formula was used to arrive at the index for each motive:

\[
\text{Index} = \frac{(S-12) \times 100}{60}
\]

For each horizontal row on the matrix representing a dimension of organizational climate, the dominant motive (the one with the highest number in the row) and the
backup motive (the one with the next-highest number) are noted in the blanks provided (see the two vertical columns on the extreme right of the matrix). The dominant and backup columns are helpful in diagnosing and in planning action to improve the motivational climate of the organization or unit involved. Finally, the respondent determines which motives appear most often in the dominant and backup columns and writes these motives in the blanks provided for overall dominant motive and overall backup motive.

An organization may total all respondents’ index numbers for each motive and then average the numbers for an overall organizational index of each; or the total of the numbers in each vertical column of the individual respondents’ matrices can be added and averaged and the index number written, using the conversion table. The advantage of the index is to show the relative strength of the climate with regard to the motives; the cutoff point is 50. If the index number for a particular dimension is greater than 50, the climate is relatively strong in that dimension; if the index number is less than 50, the climate is relatively weak in that dimension. The index also helps in comparing organizations or units within an organization.

Reliability
Retest reliability of the MAO-C has been reported by Sen (1982) and by Surti (1982).

Validity
Validity studies have not been done for the MAO-C. However, indirect evidence of the instrument’s validity has been provided as a result of other research on organizational climate. Research on organizational climate as an independent measure and measures of organizational effectiveness share enough in common to warrant some generalizations. Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) have summarized these generalizations as a significant relationship between climate and both job satisfaction and performance.

Deci (1980) suggested three different kinds of environments as being associated with three different attributional patterns. A “responsive and informational” environment (in the terms of the MAO-C, one that is characterized by achievement and expert influence) has been linked with internality; a “controlling and demanding” environment (one characterized by control and dependency) has been linked with externality; and a “nonresponsive and capricious” environment has been linked with “impersonality.”

Organizational environments and climate seem to influence the development of internality. Baumgartel, Rajan, and Newman (1985), using four indices of organizational environment (freedom-growth, human relations, performance pressure, and personal benefit) found clear evidence of the influence of organizational environments on locus of control. They concluded that internality could be developed by creating educational and work environments characterized by freedom to set personal performance goals, opportunity for personal growth, and opportunity to influence important events or conditions.
A regression analysis of data from 320 professional women, using role efficacy as a variable, showed that of the fourteen variables that finally emerged in the regression, organizational climate alone explained about 34 percent of the variance, thereby exhibiting a great effect on role efficacy (Surti, 1982).

Theoretically (see, for example, Litwin & Stringer, 1968), one might predict a negative relationship between organizational effectiveness and climates characterized by affiliation, dependence, and control. Litwin and Stringer (1968) found that an authoritarian climate (referred to in the MAO-C as a “control” climate) produced low job satisfaction and low performance. A climate characterized by achievement, extension, and expert influence might be assumed to be related to higher job satisfaction and performance. Using Litwin and Stringer’s instrument, Cawsey (reported in Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974) found higher job satisfaction among insurance personnel who perceived the motivational climate as one of achievement.

One study reported on the administration of the MAO-C to 392 executives of a manufacturing firm (Khanna, 1986). Each executive was instructed to complete the MAO-C by evaluating the climate or culture of his or her specific unit or department (as opposed to that of the entire organization). Correlations were noted between the six perceived motives or motivational climates and measures of organizational effectiveness (consisting of consensus, legitimization, the need for independence, self-control, job involvement, innovation, organizational commitment, organizational attachment, and job satisfaction). The climates were also correlated with total satisfaction, that is, satisfaction with work and with the organization as a whole. No significant correlation was found between the climates and the need for independence, self-control, and innovation. With regard to job involvement, the only positive correlation significant at the .05 level was with an achievement climate.

In the same study there were positive correlations (significant at the .01 level) between five other aspects of organizational effectiveness (organizational commitment, organizational attachment, job satisfaction, total satisfaction, and total effectiveness) and an achievement climate, and there was a negative correlation between these five aspects and a control climate. An extension climate correlated positively with organizational commitment at the .05 level and with job satisfaction, total satisfaction, and total effectiveness at the .01 level. A dependence climate showed no relationship with any measure. An affiliation climate had a negative correlation with job satisfaction at the .05 level and with total satisfaction and total effectiveness at the .01 level. A climate perceived as characterized by expert influence had only one positive correlation (at the .05 level) with organizational attachment. All correlations were in the predicted direction, although more correlations were expected with climates characterized by dependence and expert influence.

Negative correlations might be predicted between role stress and climates perceived as characterized by achievement, extension, and expert influence; and positive correlations might be predicted between role stress and climates characterized by affiliation, dependence, and control. Khanna (1986) correlated climate scores with ten
aspects of role stress and total role stress (as reported in Pareek, 1983). Specific correlations between role stress and the various climates were as follows:

- No significant correlation with a climate characterized by expert influence;
- Two positive correlations with an affiliation climate (role erosion at the .01 level and personal inadequacy at the .05 level);
- One positive correlation with a dependency climate (role stagnation at the .01 level);
- Six negative correlations with an extension climate (at the .05 level for interrole distance, role overload, and role isolation, and at the .01 level for role-expectation conflict, self-role distance, resource inadequacy, and total role stress);
- Negative correlations with an achievement climate at the .01 level for all aspects of role stress except interrole distance and personal inadequacy; and
- Positive correlations with a control climate at the .01 level for all aspects of role stress except personal inadequacy.

Similar results were reported by Sen (1982) and Surti (1982). All of these results were in the predicted directions.

In summary, organizational climate has an enormous influence on organizational effectiveness, role efficacy, and role stress. An achievement climate seems to contribute to effectiveness, satisfaction, and a sense of internality; a climate characterized by expert influence seems to contribute to organizational attachment; and a climate characterized by extension seems to contribute to organizational commitment. All of these climates foster relatively low levels of role stress. A control climate seems to lower role efficacy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational attachment, and total effectiveness and to foster relatively high levels of role stress. An affiliation climate tends to lower both satisfaction and effectiveness and increase role erosion and feelings of personal inadequacy.

**Effectiveness Profiles**

The completed matrix provides scores for all six motives tested by the MAO-C. The highest of these scores represents the perceived dominant motive within an organization. The general connections between dominant motives and particular types of organizations are shown in Figure 1.

A combination of an organization’s highest or “dominant” score and its second-highest or “backup” score results in a basic characterization of that organization’s climate. When the six motives are combined in patterns of dominant and secondary or backup styles, thirty organizational profiles are possible. Brief descriptions of these thirty profiles are provided in the following paragraphs. In each description the first motive noted represents the organization’s dominant motive, and the second represents its secondary or backup motive. Some of these profiles are based on studies that have
been conducted; others need to be studied to validate the concept. In general, climates dominated by achievement, expert power, and extension are conducive to the achievement of results, whereas climates dominated by control, dependency, and affiliation retard the achievement of results.

1. **Achievement-Expert influence.** Employees are involved in and highly stimulated by challenging tasks, and the specialists within the organization dominate in determining these tasks. The organization rewards specialization.

2. **Achievement-Control.** Most employees are involved in challenging tasks, but they face a lot of constraints attributable to rigid procedures and an inflexible hierarchy.

3. **Achievement-Dependency.** In spite of an emphasis on high achievement that is shared by most employees, there is a tendency to postpone critical decisions for the approval of a higher authority. The organization discourages making such decisions without approval from a higher level, resulting in a sense of frustration.

4. **Achievement-Extension.** Employees work on challenging tasks and devote equal attention to the social relevance of these tasks. The organization has a highly developed sense of social responsibility as well as a strong sense of its responsibility to fulfill employee needs.

5. **Achievement-Affiliation.** While employees work on challenging goals, they also form strong groups based on common interests or other factors. The organization pays a lot of attention to maintaining good relations among these cliques.

6. **Expert influence-Achievement.** The organization places a high value on specialization. The specialists influence most decisions, and they emphasize high work quality and unique contributions.

7. **Expert influence-Control.** The organization is controlled by experts who employ cumbersome procedures. The result is generally a lack of job satisfaction and low to moderate (rather than high) output.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive</th>
<th>Type of Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Industrial and business organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert influence</td>
<td>University departments and scientific organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Bureaucracies such as governmental departments and agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency</td>
<td>Traditional or autocratic organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>Community-service organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Clubs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1. Connections Between Dominant Motives and Types of Organizations*
8. **Expert influence-Dependency.** The organization has a rigid hierarchy dominated by experts. Decisions are made only at the upper levels of the hierarchy, and bright employees are highly dissatisfied.

9. **Expert influence-Extension.** Specialists play the major roles in the organization, working in a planned way on socially relevant matters. The organization pays attention to the employees’ needs and welfare.

10. **Expert influence-Affiliation.** Although the organization is dominated by experts, strong groups are formed on the basis of common interests or other factors. Because primary attention is placed on maintaining a friendly climate, results usually suffer.

11. **Control-Achievement.** The organization is bureaucratic, is run in accordance with detailed procedures, and has a clear hierarchy. Quality of work is emphasized, but most employees with an achievement orientation feel frustrated. This climate is sometimes found in public-sector organizations.

12. **Control-Expert influence.** The organization is a bureaucracy in which specialists’ opinions are valued but rules are treated as more important.

13. **Control-Dependency.** A bureaucracy and a rigid hierarchy dominate the organization. Because actions are generally referred to levels above for approval, decisions are usually delayed. It is more important to follow rules and regulations than to achieve results. The senior employees protect those subordinates who do not make any procedural mistakes. Most government offices function in this way.

14. **Control-Extension.** Although the organization is hierarchical, it emphasizes social concern and attends to the needs and welfare of its employees.

15. **Control-Affiliation.** The organization is hierarchical but places more emphasis on good relations among employees than on results. Informal groups based on relationships are seen as important. Some voluntary organizations are of this type.

16. **Dependency-Achievement.** Respect for those in positions of power is emphasized, and so is achievement. Freedom is granted to employees, with the exception that key decisions are controlled by those in power. Many family-owned organizations have such a climate.

17. **Dependency-Expert influence.** The organization has a hierarchy, with decisions made by those at higher levels. Experts play an important role in the various aspects of organizational life.

18. **Dependency-Control.** The organization has clear-cut channels of communication and is controlled by a few people who ultimately make all decisions.

19. **Dependency-Extension.** A few people dominate and control the organization and demand respect from all other members. However, they take care of the members’ needs; and the organization works in socially relevant areas.
20. **Dependency-Affiliation.** The top managers control the organization and employ their own “in-group” members, who are extremely loyal to these managers.

21. **Extension-Achievement.** The organization strives to be relevant to society and emphasizes the achievement of results. People are selected for their competence and are given freedom in doing their work.

22. **Extension-Expert influence.** Social consciousness is emphasized by the organization, and experts influence all major decisions.

23. **Extension-Control.** The organization’s goals have to do with serving a larger cause; but the structure is bureaucratic, with rules and regulations that are to be followed strictly.

24. **Extension-Dependency.** The business of the organization is community service (for example, education, health, or development). Emphasis is placed on conformity to the policies laid down by the top person or team, to whom all final decisions are referred.

25. **Extension-Affiliation.** The organization’s business is community service, and members with similar backgrounds (ideology, specialization, and so on) form strong linkages with one another.

26. **Affiliation-Achievement.** The organization places great importance on relationships and draws people with similar backgrounds. Although the organization values achievement of results and excellence in performance, rewards are given mainly on the basis of an employee’s relationship with the person or persons who are in a position to give such rewards.

27. **Affiliation-Expert influence.** The organization consists mainly of experts, emphasizes good relations, and either employs people of similar backgrounds or has cliques based on common links.

28. **Affiliation-Control.** Although the organization is concerned with maintaining good relations among members, its form is bureaucratic. (For example, a club with strict rules and procedures might be in this category.)

29. **Affiliation-Dependency.** The organization values the maintenance of friendly relations among members, and one or two people make most decisions. Employees are rewarded on the basis of their closeness to the top person(s).

30. **Affiliation-Extension.** The organization’s main goal is to maintain good relations among members, and its work involves socially relevant issues. (The Lions Club and similar organizations might be in this category.)

**Use of the Instrument**

The MAO-C can be used to diagnose organizational climate from the standpoint of motivation. The focus of the instrument can be perceptions of the overall organizational
climate or of individual units, divisions, branches, or departments within the organization. After the instrument has been administered, the respondents may individually use a rating scale to evaluate the operating effectiveness of the climate that has been analyzed. Then the administrator may lead a discussion on the basic characteristics of the different effectiveness profiles represented in the group (see the previous section). Subsequently, the respondents may discuss their individual scores and ratings and then arrive at a consensus regarding the diagnosis and evaluation of the climate, which of the twelve dimensions of organizational climate need improvement, why particular dimensions are weak, and what steps may need to be taken in response.

Another approach is to discuss individual rankings and to develop a consensus regarding the desired rankings of motives and what might be done to affect the perceived climate accordingly. Any specific action ideas that are developed may be presented to top management for discussion, approval, and commitment. Then the agreed-on action steps may be carried out and followed up with monthly reviews to determine the success of implementation.

REFERENCES


MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—CLIMATE (MAO-C)

Udai Pareek

Name ______________________________________  Title_____________________________

Instructions: Completing this inventory will allow you to evaluate the climate or culture of your organization (or your unit or department, if the administrator of this inventory instructs you to interpret the inventory in this way). Below are twelve categories representing twelve dimensions of organizational climate, and within each category are six statements. You are to rank the statements in each category from 6 (most like the situation in your organization or unit) to 1 (least like the situation in your organization or unit). Do not give the same rank to more than one statement.

Rank 1. Orientation

___ a. People here are mainly concerned with following established rules and procedures.

___ b. The main concern of people here is to help one another develop greater skills and thereby advance in the organization.

___ c. Achieving or surpassing seems to be people’s main concern here.

___ d. Consolidating one’s own personal position and influence seems to be the main concern here.

___ e. The dominant concern here is to maintain friendly relations with others.

___ f. The main concern here is to develop people’s competence and expertise.

Rank 2. Interpersonal Relationships

___ a. In this organization most informal groups are formed around experts.

___ b. The atmosphere here is very friendly, and people spend enough time in informal social relations.

___ c. In this organization strong cliques protect their own interests.

___ d. Businesslike relationships prevail here; people are warm, but they get together primarily to ensure excellence in performance.
e. People here have strong associations mostly with their supervisors and look to them for suggestions and guidance.

f. People here have a high concern for one another and tend to help one another spontaneously when such help is needed.

**Rank 3. Supervision**

a. The purpose of supervision here is usually to check for mistakes and to “catch” the person making the mistake.

b. Supervisors here strongly prefer that their subordinates ask them for instructions and suggestions.

c. Supervisors here take pains to see that their subordinates improve personal skills and chances of advancement.

d. Supervisors here reward outstanding achievement.

e. In influencing their subordinates, supervisors here try to use their expertise and competence rather than their formal authority.

f. Supervisors here are more concerned with maintaining good relations with their subordinates than with emphasizing duties and performance.

**Rank 4. Problem Management**

a. People here take problems as challenges and try to find better solutions than anyone else.

b. When problems are faced here, experts are consulted and play an important role in solving these problems.

c. In dealing with problems, people here mostly consult their friends.

d. When working on solutions to problems, people here keep in mind the needs of organizational members as well as society at large.
e. People here usually refer problems to their superiors and look to their superiors for solutions.

f. Problems here are usually solved by supervisors; subordinates are not involved.

**Rank 5. Management of Mistakes**

a. When people here make mistakes, they are not rejected; instead, their friends show them much understanding and warmth.

b. Here the philosophy is that the supervisor can make no mistake and the subordinate dare not make one.

c. Usually people here are able to acknowledge and analyze their mistakes because they can expect to receive help and support from others.

d. When a subordinate makes a mistake here, the supervisor treats it as a learning experience that can prevent failure and improve performance in the future.

e. Subordinates here expect guidance from their supervisors in correcting or preventing mistakes.

f. Here people seek the help of experts in analyzing and preventing mistakes.

**Rank 6. Conflict Management**

a. Most interpersonal and interdepartmental conflicts here arise as a result of striving for higher performance; and in analyzing and resolving these conflicts, the overriding consideration is high productivity.

b. Here conflicts are usually avoided or smoothed over to maintain the friendly atmosphere.

c. Arbitration or third-party intervention (usually performed by experienced or senior people) is sought and used here.

d. In a conflict situation here, those who are stronger force their points of view on others.
e. In resolving conflicts here, appeal is made to principles, organizational ideals, and the larger good of the organization.

f. Experts are consulted and their advice used in resolving conflicts here.

**Rank 7. Communication**

a. After due consideration those in authority here issue instructions and expect them to be carried out.

b. Most communication here is informal and friendly and arises from and contributes to warm relations.

c. People here ask for information from those who are experts on the subject.

d. Relevant information is made available to all who need it and can use it for the purpose of achieving high performance here.

e. People here communicate information, suggestions, and even criticism to others out of concern for them.

f. Communication is often selective here; people usually give or holdback crucial information as a form of control.

**Rank 8. Decision Making**

a. While making decisions, people here make special attempts to maintain cordial relations with all concerned.

b. Decisions are made at the top and communicated downward, and people here generally prefer this.

c. People who have demonstrated high achievement have a big say in the decisions made here.

d. Decisions here are generally made without involving subordinates.
e. Decisions here are made and influenced by specialists and other knowledgeable people.

f. Decisions are made here by keeping in mind the good of the employees and of society.

**Rank 9. Trust**

a. Only a few people here are trusted by management, and they are quite influential.

b. Trusting and friendly relations are highly valued here.

c. Here high value is placed on trust between supervisor and subordinate.

d. The specialists and the experts are highly trusted here.

e. A general attitude of helping generates mutual trust here.

f. Those who can achieve results are highly trusted here.

**Rank 10. Management of Rewards**

a. Here the main things that are rewarded are excellence in performance and the accomplishment of tasks.

b. Knowledge and expertise are recognized and rewarded here.

c. Loyalty is rewarded more than anything else here.

d. The people who are rewarded here are those who help their junior colleagues to achieve and develop.

e. The ability to control subordinates and maintain discipline is afforded the greatest importance in rewarding supervisors here.

f. The ability to get along well with others is highly rated and rewarded here.
Rank 11. **Risk Taking**

___ a. When confronted by risky situations, supervisors here seek the guidance and support of friends.

___ b. In risky situations supervisors here strongly emphasize discipline and obedience to orders.

___ c. In risky situations supervisors here have a strong tendency to rely on expert specialists for their advice.

___ d. Supervisors here generally go to their superiors for instructions in risky situations.

___ e. In responding to risky situations, supervisors here show great concern for the people working in the organization.

___ f. In responding to risky situations, supervisors here take calculated risks and strive above all to be more efficient or productive.

**Rank 12. Innovation and Change**

___ a. Innovation or change here is initiated and implemented primarily by experts and specialists.

___ b. Here innovation or change is primarily ordered by top management.

___ c. Before initiating innovation or change, supervisors here generally go to their superiors for sanction and guidance.

___ d. Those who initiate innovation or change here demonstrate a great concern for any possible adverse effects on others (in the organization or outside) and try to minimize these effects.

___ e. Innovation or change here is mainly initiated and implemented through highly results-oriented individuals.

___ f. Supervisors here seldom undertake innovations that disturb their existing friendships in the organization or earn the enmity of organizational members.
**MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—CLIMATE (MAO-C) MATRIX SHEET**

*Instructions:* Organizations (and units, branches, divisions, or departments within organizations) tend to be perceived as driven by one or more of six specific motives. The *scoring key* will show you which motives are indicated by your responses on the MAO-C and, therefore, which motives you perceive as driving your organization or unit; then completing this *matrix sheet* will help you arrive at a profile of the general motivational climate of your organization or unit as you perceive it. For example, for the first category or dimension of organizational climate, *Orientation*, if you ranked item *a* as 4, you would look at the scoring key and learn that *a* indicates the *dependency* motive; then you would refer to this matrix sheet and find the horizontal row that corresponds to Orientation, locate the heading “Dependency,” and write the number 4 under that heading in the Orientation row. Follow this process until you have transferred all six of your rankings for each of the twelve categories covered in the MAO-C.

Add the numbers in each vertical column of this matrix and write the totals in the blanks provided; each of these totals is your score for that particular motive. Then refer to the *conversion table*, locate your total for each motive, and write the corresponding MAO-C index number in the blank provided on this matrix sheet.

Next, for each horizontal row on the matrix, which represents a dimension of organizational climate, write the dominant motive (the one with the highest number in the row) and the backup motive (the one with the next-highest number) in the blanks provided (see the two vertical columns on the extreme right of the matrix). The dominant and backup columns are helpful in diagnosing and in planning action to improve the motivational climate of the organization or unit. Finally, determine which motives appear most often in the dominant and backup columns and write these motives in the blanks provided for *overall dominant motive* and *overall backup motive.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Organizational Climate</th>
<th>Motives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Orientation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supervision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Problem management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Management of mistakes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Conflict management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Decision making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Management of rewards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Risk taking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Innovation and change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAO-C Index</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### MOTIVATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONS—CLIMATE (MAO-C) SCORING KEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Organizational Climate</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Expert Influence</th>
<th>Extension</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Dependency</th>
<th>Affiliation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Orientation</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supervision</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Problem management</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Management of mistakes</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Conflict management</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Communication</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Decision making</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Trust</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Management of rewards</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Risk taking</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Innovation and change</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Conversion Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PATTERNS OF EFFECTIVE SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR

Henry P. Sims, Jr.

The purpose of the Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire is to identify patterns of leader behavior and to describe them in terms of an operant theory of leadership (Mawhinney & Ford, 1977; Scott, 1977; Sims, 1977). This introduction to the instrument will present a conceptual approach to leadership theory that is different from the traditional approaches of consideration/initiating structure, managerial grid, and/or contingency theory.

THEORY UNDERLYING THE INSTRUMENT

The instrument assumes a theory of leadership based on operant or reinforcement principles (Skinner, 1969). According to this theory, behavior within organizations is controlled by “contingencies of reinforcement.” Figure 1 represents a positive reinforcement contingency, which consists of three parts. The first part is a discriminative stimulus ($S^D$), which is an environmental cue that provides an individual with information about how behavior will be reinforced. A discriminative stimulus is environmental information that comes before individual behavior. The second part is the response or behavior of the individual. The behavior is followed by the administration of a reinforcer. A positive reinforcer (the third part) is a reward that is administered following a desired behavior; it has the effect of increasing the frequency of the behavior.

![Figure 1. Contingency of Positive Reinforcement](image)

$S^D$ = discriminative stimulus  
$R$ = response behavior  
$S^+$ = positive consequence

Reinforcers are frequently thought of as material benefits, that is, pay or some extrinsic incentive. In the supervisor-subordinate relationship, however, interpersonal reinforcers frequently are more potent (at least in the short term). Compliments or statements of recognition that are contingent on desirable behavior at work can have reinforcing effects that serve to increase future performance.
Another type of reinforcement contingency is punishment\(^1\) —the administration of an aversive stimulus contingent on a specific response. In leadership practice, punishment typically is used to decrease the frequency of an undesirable behavior. In work situations, leaders typically use oral reprimands or undesirable job assignments in an attempt to eliminate behavior that is undesirable or detrimental to job performance.

Both positive reinforcement and punishment are actions of the leader that follow subordinate behavior. Obviously, the behavior of the leader also can have a substantial impact on the subordinate’s successive performance. Frequently, the type of behavior that occurs before subordinate behavior can be considered a discriminative stimulus (\(S^D\)) — a cue that informs the subordinate of what behavior is expected in order to be reinforced. An example of this is a goal or objective.

These three types of leader behavior (positive reinforcement, punishment, and discriminative stimulus or goal specification) are basic elements in a leader’s behavioral repertoire. Although these classes of behavior are not exhaustive, they form the key foci for any operant-based theory of leadership.

**PURPOSE OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The Supervisory Behavior Questionnaire\(^2\) was developed for training purposes. The instrument is designed to direct the participants’ attention to three types of leader behavior: goal specification behavior (scale A), positive reward behavior (scale B), and punitive reward behavior (scale C).

The instrument is self-scored, and most participants can determine their own scores and derive a profile of the three scores with little or no assistance.

**PROCEDURE FOR ADMINISTERING THE INSTRUMENT**

Each participant is instructed to think about a job that he or she now holds or has held in the past (and, more specifically, about the supervisor on that job) and then to complete the questionnaire. Participants may need to be reminded that the questions refer to the supervisor.

After completing the questionnaire, the participants are directed to complete the self-scoring procedure and then to draw a profile of the scores of all three scales on the graph.

---

\(^1\) “Punishment” is technically distinct from “negative reinforcement,” which involves the removal of an aversive stimulus in order to increase a target behavior. However, punishment and negative reinforcement are both aversive control techniques.

\(^2\) The roots of this instrument can be traced to a leadership instrument originated by Ronald Johnson, William E. Scott, and Joseph Reitz, and originally published in Johnson (1973). Other research using similar scales has been reported by Greene (1975), Reitz (1971), Sims (1977), and Sims and Szilagyi (1975). In general, these scales have been found to possess acceptable construct validity and reliability. People wishing to use these scales for research should not use the version reported here, which is intended to be a classroom exercise, but should consult the sources listed above.
DEBRIEFING AND DISCUSSION

The facilitator begins the debriefing by initiating a process to name the three scales and, after this is done, reads the descriptive name most often used to designate the characteristics that were measured. These are supervisory goals and expectations (scale A), supervisory positive reward behavior (scale B), and supervisory punitive behavior (scale C).

A few volunteers go to the newsprint flip chart and write the names of the jobs they described and their scores for scales A, B, and C, for both the most effective and least effective supervisors. The facilitator directs each participant to briefly describe the aspects of the supervisor that prompted the scores reported (e.g., “He tells me what I will be doing next”). The facilitator then attempts to develop patterns of differentiation of scores between highly effective and highly ineffective supervisors and between conditions leading to highly satisfied and highly unsatisfied workers. The facilitator can calculate mean scores for both the most effective and the least effective supervisors.

Finally, the facilitator presents a lecturette on the theory underlying the instrument. Material from the literature of supervisory development can be assigned as backup reading or used as handouts (Hammer, 1974; Jablonsky & DeVries, 1972; Luthans & Kreitner, 1975; Mawhinney, 1975; Mawhinney & Ford, 1977; Nord, 1969; Scott, 1977; Sims, 1977; Skinner, 1969).

VARIATION

An alternative way to use the instrument is to direct the participants to provide two scores for each question: one for the supervisor and the second for how the participant would behave as a supervisor. This variation provides a self-description component.

VALUE OF THE INSTRUMENT

This instrument provides an experiential introduction to leadership theory and allows the participants to examine leadership behaviors from the perspective of their own past experiences. This personal aspect induces substantially greater interest and involvement and longer retention of the underlying theory. In addition, several opportunities exist during the debriefing phase to describe the underlying theoretical principles in terms of actual past behaviors. If accompanied by significant exposure to principles of behavior modification (Brown & Presbie, 1976; Luthans & Kreitner, 1975), the instrument offers a unique opportunity to demonstrate how leadership theory can be put into practice.

REFERENCES


SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Henry P. Sims, Jr.

Instructions: This questionnaire is part of an activity designed to explore supervisory behaviors. It is not a test; there are no right or wrong answers.

Think about supervisors (managers) you have known or know now, and then select the most effective supervisor and the least effective supervisor (effective is defined as “being able to substantially influence the effort and performance of subordinates”).

Read each of the following statements carefully. For the most effective supervisor, place an X over the number indicating how true or how untrue you believe the statement to be. For the least effective supervisor, place a circle around the number indicating how true you believe the statement to be.

Definitely Not True = 1    Slightly True = 5
Not True = 2                True = 6
Slightly Not True = 3       Definitely True = 7
Uncertain = 4

Most effective . . . X
Least effective . . . O

1. My supervisor would compliment me if I did outstanding work.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

3. My supervisor would reprimand me if my work were consistently below standards.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

4. My supervisor defines clear goals and objectives for my job.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

5. My supervisor would give me special recognition if my work performance were especially good.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

6. My supervisor would “get on me” if my work were not as good as he or she thought it should be.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

7. My supervisor would tell me if my work were outstanding.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

9. My supervisor would reprimand me if I were not making progress in my work.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING SHEET

Instructions: For each of the three scales (A, B, and C), compute a total score by summing the answers to the appropriate questions and then subtracting the number 12. Compute a score for both the most effective and the least effective supervisors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Number</th>
<th>Most Effective</th>
<th>Least Effective</th>
<th>Question Number</th>
<th>Most Effective</th>
<th>Least Effective</th>
<th>Question Number</th>
<th>Most Effective</th>
<th>Least Effective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>9.</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
<td>+ ( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtotal: ( ) ( ) ( ) Subtotal: ( ) ( ) ( ) Subtotal: ( ) ( ) ( )

- 12 - 12 - 12

Total Score _______ _______ Total Score _______ _______ Total Score _______ _______

A A B B C C

Next, on the following graph, write a large “X” to indicate the total score for scales A, B, and C for the most effective supervisor. Use a large “O” to indicate the scores for the least effective supervisor.

A. ____________________ ___________________________________________ 

<p>| | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-9</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+5</td>
<td>+7</td>
<td>+9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. ____________________ ___________________________________________ 

<p>| | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-9</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+5</td>
<td>+7</td>
<td>+9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. ____________________ ___________________________________________ 

<p>| | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-9</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+5</td>
<td>+7</td>
<td>+9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT

Gaylord Reagan

Leadership styles are not static. They can be changed to serve the needs of an individual, group, or organization. A small investment of time and energy to identify and then to consider the significance of a strategic leadership style can return big dividends. Productive individuals, groups, and organizations that willingly make this investment and accept responsibility for shaping their own futures refuse to go on “doing what comes naturally.”

THE INSTRUMENT

Theoretical Framework

Consultant Lawrence M. Miller (1989) writes:

All living things . . . exhibit patterns or cycles of development, moving from periods of vitality and growth, to periods of decay and disintegration. The pattern of business growth and decline—and the behavior of leaders—follows this same course . . . . It is natural for leaders in every stage to rely on responses they find most comfortable and to fail when they do not adopt innovative responses . . . . [The history] of corporations demonstrates this relationship, between the behavior of leaders and the cycle of growth and decline. (p. 1)

Based on this observation, Miller constructs “a theory of corporate life cycles,” which explains the natural stages of evolution experienced by organizations and the people who lead them as they confront day-to-day challenges. Miller also identifies a series of leadership styles that dominate each of the six stages of organizational life.

In designing the Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument, the author separated Miller’s Builder and Explorer styles, added the Synergist style, and sequenced the resulting styles as follows:

1. Prophet: A visionary who creates breakthroughs and has the human energy to pursue them. The Prophet adheres to a set of values and has high standards. In pursuing goals, the Prophet tends to rely on the support of a small circle of true believers.

2. Barbarian: A conqueror who commands the organization and pursues rapid growth. The Barbarian takes the Prophet’s vision and begins implementing it in a direct, pragmatic, action-oriented, and forceful manner. Adherents of this style

This instrument is based on Barbarians to Bureaucrats: Corporate Life Cycle Strategies—Lessons from the Rise and Fall of Civilizations by Lawrence M. Miller (1989), New York: Crain Publishers, Inc.
are self-confident and personally involved, and they demand complete loyalty from others.

3. **Builder:** A developer of structures required for successful organizational growth. Builders increase the efficiency of the Barbarian’s early efforts. They focus on expansion, quantity, quality, and diversification, and they initiate the shift from command to collaboration.

4. **Explorer:** A developer of skills required for successful organizational growth. Explorers increase the efficiency of the Barbarian’s early efforts. They focus on expansion, quantity, quality, diversification, and competition.

5. **Synergist:** A leader who helps the organization successfully balance expansion and the structures required to sustain that growth.

6. **Administrator:** An integrator of systems and structures to help organizations successfully shift their focus from expansion to safe and routine operation. The Administrator stresses perfecting financial and management practices but does not become involved with production operations.

7. **Bureaucrat:** An imposer of tight controls. Unlike the Prophet, the Bureaucrat has no interest in creativity; and unlike the Barbarian, no interest in growth. To improve performance the Bureaucrat relies on strategic planning, cost cutting, and acquiring (not inventing) new products or services.

8. **Aristocrat:** An alienated inheritor of others’ results. Aristocrats do no work and produce only organizational disintegration. They also tend to be autocratic. They communicate poorly, tolerate warfare among internal fiefdoms, seek to acquire symbols of power, and avoid making decisions.

**Reliability and Validity**

The Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument is designed to be used as an action-research tool rather than as a rigorous data-gathering instrument. Applied in this manner, the instrument has demonstrated a high level of face validity when administered to groups ranging from executive managers to nonmanagement personnel.

**Administration**

The following suggestions will be helpful to the facilitator who administers the instrument:

1. Before respondents complete the instrument, discuss briefly the concept of organizational life cycles. Miller (1989) describes a process whereby all living things, including organizations, move through a series of developmental cycles. These cycles begin with vitality and growth but can end with decay and disintegration. Miller’s model also describes the challenges confronted by leaders as their organizations pass through these cycles. Miller contends that by
breaking this cyclical pattern, leaders can help their organizations grow and develop.

2. Distribute copies of the Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument and read the instructions aloud as the respondents follow.

3. Instruct the respondents to read all eight phrases in a group before assigning ranking numbers. Make sure they understand that assigning “8” indicates that the phrase most accurately describes the respondent’s behavior or beliefs and that “1” indicates the least accurate phrase. Respondents should select their “8” phrases first, then their “1” phrases, then assign the intermediate rankings (“2” through “7”) to the remaining phrases.

4. Ask respondents to wait to score the instrument until everyone has completed the rankings.

**Scoring**

Each respondent should be given a copy of the Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument Scoring Sheet. Each respondent should complete the scoring sheet by transferring the ranking numbers from the instrument to the corresponding blanks on the scoring sheet. Then the five numbers in each category should be totaled. Respondents should then proceed to their scoring grids. Each respondent circles the appropriate score below each of the eight styles. A line should then be drawn on the grid to connect the circled numbers.

**Interpretation and Processing**

The percentiles on the left side of the scoring grid offer respondents a means for assessing the strength of their relative preferences for the eight styles. The descriptors across the bottom of the grid help respondents assess the impact of their styles on their organizations; that is, they indicate whether their preferred styles fall into the command, collaboration, or disintegration area or some combination of those areas. Respondents should try to determine how their preferences match the current and future needs of their organizations.

It is sometimes useful for the facilitator to prepare a large copy of the scoring grid on newsprint. In this case, the facilitator polls the individual respondents and posts their individual scores for each of the eight styles, drawing a line to connect each individual’s scores. The various patterns can form the basis for a discussion. It may also be useful to compute average scores for each of the eight styles and provide the respondents with group norms.

The facilitator distributes the Strategic Leadership Styles Interpretation Sheet, which gives brief descriptions of the eight leadership styles. It also offers suggestions to respondents whose supervisors exemplify the different styles and to supervisors whose employees demonstrate preferences for the various styles.
The facilitator divides the respondents into small groups (four or five members in each group). If intact work groups are present, they should constitute the small groups. The Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument Discussion Guide is distributed, and the facilitator instructs the groups to use the guide to stimulate discussion and then to prepare individual action plans.

USES OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument is designed to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To help individual respondents to examine their relative preferences for strategic leadership styles associated with Miller’s developmental cycles;
2. To help respondents to differentiate the impact of the eight leadership styles on their organizations;
3. To facilitate discussion among members of intact work groups about their collective style pattern;
4. To initiate discussions about the appropriateness of individual or group leadership style preferences within the context of an organization’s short- and long-term viability; and
5. To stimulate planning designed to increase individual and group use of appropriate leadership styles.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY AND REFERENCES


STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT

Gaylord Reagan

Instructions: Within each of the five groups of statements (Group A through Group E), read all eight statements; then write the number “8” in the space preceding the statement that most accurately describes you, your behavior, or your beliefs with regard to your organization. Next write the number “1” in the space preceding the statement that least accurately describes you or your behavior or beliefs. Finally, use the numbers “2” through “7” to indicate the best intermediate rankings for the remaining statements. Then proceed to the next group and repeat the process. Rank all statements (leave none blank), and use each ranking number only once within each group of statements.

Group A

1. My ideas are long range and visionary.
2. My top priority is survival, and my mission is clear and urgent.
3. I enjoy actually making products or delivering services.
4. I am a convincing and enthusiastic communicator.
5. I seek to balance opposing forces.
6. Thus far, my career has taken place mainly in staff areas rather than production areas.
7. In meetings, my remarks review what has already happened.
8. I have not personally developed a new product or service in a long time.

Group B

9. I am willing to make sacrifices to see my ideas realized.
10. I do not like analyzing numbers and trends prior to acting.
11. I like measuring the results of my work.
12. Sometimes I feel as though I work for my customers or clients rather than for this organization.
13. I openly discuss the philosophy and values behind my decisions.
14. I consider myself to be an expert at procedures, processes, and systems.

15. I do not see my job as including the development of new products or services.

16. I concentrate on strategic planning rather than actually producing products or services.

**Group C**

17. I tend to withdraw for long periods to think about ideas.

18. I am in charge and am very comfortable making decisions.

19. I make decisions quickly, take action, and see the results.

20. I like to keep score and am competitive by nature.

21. I am hard on performance but soft on people.

22. Order, consistency, and smooth operations are high priorities for me.

23. Views of the organization are more important than those of its customers.

24. A person in my position has a right to enjoy exclusive perks.

**Group D**

25. Other people see me as being a bit different.

26. Other people say I am authoritarian and do not consult them on decisions.

27. I am not a visionary and do not devote a lot of time to dreaming.

28. I believe this organization should place a greater emphasis on expansion.

29. I stress teamwork and constant improvement of products and services.

30. I focus more on the present than on the future.

31. I believe that tighter controls will solve many of the organization’s problems.

32. Only I and a few others really understand the organization’s strategy.
Group E

____ 33. I am neither well organized nor overly interested in details.
____ 34. I am action oriented and do not like careful planning.
____ 35. I do not like wasting time doing things through committees.
____ 36. I feel that the organization gets bogged down in paperwork.
____ 37. I believe in the value of organizational flexibility.
____ 38. I place heavy emphasis on control and discipline.
____ 39. I spend more time with staff personnel than production personnel.
____ 40. Many times I cannot trust people to do what is right.
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer the number you assigned to each statement in the Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument to the corresponding blank on this sheet. Then add the numbers under each category and write the total in the blank provided.

1. Prophet Category:
   Statement 1. ____________
   Statement 9. ____________
   Statement 17. ____________
   Statement 25. ____________
   Statement 33. ____________
   Total = ____________

This is your Prophet score. Prophets are visionaries who create breakthroughs and the human energy needed to propel organizations forward.

2. Barbarian Category:
   Statement 2. ____________
   Statement 10. ____________
   Statement 18. ____________
   Statement 26. ____________
   Statement 34. ____________
   Total = ____________

This is your Barbarian score. Barbarians are leaders who thrive on crisis and conquest, who command organizations during periods of rapid change.

3. Builder Category:
   Statement 3. ____________
   Statement 11. ____________
   Statement 19. ____________
   Statement 27. ____________
   Statement 35. ____________
   Total = ____________

This is your Builder score. Builders are developers of the specialized structures required for successful change and growth. They initiate the shift from command to collaboration.
4. Explorer Category:
   Statement 4. ___________
   Statement 12. ___________
   Statement 20. ___________
   Statement 28. ___________
   Statement 36. ___________
   Total = ___________

This is your Explorer score. Explorers are developers of the specialized skills required for successful change and growth. They complete the shift from command to collaboration.

5. Synergist Category:
   Statement 5. ___________
   Statement 13. ___________
   Statement 21. ___________
   Statement 29. ___________
   Statement 37. ___________
   Total = ___________

This is your Synergist score. Synergists are leaders who maintain a balance and continue the forward motion of a growing and complex organization by unifying and appreciating the diverse contributions of Prophets, Barbarians, Builders, Explorers, and Administrators.

6. Administrator Category:
   Statement 6. ___________
   Statement 14. ___________
   Statement 22. ___________
   Statement 30. ___________
   Statement 38. ___________
   Total = ___________

This is your Administrator score. Administrators create integrating systems and structures, and they shift the organization’s focus from expansion toward security.
7. **Bureaucrat Category:**

Statement 7. ____________
Statement 15. ____________
Statement 23. ____________
Statement 31. ____________
Statement 39. ____________

**Total** = ____________

This is your *Bureaucrat* score. Bureaucrats impose tight controls that inhibit the creativity of Prophets and the risk-taking habits of Barbarians.

8. **Aristocrat Category:**

Statement 8. ____________
Statement 16. ____________
Statement 24. ____________
Statement 32. ____________
Statement 40. ____________

**Total** = ____________

This is your *Aristocrat* score. Aristocrats are those who inherit success and are alienated from those who do the actual work. They often cause rebellion and disintegration.
**STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT SCORING GRID**

*Instructions*: On the grid below, circle your scores for each of the eight leadership styles shown at the top. Then connect the circles with a line to form a graph of your comparative style preferences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prophet</th>
<th>Barbarian</th>
<th>Builder</th>
<th>Explorer</th>
<th>Synergist</th>
<th>Administrator</th>
<th>Bureaucrat</th>
<th>Aristocrat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[COMMAND] [COLLABORATION] [DISINTEGRATION]
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT
INTERPRETATION SHEET

This interpretation sheet gives a brief description of the eight strategic leadership styles. Now that you have determined which leadership style or styles you generally use, you should be able to recognize the styles used by others in your organization. Under each description listed below, you will find some suggestions about how to work with both managers and subordinates who exhibit that style. You may find it useful to share the suggestions under your own leadership style with your manager and your subordinates.

1. **Prophets** are at their best when organizations are getting started or are entering a period of major restructuring and renewal. Prophets hold—and engender in others—a strong belief in new products and services. They have high standards and do not believe in the abilities of people outside their own small group. They make decisions by themselves; and although they may listen to others, they are not likely to make effective use of participative decision making. They tend to have many ideas that can confuse other people, because they have little use for either structure or systems. They tend to change on a whim.

   If you work for a Prophet:
   - Do not expect him or her to provide specific objectives or instructions. Ask to discuss your objectives and then write your own, based on your discussion.
   - Do not expect him or her to follow up on details of your work. Discuss the larger goals toward which you are working.
   - Seek out him or her for advice and ideas.
   - Be tolerant of his or her latest ideas, even if they seem illogical and inconsistent. Do not confront Prophets about their apparent lack of direction; instead, ask leading questions that will help them shape their brainstorms into practical courses of action.
   - Realize that Prophets do not expect you to share their characteristics. In fact, they often appreciate having people around who organize and accomplish their ideas for them.

   If Prophets work for you:
   - Recognize them for their creative abilities, and reinforce and encourage those talents. Do not demand that they be well organized or conform to standard procedures.
   - Listen to them. They need to know that their visionary ideas are important to you. Let them know that within your organization there is room and opportunity for the implementation of their ideas.
- Help Prophets distinguish between their regular jobs and their creative activities. Prophets may need to justify their salaries with mundane work.
- Protect them from Bureaucrats. Remember that in mature organizations Prophets are all too often ignored or eliminated.
- Have patience. Prophets work not for this quarter’s results, but for the impact they can have over the long run. Their view is very long range. Insisting on immediate results destroys their creativity.

2. **Barbarians** excel when organizations are struggling to survive or to broaden their base or attempting to diversify. Barbarians see themselves as being in life-or-death struggles to accomplish the Prophet’s objectives. High control and direct action appeal to Barbarians, who like to personally lead the troops into battle. They want others to join the team or move out of the way. Barbarians prefer to establish a few simple systems and structures while stressing a high degree of task flexibility.

If you work for a Barbarian:

- Be prepared for action. Barbarians expect you to act quickly and not to engage in lengthy or detailed planning exercises. Go to the heart of the matter and take action.
- Do not expect to be involved in long meetings or consensus decision making. Barbarians will make the decisions and you will carry them out.
- When Barbarians ask for your input, be completely honest and direct. Do not beat around the bush or give lengthy explanations.
- Go to Barbarians; do not wait for them to come to you. If you want a Barbarian to give you a promotion or different job or if you have an idea, you must seek out him or her and discuss your needs in a straightforward manner.

If Barbarians work for you:

- Be sure that their assignments are appropriate for command and single-minded action.
- Leave no confusion about Barbarians’ areas of responsibility and what you expect of them. If you do not establish limits for them, they may run down the road so fast that you will have trouble getting things back under control.
- Take advantage of Barbarians’ greatest talents; working in turnaround situations and managing organization units that are growing fast and need quick decisions. If your organization is in decline and needs a revolution, Barbarians—if put in charge—can inject excitement and urgency and can renew the vision.
- Help Barbarians make the transition to the next management stage by encouraging them to involve their people more, to delegate more, and to consider longer-range factors and outcomes.
3. **Builders** are most valuable when successful organizations are confronted by many opportunities for growth and diversification. Builders believe in their organization’s products and services. They are interested in the means of production, although they focus their energies on making those means more efficient. They are detail oriented and are concerned with short-range numbers. They initiate their organization’s leadership shift from “command” to “collaboration.”

If you work for a Builder:

- Offer clear, specific, written objectives. Builders hate surprises and believe that you should have a blueprint for your activities.
- Realize that Builders are not the world’s greatest communicators. You can help them by initiating needed communication. Do not expect them to do so.
- Do not expect a great deal of positive reinforcement. Builders take satisfaction from the quality and volume of the products that go out the door and they expect that you will, too.
- Realize that Builders appreciate creativity within bounds. They want better ways to get things accomplished. Builders are more interested in “how” than in “what” or “why.”

If Builders work for you:

- Be sure that your measurement and feedback are not based entirely on the short term. Builders already tend toward that direction. You need to help them learn to think in the long term.
- Help them to understand the need for involving people below them in decision making.
- Remember that Builders respond to rewards for improving processes (“how”) more than for results (“what”).
- Do not burden Builders with too much central-staff help. They like to run their own operations with the greatest possible degree of autonomy. Hold Builders accountable for improvements. Offer help but do not impose it.

4. **Explorers** are similar to Builders, but Explorers place their emphasis on increasing the efficiency of the skills used to produce the organization’s products and services. They are the organizational members most in touch with customers. They are highly competitive and enjoy keeping score. Interpersonal relationships are important to Explorers, and they are enthusiastic and intuitive. On the other hand, they hate paperwork and do little or no managing.

If you work for an Explorer:

- You will win points for producing results and gaining new business—things an Explorer understands most.
Tell him or her about your plans. Explorers want to know that their employees have high objectives and expectations.

Do not tell him or her what cannot be done or what should have been done. Keep your level of enthusiasm high, and frame your comments in a positive context.

If Explorers work for you:

- Remember that they appear to need your approval more than others do, because they are “out in the wilderness” most of the time. When they come back to the office, they need your praise; let them have it.
- When they seem overly optimistic about their own performance, do not shoot them down. Instead, help them develop more realistic expectations and projections.
- When they want you to spend more time in the field with customers than you can afford, work with them on making the best use of their time.
- When they do not have the best relations with those whose support they need in production, help them understand the importance of these members of their team. Explorers often have difficulty along this line.

5. **Synergists** do not favor a single leadership style. Instead, they incorporate the different styles of leadership required to succeed throughout an organization’s life cycle. Synergists seek social unity, balance, teamwork, and continuous improvement of products and services (total quality management). To achieve these goals and foster development of the production process, they emphasize positive behavioral reinforcement by using symbols, participative decision making, interpersonal skills, and high levels of technical competence.

If you work for a Synergist:

- Be sensitive to his or her need to blend and balance the characteristics of Prophets, Barbarians, Builders, Explorers, and Administrators.
- Do not expect consistency. Demonstrate flexibility in your own approach to problems.
- Demonstrate ability in teamwork, participation, delegation, and constant improvement of products and services.
- Appreciate the Synergist’s need for emphasizing both the material and spiritual aspects of the organization.

If Synergists work for you:

- Reward them for achieving a balance between the preservation of creativity and the need for order.
Realize that Synergists may want you to increase the amount of time that you spend with personnel in production areas instead of staff areas. Although this is generally a good idea, there is still a need to take care of the administrative aspects of the organization.

6. **Administrators** contribute most when organizations have entered a secure stage, are financially successful, are developing broader markets for their products and services, and are developing more complex internal structure. Administrators believe in efficiency and in maximizing the financial side of the organization. To this end, they stress perfecting management-control systems and tend to take the organization’s products and services for granted. They are not effective in dealing with people. They make decisions based on data and spend lots of time seeking “correct” answers. Under Administrators, line managers lose power while staff gains it.

   If you work for an Administrator:
   - Realize that he or she is more likely to reward you for conforming than for creating.
   - Understand his or her essential need for administrative control and discipline. When that control becomes stifling, you must help the Administrator to recognize your situation.
   - Recognize who you are and what your ambitions are. If you always work for an Administrator, you can develop the same characteristics, which may or may not be the best for you.

   If Administrators work for you:
   - Remember that Administrators are good at taking care of details; reward them for that. Also help them to see the larger picture, direction, trends, and reasons. Keep them in touch with what is important to the organization.
   - Help Administrators to see their jobs as serving those whose performance should be enhanced by their systems: the Builders and Explorers.

7. **Bureaucrats** are most visible in diversified organizations, where primary products and services are viewed as being mature “cash cows.” For Bureaucrats, growth occurs through acquiring younger organizations and cost cutting. Bureaucrats confront no problems that cannot be overcome through sound financial management and controls. They place little emphasis on creativity and are more concerned with numbers than people. Bureaucrats like written reports, and they cultivate the flow of paper. They seek to increase autocratic command throughout their organization, often resulting in overorganization, overspecialization, and a lack of trust between levels.
If you work for a Bureaucrat:

- Remember that the Bureaucrat tends to focus on performance that fits the system, without asking whether it is the right performance. Help him or hereby asking questions that will lead to a consideration of more creative responses.

- As a Bureaucrat needs order and conformity, do not make him or her nervous by being “weird.” It is difficult to work for a nervous boss, particularly if you are the one who makes the boss nervous.

- Serve as a buffer for your subordinates. Manage them to produce creative responses without interference from your Bureaucratic supervisor. Do not make your own problem your subordinates’ problem.

If Bureaucrats work for you:

- Remember that Bureaucrats are better in staff jobs, not line jobs.

- Make sure that they do not spin a web of stifling systems and structure around others.

- As Bureaucrats constantly complain about others who are violating the sanctity of their systems, learn to ask, “So what?”

- Reward them for developing and managing the most efficient administrative processes. Define “efficient” as meaning the fewest possible staff requiring the least amount of time from line managers.

8. Aristocrats are generally most evident when the organization’s primary products and services are declining because of a lack of attention, investment, and creativity; when organizational components are being eliminated and divested; and when cash is desperately needed. At these times cynicism permeates all parts and levels of the organization. Aristocrats increasingly surround themselves with expensive tokens of their positions (“perks”) and view their primary mission as preventing further organizational erosion. They have an aloof management style and do not like making decisions. If forced to do so, they generally use a highly autocratic style. Their organizations are burdened with excessive layers of management, poor communication, little clarity of mission, low motivation, lots of internal warfare, and ineffective formal structures.

If you work for an Aristocrat:

- Quit.

- If you cannot quit, consider the Aristocrat’s objectives but create your own independently. Hope that the Aristocrat’s successor appreciates your efforts.
If Aristocrats work for you:

- Encourage them to leave.

- If they will not quit, ask them specific questions about their efforts to improve the organization, the quality of their products and services, and their plans for creative developments. Let them know that their jobs depend on a change in behavior.
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP STYLES INSTRUMENT DISCUSSION GUIDE

Use the following questions to stimulate a discussion in your group:

1. Which of the eight leadership styles do your scores on the Strategic Leadership Styles Instrument suggest that you are most likely to use? In what ways are these styles important to your work?

2. What are your key subordinates’ leadership styles? What behaviors could you use to improve your relationships with those people? What behaviors should you avoid using?

3. What are your key peers’ leadership styles? What behaviors could you use to improve your relationships with those people? What behaviors should you avoid using?

4. What is your supervisor’s leadership style? What behaviors could you use to improve your relationship with that person? What behaviors should you avoid using?

5. What suggestions would you give to the following people about how to relate to you better and what to avoid doing?
   a. Your supervisor
   b. Your peers
   c. Your subordinates

6. Which leadership styles are most needed in your organization if it is to adapt successfully to its changing environment? Which behaviors may need to be de-emphasized?

7. To what extent do the behaviors of your leadership style fit with those most needed by your organization? In other words, is your leadership behavior part of the solution or part of the problem? In what ways?
THE SUPERVISORY AND LEADERSHIP BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

T. Venkateswara Rao

One of the most important tasks of a manager is to manage human resources. Effective management of human resources requires understanding the capabilities of subordinates, assigning them appropriate tasks, helping them to acquire new capabilities, maintaining their motivation level, and structuring the work so that people can derive some satisfaction from doing it. As one goes up the managerial ladder, he or she is required to spend an increasing amount of time interacting with people. These interactions may be on the shop floor, in group meetings, in face-to-face encounters with one other person, through telephone conversations, or in formal or informal gatherings. Many managers spend more than 50 percent of their time interacting with their subordinates.

The effectiveness of the manager depends on both the content of the interaction and the manager’s style. The manager’s technical competence, functional knowledge, skills, and information are very important in determining his or her effectiveness in managing subordinates. A capable manager is able to influence a subordinate by providing technical guidance and clear directions when needed. However, if the manager is not sensitive to the emotional needs of subordinates and does not use the appropriate styles of supervision and leadership, there is a great danger of crippling the growth of the subordinates. For example, an authoritarian manager may arouse strong negative reactions by continually dictating terms to capable subordinates but may do extremely well with subordinates who are dependent and who are just beginning to learn their roles. Similarly, a democratic manager may be liked by capable subordinates but seen as incompetent by dependent subordinates. It is necessary, therefore, for managers to interact differently with different people.

MAJOR SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS

The objective of supervision is to ensure that subordinates do what they are supposed to do. The manager can accomplish this through:

1. Continually striving to understand the style of operation and needs of each subordinate;
2. Continually evaluating the activities of each subordinate in terms of results and the goals toward which that subordinate is working;

3. Guiding subordinates in planning activities;
4. Evaluating the outcomes of activities;
5. Helping to plan future activities on the basis of past experiences; and
6. Rewarding subordinates for satisfactory or superior work.

**Understanding the Needs of Subordinates**

An effective supervisor understands how individual subordinates are motivated and what their needs are. Such understanding helps in assessing their tasks and performance and then later in guiding future activities.

**Continual Evaluation**

To guide subordinates effectively, a supervisor must observe their activities. Because a manager may have a very limited amount of time to observe all subordinates, a mechanism should be developed for obtaining and maintaining information about their various activities. Periodic discussions with individual subordinates can be helpful in obtaining such information.

**Guidance in Planning Activities**

Supervision also involves helping subordinates to plan their activities. This may include providing information and helping to set goals and priorities.

**Providing Rewards**

Managing also has a motivational aspect: rewarding workers when they accomplish something worthwhile. When a supervisor fails to do this, employees’ motivational levels drop. Rewards need not always be monetary; receiving greater responsibility or a verbal expression of appreciation can be highly rewarding to subordinates.

**STYLES OF SUPERVISION**

Although every supervisor is unique in some way, certain supervisory styles are characteristic of the majority of managers. Any manager may incorporate more than one of these styles into his or her own, depending on the situation.

**Authoritarian and Democratic Styles**

Lippitt and White (1943) identify two types of leaders: authoritarian and democratic. The authoritarian leader determines all policies and strategies, decides on the composition and tasks of the work teams, is personal in giving praise and criticism, and maintains some personal distance from employees. In contrast, the democratic leader ensures that policies and strategies are determined by the group, gives technical advice whenever the group needs it, allows freedom to group members to choose their work
teams, tries to be objective in providing rewards and punishments, and participates in discussions.

When Lippitt and White compared these two styles of management in their experimental studies, they found that authoritarians produced (a) a greater quantity of work, (b) a greater amount of aggressiveness toward the leader, (c) less originality in work, (d) less work motivation, (e) more dependence, (f) less group feeling, and (g) more suppressed discontent.

**Task-Oriented and Employee-Oriented Styles**

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the concept of task-oriented and people-oriented leadership. The following paragraphs explain the differences between these supervisory styles.

*Task-Oriented Supervisor.* A task-oriented supervisor emphasizes the task, often believes that ends are more important than means, and thinks that employees need to be supervised closely in order to accomplish their tasks. This type of supervisor becomes upset when tasks are not accomplished. The concern for task is so high that the human aspect is likely to be neglected in dealings with subordinates. This type of supervisor is likely to have difficulty in human relations and may appear to be a “tough” person. A task-oriented supervisor may frequently question or remind subordinates about their tasks, warn them about deadlines, or show a great deal of concern about details.

Employees who work with an excessively task-oriented supervisor often develop negative attitudes about their work and their supervisor. They may be motivated only by fear and may feel job dissatisfaction. They may develop shortcuts that, in the long run, affect the organization’s performance.

*Employee-Oriented Supervisor.* In contrast, the employee-oriented supervisor believes that a concern for subordinates’ needs and welfare promotes both the quality and quantity of work. This concern may be reflected in attempts to keep subordinates in good humor and in frequent inquiries about their problems (even those unrelated to work). In the extreme, this type of supervision also leads to inefficiency. Subordinates may perceive this type of supervisor as too lenient and may take advantage of the supervisor’s concern.

The task-oriented and employee-oriented styles may not be present in pure forms, and one manager may demonstrate combinations of the two styles. The effectiveness of the styles also may depend on factors such as the nature of the task or the nature of the subordinate.

Subsequent work by Fiedler (1967) indicated that the effectiveness of task-oriented or people-oriented styles is contingent on situational factors such as the power of the leader, acceptance of the supervisor by subordinates, and the way in which the tasks are structured.
Benevolent, Critical, and Self-Dispensing Styles

Another way of looking at supervisory and leadership styles (Rao & Satia, 1978) has been used in various countries with satisfactory results. This classification was influenced by McClelland’s (1975) work on institution builders and institutional managers and by Stewart’s concept of psychosocial maturity (McClelland, 1975). In this concept, leadership or supervisory styles stem from three mutually exclusive orientations: benevolent, critical, and self-dispensing.

Benevolent Supervisor. This type protects subordinates, continually tells them what they should and should not do, and comes to their rescue whenever needed. Such supervisors cater to subordinates’ needs for security and generally are liked by their employees. They are effective as long as they are physically present. In their absence, workers may experience a lack of direction and motivation. Such supervisors tend to have dependent followers, and initiative-taking behavior may not be reinforced.

Critical Supervisor. This type takes a critical approach to employees and does not tolerate mistakes, low-quality work, undisciplined behavior, or individual peculiarities. Finding mistakes, criticizing subordinates, and making them feel incompetent are characteristic behaviors of critical managers. Subordinates may produce acceptable work out of fear, but they do not like this type of manager.

Self-Dispensing Supervisor. This type has confidence in the subordinates, helps them to set broad goals, and allows them to work on their own. Guidance is provided only when requested by subordinates. Competent workers who have this kind of supervision are likely to feel confident about their work. They are free to work both independently and interdependently with their colleagues.

Institutional Supervisor

Closely related to the self-dispensing supervisor is what McClelland and Burnham (1976) refer to as an institutional supervisor, because this type is involved in developing the department or unit. Such supervisors are also called institution builders, because they ensure the growth and development of their units and subordinates by incorporating processes that help people to give their best and to grow with the organization. McClelland and Burnham identify the following characteristics of institutional supervisors:

1. They are organization oriented and tend to join organizations and feel responsible for building them.
2. They are disciplined to work and enjoy their work.
3. They are willing to sacrifice some of their own self-interests for the welfare of the organization.
4. They have a keen sense of justice.
5. They have a low need for affiliation, a high need to influence others for social or organizational goals, and a disciplined or controlled way of expressing their power needs.

Such supervisors often aim at a self-dispensing style but are flexible in their use of styles. They are likely to create highly motivating work environments in their organizations.

**IMPLICATIONS OF SUPERVISORY STYLES**

No single supervisory style is universally effective. The effectiveness of the style depends on the employee, the nature of the task, and various other factors. If a new employee does not know much about the work, a benevolent supervisor is helpful; a critical supervisor may be frightening; and a self-dispensing supervisor may cause bewilderment. On the other hand, a capable employee may feel most comfortable with a self-dispensing style of supervision and resent a benevolent supervisor who continually gives unwanted advice.

Employees with low self-discipline probably could be developed best by critical supervision, at least on an intermittent basis. Continual use of critical supervision, however, is unlikely to be effective. Flexibility and perceptiveness about when to use each style are useful attributes for leaders or supervisors.

**Leadership Styles and Motivational Climate**

The effectiveness of any leadership lies in the kind of climate that is created in the organization. Supervisors may find the following suggestions helpful in creating a proper motivational climate.

1. *Create a climate of independence and interdependence rather than dependence.*
   A self-dispensing supervisor promotes an independent and interdependent climate for subordinates and does not interfere unless it becomes necessary. The subordinates are trusted and given freedom to plan their own ways of doing their work. They are expected to solve problems and to ask for guidance only when it is needed. By providing freedom of work, encouraging initiative, and supporting experimentation and teamwork, a supervisor also helps to satisfy the subordinates’ needs for belonging, affection, and security.

   Some supervisors allow their subordinates to come to them continually for advice and guidance and, in the extreme case, may not allow them to do anything on their own. If every subordinate must check with the supervisor and obtain approval before taking any action, the supervisor is creating a climate of dependence and the subordinates will not be able to take any initiative. When problems arise, they may hesitate to look for solutions; and when something goes wrong, they may not accept responsibility. Learning from experience becomes difficult, because they have always turned to their supervisor for advice. Thus, the supervisor becomes burdened with responsibilities and
problem solving. Not only are the supervisor’s energies wasted, but so are those of the subordinates.

2. Create a climate of competition through recognition of good work. Employees look forward to being rewarded for good or innovative work. Financial rewards are not always necessary; even a word of appreciation has a great motivating value. Although appreciation given indiscriminately loses its value, a supervisor should not withhold appreciation until the formal appraisal reports. Many other ways of recognizing good work can be very rewarding. Giving praise in the presence of others, giving increased responsibility, and writing letters of commendation and recommendation can be used in addition to financial rewards. Such recognition and public acknowledgment help employees to value work and to derive a sense of satisfaction and a feeling of importance. These go a long way in motivating people to do better work. They even create a sense of competition among employees.

3. Create a climate of approach and problem solving rather than avoidance. Some supervisors approach problems with confidence, face them squarely, work out mechanisms to solve them (often with the help of others), and constantly work to overcome problems. They derive satisfaction from this struggle—even if the outcomes are not always positive—and they inspire subordinates to imitate their initiative.

Some supervisors, however, see everything as a headache and postpone solutions to problems or delegate them to someone else. Workers also are quick to imitate this avoidance.

4. Create an ideal climate through personal example. Just as supervisors are imitated in their approaches to problem solving, they are viewed as models for other work habits. In fact, the supervisor’s styles may filter down the hierarchy and influence employees several grades below. Therefore, good supervision and good work habits make the supervisor’s job easier in two ways: His or her own tasks are done more efficiently, and a climate is created for making the department or unit more efficient.

5. Motivate people through guidance and counseling. The foregoing discussions point out some general strategies that supervisors can use in creating the proper motivational climate for their subordinates. However, because individual workers have individual needs, individual counseling also can motivate subordinates. Within a group of workers, a supervisor may find very efficient workers, poor workers, problem creators, cooperative employees, and so on. Therefore, the supervisor should be sensitive to subordinates’ individual differences.

RESEARCH FINDINGS FROM THE SUPERVISORY AND LEADERSHIP BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

This instrument was administered to eighteen senior executives and was followed by a ninety-minute session on supervisory styles. Scores were fed back and the discussed in the class. A week later, when the executives were retested, dominant styles remained the
same for fifteen of the eighteen participants. Similarly, the least-dominant style did not change for fifteen of the eighteen participants. Thus, style stability seems to exist in 83 percent of the cases. The three participants whose dominant style changed reported that they were influenced by the feedback and subsequent discussions.

Jain (1982) used this instrument to study the supervisory beliefs of six district collectors (Indian administrative service officers), who were also rated by their subordinates (N = 70) with the same instrument. The average scores of the perceptions of the subordinates differed from the self-assessments of the district collectors in only two of the six cases. This indicates that self-assessments of supervisory beliefs do tend to reflect the styles perceived by others. The self-dispensing style in this questionnaire should be considered close to the nurturant task-leadership style outlined by Sinha (1980). Sinha’s research indicates that such a style leads to greater group productivity, satisfaction of group members, and work involvement.

**ADMINISTERING THE INSTRUMENT**

The Supervisory and Leadership Beliefs Questionnaire should be used for training purposes only. The instrument could be used for a short session (ninety minutes) on supervision and leadership or as part of a one-day workshop on supervisory/leadership styles. It is advisable to administer the questionnaire before any theoretical input is made. Scoring and interpretation should follow the theoretical input. Interpretation should focus on style flexibility and the need to use different styles with different employees, depending on the situations; however, the overall target should be the self-dispensing style. For a full-day workshop, role plays and simulation activities may be useful.

**Scoring and Interpretation**

The three scores obtained from this instrument are for benevolent, critical, and self-dispensing supervisory (or leadership) styles. The score of each style is obtained by transferring the points from the instrument to the scoring sheet and totaling each column on the scoring sheet. The sum of the three totals should equal 18. The column with the greatest total indicates the dominant supervisory orientation of the respondent. Scores above 9 normally indicate stronger style orientations, and scores near 0 indicate a lack of that supervisory orientation. For example, a benevolent score of 10, a critical score of 3, and a self-dispensing score of 5 would indicate that the respondent has a fairly strong benevolent orientation and less tendency to use the other two.

Scores are indicative of the strength of the beliefs or orientations underlying each style. However, a supervisor who was strongly oriented toward a certain style would probably use that style. Beliefs lead to behavior, although situations can create gaps between beliefs and behavior.
When one style strongly dominates a profile, style flexibility may be weak. In such a case, it is important for the respondent to examine his or her dominant style and the extent to which his or her flexibility is being hampered.

A higher self-dispensing score is desirable, particularly for managers who work in organizations with competent human resources. High critical scores may hinder human resource development and institutional development. The benevolent style is useful when the task is less structured, when the subordinate or the unit is new, or when the employees have high needs for dependence.

REFERENCES
THE SUPERVISORY AND LEADERSHIP BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

T. Venkateswara Rao

Instructions: This instrument contains three sets of statements, and each set contains three statements. You are to distribute six points among the three items in each set. Distribute these points according to how strongly you agree with each statement. For example, if you strongly agree with the first statement and strongly disagree with the other two, the six points should be assigned to the first statement and zero points should be assigned to the other two. You may assign three points to one statement, two to another, and one to the remaining statement, or any similar combination. The assignment of points is governed simply by the degree to which you agree with each statement.

In these statements, the term “employees” refers to those employees who report to you or for whom you conduct the appraisal. If you supervise a department that is divided into subunits, all members of your department are considered your employees.

1. (a) Employees are capable of working on their own, and there is no need to supervise them. They need to be helped only occasionally. ________
(b) Employees are generally lazy and avoid work unless they are closely supervised. ________
(c) Employees need to be guided and helped continually. They need an affectionate supervisor who understands them and continually tells them what to do and what not to do. ________

2. (a) A good supervisor gives a great deal of freedom to employees and has faith in them. ________
(b) A good supervisor treats employees as a parent would: continually advising them and telling them what to do and what not to do. ________
(c) A good supervisor keeps a close eye on employees and makes them feel that they should be careful because they are being watched. ________

3. (a) How well employees work depends a great deal on how well their supervisor provides continual guidance. ________
(b) How well employees work depends a great deal on how strict their supervisor is with them. ________
(c) How well employees work depends a great deal on how much their supervisor trusts them, gives them freedom to experiment, and helps them to learn from their mistakes. ________
THE SUPERVISORY AND LEADERSHIP BELIEFS
QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer the points you have assigned to each statement to the appropriate blank below. Then total each column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (c)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>1 (b)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>1 (a)</td>
<td>__________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (b)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>2 (c)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>2 (a)</td>
<td>__________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (a)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>3 (b)</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>3 (c)</td>
<td>__________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>__________</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>__________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Highest score here indicates a Benevolent supervisory orientation. Highest score here indicates a Critical supervisory orientation. Highest score here indicates a Self-Dispensing supervisory orientation.
SUPERVISORY ATTITUDES: THE X-Y SCALE

The theory underlying this scale is explained briefly in the Supervisory Attitudes Lecturette, which follows Part II of the instrument. The intent is to use the X-Y Scale to introduce the McGregor theory by having the respondent think about his or her own style first.

Five steps can be incorporated into the use of the X-Y Scale:

1. Have trainees complete Part I of the scale.
2. Give a brief lecturette on the Theory X-Theory Y formulation.
3. Have trainees complete Part II.
4. Score Part I and illustrate how trainees locate themselves on the scale using that score.
5. Lead a discussion of the results, comparing discrepancies between self-perception and more specific data at Part I.

The X-Y Scale was adapted from an instrument developed by Robert N. Ford of AT&T for in-house training of supervisors. Ten items were taken from the longer instrument, and the selection was based on their application to a wide variety of training enterprises.
Instructions: The following sentences describe various types of behavior that a supervisor may use in relation to subordinates. Read each item carefully and decide how likely you would be to act in that manner. Do you make a great effort to do this? Do you tend to do this? Do you tend to avoid doing this? Do you make a great effort to avoid doing this?

Indicate your response by circling the appropriate number on the Supervisory Attitudes Scoring Sheet.

1. Closely supervise my subordinates in order to get better work from them.
2. Set the goals and objectives for my subordinates and sell them on the merits of my plans.
3. Set up controls to ensure that my subordinates are getting the job done.
4. Encourage my subordinates to set their own goals and objectives.
5. Make sure that my subordinates’ work is planned out for them.
6. Check with my subordinates daily to see if they need any help.
7. Step in as soon as reports indicate that the job is slipping.
8. Push my people to meet schedules if necessary.
9. Have frequent meetings to keep in touch with what is going on.
10. Allow subordinates to make important decisions.
### SUPERVISORY ATTITUDES SCORING SHEET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Make a Great Effort to Do This</th>
<th>Tend to Do This</th>
<th>Tend to Avoid Doing This</th>
<th>Make a Great Effort to Avoid This</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total of circled items: ______________
Instructions: Read the descriptions of the two theories of leadership below. Think about your own attitudes toward subordinates and locate on the scale below where you think you are in reference to these sets of assumptions.

**THEORY X ASSUMPTIONS**

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he or she can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike for work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

**THEORY Y ASSUMPTIONS**

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and threats of punishment are not the only means of coaxing effort toward organizational objectives. Human beings will exercise self-direction and self-control for objectives to which they are committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely—not narrowly—distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potential of the average human being is only partially utilized.

Indicate on the scale below where you would classify your own basic attitudes toward your subordinates in terms of McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y.

| Theory X | 10 | 20 | 30 | 40 | Theory Y |

How does your placement compare with the total of the items you circled on the Supervisory Attitudes Scoring Sheet?
SUPERVISORY ATTITUDES LECTURETTE

Douglas McGregor (1957, 1966) linked a psychological view of human motivation to a theory of management, originating the terms “Theory X” and “Theory Y.” For McGregor, Theory X assumptions considered the average person to be lazy and to avoid work, necessitating that workers be controlled and led. In contrast, Theory Y assumptions viewed workers as responsible and eager to be involved in their work. McGregor believed that the role of management was to set up a framework so that workers could meet their own goals by investing effort in the organization’s goals.

McGregor’s approach was based on the motivation theory of Abraham Maslow (1943). Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs can be depicted as a pyramid, with survival needs as the bottom layer and with security, social, esteem, and self-development needs as successive layers (see Figure 1). Before one of these needs can be met, its underlying needs must first be fulfilled, at least to some extent. Therefore, if the workers’ survival and security needs are met, work that fulfills their higher needs can enable them to direct their efforts toward organizational as well as individual goals.

![Figure 1. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs](image)

This approach is predicated on managers’ diagnosing individual workers’ needs and offering opportunities to meet those needs. However, although specific individual needs span a great range, the basic categories of need are few in number. In addition, involving workers in delineating their own needs, goals, and potential rewards makes the task of creating appropriate organizational conditions more feasible.

McGregor stated:

There are big differences in the kinds of opportunities that can be provided for people to obtain need satisfaction. It is relatively easy to provide means (chiefly in the form of money) for need satisfaction—at least until the supply is exhausted. You cannot, however, provide people with a

---

sense of achievement, or with knowledge, or with prestige. You can provide opportunities for them to obtain these satisfactions through efforts directed toward organizational goals. What is even more important, the supply of such opportunities—unlike the supply of money—is unlimited. (1966, pp. 44-45)

Jacoby and Terborg (1986), in their “Managerial Philosophies Scale,” make the following observations about Theory X and Theory Y behaviors:

Berelson and Steiner, in their classic book, Human Behavior (New York: Harcourt Brace), list 1,045 findings from scientific studies of human behavior. . . . Strong support is advanced by Berelson and Steiner for McGregor’s Theory Y as a simple restatement of the characteristics shown by scientific research to be typical for the “average” person in our culture. Thus, the probability is .68, or greater than 2 to 1, that people encountered by managers will possess characteristics and, under proper conditions, display traits consistent with Theory Y expectations. (p. 4)

Since McGregor’s introduction of the terms, organizations have shown a shift from an obvious Theory X orientation to an apparent Theory Y orientation. Berelson and Steiner’s conclusion that 68 percent of employees hold Theory Y beliefs supports the idea that a Theory Y management orientation will be appropriate most of the time for most employees. The shift in organizations toward a Theory Y orientation has resulted in an interesting phenomenon. Some managers have developed the rhetoric of Theory Y while exhibiting behavior that indicates Theory X assumptions. As a result, these managers give an illusion of a Theory Y orientation that is in fact a disguised Theory X orientation. The mixed X-Y messages that result can create distrust and ineffectiveness. Managers can build trust and contribute to improved organizational effectiveness by demonstrating consistency between what they say and what they do.

REFERENCES


THE VISIBILITY/CREDIBILITY INVENTORY: MEASURING POWER AND INFLUENCE

W. Brendan Reddy and Gil Williams

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The concept of power is important in organizational and group dynamics. However, behaviors called “power moves” or “plays” are often misinterpreted. In fact, most group members are not aware of the ways in which they use power and influence among themselves. Consequently, the authors have developed an instrument that assists group members in understanding their own and one another’s functioning with regard to power within the group.

This instrument is based on two of the primary components of power: visibility and credibility. Visibility results from those behaviors that permit a person to be “up-front” and physically visible; the focus is on the person’s visible, external attributes. Credibility results from those behaviors that give a person influence so that he or she is believed—and believed in—by others; the focus is on the person’s credible internal attributes.

These two components are interactive, and an individual’s behavior in a group can be rated along a visibility continuum as well as along a credibility continuum. The two continua thus form a matrix on which the individual’s position with regard to visibility and credibility within a particular group can be plotted (see the profile sheet following the inventory and scoring sheet). For purposes of discussion, we focus on the more extreme or “pure” types that the matrix helps to identify:

1. High Visibility/High Credibility. People who fall in Quadrant I are both “seen and heard.” They exhibit behaviors that permit them to be physically seen by others as well as to have influence on others. In large organizations these people are typically the upwardly mobile and young leaders, and they are often referred to as “water walkers” and “fast trackers.”

2. Low Visibility/High Credibility. Quadrant II locates those who are “heard but not seen.” These people are “behind-the-scenes” influencers who are content to have power but wish to stay out of the limelight. In this quadrant is included the “sage” or the opinion leader whose sound input is sought before major decisions are made.

3. High Visibility/Low Credibility. Those “seen but not heard” reside in Quadrant III. This quadrant houses a wide range of organizational types who are visible but who have little credibility or influence. One of these people is the resident “gossip”; he or she may be well known among colleagues but cannot be trusted and has little influence.
Also included in this quadrant is the “yes man,” who derives his or her visibility from another source, usually the boss. Also, it is unfortunately the case that in this quadrant we find tokens, that is, women and minorities whose gender, race, or position makes them highly visible but who have very little credibility because the formal power resides elsewhere.

4. _Low Visibility/Low Credibility._ In Quadrant IV we find those who are “neither seen nor heard.” For whatever reasons, Quadrant IV people prefer or are placed in positions that offer little credibility or visibility. Although they may do their work, they rarely move up in the organization. Most often they remain unknown or are passed over.

**USES OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The Visibility/Credibility Inventory can be used in connection with:

- Team building;
- Training involving groups such as work teams;
- Power-related laboratories and activities;
- Influence exercises;
- Multicultural laboratory work;
- Training involving male/female dynamics;
- Racism/ethnism workshops;
- Training of trainers; and
- Management work conferences.

This instrument is designed to serve as a guide and an aid in the exploration, understanding, and discussion of power and influence in a group. Like any measure, simple or complex, it is most effectively used in conjunction with other data, instruments, activities, and behavioral feedback.

**ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The Visibility/Credibility Inventory is generally administered in a group setting. The administrator should provide a brief introduction by explaining that the respondents will be completing an instrument that allows them to derive a better picture of their power and influence within the group. Then the respondents spend approximately ten minutes completing the instrument.

After instrument completion the administrator distributes scoring sheets and profile sheets and asks the respondents to fill out these sheets, which requires another ten minutes or so. At this point the administrator delivers a lecturette on the theoretical framework of The Visibility/Credibility Inventory and elicits and answers questions as
necessary. Then the respondents are assembled into subgroups of two to eight, in which they spend at least fifteen minutes sharing and discussing their positions on the matrix (determined by completing the profile sheet), considering implications of these positions, and providing one another with feedback about perceptions of behavior. The subgroup members also discuss plans for behavioral changes if individual members wish to do so. After these discussions the administrator should conclude the activity in whatever manner seems appropriate. The entire process requires at least one hour. A longer period is required for in-depth discussion and feedback.

**INTERPRETATION**

The Visibility/Credibility Inventory may be used, for example, to establish the visibility and credibility of first-line supervisors or of workshop participants. In these two cases the theoretical framework presented by the administrator might include information such as the following.

**First-Line Supervisors**

High-visibility/high-credibility supervisors typically are very interactive with their subordinates, tend to back them on issues, and receive much respect. Low-visibility/high-credibility supervisors are best at delegating to subordinates, giving them autonomy and, in general, staying out of their way. They are seen only when necessary or when called on.

In the lower quadrants are the low-credibility supervisors. The high-visibility/low-credibility supervisor may delegate, but then he or she tends to “look over the shoulder” of the subordinate. This supervisor commands by position and is visible but is not sought out by subordinates. The low-visibility/low-credibility supervisor of Quadrant IV is neither present nor influential with subordinates. He or she has all but abdicated responsibilities, and typically the subordinates control and run the unit. This supervisor receives little or no respect from subordinates.

**Workshop Participants**

Workshop participants also can be seen within the construct of the matrix based on their behavior in the group. High-visibility/high-credibility participants are those who are frequently “up-front” and have a great deal of power and influence with their peers and their trainers. They consume much “air time,” but the quality of their contributions is good. They are quick to jump into activities and to give their input without solicitation.

Low-visibility/high-credibility participants are the “opinion leaders” in the group. Such individuals use little “air time,” preferring instead to remain in the background with regard to public participation. However, they have the “ear” of participants who seek them out for their opinions, input, and advice. Their comments in the group may be relatively infrequent; but when they speak, members listen. These people have influence and impact within the group.
High-visibility/low-credibility participants are often the “cut-ups” and comedians in the group. Although they receive attention, their behavior is often disruptive. They do not command respect, and their views are not influential. Sometimes a high-visibility/low-credibility participant attempts to gain recognition by assuming the role of scribe or recorder and controlling the newsprint and felt-tipped marker. Although this behavior results in visibility, it rarely fosters the credibility that the individual desires.

Low-visibility/low-credibility participants are those who maintain a very low profile and/or avoid most activity. Some of these participants, having started out in Quadrant III (high visibility/low credibility), may have tried to achieve credibility through visibility but were unsuccessful and thus retreated to a less-threatening position. Other Quadrant IV participants seem content in their role and behaviors, while still others who are less satisfied struggle to gain visibility and/or credibility.

**VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

The Visibility/Credibility Inventory has face validity. Because it is used primarily as a basis for discussion of the elements of power and influence within a group, no attempt has been made to establish validity and reliability beyond this point.
THE VISIBILITY/CREDIBILITY INVENTORY

W. Brendan Reddy and Gil Williams

Instructions: Completing this instrument will give you an opportunity to learn about your power and influence in your group or team. Please answer each question candidly, recognizing that there are no right/wrong, good/bad answers. Base your responses on your initial reaction to your actual behavior, not what you wish your behavior to be. For each statement, refer to the scale below, choose the number that indicates the degree to which that statement is true for you or is descriptive of you, and write that number in the blank to the left of the statement.

1 = Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)
2 = Disagree (Unlike Me)
3 = Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)
4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike me)
5 = Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)
6 = Agree (Like Me)
7 = Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)

___ 1. I am usually one of the more vocal members of the group.
___ 2. I frequently volunteer to lead the group.
___ 3. People in the group usually listen to what I have to say.
___ 4. I frequently find myself on “center stage.”
___ 5. I am able to influence the decisions that the group makes.
___ 6. People often seek me out for advice.
___ 7. I feel that I am trusted by the group.
___ 8. I enjoy the role of being “up-front.”
___ 9. My opinion is usually held in high regard by group members.
___ 10. I am often reluctant to lead the group.
___ 11. I receive much recognition for my ideas and contributions.
___ 12. I have a reputation for being believable.
___ 13. Group members typically influence what I have to say in the group.
___ 14. I would rather lead the group than be a participant.
1 = Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)
2 = Disagree (Unlike Me)
3 = Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)
4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike me)
5 = Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)
6 = Agree (Like Me)
7 = Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)

____ 15. I do not like being in the limelight and avoid it whenever possible.
____ 16. My ideas are usually implemented.
____ 17. Group members frequently ask for my opinions and input.
____ 18. I take the initiative in the group and am usually one of the first to speak out.
____ 19. I usually volunteer my thoughts and ideas without hesitation.
____ 20. I seem to blend into a crowd at parties.
____ 21. During meetings I am alone in presenting my own point of view.
____ 22. I wait to be asked for my opinion in meetings.
____ 23. People seek out my advice.
____ 24. During meetings my point of view is not joined by others.
____ 25. People check with others about the advice I give to them.
____ 26. I ask questions just to have something to say.
____ 27. I often find myself in the role of scribe during meetings.
____ 28. Group members usually “check out” data I give them.
____ 29. Group members view me as an expert in my field.
____ 30. I am in a highly visible racial, ethnic, or gender group (for example, a woman in a predominantly male organization).
____ 31. I am often asked to work at organizational levels higher than my own.
____ 32. Group members usually consult me about important matters before they make a decision.
____ 33. I try to dress well and/or differently from members of my group.
____ 34. I usually try to sit at the head of the conference table at meetings.
1 = Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)
2 = Disagree (Unlike Me)
3 = Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)
4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike me)
5 = Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)
6 = Agree (Like Me)
7 = Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)

35. Group members often refer to me in their statements.
36. I speak loudly during meetings.
37. I have noticed that group members often look at me even when not talking directly to me.
38. I stand when I have something important to say.
39. Sometimes I think group members do not know I am present.
40. I am emotional when I speak.
41. Following my absence from the group, I am not asked to explain where I was.
42. The word “wisdom” has been used in reference to me.
43. Group members come to me for gossip but not for “substance.”
44. I seem to have the “ear” of the group.
45. I am very influential in my group.
46. I clown around with group members.
47. Group members do not like me to disagree with them.
48. I jump right into whatever conflict the group members are dealing with.
49. I like telling jokes and humorous stories in the group.
50. My contributions to the group are not very important.
# THE VISIBILITY/CREDIBILITY INVENTORY SCORING SHEET

*Instructions:* Transfer the number you wrote in the blank to the left of each item onto the appropriate blank on this scoring sheet. Then add each column of numbers and write its total in the blank provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visibility</th>
<th>My Number</th>
<th>My Score</th>
<th>Credibility</th>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>My Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td>12.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td>21.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>29.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td>35.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td>42.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>44.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>47.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50.</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Total* | | *Total* | |

*Reverse-scored item. Change your score according to the following scale and write the corrected number in the blank.

\[
\begin{align*}
1 &= 7 \\
2 &= 6 \\
3 &= 5 \\
4 &= 4 \\
5 &= 3 \\
6 &= 2 \\
7 &= 1
\end{align*}
\]
THE VISIBILITY/CREDIBILITY INVENTORY PROFILE SHEET

Name_______________________________ Date _____________________________

Instructions: Plot your position on the matrix below by finding the square at which your Visibility score and your Credibility score intersect. For example, if your Visibility score is 90 and your Credibility score is 120, find where 90 on the horizontal axis and 120 on the vertical axis intersect. Mark the spot by shading in that square.
WOMEN AS MANAGERS SCALE (WAMS)

James R. Terborg

The topic of women as managers has recently become an important issue. With changing social, economic, and legal conditions, increasing numbers of women are choosing careers in management and in other areas traditionally dominated by men. Although nearly 50 percent of the working population is female, labor statistics (1978) show that only 6 percent of all managers are women.

Past social-science research indicates the existence of gender stereotypes. Stereotypes refer to the practice of assigning attributes or characteristics thought to describe an identifiable subgroup to a particular individual who is known to be a member of that subgroup. Gender stereotypes then refer to differential assignment of characteristics to people on the basis of sex. These stereotypes imply that men are strong, active, competitive, ambitious, and logical, whereas women are weak, passive, uncompetitive, unambitious, and emotional. Stereotypes may be useful because they are thought to contain some degree of truthfulness and because they provide information on how a person might behave toward an unknown member of some identifiable subgroup. Consequently, a person’s behavior toward another individual may be understood in part through examination of that person’s stereotypes. With regard to women as managers, knowledge of a person’s attitudes toward women managers as an identifiable subgroup may be useful in understanding how that person will react to and behave toward a specific woman manager.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE WAMS

Although instruments already exist that measure Gender stereotypes and attitudes toward women, these measures were thought to be too general to be used for understanding how a person might behave toward a woman manager. It was decided, therefore, to develop the WAMS as a specific measure of attitudes toward women as managers. The goal was to construct a scale that would be expansive enough to incorporate many managerial situations and yet be psychologically meaningful.

Fifty-five items were written to include (a) general descriptive traits/behaviors of managers (e.g., leadership) and (b) female-specific stereotypic traits/behaviors thought to represent barriers to the successful integration of women into managerial positions (e.g., child-rearing responsibility). These items were presented to 345 male and 196 female undergraduates at several universities. Based on item analysis and principal components analysis, the initial pool of fifty-five items was reduced to a twenty-one-
item scale that has substantial internal consistency and reliability. The WAMS can be used both as a “teaching” instrument and as a scientifically validated measure.

**DESCRIPTION OF THE WAMS**

The WAMS contains twenty-one items presented in a Likert-type format. There are seven response alternatives for each item, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Eleven items are worded to describe women as managers favorably and ten items are worded to describe women as managers unfavorably. The favorably worded items depict the idea that men and women managers are equal, and the unfavorably worded items depict the idea that women are inferior to men. It was decided from the outset to exclude items that portrayed women as being superior to men because of the assumption that equality would be the most appropriate favorable response.

The ten unfavorably worded items are reverse scored because disagreement with an unfavorable item would indicate a favorable response. Once these ten items are reverse scored, the respondent’s total score is simply the sum of the responses. The total scale score can range from 21 to 147, with high scores indicating favorable attitudes toward women as managers. A scoring key is provided, along with normative data from 308 male employees and 114 female employees.

**PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH- AND LOW-SCORING WAMS RESPONDENTS**

The WAMS has been studied in a variety of settings, and a summary of the results of these studies is presented here. These results should be interpreted with caution, however, because of the limited nature of research on the WAMS.

**Sex of Respondent**

Females as a group tend to have more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than do males as a group. This is true both when respondents are college students and when they are employees.

**Students Versus Employees**

College students of both sexes tend to have more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than do employees of both sexes.

**Women’s Rights**

College students and employees of both sexes who endorse the idea of women’s rights also tend to have favorable attitudes toward women as managers.
Employee Characteristics

For both males and females, employees with high levels of education and high salaries tend to have more favorable attitudes toward women as managers. For female employees, high commitment to a career is related to high scores on the WAMS. Also, for male employees, the longer the time since their last promotions, the lower their scores tend to be on the WAMS.

Attributions of Success

A study of college students found that when asked to attribute the reasons why a woman was successful, students with favorable attitudes tended to cite ability and effort as reasons and not luck or task characteristics. Students with unfavorable attitudes tended to do the opposite.

USES OF THE WAMS

As a scientific measure, the WAMS can be used as an independent variable in predicting behavior toward women managers in a variety of situations (e.g., hiring decisions, promotions, salary allocations), or it can be used as a dependent measure in assessing the effects of various manipulations on attitude change (e.g., working closely with a woman manager).

As a learning device, the WAMS has many possible uses. First, as part of a managerial workshop, administration and scoring of the scale could provide valuable personal feedback and self-awareness to the participants. Participants could compare their scores with normative data and assess whether they believe they have favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward women as managers. Second, use of the scale could be valuable as a tool for introducing the notion of gender stereotypes. Participants could discuss how these attitudes are developed and how people with extreme scores in either direction might behave. Third, the scale could be used in group workshops or seminars on the subject of women in management as a means for initiating discussion and getting people acquainted with one another. Finally, participants could be asked to think of women they know who do not fit and men they know who do fit their attitudinal views of women as managers. In this way the concept of individual differences between men and women and within men as a group and within women as a group could be made salient. Recognition of individual differences could be valuable in such workshops.

Although respondents’ scores on the WAMS were not correlated with an independent measure of social desirability in one sample of graduate students, it should be noted that responses to the scale easily could be faked. It is suggested that respondents be reminded that the scale will be of little use if they fail to give their honest and frank reactions to all items.
REFERENCES


WOMEN AS MANAGERS SCALE (WAMS)¹

Lawrence H. Peters, James R. Terborg, and Janet Taynor

Instructions: The following items are an attempt to assess the attitudes that people have about women in business. The best answer to each statement is your honest personal opinion. The statements cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find that you agree strongly with some of the statements, disagree just as strongly with others, and perhaps feel uncertain about others. Whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same way you do.

Rating Scale:
1—Strongly Disagree
2—Disagree
3—Slightly Disagree
4—Neither Disagree nor Agree
5—Slightly Agree
6—Agree
7—Strongly Agree

Using the numbers from 1 to 7 on the rating scale, indicate your personal opinion about each statement in the blank that precedes it. Remember to give your personal opinion according to how much you agree or disagree with each item. Please respond to all items.

_____ 1. It is less desirable for women than for men to have a job that requires responsibility.
_____ 2. Women have the objectivity required to evaluate business situations properly.
_____ 3. Challenging work is more important to men than it is to women.
_____ 4. Men and women should be given equal opportunity for participation in management-training programs.
_____ 5. Women have the capability to acquire the necessary skills to be successful managers.
_____ 6. On the average, women managers are less capable of contributing to an organization’s overall goals than are men.
_____ 7. It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men.

¹ The WAMS scale, developed by Lawrence H. Peters, James R. Terborg, and Janet Taynor, is used here with the permission of the publisher, Academy of Management Journal, © 1977, and the authors. The scale may be reproduced for educational/training/research activities, and no special permission for such use is required. However, requests for permission for systematic or large-scale reproduction or distribution—or inclusion of items in publications for sale—must be directed to the Academy of Management Journal.
8. The business community should someday accept women in key managerial positions.

9. Society should regard work by female managers to be as valuable as work by male managers.

10. It is acceptable for women to compete with men for top executive positions.

11. The possibility of pregnancy does not make women less desirable employees than men.

12. Women would no more allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior than would men.

13. Problems associated with menstruation should not make women less desirable than men as employees.

14. To be a successful executive, a woman does not have to sacrifice some of her femininity.

15. On the average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside the home at least half-time.

16. Women are less capable of learning mathematical and mechanical skills than are men.

17. Women are not ambitious enough to be successful in the business world.

18. Women cannot be assertive in business situations that demand it.

19. Women possess the self-confidence required of a good leader.

20. Women are not competitive enough to be successful in the business world.

21. Women cannot be aggressive in business situations that demand it.

Total
WOMEN AS MANAGERS SCALE (WAMS) SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Scoring

1. On the WAMS instrument, circle each reverse-scored item: 1, 3, 6, 7, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, and 21.

2. Reverse score these items, i.e., 7=1, 6=2, 5=3, 4=4, 3=5, 2=6, and 1=7. Write your new score for each of these items in front of your original number for that statement.

3. Add the scores you now have for all twenty-one statements to obtain a total score for the WAMS.

NORMATIVE DATA

WAMS scores are available for 308 male employees and 114 female employees. This sample covers a wide range of age, education, and job functions for employees in several organizations. There are separate norms for males and females because female respondents as a group have higher WAMS scores than male respondents as a group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top 25 percent</td>
<td>118 or above</td>
<td>131 or above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle 50 percent</td>
<td>91-117</td>
<td>110-130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom 25 percent</td>
<td>90 or below</td>
<td>109 or below</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, a male respondent with a score of 120 would have attitudes toward women as managers that could be classified as more favorable than those of males in general, and a male respondent with a score of 85 would have attitudes toward women as managers that could be classified as less favorable than those of males in general. Similar interpretations can be made for female respondents using the normative data for females.
THE MANAGERS FOR THE 21st CENTURY INVENTORY

Gaylord Reagan

Abstract: A search of the literature has revealed a new model of management for the 21st Century. This model encompasses new skills and behaviors that have not been taught in traditional management training programs.

Part One of the Managers for the 21st Century Inventory assesses individuals’ awareness of and agreement with the new management behaviors; presents specific characteristics, activities, and tasks of modern managers; and helps respondents to develop action plans for improving their awareness of and skills in implementing new management behaviors. Part Two asks respondents to state the percentages of weekly time they spend on specific activities, presents research on the percentages of time that successful and effective managers spend on those specific functions, and helps respondents to develop action plans.

THE SEARCH FOR A NEW MODEL OF MANAGEMENT

Employers, trainers, and consultants attempt to teach managers the basic skills they are perceived to need. As a rule, curricula presenting these skills are built around a traditional model that emphasizes planning, leading, organizing, controlling, and staffing—often referred to as the PLOCS model (see Haimann, 1984). Countless exercises and simulations have helped new managers master the basics of these five skills. Thus fortified, the new managers enter the workplace, where they often find that their just-completed courses have not adequately prepared them for what they encounter there.

A list of major factors contributing to managerial failures makes scant mention of PLOCS skills. Instead, top factors include:

1. An inability to get along with others.
2. A failure to adapt to change.
3. Demonstrating a “me first” attitude.
4. A fear of taking action.
5. An inability to rebound from past failures.
6. Being overwhelmed by the pressure of “external catalysts.”

Many authors attempt to remedy this situation by first identifying behavioral traits that are common to successful managers and then packaging the identified traits into models that can be taught in seminars. Classic examples of this approach can be found in Covey (1989); Bennis (1984); and Bennis and Nanus (1986). A useful discussion of the approach is found in Hersey and Blanchard (1993). Alas, as these approaches are
based on other managers’ styles, they quickly lose their impact once the seminars are completed.

Others publish works designed to chart new directions for indoctrinating managers in a more “practical” way. McCormack (1984, 1989) offers a body of nontraditional, “street smart” advice. After noting that most business training tends to overlook what he calls the “ins and outs of everyday business life,” McCormack urges managers to become skilled at dealing with people, mastering sales and negotiating, and learning the basics of running a business. Although this offers a healthy dose of real-world political awareness to new managers, it and a follow-up volume by the same author ultimately fall short of providing an overarching, coherent theme. Studies such as these are worthy of being included in a curriculum, but they cannot stand as the curriculum itself.

**What Do Managers Really Do?**

A series of research studies combine to point the way toward a more useful approach for training new managers. Kraut (1989) studied over 1,400 executives/managers/supervisors, and identified seven key tasks that members of all groups performed, with varying degrees of importance attached to each task. This approach does come dangerously close to the older trait-based leadership approach, but differs in that skills can be learned, while it is arguable whether learned behavioral traits can ever appear genuine to others (i.e., subordinates).

The results of Kraut’s study are supported by models that demonstrate that top-level managers need more conceptual skills than their lower-ranking counterparts. First-line supervisors require more technical skills, while the dwindling ranks of middle managers need a lot of human resource skills and smaller amounts of both conceptual and technical skills. The seven tasks identified in Kraut’s study include elements of the older PLOCS model, plus newer components:

1. Managing individual performance: of high importance for supervisors, low importance for executives;
2. Instructing subordinates: of high importance for supervisors, low for executives;
3. Planning and allocating resources: of high importance for managers, low for supervisors;
4. Coordinating interdependent groups: of high importance for executives, low for supervisors;
5. Managing group performance: of high importance for managers, low for supervisors;
6. Monitoring the organization’s environment: of high importance for executives, low for supervisors;
7. Representing one’s employees: of high importance for managers, low for supervisors.
A second study by Keys and Case (1990) identified clusters of influence behaviors that managers use with their bosses, their peers, and their subordinates. Keys and Case found that when it comes to successfully persuading others to follow his or her advice/suggestions/orders, a manager’s effectiveness is determined by that person’s ability to match his or her influence behavior to the target individual’s organizational level.

1. Effectiveness in influencing a boss depends on the subordinate manager’s ability to accomplish things though his or her subordinates. When this ability is combined with more assertive influence techniques (telling, arguing, talking, rational explanations, presenting complete plans, persistence, repetition), influence attempts are successful more than 50 percent of the time (Keys & Case, 1990).

2. Effectiveness in influencing a manager’s peers depends on that person’s ability to do so without formal authority in meetings and negotiations. Influential managers must demonstrate an ability to develop and show support of their peers (Keys & Case, 1990).

3. Effectiveness in influencing a manager’s subordinates depends on that person’s ability to demonstrate upward influence with his or her superiors. Managers who use formal authority alone greatly limit their options. They must learn to use methods of influence other than formal authority (Keys & Case, 1990).

In a study of general managers carried out over a five-year period, Kotter (1982) examined what his subjects “really” did, as distinguished from what management trainers tell new managers they should concentrate on. After collecting a list of apparently random behaviors within his subject group, Kotter discerned that only three common tasks actually consumed most of the managers’ time. These three tasks mesh very well with the seven influence behaviors of successful managers identified in Keys’ research:

1. Agenda development: Preparing loosely connected, largely unwritten, short-, medium-, and long-range goals and plans. This process facilitates the accomplishment of multiple goals through an incremental process.

2. Network building: Seeking out cooperative relationships with people who will help implement the managers’ agendas. This is based on favors, lobbying, norm setting, environment shaping, etc. Larger networks enhance a manager’s chance for achieving successful outcomes.

3. Execution: Moving the agenda forward by influencing network members to pay attention to multiple important items contained within that agenda. This process allows managers to save time by getting their networks to accomplish the managers’ agendas.
Successful Managers and Effective Managers

Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz (1988) used a slightly modified version of Kotter’s model to study more than 700 managers over a four-year period. The researchers found that their subjects performed four comprehensive categories of activities that expand on those identified in Kotter’s work:

1. Routine communication: Paperwork, e-mail, memos, reports, letters, telephone calls, faxes, etc.
2. Traditional management tasks: Planning, leading, organizing, controlling, and staffing. This area incorporates most traditional training programs (based on the old PLOCS model) offered to new managers.
3. Networking: Interacting with outsiders, socializing, politicking, hall chats, chance meetings, etc. This area incorporates the nontraditional, political skills described by McCormack.
4. Human resource management: Motivating, reinforcing, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing, training, developing, empowering, involving others, etc. This area incorporates many of the “soft” skills found in newer models of management.

Luthans et al. found that, overall, real managers devote approximately 29 percent of their time to routine communication, 32 percent of their time to traditional management, 19 percent to networking, and 20 percent to human resource management. In addition, guided by the relative importance the managers attached to these four activities, the researchers identified three distinct types of managers: successful managers, effective managers, and successful and effective managers.

Successful managers are defined as those individuals who receive more rapid promotions, as compared to others in their organizations. They devote 28 percent of their time to routine communication (about the same as the overall average), 13 percent to traditional management (19 percent less than the overall average), 48 percent to networking (29 percent more than the overall average), and 11 percent to human resource management (9 percent less than the overall average).

Effective managers are defined as those individuals whose employees excel in quantity and quality of production and display superior levels of satisfaction and commitment toward the organization. These managers devote 44 percent of their time to routine communication (15 percent more than the overall average and 16 percent more than their “successful” counterparts), 19 percent of their time to traditional management (13 percent less than the overall average and 6 percent more than their “successful” counterparts), 11 percent of their time to networking (8 percent less than the overall average and 37 percent less than their “successful” counterparts), and 26 percent of their time to human resource management (6 percent more than the overall average and 15 percent more than their “successful” counterparts).

Successful and effective managers’ percentages are almost identical to the overall averages. They devote 30 percent of their time to routine communication (1 percent
more than the overall average), 30 percent to traditional management (2 percent less than the overall average), 20 percent to networking (1 percent more than the overall average), and 20 percent to human resource management (the same as the overall average).

In summarizing their study, Luthans et al. point out that the most “successful” managers engage in 70 percent more networking activities and 40 percent fewer traditional management activities than their “effective” counterparts. In fact, the authors found that managers seem to not be doing what management texts say they should be doing. Nor is the profile of a “successful” or “effective” manager particularly consistent with what actual managers say a manager should do. In addition, the authors encourage their readers to ask whether organizations are rewarding the wrong people (“successful” managers) or rewarding the right people (“effective” managers) in the wrong way. They also urge organizations to identify ways to encourage the development of more “successful and effective” managers.

**Management Competencies in the Age of Hypercompetition**

Finally, a study by D’Aveni (1995) identifies seven competencies that managers must demonstrate if their employers are to cope successfully with the challenges of hypercompetition in the mid-1990s. D’Aveni’s framework mandates that managers become skilled at:

1. Satisfying customers before employees and investors.
2. Envisioning future trends and creating appropriate self-fulfilling prophecies.
3. Constantly disrupting the status quo.
4. Being the first to create new competitive advantages.
5. Continually shifting the rules of the game plan and then updating the plan.
6. Announcing the organization’s vision to everyone and being highly visible.
7. Utilizing competitive thrusts to upset the status quo and opening new opportunities (innovating).

This entrepreneurial call to arms reflects similar models contained in Reagan (1996), Peters (1994), and Pinchot (1985). These studies all urge managers and their employers to become more risk taking, innovative, rule bending, and—in Peters’ case—“weird.” The bottom line is that traditional PLOCS-based, management-training programs show little ability to help managers obtain successful careers.
THE INSTRUMENT

Validity

The Managers for the 21st Century Inventory is designed to be used as a discussion-provoking training tool rather than as a rigorous data-gathering instrument. Applied in this manner, the inventory has demonstrated a high level of face validity when used with audiences ranging from executive managers to nonmanagement personnel.

Administration

The following suggestions will help facilitators administer the Managers for the 21st Century Inventory:

1. Before respondents begin completing the inventory, discuss the shortcomings of traditional new-manager training models. Answer questions pertaining to these bodies of information.
2. Distribute copies of the Managers for the 21st Century Inventory and read the instructions aloud as the respondents follow. Answer any questions.
3. Urge respondents to avoid overanalyzing their choices. After reading each of the statements on the inventory, respondents should check only those statements that accurately reflect their own beliefs. Respondents should complete both parts of the inventory.

Scoring and Interpretation

1. Ask respondents to wait to score their inventories until all respondents have finished both Part One and Part Two. This creates less confusion and repetition as inventories are being processed.
2. To score Part One of the inventory, add up the number of items checked and multiply the result by five.
3. Each respondent then should find the corresponding Part One bracket within which his or her score lies and read the brief, interpretive statement there.
4. Next, respondents should read the longer Part One discussion section, to gain a better understanding of the study that underlies the items to which they just responded. (This material contains Kotter’s model.) The administrator may lead a discussion of the material as deemed appropriate and desirable.
5. To interpret Part Two of the inventory, respondents first compare their percentage estimates (which should add up to no more than 100 percent) with the results produced by the Luthans et al. research study and then read the background material for Part Two. This offers them a way of assessing the pattern produced by their estimates. Again, the administrator may lead a discussion of this material as deemed appropriate and desirable.
6. Respondents now should be ready to prepare Part One action plans to take back to their workplaces, in which they detail how they will implement the new model. It is useful for respondents to share their action plans with one another before they leave the session.

7. Finally, respondents use their Part Two patterns to respond to the action-plan questions. Again, it is useful for respondents to share their results with one another before they leave the session.

Option: The background materials for Parts One and Two may be combined. The action-planning activities for Parts One and Two also may be combined.

**USES OF THE INVENTORY**

The Managers for the 21st Century Inventory is designed to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To familiarize managers and their organizations with the shortcomings of the traditional PLOCS model of management training.
2. To offer a constructive critique of management models that might currently be used in organizations that are seeking to improve their management training and development activities.
3. To identify the features of a new body of competencies that can be included in future-oriented management training and development programs.
4. To provide a basis for discussion about the relationship between the present competencies of an organization’s managers and the demands that the emerging business environment will place on those same managers.
5. To offer organizations a format to use as they assess their readiness to implement a more contemporary style of management.

**REFERENCES**


MANAGERS FOR THE 21ST CENTURY INVENTORY

Gaylord Reagan

INVENTORY: PART ONE

Instructions: After reviewing the following list of activities, check those items that you believe best describe what “21st Century managers” do with their time. Don’t overthink your responses; your initial reactions most accurately reflect your perceptions.

☐ Managers spend as much as 75 percent of their time being involved with other people.

☐ Managers go around the formal chain of command.

☐ Managers focus on building networks.

☐ Managers discuss anything and everything associated with their organization.

☐ Managers ask a lot of questions.

☐ Managers rarely make big decisions.

☐ Managers focus on developing agendas (goals, objectives, etc.).

☐ Managers joke, kid around, use humor, and talk about nonwork activities.

☐ Managers “waste” time discussing issues that appear to be nonsubstantive.

☐ Managers seldom tell people what to do.

☐ Managers frequently attempt to influence others.

☐ Managers frequently respond to others’ initiatives.

☐ Managers focus on executing their agendas.

☐ Managers invest significant amounts of time in short and disjointed discussions.
 Managers work long hours (e.g., sixty hours per week).

 Managers rely on conversations with others for information, not on books, magazines, or reports.

 Managers realize that the size of their networks largely determines their degrees of success.

 Managers seek out cooperative relationships with people who will have to help implement their agendas.

 Managers seek to maximize teamwork and minimize politics.

 Managers’ network members are chosen for their ability to help accomplish the managers’ agendas.

**Scoring for Part One**

*Instructions:* Give yourself five points for each item that you checked in Part One.

Your total score is: 

90-100 = You have a strong grasp of the behaviors that characterize “21st Century managers.” Your main tasks for the future include patiently helping your organization and your colleagues to learn more about these behaviors, being sure to model and reward these new behaviors with your subordinates, and systematically coaching everyone around you to begin implementing leadership models appropriate to the 21st Century.

80-89 = You have a moderately good understanding of what it takes to be an effective manager in the 21st Century. Your main tasks for the future include strengthening your own familiarity with the behaviors, experimenting with the behaviors in low-to-moderate-risk situations, rewarding yourself when you are successful in using the behaviors, establishing goals for yourself that focus on increasing the frequency with which you use the behaviors, and letting others know about your efforts.

70-79 = You are aware of the 21st Century management behaviors but do not find them compelling, or you may work in a setting in which you cannot presently use the behaviors. Your main tasks for the future include continuing to learn about the new management behaviors, finding someone with whom you can talk about them, and identifying settings in which you can try out selected behaviors.

60-69 = Your have a below-average understanding of what it takes to be a successful 21st Century manager. Your main tasks for the future include looking around
to see what your organization’s top competitors or peer organizations are doing as they prepare to meet the challenges of the 21st Century. You also should consider the long-term needs of your organization: How will your employer become steadily more competitive while utilizing fewer resources and responding to growing customer demands for higher levels of product and service quality? Armed with responses to questions such as these, you are then ready to examine the degree to which your current leadership or management style will help you and your employer to be successful in the coming period.

0-59 = You have little or no awareness of 21st Century management practices. For a variety of reasons, you also may have little or no interest in altering that situation. Your main tasks for the future include taking time to reflect on where you want your career to lead, your effectiveness in working with other people, how you feel about yourself as a leader/manager, and how other people with whom you work seem to react to your present style of leadership or management.

**Background to Part One**

Kotter (1982) identifies specific activities or characteristics involved with each of the three common, overarching tasks of managers. These include:

1. **Developing an agenda.** This allows managers to react in an opportunistic manner, knowing that their actions will serve broader, long-term goals. It is important to note that agendas are not the same as formal plans. Agendas consist of loosely connected goals and plans. Compared to formal plans, the (usually unwritten) agendas contain less-detailed financial objectives, more-detailed strategies, and a broader time frame, and they articulate multiple and somewhat vague goals that will be accomplished simultaneously through an incremental process. Developed largely inside managers’ minds, agendas address short-term (one year), medium-term (one-to-five years), and long-term (five-to-twenty years) goals. In order to gather the information needed to help them tighten their agendas, managers must be aggressive information seekers and must rely on conversations with others for information—not on books, magazines, studies, or reports.

2. **Building a network to execute the agenda.** Modern managers go outside their formal structures and build cooperative relationships with people (peers, boss, outsiders, vendors, boss’s boss, subordinates’ subordinates, etc.). Agenda-building managers also foster very strong ties to and among their subordinates; they do favors for others, encourage people to identify with them, consciously develop feelings of dependence in those around them, change suppliers, lobby, set norms, move/hire/fire subordinates, and actively shape their environments. Their tactical goals include encouraging others to feel obliged and dependent, enhancing their reputations in others’ eyes, replacing incompetent employees, and maximizing teamwork while minimizing politics. The bottom line is that a
larger network increases a manager’s chances of successfully implementing his or her agenda.

3. Executing the agenda through exercising direct and indirect influence on members of their networks. Direct influence includes asking, demanding, cajoling, and intimidating. Indirect influence includes meetings, stories, language, space, time, and events. Doing this allows managers to save time by getting their networks to accomplish their agendas for them. Successful network managers are personally involved in choosing which agenda items will be acted on, making certain that all agenda items receive attention, selecting appropriate networks to get action on chosen agenda items, and selecting influence approaches that accomplish multiple agenda items at once.

Part One Action Plan

1. How strong a grasp of 21st Century management practices does your score suggest that you currently have? How do you feel about that result?

2. What management procedures are you currently using? Does your choice appear to be working well for you? What adjustments might increase the impact of your management practices?
3. Which management practices does your organization seem to reward? In what specific ways are they rewarded? Does it appear to be in the long-term interests of the organization to continue to reward these practices?

4. Does your first-hand experience tend to support or refute Kotter’s findings?

---

**INVENTORY: PART TWO**

*Instructions:* Place an “X” on each of the following four scales to indicate the approximate percentage of your weekly time you believe should be devoted to each of the four indicated management activities. Your total should add up to 100 percent.

1. Routine communication
   (oral, written, electronic, symbolic) 0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

2. Traditional management tasks
   (plan, lead, organize, control, staff) 0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

3. Networking
   (socializing, influencing, ingratiating) 0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

4. Human resource management
   (training, coaching, supporting) 0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

Your percent total for the above categories: %
Background to Part Two

1. Of the “real managers” studied by Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz (1988), the average percentages of time the managers devoted to the four categories indicated on the scales above are:
   A. Routine communication: 29 percent
   B. Traditional management: 32 percent
   C. Networking: 19 percent
   D. Human resource management: 20 percent

2. Defining “successful managers” as those individuals who receive more rapid promotions relative to others in their organizations (successful managers are highly valued by their organizations, and their high value is rewarded most directly by promotions), Luthans’ team found that the percentages of time these persons devote to each of the four categories are:
   A. Routine communication: 28 percent (nearly the same as the overall average).
   B. Traditional management: 13 percent (19 percent less than the overall average).
   C. Networking: 48 percent (29 percent more than the overall average).
   D. Human resource management: 11 percent (9 percent less than the overall average).

3. Defining “effective managers” as being those individuals whose employees excel in quantity and quality of production and who display superior levels of satisfaction and commitment toward the organization, the researchers found that the percentages of time these managers devote to each of the four categories are:
   A. Routine communication: 44 percent (15 percent more than the overall average and 16 percent more than “successful” managers).
   B. Traditional management: 19 percent (13 percent less than the overall average and 6 percent more than “successful” managers).
   C. Networking: 11 percent (8 percent less than the overall average and 37 percent less than “successful” managers).
   D. Human resource management: 26 percent (6 percent more than the overall average and 15 percent more than “successful” managers).

4. When they examined the percentages of time that “successful and effective managers” devote to the four categories listed above, the researchers found that the percentages are almost identical to the overall sample’s averages.
   A. Routine communication: 30 percent
   B. Traditional management: 30 percent
   C. Networking: 20 percent
   D. Human resource management: 20 percent
5. The most successful managers identified in the Luthans et al. study engaged in 70 percent more networking activities and 40 percent fewer traditional management activities than their less successful counterparts. Overall, the authors found that many of their subjects are not doing what management texts say they do. Nor is the profile of a successful or effective manager particularly consistent with what working managers say a manager focuses on. The researchers encourage their readers to ask whether organizations tend to reward the wrong people (“successful” managers) or reward the right people in the wrong way.

**Part Two Action Plan**

1. Which of the three patterns (“Successful,” “Effective,” “Successful and Effective”) most closely approximates the one(s) currently being rewarded in your work area or overall organization?

2. Which of the three patterns would most help personnel in your work area to increase the competitiveness of the overall organization?

3. Which of the three patterns most closely resembles your own? How do you feel about that?
4. In order to increase the impact of your managerial approach, what do you need to do? What goals can you identify for yourself? Be as specific as possible.

REFERENCES
