

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

by

IMRAN SIDDIQUE MALIK

B. Sc. University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore, 1978

A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

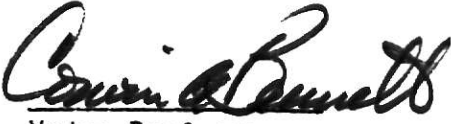
MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Industrial Engineering

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1982

Approved by:


Major Professor

SPEC
COLL
LD
2668
.R4
1982
M32
C.2

A11203 652360

To Naila

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENT.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
PROBLEM.....	6
LEADERSHIP TRAITS.....	7
LEADERSHIP STYLE.....	17
Ohio State Studies.....	17
Early Survey Research Center Studies.....	23
Studies at the Research Center for Group Dynamics.....	26
Mann's Three Skill.....	27
Likert's New Pattern of Management.....	28
Managerial Grid.....	30
SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP.....	32
Research on Situational Leadership.....	32
GROUP DIMENSIONS.....	46
RESEARCH PLAN.....	57
REFERENCES.....	72

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author wishes to express his gratitude to his major professor, Dr. Corwin A. Bennett for not only his initial encouragement but his constant guidance throughout this work. The author is also thankful to Dr. Doris Grosh and Dr. Byron Jones for their timely suggestions and enthusiastic support. And finally a word of thanks to Mr. Arvind Narain for his assistance in the preparation of the manuscript.

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Characteristics of a leader.....	9
Table 2. Intercorrelation among 15 group dimensions applied to five hundred group descriptions.....	56
Table 3. Factor loading in two factor analysis.....	58
Table 4. Factor loading in three factor analysis.....	59
Table 5. Factor loading in four factor analysis.....	60
Table 6. Expected appropriate leadership style for group situations.....	71

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. The Ohio State leader quadrants.....	24
Figure 2. Managerial grid.....	31
Figure 3. Schematic representation of the situational favorableness dimension.....	39
Figure 4. Correlation between leader's LPC scores and group effectiveness plotted for each cell.....	41
Figure 5. One dimensional approach by Fiedler on leadership style.....	44
Figure 6. Four-Quadrants depicting different group situation.....	62
Figure 7. Questionnaire about group situation.....	64
Figure 8. Questionnaire about leadership style.....	66
Figure 9. Graphical depiction for proposed study results.....	70

INTRODUCTION

Human knowledge of leadership is both sparse and of recent origin. This is not for lack of interest. Society's stake in its leaders and in their performance is obvious. The impact of effective leaders has been dramatically demonstrated over and over again on a national scale in every country's history and on a local scale in every organization's past.

The generalship of Alexander the Great, Napoleon, Robert E. Lee, and George Patton decisively affected the success of their military campaigns. The political leadership of Elizabeth I, Abraham Lincoln, Mahatma Gandhi, Mohammad Ali Jinnah, and Charles DeGaulle profoundly influenced the histories of their countries. The business leadership of men like Henry Ford and Andrew Carnegie exemplifies the same point in the private sector. The organization without effective leadership is in trouble. The importance of good leadership has, therefore, always been recognized. Plato's Republic and Confucius' Analects deal with the problem. The concern with leadership has a long history, but its systematic study is of recent vintage.

Although the first empirical investigation of leadership was published in 1904, the major impetus to the field came during World War I. At that time, intelligence tests were used on the problems of officer selection and placement. Between World Wars I and II, the major interest was in the identification of leadership traits and the way in which men rose to positions of leadership. This concern of leadership gradually gave way to current questions of what kind of leadership is required in what kind of situation.

Definition of leadership

Many writers have contrasted leadership with other characteristics of the individual. Pigors [1935] distinguishes the "leader" from the "dominator". Jennings [1943] contrasts leadership and isolation. Krout [1942] speaks of leadership and "fellowship". Terman [1904] has stated that "the opposite of a leader is an outcast". These writers are stressing a specific quality in an individual's behavior which can be identified as leadership.

Writers are often concerned with establishing leadership as a behavioral continuum. Brown [1934] in a study of leadership among high-school students considered the size of the group, the importance of the group, and the leader's effectiveness as indicating degrees of leadership. Flemming's [1935] criteria of leadership, also among high-school students, were expressed as a score based on the importance of the office of leadership held. For example, being president of a class carried ten points, while one-half point was given for being a member of a committee. Hana-walt, Hamilton, and Morris [1943], in a study of level of aspiration in college leaders, used a criterion very similar to that of Flemming. Parten [1933] considers leadership not a single trait either possessed or not, but, rather, a quality which is present in varying quantities. All of these writers regard leadership as a quantitatively differing characteristic of the individual.

Attempts have been made to distinguish types of leaders. Cowley [1931] believes it is essential to distinguish between "real" leaders and "head" men. He rejects the mere holding of office as a criterion of

leadership. There is scarcely a limit to the classification by type applied to categorize leaders. There are face-to-face leaders, business leaders, student leaders, boy leaders, girl leaders, athletic leaders, spiritual leaders, military leaders, criminal leaders, and so on. Among the studies which have been made contrasting the personal characteristics of leaders classified according to type are those by Cowley [1931], Caldwell and Wellman [1926], Terman [1904], and Tryon [1939]. When types of leaders are emphasized, qualitatively different characteristics of leaders become involved. Leadership from this point of view is not a specific characteristic of an individual but may have many forms, depending upon the situation.

Leadership has been defined with emphasis upon the group being led. Cowley [1928] defines a leader as follows: "A leader is an individual who is moving in a particular direction and who succeeds in inducing others to follow after him". This definition of a leader focuses attention upon the "followers" as well as the leader. Patten [1933] points out that leadership is a function of the personnel of the group and its activities as well as of the individual. Pigors [1935] defines leadership in the following terms:

Leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which, by successful interplay of relevant differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause.

....Any person may be called a leader during the time when, and insofar, as his will, feeling and insights direct and control others in the pursuit of a cause which he represents.

According to Pigors, leadership is not vested in the characteristics or qualities of any single individual but becomes the role of a particular

individual in a social situation. Many other writers, notably Barnard [1946], Gibb [1947], and Coffin [1928], have stressed the importance of the situation in leadership. Considering the situation does not obviate the necessity of also considering characteristics of the individual that fit him to the role he assumes as a leader. But it does point out the importance of the social situation in the study and definition of leadership.

The importance of the situation in the definition of leadership has been made increasingly clear as a result of a number of recent reviews of leadership studies. Stodgill [1948] published an exhaustive review of studies bearing on personal factors in leadership. One of his major conclusions is that the "qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader." Jenkins [1947] reached a similar conclusion in a review of studies of leadership in military and industrial settings. Gibb [1947] states that "viewed in relation to the individual, leadership is not an attribute of the personality but a quality of his role within a particular or specified social system. Viewed in relation to the group, leadership is a quality of its structure."

The definition of leadership must include both the characteristics of a social situation and the characteristics of an individual. If researchers approach the problem of leadership in an operational manner, leadership may be said to be the behavior of an individual while he is involved in directing group activities. Then researchers may make the hypothesis that the individual will be judged to be an "excellent," a "fair," or a "poor" leader in terms of the judge's estimate of the charac-

teristics of the social situation on one hand and his observation of the leader's behavior on the other. If there is a high degree of correspondence between the behavior demanded by the situation and the leader's actual behavior, he will be judged to be an excellent leader. But, on the other hand, if there is no correspondence between what the situation demands and what the leader does, he will be judged to be a poor leader. In one sense, adequacy of leadership refers to an evaluation of the behavior of the individual leader in terms of the ideal behavior of a hypothetical leader. In the evaluation of leadership the characteristics of the situation set the qualitative standard for a leader's behavior."

The two assumptions involved in the foregoing view of leadership, namely, that leadership is the behavior of an individual directing group activities and that adequacy of leadership is an evaluation of the correspondence between the individual's behavior and the behavior demanded by the situation, seem to be implied in the many criteria selected by investigators in the study of leadership. This view of leadership is broad in scope, bringing into consideration the group situation, the behavior of the leader, and a judgment of leadership. It is also solidly rooted in concrete behavior rather than abstract constructs.

In the past a number of studies have been conducted on leadership effectiveness in different situations. It is the purpose of the study to review the literature on this topic, i.e., situational leadership effectiveness.

PROBLEM

This study is an attempt to review the work done on situational leadership effectiveness and to recommend an experimental plan based on preceding research. This plan is expected to help overcome the shortcomings of the present day theories.

The study also reviews briefly the research done on personal factors and qualities associated with leadership between the period of World Wars I and II.

LEADERSHIP TRAITS

Although the majority of studies of leadership before World War II have focused on the personal characteristics of the leader, the demand which the social situation makes upon the behavior of an individual in the leadership role has not been thoroughly or systematically investigated. In many studies, however, the investigators recognized the social situation as a source of important variables, yet did not attempt to bring them into the study. The general result of this one-sided approach to the study of leadership is a mass of data on personal qualities of leaders in many highly specific but not systematically related situations. It is not surprising, therefore, to find much disagreement among the lists of personal qualities associated with leadership, especially as the personal qualities become specific. There is, however, a moderate amount of agreement among studies concerning general characteristics of leaders in many diverse situations.

Smith and Kruger [1933] have surveyed the literature on leadership to 1933. Development in methodology until 1947, as related especially to the military situation, was reviewed by Jenkins [1947]. Two reviews by Stogdill, in 1948 and in 1970, were concerned with those studies in which some attempt was made to determine the traits and characteristics of leaders. The majority of studies were focused on the personal characteristics of the leaders. The general result of those approaches to the study of leadership is a mass of data on the personal qualities of leadership in many highly specific but not systematically related situations. It is not surprising, therefore, to find much disagreement among the lists

of personal qualities associated with leadership, especially as the personal qualities become specific. There is, however, a moderate amount of agreement among studies concerning general characteristics of leaders in many diverse situations. The point of agreement among these studies may be indicative of common characteristics of all leaders in all situations. Table 1 shows a comparison of findings from the 1948 survey with those of the 1970 survey. Positive findings of the 1948 survey are listed in Column 1, while zero and negative findings are listed in Column 2. Results of studies conducted since 1948 are shown in Column 3. Because the more recent survey involved several abstracters, it cannot be safely assumed that all negative findings are reported in Column 3 of Table 1 [Stogdill, 1974].

A positive, or significant, relationship means that either (1) a given trait was significantly correlated with some measures of leader effectiveness; (2) a sample of leaders was found to differ significantly from a sample of followers on the trait; (3) a sample of effective leaders was found to differ significantly from a sample of ineffective leaders on the trait; (4) a sample of high-status leaders was found to differ significantly from a sample of lower status leaders on the trait.

Stogdill's review has brought together under five general headings a large amount of data on the personal qualities of leaders. He classified the factors or traits that emerge in the various studies under the headings: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. "Capacity" includes intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality and judgment. "Achievement" includes scholarship, knowledge and athletic accomplishment. "Responsibility" covers dependability, initiative, per-

TABLE 1 Characteristics of Leaders (Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive	Zero or Neg.	Positive Only
	1	2	3
Physical Characteristics			
Activity, energy	5		24
Age	10	8	6
Appearance, grooming	13	3	4
Height	9	4	
Weight	7	4	
Social Background			
Education	22	5	14
Social status	15	2	19
Mobility	5		6
Intelligence and Ability			
Intelligence	23	10	25
Judgment, decisiveness	9		6
Knowledge	11		12
Fluency of speech	13		15
Personality			
Adaptability	10		
Adjustment, normality			11
Aggressiveness, assertiveness			12
Alertness	6		4
Ascendancy, dominance	11	6	31
Emotional balance, control	11	8	14
Enthusiasm			3
Extroversion	5	6	1
Independence, nonconformity			13
Objectivity, tough-mindedness			7
Originality, creativity	7		13
Personal integrity, ethical conduct	6		9
Resourcefulness			7
Self-confidence	17		28
Strength of conviction	7		
Tolerance of stress			9
Task-Related Characteristics			
Achievement drive, desire to excel	7		21
Drive for responsibility	12		17
Enterprise, initiative			10
Persistence against obstacles	12		
Responsible in pursuit of objectives	17		6
Task orientation	6		13

TABLE 1 (Continued)

	1948		1970
	Positive	Zero or Neg.	Positive Only
	1	2	3
Social Characteristics			
Ability to enlist cooperation	7		3
Administrative ability			16
Attractiveness			4
Cooperativeness	11		5
Nurturance			4
Popularity, prestige	10		1
Sociability, interpersonal skills	14		35
Social participation	20		9
Tact, diplomacy	8		4

Source: Stogdill, R. M. Hand Book of Leadership, New York: Free Press, 1974, pp. 74-75.

sistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence and the desire to excel. "Participation" includes activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability and humor. "Status" refers to the socio-economic position and popularity.

It is easy to see the extreme generality of these traits and characteristics of the leader. How each of these general characteristics might be expressed in the specific acts of an individual leader in a particular situation is not known. But at this level of generality Stogdill's summary of personal characteristics is consistent with a completely theoretical analysis of leadership offered by Brown [1936].

Brown's first law of leadership is: "The successful leader must have membership-character in the group he is attempting to lead". Membership character means that the individual is considered one of the group. This law is consistent with Stogdill's conclusion that leaders have common characteristics of participation. Sociability, adaptability, cooperativeness, and activity all refer to behavior on the part of an individual that allows him to be one of the group, rather than an outcast. Such traits make it possible for an individual to have "membership" quality in the group.

Brown's second law states: "The leader must represent a region of high potential in the social field". This law is consistent with Stogdill's conclusion that status and achievement are characteristic of leaders. It appears that a leader must have prestige, namely, "represent a region of high potential" in the estimation of those he leads. This prestige may come about in any or all of three ways; first, as a result of achievements; second, by transfer to the present situation of status achieved in other groups; third, by personification of the ideals or ideas

upon which the group is based.

The third law is: "The leader must realize the existing field structure." In his use of the term, "field structure", Brown refers to the nature of the total situation. Hence this law means that a leader must know what is going on in the group he attempts to lead. This law seems to cut across the classification of personal characteristics Stogdill has used. However, the more specific characteristics (alertness, judgment, and intelligence) do reflect this behavior. They may be indicative of an individual's ability to know what is going on in a group. The characteristic adaptability refers to the leader's ability to alter his behavior to correspond with what is going on and thus permit his leadership to fall in with the existing field structure.

Brown's fourth law is: "The really successful leader realizes the long time trends in field structure." A "really successful leader" in this case is one who remains a leader for long periods. A leader must be able to estimate what will be going on in the group in the future. This represents the planning functions of the leader. Here we might place Stogdill's traits of originality, initiative, self-confidence and intelligence. It would appear that one group of characteristics that enable a leader for any length of time has to do with those related to successful planning or foresight.

Brown's fifth law of leadership has less to do with personal characteristics of leaders. It reads: "Leadership increases in potency at the cost of decrease in freedom of leadership." This law may be translated to say that as the leader's activities become more important to the group, he

has less choice in how he will go about being a leader. Perhaps behavior represented by the trait adaptability is characteristics of personal factors involved in the implication of this law.

It can be observed from the manner in which these theoretical laws are supported by common findings in the studies of leadership that at this level of generality the concept of leadership has a core of meaning common to all situations. Such general abstract analysis can be profitably supplemented by more concrete knowledge of how the general characteristics are expressed in the actual behavior of the leader. At the behavioral level of analysis it appears that the characteristics of social situations in which leadership behavior occurs can no longer be ignored. This is supported by the findings of Stogdill in his review of leadership in 1948. A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in constant flux and change. The factor of change is especially characteristic of situations which may be radically altered by the addition or loss of members, changes in interpersonal relationship, changes in goal, competition of extra-group influence, and the like. The personal characteristics of the leader and the followers are in comparison highly stable. The persistence of individual patterns of human behavior in the face of constant situational change appears to be the primary obstacle encountered not only in the practice of leadership, but in the selection and placement of leaders. It is not especially difficult to find persons who are leaders. It is quite another

matter to place these persons in different situations where they will be able to function as leaders. It becomes clear that an adequate analysis of leadership involves not only a study of leaders, but also of situations.

Although the majority of studies, before World War II, of leadership have been attempts to find the characteristics common to leaders, a number of studies have been concerned with differences among leaders who lead in different situations. While no one of these later studies has made a thorough or systematic attempt to investigate the situational facets of the leadership problems, certain of the studies can be cited as examples of a trend toward this approach. Notable among these studies are those of Cowley [1928], Caldwell and Wellman [1926], McCuen [1929], and Hanawalt and Richardson [1944].

Cowley contrasted the traits of leaders and followers in criminal, military, and student groups. He gave 28 tests to a "small number" of leaders and followers in three group situations. He found that while leaders in each situation possessed traits differing from those of followers, the various types of leaders did not possess a single trait in common. In a later study in which 20 leaders and 20 followers in military groups and 16 leaders and 16 followers in student groups were compared, Cowley again reported marked differences between leaders and followers in both groups, but he found traits of self-confidence and speed of decision common to all three types of leaders.

Caldwell and Wellman studied seven characteristics of child leaders in six types of school activities, those of class president, student-

council members, staff members of school magazines, athletic-group captains, science club officers, and citizenship representatives. The seven characteristics studied were mental age, intelligence quotient, scholarship, extroversion, height, age and physical achievement. Leaders were compared with one another by type of activity. These investigators found athletic leaders to be tallest of the types of leaders and to excel in physical achievement. Staff members of a school paper tended to be cautious, deliberative, and sensitive -- or, as indicated by specific items of extroversion scale. They were shorter than the average of the leaders and ranked high in scholarship. Science club officers displayed high ability in science and a slight tendency to high scholarship in general. Girls who were selected as officers of a science club were markedly higher than average in intelligence and scholarship. No consistent or pronounced differences were noted among class president, student-council members and citizenship representatives. Leaders in these three situations were rated high on extroversion items such as self-confidence, eagerness for self expression and insistence upon their ideas.

McCuen studied intelligence test scores of leaders of 58 groups at Stanford University. The groups were classified as living groups. It was found that 35 of the 58 leaders scored higher on the intelligence test than did the average member of the group, but in only one group was the leader the highest-scoring member. In one group, on the other hand, the leader was the lowest scoring member. On the average, leaders exceeded the members of their groups by three points. No consistent difference could be found between the type of groups and the leaders' score on the intelligence test.

Richardson and Hanawalt investigated the difference in scores on the Bernreuter Personality Inventory between two types of leaders, supervisor and office holder. An individual was considered to be a supervisor if he directed the work of 15 or more individuals. A non-supervisor was an individual with one individual or none working under his direction. Office holders were individuals who had been presidents of or had held important chairmanships in at least two social organizations since the age of twenty-one. Non-office holders were individuals who had held no such office since the age of twenty-one. These investigators found that office holders earned scores indicating that they possessed a greater degree of dominance, more self-confidence, less neuroticism and less introversion than a non-office holder. Differences between supervisors and non-supervisors were not clear-cut on the Bernreuter measures. The findings of these four studies support the contention that characteristics of leaders' behavior are related in some way to the social situation. However, since the investigators made no attempt to study the social situation in a systematic manner, little can be concluded concerning what factors in the situation are related to what behavior of the leader. The obvious or conveniently observed difference among social situations seem to have been selected for study. There is little reason to believe that the use of this convenient and obvious way of describing group situations can yield either systematic or incisive results which relate to the behavior of leaders.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

Leadership has been studied informally by observing the lines of great men and formally by attempting to identify the personality traits of acknowledged leaders through an assessment technique. Review of the research literature from these studies, however, reveals few consistent findings. Since the second World War, researchers emphasis has shifted from a search for personality traits to a search for behavior that makes a difference in the performance or satisfaction of the follower. The conceptual scheme to be out-lined here is an example of this approach.

Ohio State Studies

The behavioral method of leadership research is best exemplified by the work done in 1950 at the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University by Hemphill, Fleishman, Stogdill, Shartle and Pepinsky. A brief description of this research will be presented here.

The early OSU research was carried out primarily by Hemphill and his co-workers. The shift in emphasis during that period was from thinking about leaders in terms of traits that someone "has" to the conceptualization of leadership as a form of activity that certain individuals may engage in. Fleishman [1973] stated, "A provisional definition of leadership which I found useful is: attempts at 'interpersonal influence, directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of some goal or goals.' This definition implies that leadership always involves attempts to influence and that all interpersonal relationships can involve elements of leadership. Thus, we can deal with traditional superior/sub-

ordinate relationships, staff/line relationships, consultant/client relationships, counselor/counselee relationships, and even the subordinate's attempts to influence his supervisor or some nonsupervisor. Although we have tended to focus on superior/subordinate relationships, this definition allows exploration of a wider range of interpersonal influence. The key issue here is that we are dealing with attempts to affect the behaviors of others and that unsuccessful attempts can be operationally defined as ineffective leadership."

"The second element of this definition, which involves the communication aspects, allows one to focus on certain moderator variables that may intervene between the attempts to affect behavior and the achievement of goals. An example would be the attitudes and meanings ascribed by subordinates to such attempts. For example, if the supervisor is seen as a helper or a disciplinarian, the same attempts to influence may communicate differently to subordinates, and these attitudes are worthy of study in their own right."

"The third element in the definition focuses on goals and this in turn, opens up a whole set of dependent variables capable of study. We can think of organization goals, group goals, and individual goals of group members; leader effectiveness can be evaluated in terms of moving the group or other individuals successfully toward such goals. Subsequent studies have shown the complexity of this goal aspect of leadership. In talking with management groups I have frequently found them surprised at the number of goals they can name after their initial focus on productivity, group output. It takes a little while, but eventually a list emerges which includes productivity, job satisfaction, turnover,

grievances, absences, costs, employee development, loyalty, accident reduction, 'creativity,' and problem solving. Issues of short-term and long-term goals eventually come out of the discussion. The important point for our present discussion is that work on leadership with this conceptualization allowed us to focus programmatically on the behavior of people in leadership positions, the associative communication processes by which this leadership behavior is transmitted, and finally, the effectiveness of this behavior in moving the group or other individuals toward one or more goals or sets of goals. It also showed us that the problem of evaluating leadership is highly complex and that optimizing the achievement of a complex set of possibly contradictory goals is a key problem in the study of leadership." So OSU researchers developed a Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire containing 150 items which described how people in leadership positions operate in their leadership roles. These 150 items were derived from an original item "pool" of over 1800 items which had originally been classified into nine assumed dimensions of leadership by a group of experts. These nine assumed dimensions were [Fleishman, 1973]:

Initiation - the frequency with which a supervisor originates, facilitates, or appoints new ideas or new practices (e.g., he tries out new ideas on the group; he changes his approach to meet new problems).

Representation - the frequency with which a leader defends his group against attack, advances the interest of his group, and acts in behalf of his group with outside agencies (e.g., he publicizes outstanding work of members of his group; he tries to keep his group in good standing with

those higher up; he stands up for his group).

Fraternization - the frequency with which a supervisor mixes with the group, stresses informal interaction between himself and members, or interchanges personal services with members (e.g., he calls members by their first names; he asks to be called by his first name; he attends social events of the group; he helps members with their personal problems).

Organization - the frequency with which the supervisor defines or structures his own work, the work of other members, or the relationships among members in the performance of their work--acts which spell out duties and ways of getting things done (e.g., he stresses S. O. P.) he sees that members have the materials they need; he assigns particular tasks to individuals).

Domination - the frequency with which the supervisor restricts the behavior of individuals or the group in their activities, decision making, and expression of opinion (e.g., he refuses to compromise a point; he refuses to explain his actions; he encourages others to express their opinions; he gets group approval on important decisions before going ahead).

Recognition - the frequency with which a supervisor engages in behavior which expresses approval or disapproval of group members--actions which evaluate group members and deal with distribution of rewards (e.g., he gives credit when credit is due; he sees that workers are rewarded for a job well done; he rides workers who make mistakes).

Production emphasis - the frequency with which the supervisor sets levels of effort or prods members for greater effort or achievement

oriented toward volume of work (e.g., he encourages slow workers to greater effort; he talks about how much should be done).

Integration - the frequency with which a supervisor tries to increase cooperation among group members, tries to reduce conflicts within the work group, or promotes individual adjustment to the group (e.g., he encourages members to work as a team; he tries to stop rumors when they occur; he encourages understanding of points of view of other members).

Communication-down- the frequency with which the supervisor provides information to group members to increase understanding and knowledge about what is going on (e.g., he gives advance notice of changes; he reports progress to the group; he calls the group together to discuss the work).

Communication-up- the frequency with which the supervisor seeks information and tries to keep informed about what is going on in the group (e.g., he is aware of conflicts in the group when they occur; he knows about it when something goes wrong; he finds the time to listen to group members).

As Fleishman [1953] has pointed out, while the resulting scores on these nine subscales turned out to be very reliable, the subscales also turned out to be very highly correlated with each other, thus they were apparently not really different aspects of leadership behavior. The 150 items were therefore analyzed further using factor analysis. The results were rather interesting. Two major distinct groupings of supervisory behavior emerged through this process.

These two categories were defined as "consideration" and "initiation of structure". The definition of "consideration" and "structure" are as

follows:

Consideration: It involves behavior indicating friendship, mutual trust, respect, a certain warmth and rapport between the supervisor and his group. Further research suggested that emphasis on friendship be less and the tolerance for two-way communication becomes a key feature of this dimension. High scores on items such as "He makes those feel at ease when talking to them," "He put suggestions into operation," would be diagnostic items. A low score would indicate the supervisor who is arbitrary and impersonal in his relation. For example, "He demands more than we can do," "He rides the man who makes a mistake."

Structure: (In the literature it is sometimes called initiating structure.) It involves acts which imply that the leader organizes and defines the relationship in the group, tends to establish well defined patterns and channels of communication and ways of getting the job done (e.g., he assigns people to particular tasks, he emphasizes deadlines, etc.)

His research concludes that these two concepts are independent of each other; that is, any one person may behave in a manner to demonstrate either or both of these characteristics. In leadership studies which followed the Ohio State Research, it was found that leadership styles vary considerably from leader to leader. The behavior of some leaders is characterized by rigidly structuring activities of followers in terms of task accomplishment, while others concentrate on building high consideration by maintaining good personal relationship between themselves and their followers, other leaders have styles characterized by both task (structure) and relationships (consideration).

There are even some individuals in leadership positions whose behavior tends to provide little structure or development of interpersonal relationship. No dominant style appears. Instead, various combinations are evident. Thus, the Ohio State studies resulted in the development of four quadrants to illustrate leadership styles in terms of initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationship) as shown in Figure 1.

Early Survey Research Center Studies

Concurrent with the Ohio State studies was a similar program of research in human relations at the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. Approaching the problem of leadership or supervisory style by locating clusters of characteristics which (a) correlated positively among themselves and (b) correlated with criteria of effectiveness, this program developed two concepts called "employee orientation" and "production orientation."

Employee orientation is described as behavior by a supervisor, which indicates that he feels that the "human relations" aspect of the job is quite important; and that he considers the employees as human beings of intrinsic importance, takes an interest in them, and accepts their individuality and personal needs. Production orientation stresses production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees as means for getting work done; it seems to combine the Ohio State dimensions of initiating structure and production emphasis. Originally conceived to be opposite poles of the same continuum, employee orientation and production orientation were later reconceptualized, on the basis of further data, as representing independent dimensions.

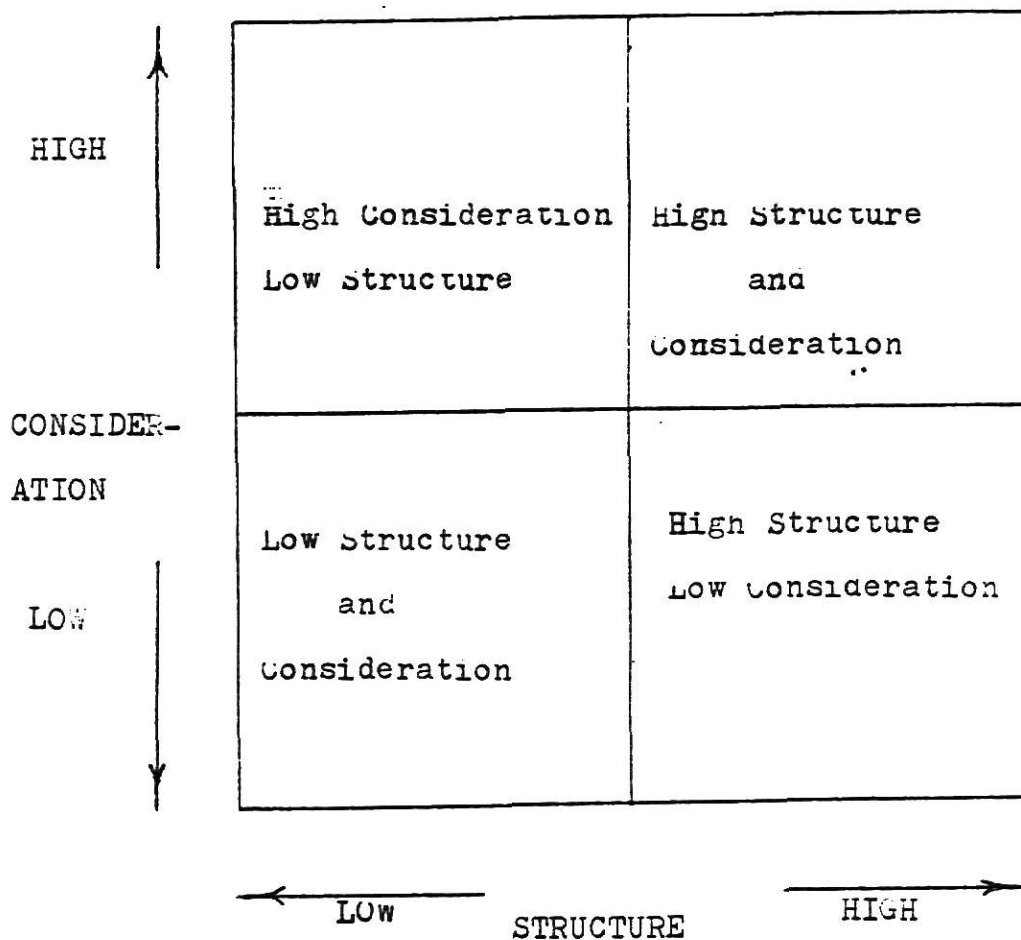


Figure 1. The Ohio State leadership quadrants

Source: Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," Classic of Organizational Behaviour, ed. by Natemeyer, E. E., Oak Park, Illinois: Moore Publishing Company, Inc. 1978, pp.217.

Katz and Kahn [1956], writing from a greater accumulation of findings, presented another conceptual scheme, with four dimensions of leadership:

1. Differentiation of Supervisory Role. Behavior by a leader that reflects greater emphasis upon activities of planning and performing specialized skilled tasks; spending a greater proportion of time in actual supervision, rather than performing the men's own tasks himself or absorption in impersonal paperwork.

2. Closeness of Supervision. Behavior that delegates authority, checks upon subordinates less frequently, provides more general, less frequent instructions about the work, makes greater allowance for individuals to perform in their own ways and at their own paces.

3. Employee Orientation. Behavior that gives major emphasis to a supportive personal relationship, and that reflects a personal interest in subordinates; being more understanding, less punitive, easy to talk to, and willing to help groom employees for advancement.

4. Group Relationships. Behavior by the leader that results in group cohesiveness, pride by subordinates in their work group, a feeling of membership in the group, and mutual help on the part of those subordinates.

Differentiation of supervisory role corresponds in part to what the Ohio State studies refer to as initiating structure or objective attainment behavior, and clearly derives from the earlier concept of production orientation. Closeness of supervision, on the other hand, has something in common with maintenance of membership character, consideration, and employee orientation, but also with objective attainment behavior, initia-

ting structure, and production orientation. Employee orientation clearly corresponds to the earlier concept by the same name, while group relationships is to some extent similar to the interaction facilitation behavior and social sensitivity of the Ohio State studies.

In still another conceptualization, combining theory with review of empirical data, Kahn [1958] postulated four supervisory functions:

1. Providing Direct Need Satisfaction. Behavior by a leader not conditional upon behavior of the employee, which provides direct satisfaction of the employee's ego and affiliative needs.
2. Structuring the Path to Goal Attainment. Behavior that cues subordinates toward filling personal needs through attaining organizational goals.
3. Enabling Goal Achievement. Behavior that removes barriers to goal attainment, such as eliminating bottlenecks, or planning.
4. Modifying Employee Goals. Behavior that influences the actual personal goals of subordinates in organizationally useful directions.

Direct need satisfaction clearly resembles consideration and employee orientation; enabling goal achievement seems similar to initiating structure or objective attainment behavior; structuring the path to goal attainment and modifying employee goals are probably closer to the Ohio State production emphasis factor.

Studies at the Research Center for Group Dynamics

Cartwright and Zander [1960], at the Research Center for Group Dynamics, on the basis of accumulated findings, described leadership in

terms of two sets of group functions.

1. **Group Maintenance Functions.** Behavior that keeps interpersonal relations pleasant, resolves disputes, provides encouragement, gives the minority a chance to be heard, stimulates self-direction, and increases interdependence among members.
2. **Goal Achievement Functions.** Behavior that initiates action, keeps members' attention on the goal, develops a procedural plan, evaluates the quality of work done, and makes expert information available.

These descriptive terms clearly refer to broader constructs than consideration or initiating structure. Group maintenance functions, for example, include what has been termed consideration, maintenance of membership character, or employee orientation, but they also include functions concerned with relationships among group members not in formal authority positions. This concept is in some ways similar to group interaction facilitation behavior in the Ohio State factor analysis of Hemphill and Coon [1957]. Goal achievement functions seem to encompass what the Ohio State studies referred to as initiating structure (production emphasis) or objective attainment behavior, and what early Survey Research Center studies called production orientation.

Mann's Three Skills

In subsequent work at the Survey Research Center built upon earlier findings, a recent classification, proposed by several writers and developed and operationalized by Mann [1965] treats leadership in terms of a trilogy of skills required of supervisors or managers. Although

behaviors requiring particular skills and those skills themselves are not necessarily perfectly parallel, it seems reasonable to assume at least an approximate correspondence between the two. The three skills are:

1. **Human Relations Skill**. Ability and judgment in working with and through people, including knowledge of principles of human behavior, interpersonal relations, and human motivation.
2. **Technical Skill**. Ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques, and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks.
3. **Administrative Skill**. Ability to understand and act according to the objectives of the total organization, rather than only on the basis of the goals and needs of one's own immediate group. It includes planning, organizing the work, assigning the right tasks to the right people, inspecting, following up, and coordinating the work.

Likert's New Patterns of Management

Likert [1961], of the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, building upon many of the findings of the Survey Research Center and the Research Center for Group Dynamics as well as upon his own early work in the same area for the Life Insurance Agency Management Association, describes five conditions for effective supervisory behavior.

1. **Principle of Supportive Relations**. The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in his interactions and his relationships with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as suppor-

tive, and as one that builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

2. **Group Methods of Supervision.** Management will make full use of the potential capacities of its human resources only when each person in an organization is a member of one or more effectively functioning work groups that have a high degree of group loyalty, effective skills of interaction, and high performance goals.
3. **High Performance Goals.** If a high level of performance is to be achieved, it appears to be necessary for a supervisor to be employee-centered, and at the same time to have high performance goals and a contagious enthusiasm as to the importance of achieving these goals.
4. **Technical Knowledge.** The (effective) leader has adequate competence to handle the technical problems faced by his group, or he sees that access to this technical knowledge is fully provided.
5. **Coordinating, Scheduling, Planning.** The leader fully reflects and effectively represents the views, goals, values, and decisions of his group in those other groups where he is performing the function of linking his group to the rest of the organization. He brings to the group of which he is the leader the views, goals, and decision of those other groups. In this way, he provides a linkage whereby communication and the exercise of influence can be performed in both directions.

Managerial Grid

A theory of effective management, based on OSU findings, known as the "Managerial Grid" was outlined by Blake and Mouton [1964]. Blake takes the position that the two critical dimensions of effective leadership are (1) concern for people, and (2) concern for production. According to Blake these two dimensions are independent, a manager can be high on both, low on both, high on one and low on the other, etc. Any combination is possible. His theory or model is illustrated in the 9 x 9 grid shown in Figure 2.

Optimal management in this model is what Blake refers to as the 9,9 manager. This type of leader is extremely concerned with both production and the people working with and for him. Blake proposes that managers be trained to behave in the 9,9 pattern through a two-stage training process (management development followed by organizational development) involving six phases.

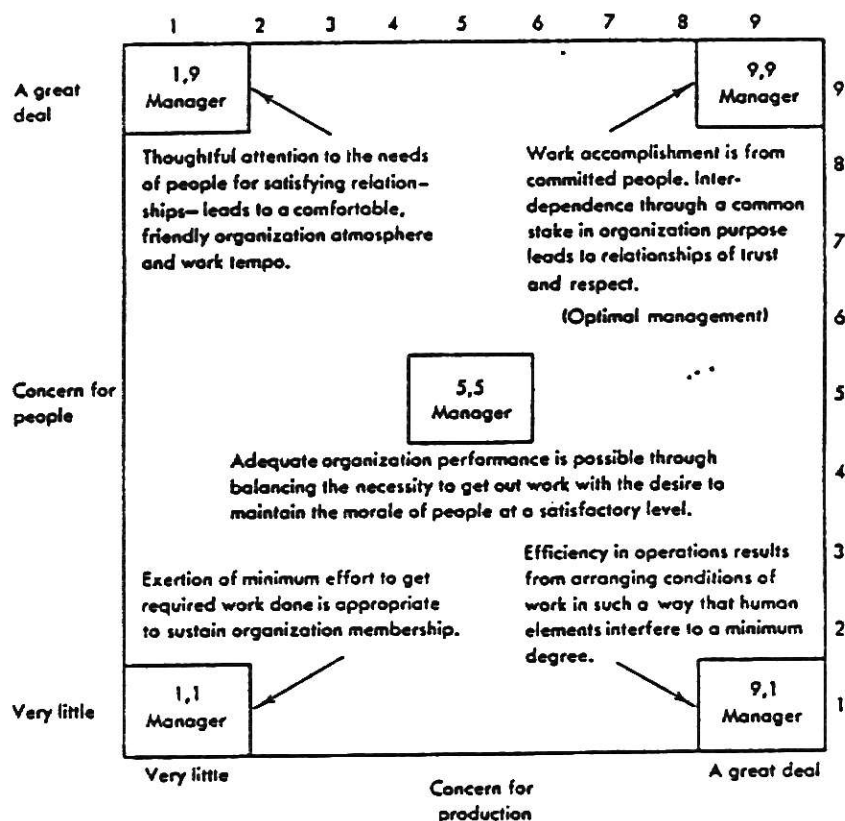


Figure 2. "Managerial Grid" suggested by Blake and Mouton. (Adapted from R. R. Blake et al. Breakthrough in organization development. Harvard Business Review, 1964, 42, Nov-Dec, 133-155.)

SITUATION LEADERSHIP

It has been observed that a complete approach to leadership must include the social situation in which a pattern of behavior, identifiable as leadership, occurs. While many investigators have recognized the importance of situational factors in leadership, their effort has, for the most part been confined to the studies of personal characteristics of individuals designated as leader. A few studies in which situational factors have been given some consideration have yielded disappointingly little information about how factors in the situation are related in leadership, but they do lend strong support to the view that the situation must be taken into account. So to investigate the effectiveness of leadership, not only the characteristics of leaders, is an important area of investigation but also the situational factors are the primary area of investigation.

Research on Situational Leadership

Effectiveness of leader behavior related to situational factors has been studied since World War II by many researchers. Hemphill [1949] studied the problem of leadership. He defined leadership as the behavior of an individual who is involved in directing group activities. His definition of leadership points to two areas for study: on one hand, the behavior of an individual is to be studied, on the other hand, the group becomes an important consideration.

In their 1958 article, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Tannenbaum and Schmidt viewed leader behavior on a continuum ranging from au-

thoritarian (boss centered) to "democratic" (subordinate centered) and discussed numerous behavior points occurring along this spectrum. The problem facing leaders was how to be "democratic" in relationship with subordinates while maintaining adequate authority and control within the organization. In making this decision, managers were asked to examine various forces in themselves, forces in their subordinates and forces inherent in the situation. The unique circumstances of situation then determines the appropriate pattern of leader behavior.

In 1967 Fiedler's theory of leadership effectiveness stated that appropriate leadership style is determined by three critical elements in the leader's situation: 1) the power position of the leader; 2) the task structure; 3) the leader-member personal relationships. The nature of these three factors determines the "favorableness" of the situation for the leader, which in turn requires a particular leadership style. Fiedler viewed leader's, behavior as a single dimension ranging from "task-oriented" to "relationship-oriented". He contended that task-oriented leaders perform best in very favorable or very unfavorable situations, whereas relationship-oriented leaders are best in mixed situations. Fiedler concluded by suggesting that it is to the organization's advantage to try to design jobs to fit leaders' style rather than attempting to fit leaders' behavior to the situation. This is called the Fiedler's "Contingency Model of Leadership".

Another "Contingency Model" was described by Vroom and Yetton in 1968. It rests on the assumption that no one decision-making process is best under all circumstances, and that its effectiveness is dependent upon identifiable properties of the situation. The situational characteristics

are attributes of the particular problem or decision rather than more general role characteristics. These attributes are the building blocks of the model and represent the means of diagnosing the nature of the problem of the decision at hand so as to determine the optimal decision process for leaders providing fewer opportunities for participation: 1) when they possess all the necessary information rather than when they lack some of the needed information; 2) when the problem they face is well structured rather than unstructured; 3) when their subordinates' acceptance of the decision is not critical for the effective implementation of the decision or when the prior probability of acceptance of an autocratic decision is high, and 4) when the personal goals of their subordinates are not congruent with the goals of the organization.

Hersay and Blanchard [1969] are noted for their conceptualization of the "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership". Like Fiedler's "Contingency Model", Life Cycle Theory is situational in nature. It suggests that the appropriate leadership style for a particular situation is primarily dependent upon the task maturity level of the follower(s).

Maturity is defined as a function of task relevant education and experience, achievement motivation and willingness and ability to accept responsibility. Leadership is seen as a combination of two types of behavior: "Task Behavior" (Directive), ranging from low to high, and "Relationships Behavior" (supportive), ranging from low to high. If a follower is assessed to be extremely "immature" the theory suggests that high task--low relationship, is the appropriate leadership style. As the follower matures, the theory suggests that the leader's behavior should

move from high task--low relationship to high task-high relationship to high relationship--low task, to low task--low relationships.

House and Mitchell's 1974 article, "Path-Goal Theory of Leadership," presents a theory similar to the expectancy theory of motivation by Vroom in that it focuses upon the leader's impact on the motivational performance and satisfaction of his subordinates. The theory is called "Path-Goal" because it is primarily concerned with how the leaders influence the subordinates' perceptions of their task goals and the paths to goal attainment. They espouse two general propositions; 1) that leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as a source of immediate or future satisfaction and 2) that the leader's behavior will increase subordinates' efforts to the extent that such behavior makes satisfaction of subordinates' needs dependent on effective performance and that such behavior provides the guidance, support, and rewards necessary for effective performance. The means by which leaders can enhance subordinates' motivation to perform are discussed, as are a number of studies that have provided empirical support for the theory. The authors conclude by suggesting that the conceptual nature of path-goal theory and its relative infancy are likely to make it more useful as a means of stimulating insight into the leadership process than as a proven guide for managerial activities.

All of the above are situational leadership theories. The most widely publicized theory is the "Contingency Model" of Fiedler. This theory, like most other theories in the leadership area, tries to answer the question, "What kind of leadership is required for what kind of situa-

tion?" The problem basically consists of classifying leadership styles or behaviors, or classifying leadership situations, and of mating a particular type of leadership to a particular leadership situation.

Fiedler [1964] has proposed a model for leadership effectiveness which proposes that the qualities necessary for effectiveness vary as a function of the situation, and outlines a three dimensional system for classifying leadership situation depending up leader relation with group members, task structure and power inherent. The following discussion is a further explanation of Fiedler's Theory.

Fiedler's Theory. By leadership style Fiedler means a relatively consistent way of interacting with others who are in a subordinate position. Fiedler has identified two motivational patterns, "relationship motivated" and "task motivated". Both are measured by a simple bipolar adjective scale that asks the individual (a) to think of everyone with whom he has worked and (b) to describe the one person with whom he could work least well. This description of his "least preferred co-worker," (LPC) is made by marking sixteen to twenty items such as the following:

Friendly	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly
Cooperative	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Uncooperative

The sum of the item scale constitutes the individual's LPC score. A relatively high LPC score indicates a relationship motivated person while a low LPC score indicates a task motivated person.

Fiedler stated that the high LPC (relationship motivated) person is consistently friendly, considerate and concerned with interpersonal rela-

tions. Good examples of such leaders are "He calls members by their first name," "He asks to be called by his first name," "He attends social events of the group," "He helps members with their personal problems." The low LPC (task motivated) person is consistently job oriented, concerned with the task and pushing for productivity. Good examples of such leaders are, "He assigns people to particular tasks," "He emphasizes deadlines," "He does not interfere if the work is going steady."

Categorizing the Situation. Now the question is how to develop a categorization of situations. Consider for a moment that a leader-member relationship is, in effect, a power relationship. In other words leadership is seen as a problem of who is able to influence whom to do what. If now someone wants to categorize leadership situations it seems reasonable to look at the degree to which the situation makes the exercise of power and influence easy or difficult. It is relatively easy to control people if they like and trust their leader, if they feel a personal loyalty to him and desire to follow him. Conversely, it is difficult to lead when the group dislikes, distrusts or rejects its leader.

A second important aspect of the situation that influences the leader's power is the nature of the task. The leader who knows more than the members or has at his disposal a step-by-step procedure for performing the task will find it relatively easy to control and influence the group. He will be able to tell his group members exactly what to do.

A third important aspect is that the organization can give the leader support. If a subordinate does not follow explicit orders, he can be punished. So the leader will have greater power if he can reward and

punish or if he can promote or demote. A leader who has been given "fate control" over his members will obviously be in a more powerful situation than someone who has no formal or legitimate power.

Fiedler has identified three major aspects (mentioned above) of the leader's situation that provides him with power and influence that makes the situation "favorable" or "unfavorable" for him. Although other situational components play a role, he feels that the three described aspects are probably the most important. Others of less importance might be the members' ability and their motivation, whether (a) the group is homogenous or heterogeneous in opinions and attitudes; (b) the members are able to get along with the leader and also with each other, and (c) the leader has influence with his own superior. These three aspects enable researchers roughly to scale the favorableness of the leadership situation and can be visualized as an eight-celled cube with leader-member relations shown on the horizontal axis, position power on the vertical axis and task structure on the front-to-back axis (Figure 3). Octant I represents the most favorable situation. Groups falling into this octant would have (a) accepted and trusted leaders with (b) structure tasks and (c) high position power. Octant II would be somewhat less favorable. Although the tasks are structured and the leaders liked, they do not have very much position power. Continuing in this fashion, the Octant VIII represents the case where leaders (a) are not accepted (b) have unstructured vague tasks and (c) have low position power.

Which Style for Which Situation? Given a meaningful system of classifying situations, the critical question is what specific kind of leader-

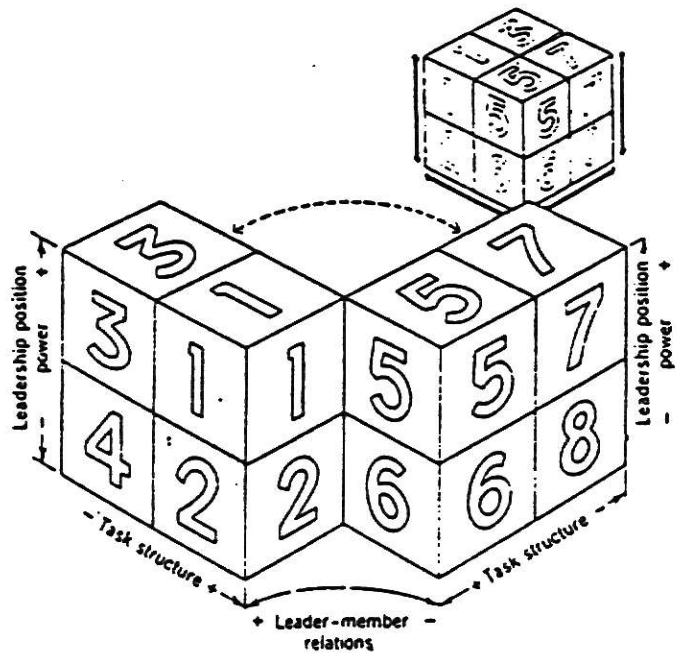


Figure 3. Schematic representation of the situational favorableness dimension. Reprinted from Harvard Business Review, September-October, 1965, P. 117.

ship style each of these situations calls for. Figure 4 shows the favorableness of the situation on the horizontal axis, with the most favorable octant I to the left and the least favorable octant to the right. Since a high LPC score indicates a relationship-oriented leadership style, a positive correlation (shown a point above the midline) indicates that the relationship motivated (high LPC) leaders were more effective than the task-motivated leaders. A negative correlation (shown as a point below the midline) indicates that the task-motivated leaders tended to be more effective than the relationship motivated leaders. The larger the correlation in either the positive or negative direction, the greater the confidence of researchers that they are not dealing with chance findings [Fiedler, 1971].

Looking at the graph it is noted that the task-motivated (low LPC) leaders tended to perform better than relationship-motivated leaders in very favorable and in relatively unfavorable situations. The relationship-motivated (high LPC leaders) tended to perform better than task-motivated leaders in situations of intermediate favorableness. Fiedler suggests that task-motivated as well as relationship-motivated types of persons can be effective leaders provided they are placed in the right situations and almost anyone is likely to be ineffective in others. The theory also suggests that one cannot really talk about a good or a poor leader because the effectiveness of the leader is determined in large part by the situation [Fiedler, 1964]. Logically, if it is to be wished to improve leadership performance, one can do so by; (a) training the leader to change his style; (b) assigning the leader to situations in which he will be effective, or (c) modifying the situation so that it will be

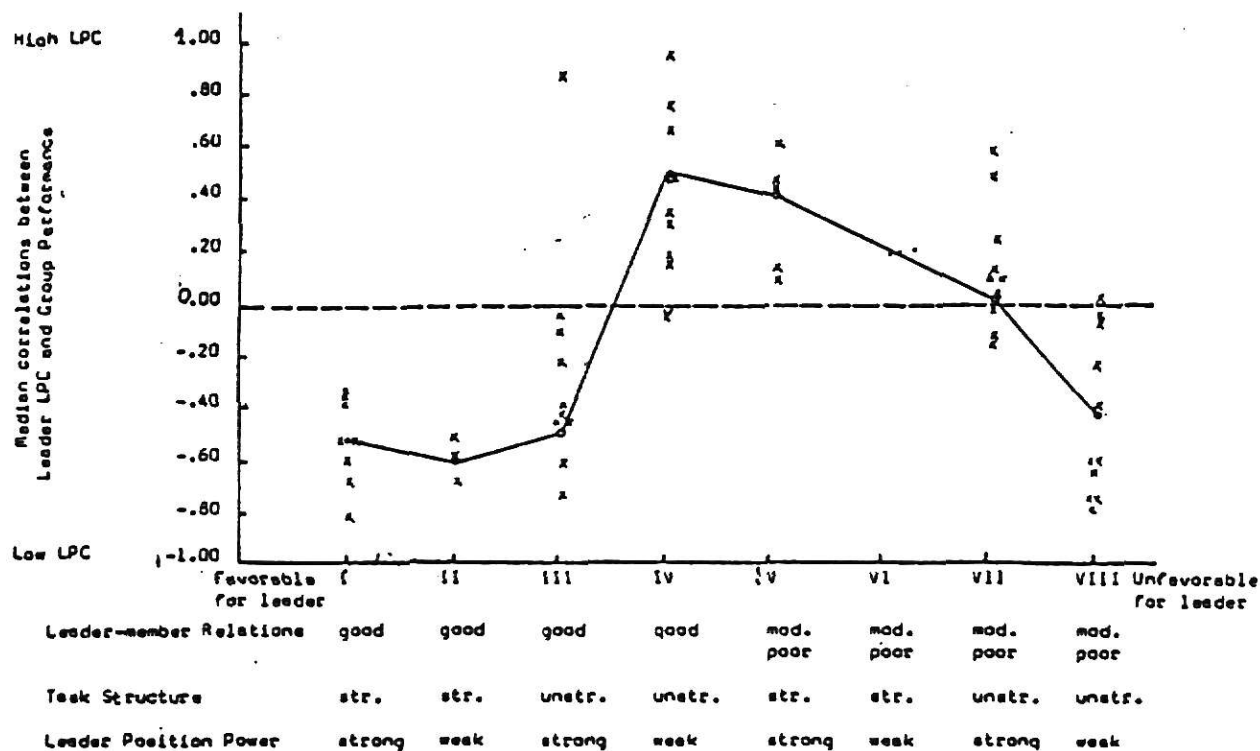


Figure 4. Correlations between leader's LPC scores and group effectiveness plotted for each cell.

Source: Fiedler, F. E. Leadership, New York: General Learning Press, 1971, pp 13.

appropriate to the leader's style or motivation pattern. Fiedler [1970], however, does not believe in the possibility of training leaders.

Fiedler and his associate have tested the various elements of the contingency model in a variety of organizational settings [Hunt, 1966; Hill, 1969; Fiedler, 1972 and Shwan and Blum, 1966]. Criticisms, however, have been raised. The Stinson and Tracy [1972] study suggests that the LPC score may not be stable over time so that a high LPC (task oriented) leader might be a low LPC (task-oriented) leader if measured at varying intervals of time. Such a finding, if substantiated, would limit the validity of the model's application.

The Fishbein, Landy and Hatch [1969] study has questioned exactly what the LPC score actually measures. According to them, the nature, meaning and correlates of the LPC score should be seriously reconsidered. Another critical issue is the low correlation between Leaders' LPC and performance. Such low correlations indicate the limited-validity of the model.

Fiedler describes situation and style of leadership as if human beings are not involved. People live in groups and the leader leads them, which implies that "situation" should be described in terms of group situation.

Hemphill [1948] suggested the criteria which a group situation should meet.

Group situation should refer to characteristics common to a large majority of groups in order to be able to compare each group with other groups.

Group situation should refer to psychologically meaningful characteristics of the groups. Characteristics of groups with little or no psychological meaning are not likely to be significantly related to the behavior of an individual in the leadership role.

Group situation should refer to molar, in preference to molecular, characteristics of groups. Molar characteristics of groups refer to their larger, coarser, more macroscopic properties as compared to molecular characteristics.

Group situation should be capable of quantitative expression through inferences from verbal reports of members in the groups.

The Fiedler model does not follow the above criteria and rules for determining the group situation. Fiedler describes situation in terms of favorable or unfavorable, which are arbitrary terms because they do not distinguish a situation from another situation, having no psychological meaning and no molar characteristics.

On the other hand, when he describes the style (behavior) of leadership, he is considering the task orientated and relationship oriented behavior as opposite ends of a single continuum which is far in contradiction to the "Leadership Behavior" researchs. In fact it is not necessary that a leader can only be task oriented or relationship oriented. Instead, these patterns of leadership behavior are separate and distinct dimensions (OSU research) which can be plotted on two axis, rather than a single continuum. Figure 5 is a graphical illustration of Fiedler's approach of collapsing two behavior dimension (i.e., relationship-oriented and task-oriented) into one continuum.

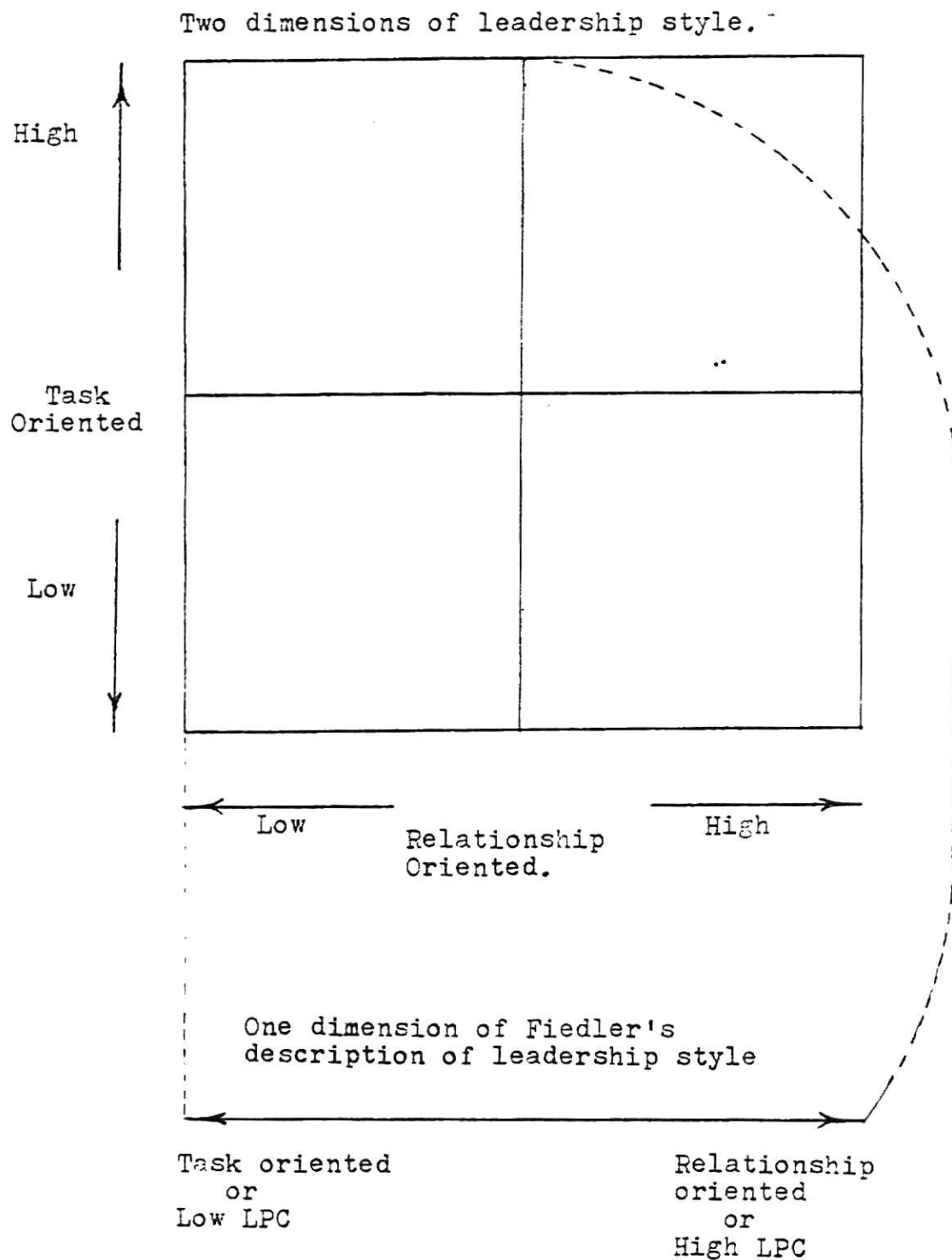


Figure 5. One dimensional approach by Fiedler on leadership style.

To resolve these problems, in literature of "leadership" there are two studies, one by Hemphill in 1948 and the other "Ohio State Studies" which have covered respectively, group dimension and leader's behavior more thoroughly. There is substantial reliability in their researches, especially when a relatively large number of groups and members are asked to describe their group situation and leader behavior.

The OSU research has already been discussed in the preceeding Chapter. In the next chapter, the Hemphill "Group Dimension" will be discussed in detail.

GROUP DIMENSIONS

Hemphill [1949] described a study to define "group situation" in connection with "situational leadership" theory. A summary of his chapter is stated here. Hemphill stated that a "group situation" is a collection (resultant) of different variables (dimensions). These group-variables should refer to characteristics common to a large majority of groups. In order to be able to compare each group with every other group, the variable should exist to some degree in all groups. A variable which could be applied to describe only a small number of groups would be restricted in its usefulness. This requirement means that characteristics existing in varying degrees in all groups are preferred to characteristics peculiar to one or just a few groups.

Group-variables should refer to psychologically meaningful characteristics of the groups. Characteristics of groups with little or no psychological meaning are not likely to be significantly related to the behavior of an individual in the leadership role. For example, the geographic location of a group or the average physical weight of the members would very likely have little relation to the behavior of a leader. Even though a relationship between the behavior of leaders and the geographic location of the group should be found, such a relation would be extremely difficult to interpret and would lead to little understanding of general significance.

Group-variables should refer to molar, in preference to molecular, characteristics of groups. Molar characteristics of groups refer to their larger, coarser, more macroscopic properties. Molar and molecular, of

course, are relative to the phenomena to which they are applied. Such a characteristic as the average reaction time of an individual could be considered a molecular property of a group but would be a molar variable, for example, in Hull's [1943] behavior theory. It would seem likely that a study of situational factors in leadership will proceed more rapidly by starting with characteristics more molar in character than such variables as average reaction time or the frequency of handshaking behavior. A second consideration dictating the choice of molar variables in preference to molecular variables is that of the sheer number of molecular variables which would be required to describe a group. This is an especially important consideration if anything like complete coverage of situational factors is to be attempted.

Each group-variable should be relatively free of overlap with other group variables. If two variables refer to practically the same properties of the group, little is gained by adding the second variable to the system.

Group-variables should be capable of quantitative expression through inferences from verbal reports of members in the groups. This requirement is determined in part by the questionnaire method of collecting information about a group. Quantitative variables are preferred to qualitative classification of characteristics because of the more precise description they permit and because they offer greater flexibility in analysis.

To meet these criteria, a number of descriptive words and phrases were selected which had been employed by sociologists and social psychologists in discussing group phenomena. The manner in which various writers have described group characteristics yields an extensive set of descrip-

tive terms. The more productive sources of descriptive words and phrases were Lewin [1939], Krout [1942], Dodd [1942], and Sanderson [1938]. The compilation of descriptive characteristics of group is given here:

1. Institutional versus individual means of groups
2. Importance of the group
3. Participation by members
4. Time spent in the group by members
5. Agreeableness of membership
6. Status of members
7. Acceptance of the group by a member
8. Group's acceptance of member
9. Clarity of group goals
10. Identification with the group
11. Acceptance of group goals
12. Social distance between members
13. Formality of group organization
14. Group atmosphere (autocratic, democratic, laissez faire)
15. Involvement of members
16. Homogeneity of membership
17. Permeability of group boundaries
18. Degree of outside competition
19. Interference from larger groups
20. Interdependence of members
21. Activity level of the group
22. Differentiation of group structure
23. Stability of the group
24. Temporary versus permanent groups
25. Emergency groups
26. Complexity of structure
27. Stratification
28. Degree of solidarity
29. Degree of exclusiveness
30. Degree of cohesion
31. Positive versus negative cohesion
32. Degree of freedom of members
33. Time perspective of the group
34. Size of the group
35. Predominant sex of group members
36. Average age of members
37. Length of the group's existence
38. Intimacy among group members
39. Consensus
40. Degree of mutual suppressions

Hemphill, J. K. "Group descriptive," *Situational Factors in Leadership*, 1949, p. 28.

The descriptive characteristics of groups in the list appear to overlap one another to a considerable degree. The 15 descriptive dimension used in Hemphill's study finally were derived by a process of extraction of the common factors running through the list. The process was guided by the minimum requisites previously discussed. It was believed that a process of extracting the common elements in group description would utilize the experience of previous attempts to describe groups and would yield a much more concise and systematic means of talking about groups. This "inspectional factor analysis" led to the following 15 group dimensions. The descriptive words and phrases from which the dimensions were extracted are indicated by the numbers in parenthesis following each dimension.

1. **Size of the Group** (34). Groups vary in size as indicated by the number in the group.
2. **Viscosity** (7, 8, 20, 28, 30, 31, 39). Viscosity refers to that characteristic of the group which sets the group apart from what would otherwise be a collection of individuals. The concept of viscosity as a group dimension covers what has been referred to by other writers as "togetherness," "we feeling", and "cohesion."
3. **Homogeneity** (12, 16, 35). Groups vary in the diversity of their membership. In groups of very high homogeneity every member may be similar to every other member as judged by several criteria. Each member may be of approximately the same age, each may belong to approximately the same outside groups, each may have a great amount of common interest with other members, and each may have approximately the same general socio-economic status. On the

other hand, groups low in homogeneity are those in which the members are of both sexes, and of all ages, interests, and socio-economic classes.

4. **Flexibility** (13, 22, 27). Groups vary in the degree to which their organization adheres to an established, persisting mode of behavior. Groups of high flexibility have no set ways of going about their functions. Each activity occurs as the result of a new problem. Any member of the group may engage in any or all of the group's activities. However, in groups of low flexibility each person has a definite place and definite duties within the organization. Ways of behaving are definitely specified in writing. Planning and organization, rules and regulations, custom and tradition, are important.
5. **Permeability** (8, 17, 29). Groups vary in the degree to which they have set themselves off from those who do not belong. Restrictions are often placed upon membership in group. Groups of low permeability admit only a selected few and are not open to all comers. Such restrictions on membership may take the form of limitations based on age, on sex, or on social or financial status. Groups low in permeability may overtly restrict membership by requiring that members conform with some degree of rigor to certain entrance requirements. Groups of high permeability, on the other hand, are actively seeking membership. Anyone and everyone is a welcome member. Entrance requirements are non-existent or easy to meet. Such groups are open to everyone who

wishes to join.

6. **Polarization** (9, 11, 18, 33). Groups vary in the degree to which they are oriented toward a single clear definite goal. Highly polarized groups have one definite purpose toward which each member works. Groups in which polarization is low have goals that are not at all clear to any of the members or a number of goals toward each of which some of the members work.
7. **Stability** (23, 24, 25, 37). Groups vary in the rapidity with which major changes occur within them. Stable groups exist for years without major changes occurring. They may have a relatively permanent membership, and may continue for a long time with the same leadership, organization, and activities. Other less stable groups may have a shifting membership (rapid turnover), and frequent changes in leadership, organization, and activities. They may exist for only a short time, and during that time are in a continual state of flux.
8. **Intimacy** (12, 20, 38). Groups vary in the degree to which the members are acquainted. In intimate groups, every member is well acquainted with every other member. The most personal problems may be freely discussed among members. In less intimate groups, members may be complete strangers. Awareness of other members may exist only as a vague impression of their existence.
9. **Autonomy** (1, 19, 31). Groups vary in the degree to which they are independent of other groups. Autonomous groups are completely independent units, showing no allegiance or deference to any other group. Less autonomous groups may be controlled to the point of

complete domination by other groups, perhaps a parent group or an organizationally larger unit. Independence, association, federation, and chartering represent degrees along a continuum of autonomy.

10. **Control** (14, 32, 40). Groups vary in the degree to which the behavior of their members is regulated by membership in the group. Members in groups where control is low have practically as much freedom as they would have were they non-members. In other groups where control is high, almost every aspect of the member's life is governed by his membership. This regulation of the member's behavior may take the form of voluntary loyalty or various forms of compulsion; however, it is the degree to which the member's behavior is regulated by the group that is considered in this factor.
11. **Position** (6, 12). This dimension applies to the position of the individual completing the questionnaire within a group he has been selected to describe. Members of groups vary with regard to their position or status within the group. Some members hold minor offices and are frequently assigned to serve on one committee or another, or are called upon in time of emergency or absence of the usual leader. They have a high position in the group. Other members are designated as junior members or apprentices, or simply looked upon as ordinary members. These members have a low position with the group.

12. **Potency** (1, 2, 10, 11, 15). The potency of group membership is related to the strength of the needs of the individual that are satisfied by group membership. Membership in a group may be very important or it may mean very little to an individual. A group is very potent for an individual if needs that are central to him are likely to be satisfied by the activities of the group. Potency of membership may also be determined to some extent by the nature of the readjustments the individual would be required to make should the group fail or should he be forced to leave the group. The group becomes low in potency when very minor peripheral needs are involved or when the probability of satisfying more central needs in group activities appears to the individual to be low.
13. **Hedonic Tone** (7, 5, 31). Membership in a group may vary in terms of the general feeling of satisfaction, the general tone of pleasantness and agreeableness, associated with membership. Membership in groups low on this dimension may be distinctly distasteful. The only forces keeping the member in the group are pressures from the outside or the lack of a better way of meeting some need. Membership in groups high in hedonic tone may be a happy satisfying experience. Group membership could perhaps be placed somewhere along a continuum in respect to the general hedonic tone of being a member, ranging from extreme unpleasantness to complete agreeableness.
14. **Participation** (3, 4, 11, 15, 21). Participation refers entirely to a member's relation to his group. The degree of an indivi-

dual's participation may be determined from the amount of time and effort he spends on the group, and the duties he assumes. Participation is high when the member engages in the activities of the group to the extent of spending all his available time and every effort in its behalf. Participation is low when the member takes no part in the group activities, assumes no duties, but stands by almost as a passive observer.

15. **Dependence** (14, 20, 32). Dependence refers to the relationship between an individual member of a group and its leader. When dependence is high, the individual leans heavily upon the leader as means of satisfaction of both important and minor needs. The reasons for dependency may be entirely a function of the nature of the group or may stem from choices of the individual. Indicators of dependency are behavior on the part of the individual showing acceptance of the leader's power or influence as a replacement for personal independence and power of decision. Low dependency is characterized by personal responsibility for decisions and avoiding reliance upon the power and influence of the leader.

Intercorrelations

In selecting dimensions to describe a group situation, one of the requirements was that the system of dimensions be as free as possible from overlap among themselves. The extent to which this requirement was realized is indicated by the intercorrelations among the group dimensions. Table 2 presents the coefficients of correlation among the 15 dimensions

for the sample of 500 group descriptions. Inspection of Table 1 will show the range of correlations to be from -0.331 to 0.731. The average value of absolute magnitude (direction disregarded) of the correlation coefficient was found to be 0.185. The low average intercorrelation would lead to the conclusion that the requirement of minimum overlap among dimensions had, in general been achieved. Yet certain of the dimensions appeared to overlap with one or two other dimensions to a considerable degree. The high correlations obtained were between the dimensions potency and participation (.731), control and participation (.667), viscosity and hedonic tone (.640), control and potency (.589), homogeneity and intimacy (.585), potency and hedonic tone (.520). The triad, control, potency, and participation, shows marked mutual intercorrelation. Hedonic tone overlaps with both potency and viscosity. Intimacy and homogeneity have elements in common. In contrast to these dimensions which appear to be describing certain characteristics of groups with a degree of overlap and the dimensions permeability, polarization, stability, autonomy, dependence and size. These latter dimensions have very little in common with any other dimension.

TABLE 2 Intercorrelations Among 15 Group Dimensions Applied to Five Hundred Group Descriptions

Group Dimension	Serial Number	Group Dimensions Referred to by Serial Numbers												
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Size	1													
Viscosity	2	-.116												
Homogeneity	3	-.311	.331											
Flexibility	4	-.368	.174	.180										
Permeability	5	.015	.044	-.163	.208									
Polarization	6	-.250	.035	-.016	-.012	-.036								
Stability	7	.196	.155	.063	-.268	-.201	-.143							
Intimacy	8	-.335	.176	.585	.162	-.202	.041	.075						
Autonomy	9	-.108	.152	-.002	.334	.101	-.160	-.021	.018					
Control	10	.008	.014	.126	-.185	-.167	.380	-.017	.142	-.351				
Position	11	.042	.111	.164	-.105	-.103	.040	.103	.209	-.009	.148			
Potency	12	-.020	.192	.231	-.068	-.134	.248	.129	.262	-.151	.589	.268		
Medionic tone	13	-.041	.640	.186	.106	-.055	.041	.125	.179	.121	.002	.196	.520	
Participation	14	-.090	.190	.197	-.077	-.103	.369	.047	.266	-.221	.667	.415	.731	.265
Dependence	15	-.108	-.079	.017	-.121	-.123	.258	-.068	.157	-.205	.310	.197	.211	.012
														.342

Source: Hemphill, J. K. "Group Description," Situational Factors in Leadership, Columbus, Ohio: The Bureau of Educational Research OSU, 1949, pp. 47.

RESEARCH PLAN

For the purpose of further research on the subject "situational leadership effectiveness," a plan is proposed here. The reason for this new plan is to overcome the shortcomings (discussed previously) of the widely accepted contingency model by Fiedler. The results of two of the preceding studies are taken as the foundation for the proposed experimental plan. One of them is the study "Group Situation" by Hemphill [1949] and the other is "Ohio State Studies" [1950] on behavior of leaders.

Hemphill has defined group situation in terms of fifteen dimensions (a detailed discussion is in the chapter "Group Situation"). It was felt that it would be desirable to reduce these dimension separately. Hence a factor analysis was performed. Tables 3, 4, and 5 show the loadings on two factors, three factors and four factors analyses respectively (alternative factor analyses).

Because it seemed most meaningful, the two-factor scheme was picked as the basis for the plan. Looking into the characteristics of these two factors (Table 3), it was decided that it would be most appropriate to name them as 1) Behavior Regulation and 2) Group Intimacy.*

*The names were suggested by Dr. Corwin A. Bennett, Industrial Engineering, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas

TABLE 3. Factor loading in two-factor analysis.

Group Dimensions	Factor 1	Factor 2
Size	0.06	-0.49
Viscosity	0.07	0.69
Homogeneity	0.14	0.64
Flexibility	-0.40	0.52
Permeability	-0.31	-0.01
Polarization	0.44	0.04
Stability	0.14	0.02
Intimacy	0.23	0.60
Autonomy	-0.50	0.36
Control	0.81	-0.02
Position	0.39	0.22
Potency	0.73	0.41
Hedonic Tone	0.18	0.63
Participation	0.82	0.26
Dependence	0.53	-0.06

TABLE 4. Factor loading in three-factor analysis.

Group Dimensions	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Size	-0.10	-0.13	-0.76
Viscosity	-0.15	0.77	0.05
Homogeneity	0.07	0.56	0.35
Flexibility	-0.29	0.15	0.70
Permeability	-0.22	-0.17	0.20
Polarization	0.57	-0.04	0.30
Stability	-0.11	0.35	-0.55
Intimacy	0.19	0.50	0.36
Autonomy	-0.52	0.18	0.27
Control	0.32	0.12	-0.06
Position	0.24	0.39	0.18
Potency	0.56	0.63	-0.11
Hedonic Tone	-0.05	0.77	-0.05
Participation	0.75	0.43	-0.01
Dependence	0.64	-0.03	0.02

TABLE 5. Factor loading in four-factor analysis.

Group Dimensions	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Size	-0.09	0.02	-0.59	-0.52
Viscosity	-0.07	0.32	0.06	0.13
Homogeneity	0.01	0.21	0.02	0.79
Flexibility	-0.24	0.19	0.69	0.22
Permeability	-0.13	0.12	0.45	-0.44
Polarization	0.62	0.01	0.35	-0.05
Stability	-0.15	0.22	-0.65	0.12
Intimacy	0.11	0.13	0.02	0.82
Autonomy	-0.48	0.26	0.31	0.04
Control	0.83	0.07	-0.10	0.05
Position	0.22	0.26	-0.30	0.24
Potency	0.60	0.62	-0.13	0.11
Hedonic Tone	0.02	0.85	-0.02	0.07
Participation	0.78	0.36	-0.07	0.15
Dependence	0.58	-0.13	-0.00	0.14

Behavior Regulation. A "Behavior Regulation" group is a group which does not admit every one except a member, is oriented toward a single clear definite goal, highly controls behavior, provides members' satisfaction, is high in participation, where members lean heavily on leaders, but is low in flexibility. An example of typical high group is a military organization and typical low group is a commune.

Group Intimacy. A "Group Intimacy" group has few members is highly cohesive and intimate, high in member similarity, highly flexible, has high member satisfaction and pleasantness, because of group activity. An example of typical high "Group Intimacy" would be a poker club team and a typical low group would be a crowd at a downtown intersection or a group of politicians working together.

A group situation such as a basketball team, combat troops, maintenance team in industry, etc., would belong to both the factors i.e., Behavior Regulation and Group Intimacy. In other words the group situation can belong to any of the four quadrants in the two dimensional model (Figure 6).

Having defined situation in terms of "Behavior Regulation" and "Group Intimacy," it is now necessary to look at the aspect of leadership behavior. The "Ohio State Studies" has categorized leadership behavior in terms of two dimensions, "consideration" and "structure".

Consideration. This represents the degree to which a supervisor is considerate of the feelings of those under him. In other words the supervisor is "relationship-oriented" in his behavior.

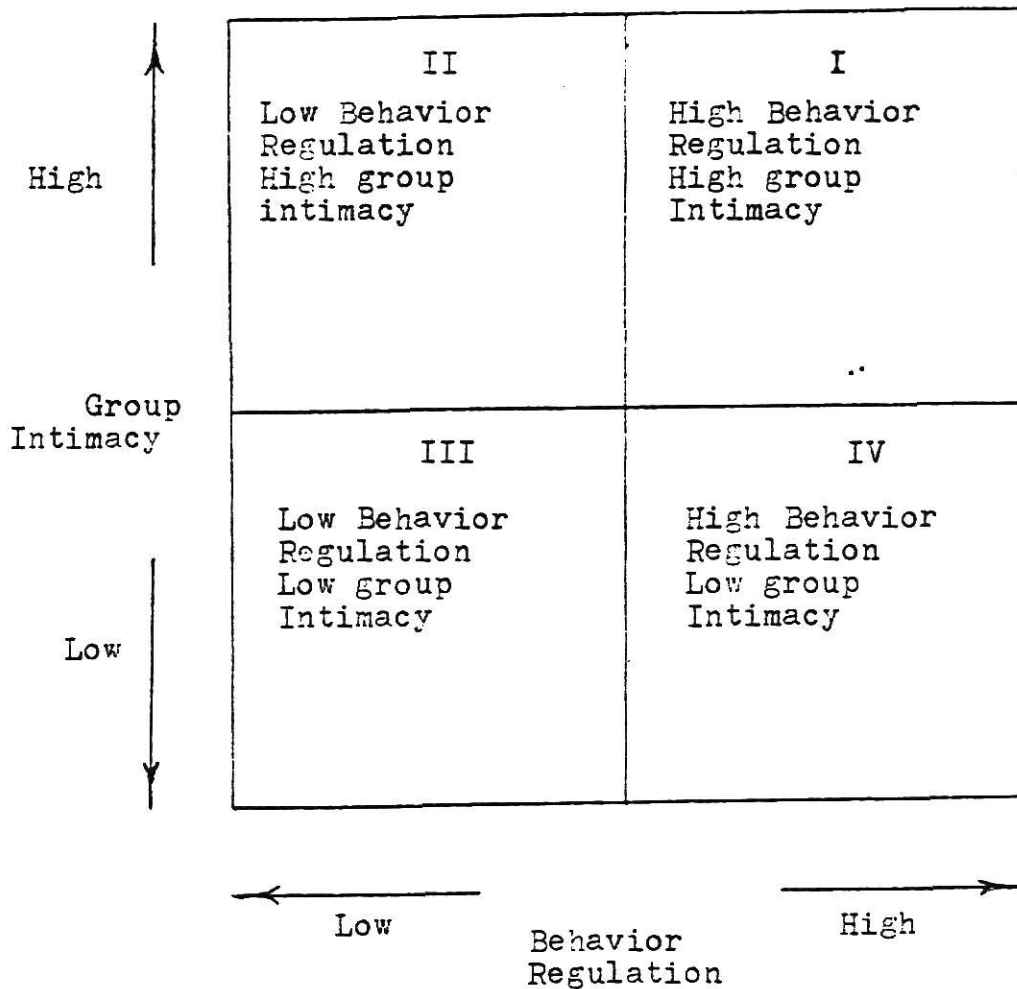


Figure 6. Four-Quadrants depicting different group situation

Structure. This refers to the degree to which the supervisor facilitates or defines group interaction toward goal attainment. In other words the supervisor is "task-oriented" in his behavior.

Proposed Procedures. The experimental plan involves supplying the member of any social group (such as a car assembly team) with a questionnaire (Figure 7) consisting of questions based on "Behavior Regulation" and "Group Intimacy". This would enable specifying the group situation in terms of these two factors, i.e., Behavior Regulation and Group Intimacy.

The subject would be asked to answer the questions in terms of "yes" or "no". Depending on this, the situation will be classified as high or low in each of the two factors (Behavior Regulation and Group Intimacy).

The adequacy of leadership can be judged in terms of group performance. An engineer's leadership adequacy can be judged by how his team performs. For example, percentage of non-defective cars assembled in car assembly teams, percentage of hitting the targets for a tank crew, etc. So the adequacy of a leader can be judged by the "success" record of the group he leads.

The behavior of the leader in terms of "consideration" and "structure" can be measured quantitatively by a questionnaire (Figure 8) consisting of two parts (consideration and structure) administered to members of the group. Subjects would be asked to answer the questions in terms of "yes" or "no".

Based on these data, obtained from a large number of similar situations, it is possible to perform a correlation study between "Leadership Adequacy" and "consideration" and "Leadership Adequacy" and "structure". A positive correlation between each dimension (consideration or structure)

BEHAVIOR REGULATION

1. Are there some entrance requirements in the group you belong to?
2. Are all members equally important?
3. Has the group written rules and regulations?
4. Is the group a part of a large group?
5. Do new members enter the group frequently?
6. Is the group's purpose defined and clear?
7. Does each do his own job?
8. Is the group being directed by one leader for everything?
9. Do you consult the group leader every time you have a job problem?
10. Do members of the group help each other often?
11. Is the group fairly important to you in your life?
12. Do you feel fairly bad if you let your group down?
13. Does the leader of the group frequently do something in opposition to the members.

GROUP INTIMACY

1. Is the group small? (Small group has fewer than 11 members.)
2. Do group members get satisfaction through group activity?
3. Do the duties as a member of group seem pleasant and satisfactory?
4. Do you call most of the members in the group by their first name?
5. Do you feel free to express your ideas before the entire group?
6. Do group members share each other's problems?
7. Do group members occasionally discuss group problem with each other?

8. Do members of the groups seem fairly interested in keeping the group together?
9. Is morale of the group high?
10. Does the group have its own name and not run by a parent organization?

Figure 7. Questionnaire about group situation.

"Consideration"

He refuses to give in when people disagree with him.
 He does personal favors for the foremen under him.
 He expresses appreciation when one of us does a good job.
 He is easy to understand.
 He demands more than we can do.
 He helps his foremen with their personal problems.
 He criticizes his foremen in front of others.
 He stands up for his foremen even though it makes him unpopular.
 He insists that everything be done his way.
 He sees that a foreman is rewarded for a job well done.
 He rejects suggestions for changes.
 He changes the duties of people under him without
 first talking it over with them.
 He treats people under him without considering their feelings.
 He tries to keep the foremen under him in good
 standing with those in higher authority.
 He resists changes in ways of doing things.
 He "rides" the foreman who makes a mistake.
 He refuses to explain his actions.
 He acts without consulting his foremen first.
 He stresses the importance of high morale among those under him.
 He backs up his foremen in their actions.
 He is slow to accept new ideas.
 He treats all his foremen as his equal.
 He criticizes a specific act rather than a particular individual.
 He is willing to make changes.
 He makes those under him feel at ease when talking with him.
 He is friendly and can be easily approached.
 He puts suggestions that are made by foremen under him
 into operation.
 He gets the approval of his foremen on important matters
 before going ahead.

"Initiating Structure"

He encourages overtime work.
 He tries out his new ideas.
 He rules with an iron hand.
 He criticizes poor work.
 He talks about how much should be done.
 He encourages slow-working foremen to greater effort.
 He waits for his foremen to push new ideas before he does.
 He assigns people under him to particular tasks.
 He asks for sacrifices from his foremen for the good of
 the entire department.
 He insists that his foremen follow standard ways of doing
 things in every detail.
 He sees to it that people under him are working up to their limits.
 He offers new approaches to problems.
 He insists that he be informed on decisions made by
 foremen under him.
 He lets others do their work the way they think best.
 He stresses being ahead of competing work groups.
 He "needles" foremen under him for greater effort.
 He decides in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done.
 He emphasizes meeting of deadlines.
 He asks foremen who have slow groups to get more out of
 their groups.
 He emphasizes the quantity of work.

Figure 8. Questionnaire about leadership style.

Source: E. A. Fleishman. The description of supervisory behavior.
Journal of Applied Psychology, 1953, 37, pp. 1-6.

and "Leadership Adequacy" would indicate that leadership style should be high in that dimension for that particular group situation. A negative correlation would indicate the reverse.

Correlation-research in a number of different types of groups should be done to cover all "four quadrants" of "group situation" to find out leadership behavior criteria in terms of "consideration" and "structure" for each quadrant of "group situation". Then two graphs can be drawn such as shown in Figure 9. The x-axis of both the graphs belongs to "four quadrants" of group situation. The y-axis is the correlation between the "leadership adequacy" and "consideration" in graph 1 and "Leadership adequacy" and structure" in graph 2. The presentation of all such studies in graphs will enable the readers to have quick understanding of results and to choose the style (behavior) for a certain situation of a group.

A group high in "Behavior Regulation" means highly oriented toward a single definite goal achievement, highly regulated in behavior, high in participation, individual leans heavily on leaders and less flexible. Such characteristics of a group demand a leader high in structure (task) and low in consideration (relationship) for better performance.

A group high in "Group Intimacy" means members are highly cohesive and intimate, group is highly flexible and pleasant. Such characteristics of a group demand a leader high in consideration (relationship) and low in structure (task) for better performance. So it is expected that in quadrant I (high behavior regulation - high group intimacy), a leader high in both structure and consideration will do better. In quadrant II (low behavior-regulation - high group intimacy) a leader low in but high in

consideration is expected to do better. In quadrant III (low behavior regulation - high group intimacy) a leader low in structure and consideration is expected to do better. Finally in quadrant IV (high behavior regulator - low group intimacy) a leader high in structure but low in consideration is expected to do better. See related Figure 9 and Table 6.

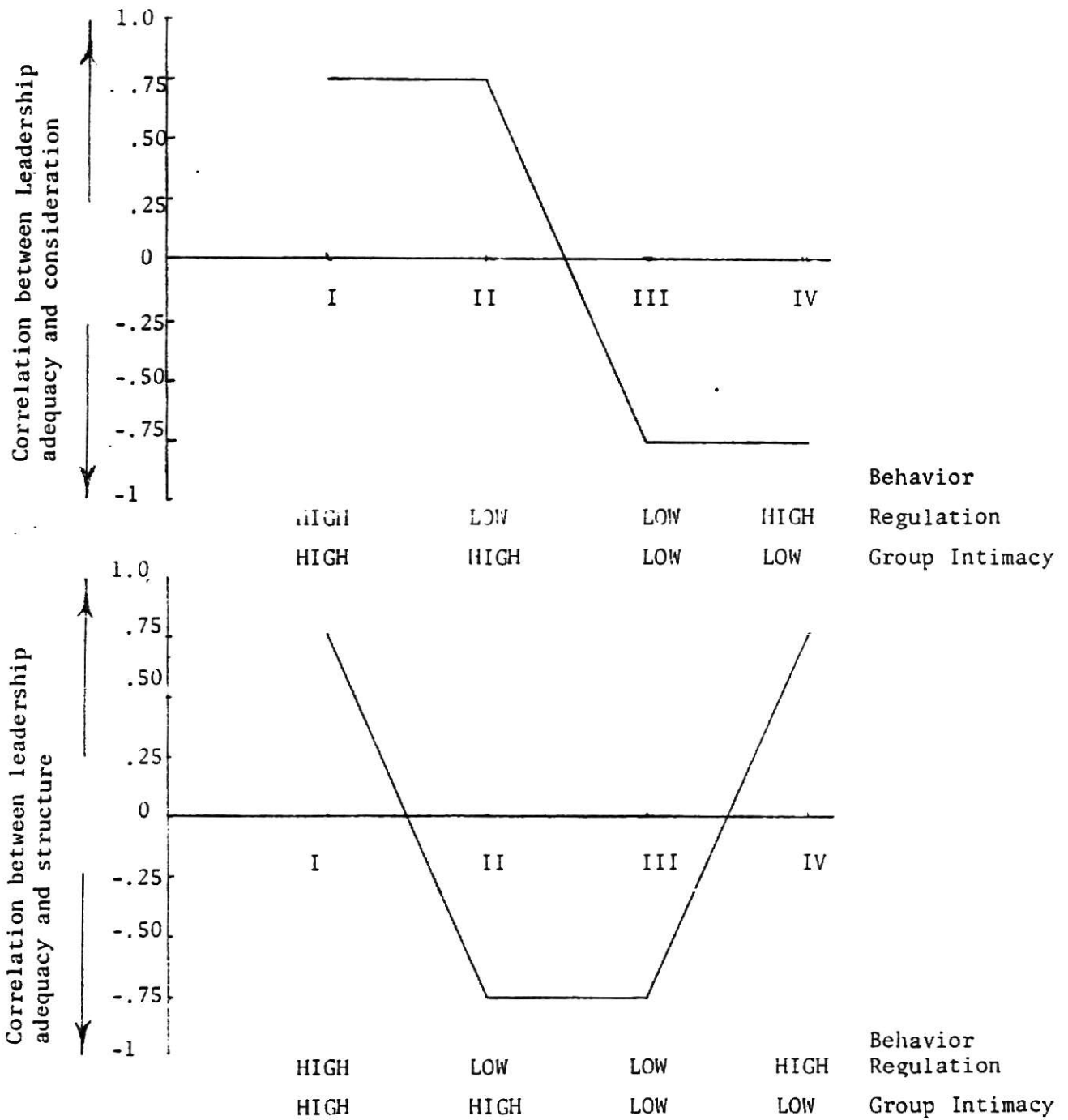


Figure 9. Graphical depiction for proposed study result.

TABLE 6 Expected appropriate leadership style for group situation

Group situation	Leadership style
High Behavior Regulation-High group Intimacy	High Structure High Consideration
Low Behavior Regulation-High group Intimacy	Low Structure High Consideration
Low Behavior Regulation-Low group Intimacy	Low Structure Low consideration
High Behavior Regulation-Low group Intimacy	High Structure Low Consideration

REFERENCES

- Barnard, C. I. The nature of leadership. Human Factors in Management, Parkville, Missouri: Park College Press, 1946.
- Brown, M. Leadership among high school pupils. Teacher College Record, 1934, 35, pp. 324-325.
- Brown, J. F. Psychology and the social order: an introduction to the dynamics study of social fields, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936.
- Caldwell, O. W., and Wellman, B. Characteristics of school leaders. Journal of Educational Research, XIV, (June, 1926), pp 1-13.
- Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. Group Dynamics - Research and Theory. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Com., 1960.
- Coffin, T. E. A three-component theory of leadership. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1928, 23, pp. 144-157.
- Cowley, W. H. Three distinctions in study of leadership. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1928, 23, 144-57.
- Cowley, W. H. Traits of face-to-face leaders. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 36, 1931, pp. 304-313.
- Dodd, S. C. Dimension of society: A quantitative systematics for the social sciences. New York: Macmillan, Company, 1942.
- Fiedler, R. E. Style or circumstances: the leadership enigma. Classics of organizational behavior: Illinois: Moore Publishing Company Inc., 1978, pp. 210-216.
- Fiedler, F. E. A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 1, 1964, pp. 149-190.

Fielder, F. E. A theory of leadership effectiveness, McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Fiedler, F. E. On the death of transfiguration of leadership training. Organizational Research Technical Report 70-16, University of Washington, Seattle, 1970.

Fiedler, F. E. Leadership, New York: General Learning Press, 1971.

Fiedler, F. E., and Chemers, M. M. Leadership and effective management. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1974.

Fiedler, F. E. The effects of leadership training and experience: a contingency model interpretation. Administrative Science Quarterly, Dec. 1972, pp. 453-459.

Fishbein, M., Landy, E., and Hatch, G. Some determinants of an individual's esteem for his least preferred co-worker. Human Relations, April 1969, pp. 173-188.

Fleishman, E. A. Twenty years of consideration and structure. Current development in the study of leadership. (Ed.) Fleishman, E. A. and Hunt, James G.: Southern Illinois University Press: Carbondale, Illinois, 1973.

Fleishman, E. A. The description of supervisory behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1953, 37, pp. 1-6.

Flemming, E. G. A factor analysis of the personality of high school leaders. Journal of Applied and Social Psychology, 1941, 36, pp. 361-377.

Gibbs, C. A. The principles and traits of leadership. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1947, 42, pp. 267-284.

Hanawalt, N. G., Hamilton, C. E., and Morris, M. L. Level of aspiration in college leaders and nonleaders. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1943, 38, pp. 545-548.

Hanawalt, N. G., and Richardson, H. M. Leadership as related to the bernreuter personality measures: IV. an item analysis of responses of adult leaders and non-leaders. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1944, 28, pp. 397-411.

Hemphill, J. K. Situational factors in leadership. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1949.

Hemphill, J. K., and Coons, A. E. Development of leader behavior description questionnaire. Leader behavior its description and measurement (Research Monograph No. 88,). Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1957, pp. 6-38.

Hersey, Paul and Blanchard, K. H. Life cycle theory of leadership. Training and Development Journal, May, 1969, pp. 26-34.

Hill, Walter. The validation and extension of Fiedler's theory of leadership effectiveness Academy of Management Journal, March 1969, pp. 33-47.

House, R. J., and Michell, T. R. Path-Goal theory of leadership. Journal of Contemporary Business, Autumn, 1974, pp. 81-97.

Hull, C. L. Principles of behavior. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943.

Hunt, J. G. A test of the leadership contingency model in three organizations. Group Effectiveness Research Laboratory, Urbana, Illinois, 1966.

Jennings, Helen Hall. Leadership and isolation, New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943.

Jennikens, W. O. A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problem. Psychological Bulletin, 1947, 44, pp. 54-79.

Kahn, R. L. Human relations on the shop floor. Human relation and modern management, Amsterdam, Holland: North-Holland Publising Co., 195, pp. 43-74.

Katz, D., and Kahn, R. L. Human organization and worker motivation. Industrial Productivity by Tripp, L. R., and Madison, Wisconsin (Ed.), Industrial Relation Research Associaion, 1951, pp. 146-171.

Krout, M. H. Introduction to social psychology. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942.

Lewin, K. Field theory and experiment in social psychology: concepts and methods. American Journal of Sociology, 1939, 44, pp. 868-898.

Likert, R. New Patterns of Management. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961, pp. 103.

McCuen, T. L. Leadership and intelligence. Education, 1929, 50, pp. 89-95.

Pigors, Paul J. W. Leadership or domination, Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1935.

Parten, M. B. Leadership among preschool children. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1933, 27, pp. 430-440.

Sanderson, D. A preliminary group classification based on structure. Social Forces, 1938, 17, pp. 196-201.

Shaw, M., and Blum, J. M. Effect of leadership style upon group performance as a function of task structure. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, June 1966, pp. 238-242.

Smith, H. L., and Krueger, L. M. A brief summary of literature on leadership. Bloomington: Bull, Sch. Edc., Indiana Univ., 1933, 9, No. 4.
a

Stinson, J. E., and Tracy, Lane. The stability and interpretation of the LPC score. Academy of Management Proceedings, August 1972, pp. 182-184.

Stogdill, R. M. Personal factors associated with leadership: a survey of the literature. Journal of Psychology, 194, 25, pp. 35-71.

Stogdill, R. M. Leadership traits: 1948-1970. Hand book of leadership, New York: Free Press, 1974.

Tennenbaum, R., and Schmidt, W. H. How to choose a leadership pattern. Harvard Business Review, (May-June, 1973).

Terman, L. M. A preliminary study in the psychology and pedagogy of leadership. Pedagogical Seminary, 1904, 9, pp. 444.

Terman, L. M. A preliminary Study in the psychology and pedagogy of leadership. Pedagogical Seminary, 1904, 11, pp. 413-451.

Tryon, C. M. Evaluation of adolescent by adolescents. Washington, D. C. National Research Council, 1939. (Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IV, No. 4.)

Vroom, V. H., and Yetton, P. W. A normative model of leadership styles. Readings in managerial psychology, (2nd, ed.), Leavitt, H. J and Pondy, L. (Ed.), Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973.

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

by

IMRAN SIDDIQUE MALIK

B. Sc. University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore, 1978

AN ABSTRACT OF

A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Industrial Engineering

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1982

ABSTRACT

A literature review pointed out that the definition of leadership must include both the characteristics of a social situation and the characteristics of an individual. Leadership may be said to be the behavior of an individual while he is involved in directing group activities. The individual will be judged to be an "excellent", a "fair", or a "poor" leader in terms of the judge's estimate of the characteristics of the social situation on one hand and his observation of leader's behavior on the other. If there is a high degree of correspondence between the behavior demanded by the situation and leader's actual behavior, he will be judged to be an excellent leader. If there is no correspondence between what the situation demands and what the leader does, he will be judged to be a poor leader.

The literature review includes the work done on situational leadership effectiveness by Hemphill (1949), Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), Fiedler (1967), Vroom and Yetton (1968), Hersey and Blanchard (1969) and House and Mitchell (1974). Finally, a research plan based on Ohio State studies (1950) and "group dimension" by Hemphill (1949) is recommended to overcome the shortcomings of widely publicized Fiedler "contingency model".

The study also reviews briefly the research done on personal factors and qualities associated with leadership between the period of World Wars I and II.