

Leadership training among the Forbes 500:  
An investigation of practices and a search for  
theoretical foundations

by

Ernest Edward Stark

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## CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Any study involving the topic of leadership is difficult because leadership is an illusive concept and often used to mean very different things. Leadership has been termed the most studied and least understood topic of any in the social sciences, comparable to the Abominable Snowman, whose footprints are everywhere but who is nowhere to be seen (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Stogdill (1984) notes that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Thompson (1984) contends that the reason leadership is difficult to assess and measure is that almost any proposal regarding leadership presents a series of contradictions. . .any proposal put forward from one standpoint about leadership is almost immediately subject to qualification on the other side of the ledger.

Agreement on a definition of leadership is complicated by the controversy over the difference between leadership and management. Can a person be a leader without being a manager, and can a person be a manager without being a leader? Bennis and Nanus (1985) imply that the two are distinct and separate in proposing that managers are people who do the right thing and leaders are people who do things right, but Yukl (1989) advocates that there is no good purpose served by assuming that it is impossible to be both a manager and a leader at the

same time. So, for the purpose of this research, management and leadership behaviors are viewed as synonymous.

In searching for a workable definition of leadership, one must confront the question: What does a leader really do within an organization? Bons (1985) contends that organizations have a purpose and exist to facilitate that purpose. Further, organizations can legitimately expect from its members performance which leads to accomplishment of that purpose. Therefore, leadership must have something to do with meeting the criteria established by the organization.

However, he points out that organizations are composed of people, and people who join organizations expect that through their membership some of their most important needs will be satisfied. Therefore, he implies that leadership within organizations must also have something to do with facilitating the individual's need for satisfaction of the purpose for which the individual joins the organization. It seems reasonable to conclude that leadership is concerned with an integration of organizational and individual concerns. What do leaders really do within organizations might be answered: Leaders close the gap between the organization's purpose and objectives and the members' wants and needs.

For the purpose of this study, leadership is defined as the behaviors necessary for achievement of organizational goals concurrent with facilitating the satisfaction of the

needs of the individuals on whom the organization relies for action. Part I of this study investigates major academic models which theorize how leadership is enacted, the implications of each model for design of corporate leadership training, and a rationale for selection of specific models to meet organizational needs.

## CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

At present, there exist seven models of leadership frequently cited in the literature. They are:

- 1) Leader Reward, 2) Vertical Dyad Linkage, 3) Path-Goal,
- 4) Situational, 5) Decision-Making, 6) Contingency,
- 7) Transformational.

## Leader Reward Model

Definition of theory

Sims (1977) states that effective leadership is the result of the skilled management of reinforcement contingencies. He proposes that the essence of leadership is found in two processes: 1) environmental planning in which target behavior, environmental stimuli, and goals and standards are critical, and 2) behavioral programming in which the consequences of one's performance assume great importance (Manz and Sims, 1980). Thus, the Leader Reward model advocates that effective leadership requires designing reinforcement contingencies so that rewards are tied to the desired performance both in kind and magnitude.

Gallagher and Forsythe (1985) enlarge upon the critical need for environmental planning within this model by noting that many stimuli exist in a job environment and subordinates must learn to discriminate between those that are irrelevant and those followed by a consequence (discriminative stimuli).

Further, they suggest that the role of the leader in behavioral programming is to design performance contingencies in such a manner that subordinates understand what performance (response to discriminative stimuli) is desired as well as when and how it is desired.

### Empirical research

Yukl (1989) states that leaders who cannot reward competent subordinates and punish or expel chronic troublemakers will find it difficult to develop a high performing organization. Although no literature specifically investigating the Leader Reward model has been forthcoming, extensive literature exists focusing on the two major processes characteristic of this model: goal setting and contingency reinforcement.

Locke (1968) proposes that there exists considerable evidence to support the view that goals are important determinants of task performance, and further asserts that a large number of research studies show that goal setting may be the major mechanism by which other interventions effect employee motivation to perform (Latham and Locke, 1979). Reviewing literature concerned with goal setting and task performance and published between 1969-1980, Locke, Shaw, Saari, and Latham (1981) conclude that the beneficial effect of goal setting on task performance is one of the most robust and replicable findings in the psychological literature with



ninety percent of the studies showing positive or partially positive effects. However, a study by Komaki, Waddell, and Pierce (1977) reports that clarification of goals alone is not sufficient to maintain behavior unless persons come into contact with the appropriate reinforcement contingencies.

Reviewing numerous research studies that compare people's behavior under conditions of positive reinforcement with people's behavior under conditions of non-reinforcement, Mitchell (1982) reports support for the hypothesis that positive contingency reinforcement increases performance. Podsakoff, Tudor, and Skov (1982) advocate that leader usage of contingency recognition and reward is positively related to subordinate task performance, and Podsakoff, Tudor, Grover, and Hurber (1984) report that consistent with the literature, their study finds leader contingent praise and reward behavior positively related to both subordinate performance and satisfaction. Finally, Podsakoff and Tudor (1985) reject the proposition that leaders who administer evaluative rewards contingently at the individual level will have dysfunctional effects on group processes; instead, they conclude that there exists a positive relationship between leader contingent reward behavior and group cohesion, drive, and productivity.

As to the moderating effect of reinforcement schedules, upon review of numerous pieces of research studying different types of reinforcement schedules, Mitchell (1982) asserts that

it is safe to assume that there is little difference in performance between types of reinforcement schedules, and that there is a big difference in performance between using a reinforcement schedule and not using one. Thus, the presence or absence of reinforcement schedules would appear to be a moderating factor on the effect of contingency reward leader behavior.

The study of contingency reinforcement would be incomplete without consideration being given to negative or punishment contingencies. Podsakoff, Tudor, Grover, and Hurber (1984) conclude that numerous reviews of the punishment literature conducted over the past two decades suggest that when punitive or aversive events are administered contingently, they will have functional effects on human behavior, but non-contingent punishment which is administered indiscriminately and for no apparent reason is negatively related to subordinate performance. In a later study, Podsakoff and Tudor (1985) report that contingency punishment administered by the leader may have significant positive effects on group productivity and suggest that leaders who employ contingent punishment behavior not only identify what they consider dysfunctional or unproductive for the individual being punished, but for other group members, thereby clarifying their expectations for all group members.

In summary, research of the factors crucial to the Leader Reward model provides considerable support for the proposition that leaders who communicate to subordinates discriminative environmental clues, identify target behaviors and performance, and manage contingency reinforcements will have a functional effect on subordinate performance.

#### Training implications

A leader properly trained within this model should demonstrate an ability to create discriminating stimuli that clue behaviors and performance desired of the follower and an ability to schedule pay-offs that effectively reinforce those behaviors and performance. Followers of a leader properly trained in this model should be observed demonstrating on cue the desired behaviors and expected levels of performance communicated by the leader. One should expect a leader trained in this model to perceive that subordinate work-related behavior is made relevant to organizational goals through proper use of operant conditioning, and followers of this leader should maintain the perception that achievement of organizational rewards is dependent upon displaying behavior and performance valued by the leader in response to job specific cues.

Communication skills appear crucial to implementation of the Leader Reward model. Manz and Sims (1980) state that the verbal behavior of a leader is critical and imply the

desirability of training activities focusing on questioning and active listening. Proficiency in questioning and active listening techniques should enhance two outcomes important to the leader in this model: identification of target behavior desired in response to discriminative stimuli and discovery of contingencies likely to reinforce desired levels of performance and behavior within individual subordinates. Further, one should expect to include activities geared to training the leader to effectively disseminate to subordinates information concerning discriminatory work clues, and because of the critical need to determine antecedents to subordinate work behavior and manage the contingencies to such behavior and performance (Luthans and Kreitner, 1985) training in establishing effective information networks also appears desirable within this model. It does not seem unreasonable to advocate inclusion of training activities enabling use of diagnostic instruments revealing the motivational profiles of subordinates as a means to enhance a leader's communication skills. Finally, Manz and Sims (1980) advocate that the importance of the leader's behavior serving as a model to subordinates not be underestimated, and it is suggested that training in behavior modeling may serve to further enhance the effectiveness of a leader's communication efforts within this model.

A leader's goal-setting skills should be of high priority within this model because of the necessity for providing subordinates a baseline against which to measure their response to work-related stimuli and because goal attainment seems to possess strong reinforcement properties subsequently leading to pursuit of organizational objectives (Manz and Sims, 1980). It is suggested that such skill might be well developed through training in Management by Objectives and performance planning, enabling creation of standards for work-related performance and behavior; supervision skills, enabling effective demonstration of desired performances, may be an appropriate correlated activity.

Because the Leader Reward model implies the necessity of a psychological contract linking behavior and performance to pay-offs, training in contracting for performance would appear justified. Training enabling provision of job-related feedback and supportive leader behaviors, scheduling and utilization of rewards, and utilization of progressive discipline seems desirable because such activities increase coaching and contingency reinforcement skills, both essential to this model of leadership.

Finally, although the focus of the leader in this model is most frequently on the behavior and performance of the individual subordinate, the leader must possess some degree of team building skill in order to relate expectations of

individual subordinates to realization of organizational goals, and this implies the desirability of providing training activities that enable definition and communication of group goals and subordinate compliance with action plans for achievement of these goals.

### Vertical Dyad Linkage Model

#### Definition of theory

The basic premise of this model of leadership is that leaders usually establish a special relationship with a small number of trusted subordinates (in-group) that is substantially different from the relationship established with remaining subordinates (out-group). Graen and Scandura (1987) propose that since subordinates do not all have equal potential, it behooves a leader to tailor his/her responses according to subordinate capabilities and limitations in order to establish a dyadic relationship with each subordinate so that two subgroups (in-groups and out-groups) are formed. More specifically, this model advocates that effective leadership is characterized by identification of those subordinates who are capable of, and have the desire to, expand their roles by sharing decision-making and other leadership functions technically delegated to the leader. This relationship is reported as substantially different from the relationship established with those subordinates

demonstrating less potential or a lower desire to accept responsibility.

Enlarging on the nature of this relationship, Yukl (1981) points out that leaders are in a position to control outcomes that are desirable to most subordinates (assignment to interesting tasks, delegation of greater responsibility, access to privileged information, provision of special benefits, etc.), and that an effective leader will provide these things to in-group subordinates in return for greater loyalty to the leader, commitment to work objectives, and sharing of administrative duties. To gain compliance of out-group subordinates with formally prescribed rule expectations and legitimate directions, a leader needs only to ensure that the subordinate receive the standard benefits for the subordinate's position within the organization.

#### Empirical research

Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982) report on a field experiment testing the predictive validity of the leader-member exchange theory (LMX) on which the Vertical Dyad Linkage model is based. The experimental condition was defined as training managers in LMX role model process and the control group was defined as managers not trained in the theory or procedures. It is reported that the group receiving LMX training demonstrated significant and strong improvements over the control group in quantity of production and not at

the expense of quality of production. Further, the group receiving training in LMX procedures is reported as demonstrating significant gains over the control group in relation to the subordinate's measure of job value, attitude toward the job, reduction of severity of job problems, and reduction of job-related stress. The results of this field experiment are interpreted as supporting the predictive validity of the theory on which the model is based. Yukl (1989), in a review of studies investigating leader-member exchange, supports Novak and Sommerkamp's conclusion by stating that the studies demonstrate that a special downward exchange relationship with a subordinate results in greater loyalty and performance from the subordinate.

Investigating the predictive validity of LMX, Graen and Scandura (1987) review a study on leader-member exchange conducted by Graen, Liden, and Hoel in 1984 in which the relative value of LMX quality (determined by the quality of dyadic structure and the coupling of the behaviors of the manager and subordinate) is said to predict employee turnover. Graen and Scandura (1987) ask: Can training in LMX benefit employees having lower quality dyadic relations by offering them an opportunity for higher quality dyadic relations? They conclude that training in LMX does indeed result in the restructuring of dyadic quality within units that are related to significant improvements in hard productivity, but not at the expense of quality or job attitudes.



Vecchio and Gobdel (1984) test the theory of Vertical Dyadic Linkage by examining the dyadic relationship between 45 managers and their subordinates in a multiple branch bank. Their results generally confirm previous findings that a subordinate's in-group status is associated with higher performance ratings, reduction in the propensity to quit a job, and greater satisfaction with the immediate supervisor than those subordinates with out-group status. However, in-group status appears not to be significantly associated with actual job performance, but is reported to be in the direction of the theory's prediction.

Yukl (1989) cautions that Vertical Dyad Linkage theory has a number of conceptual weaknesses. Research on the basis for selection of in-group members is still very limited, and it is not very clear how this selection occurs. The measures of LMX need further refinement in that it is important to make clear separation between measures of quality of relationship (e.g., perceptions of mutual trust, loyalty, and respect), measures of specific leader behavior (e.g., delegating, consulting, praising, supporting, rewarding, coaching, mentoring, and monitoring), and measures of outcomes (e.g., performance, turnover).

The results of research into the Vertical Dyad model of leadership appear highly promising and tend to be supportive of the theory.

### Training implications

A leader properly trained in the model should be observed utilizing the correct combination of authority and power to create key dyadic relationships, and followers of a VDL Leader with in-group status should be observed providing the behaviors and performance required for in-group membership while subordinates in the out-group should be observed demonstrating less demanding levels of performance and behavior in line with organizational expectations. A perception crucial to the VDL Leader is that there exists a select number of subordinates possessing unique information, skills, or abilities requiring a special relationship. Furthermore, Yukl (1981) notes the importance that followers with in-group status must perceive the leader as both willing and capable of providing special rewards in return for meeting special obligations while subordinates with out-group status need only to perceive assurance that they will receive the standard benefits for their position.

The keystone of the VDL model appears to be the leader-member exchange that results in creation of in-groups. Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982) report a VDL program which focused on the leader-member exchange by giving high priority to enhancement of the leader's communication skills through questioning and active listening activities. The objective of these activities appears to be enabling the leader to learn of

subordinate job preference, aspirations, expectations, and perceptions of the working relationship. It is suggested that training in the utilization of diagnostic instruments designed to enhance the leader's knowledge of subordinate work style or motivational profile would appear to be a desirable correlated activity for improving the quality of the leader-member exchange. Although not part of the Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp program, the need of the VDL Leader to consistently identify subordinates with the potential for in-group status and to monitor compliance of those subordinates holding such status implies the desirability of training enabling creation of an effective information network.

The Graen, Novak, Sommerkamp (1982) program provides further insight into translating the VDL model into a leadership training program. Performance planning activities, in which the leader and subordinate exchanged expectations, help, and commitment to improve, were utilized to enhance the leader's goal-setting skills. Improvement of the leader's negotiation skills was addressed through an activity entitled "dyadic contracting" in which the objective was to enable the leader to assess the power to provide outcomes valued by subordinates and negotiate a psychological contract for provision of such outcomes in exchange for behaviors and performance required for in-group status. Continued subordinate compliance with the unique behaviors and higher

levels of performance required for in-group status is obviously influenced by the effectiveness of the pay-offs administered by the leader, and it is suggested that providing training enabling the leader to monitor and evaluate subordinate performance and schedule feedback and reward should be an important part of a VDL training program.

The Graen, Novak, Sommerkamp (1982) program included an activity entitled "guided renegotiations" and described as a concern for ongoing exchanges between the leader and the subordinate. It is suggested that this activity appears to have been an attempt to improve the leader's coaching skills through enhancement of interpersonal relationships, career counseling techniques, and supportive leader behaviors. Because the VDL leader functions in an environment in which subordinates may move from out-group to in-group status, and possibly back again, training in techniques of resource allocation and restructuring leader-subordinate relations appears to be desirable.

Finally, the VDL leader has a critical need for team building skills. First, the leader must integrate the expectations of individuals selected for in-group status into the common goals of the in-group, but the leader may face an even greater challenge in integrating those with out-group status and those with in-group status into a cohesive work unit. Thus, training designed to enhance team building skills

appears highly desirable.

#### Path-Goal Model

##### Definition of theory

This model focuses on the leader's role in motivating subordinates and influencing their sense of satisfaction. House and Mitchell (1974) propose that leaders are effective because of their impact on a subordinate's motivation, ability to perform effectively, and need satisfaction. Concerning the motivation of subordinates, House and Mitchell (1974) contend that effective leader behavior is characterized by increasing the number and kinds of personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment, and making paths to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying paths, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction enroute.

Further, House and Mitchell (1974) identify four specific leadership behaviors which they propose have a correlation to subordinate motivation and job satisfaction. Directive leadership exists when a leader lets subordinates know what's expected of them, gives directions how work is to be done, establishes work standards, schedules work, etc. Supportive leadership is identifiable by a friendly approachable leader, one who demonstrates concern for the status and well-being of subordinates. Achievement-Oriented leadership occurs when the

leader sets challenging goals for subordinates, communicates high expectations, seeks continuous improvement, and demonstrates a high degree of confidence in subordinates. Finally, participative leadership is characterized by the leader consulting with subordinates, soliciting suggestions, and seriously taking suggestions into consideration when making decisions. In addition, these styles are seen as interacting with two situational factors: the environment which affects the leader's freedom to assign tasks, give rewards, and determine the quality of the task assigned, and individual characteristics of subordinates such as their values and needs.

Thus, the Path-Goal model of leadership proposes that leader effectiveness in increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel is enhanced by correct application of leader behavior to the specific situation. The model proposes that directive leadership behavior increases subordinate's satisfaction when they are engaged in ambiguous tasks or in situations where organizational policies are not clear, but is to be avoided in situations where the task and/or policy is clear. Supportive leader behavior is proposed as appropriate when a subordinate is engaged in a stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying task. Achievement-Oriented leader behavior is advocated as most effective in

situations where a subordinate is engaged in ambiguous, non-repetitive tasks and the leader desires the subordinate to become confident that continued effort will pay-off in effective performance. This behavior, however, should be avoided in situations where the subordinate is performing moderately ambiguous and highly repetitive tasks because there appears to be no significant relationship between the Achievement-Oriented style and increased subordinate expectancy that continued effort will lead to effective performance. Finally, participative leadership behavior is suggested as appropriate when a subordinate is highly ego-involved in a task or decision and the task or decision is highly ambiguous, but this behavior is not suggested when a subordinate is not ego-involved in a task and the task demands are clear (House and Mitchell, 1974).

#### Empirical research

Early research concerning the moderating effect of task characteristics on the relationship between leader initiating structure and consideration and a subordinate's satisfaction and performance was conducted by House (1971). He states that his findings provide rather strong support of the hypothesis derived from the Path-Goal model of leadership. His research reports that the average correlations between initiating structure and satisfaction increased monotonically with increases in job autonomy. The correlation between initiating

structure and quality of subordinate performance was significantly higher for the low job autonomy groups than for either medium or highly autonomous groups. In addition, none of the correlations between leader consideration and subordinate satisfaction in the group with low job autonomy were significantly higher than for those in groups with medium or high job autonomy, and four of the correlations between leader consideration and subordinate performance were significantly higher for low job autonomy group than for medium or high job autonomy group.

However, in another study, House (1971) reports that the findings about the moderating effects of job autonomy only partially replicated those of the previous study and provide ambiguous results with respect to the influence of job autonomy.

A study by Downey, Sheridan, and Slocum (1975) provides inconclusive support of the Path-Goal model. Their findings do not support the Path-Goal proposition that leader consideration is more closely related to satisfaction and performance of workers engaged in routine tasks than in non-routine, unstructured tasks. Rather, they report that their findings indicate that leader consideration, not initiating structure, is significantly related to all dimensions of job satisfaction in both structured and unstructured task situations. However, they do report that



the relationship between leader consideration and subordinate satisfaction with their immediate supervisor is significantly higher in structured task situations than in unstructured task situations, and this does support the Path-Goal model.

Stinson and Johnson (1975) report the results of a study that generally supports the predictions of the Path-Goal model regarding leader consideration behavior under conditions of high task structure and high task repetitiveness. Yet, they report that their findings do not provide support for the predictions of the model regarding leader initiating structure behavior.

Yukl (1981) contends that research related to the Path-Goal model has yielded mixed results. He cites methodological deficiencies as a major problem. Schriesheim and Von Glinow (1977) find themselves in agreement with Yukl on this point in stating that some of the inconsistencies and non-supportive research findings pertaining to the model are due to inadequacies and differences in operationalizations of the theory's leader behavior variable.

Further, Yukl (1981) cites serious conceptual deficiencies that limit the utility of the Path-Goal theory. Among these he lists: 1) the limitations of Expectancy theory as the conceptual under-pinnings of the Path-Goal model of leadership, 2) the confusion due in part to the complexity of the theory and the proliferation of different versions of the

theory, 3) the lack of clarity regarding the interaction of different situation variables, 4) the major hypothesis rests on assumptions that are only valid in certain cases, and 5) the model focuses on the motivational functions of leaders, but does not deal explicitly with other ways in which the leader effects subordinate performance such as training subordinates.

One may conclude from this review that the results of validation studies of the Path-Goal model are at best inconclusive at this time.

#### Training implications

A leader properly trained in the Path-Goal model should be observed utilizing a management style appropriate to assisting individual followers in selecting work-related behaviors that hold the greatest degree of probability for receiving organizational rewards that are valued and need satisfying. Followers of such a leader should demonstrate by their selection of work-related behaviors a clarity of understanding concerning those behaviors that enable simultaneous movement toward realization of organizational goals and satisfaction of individual needs. A properly trained leader of the Path-Goal model should perceive that subordinates require assistance in selection of appropriate behaviors from the myriad of work-related behaviors available to them, and followers of such a leader should perceive the

leader as a guide to job and career satisfaction.

The leader's knowledge of a subordinate's effort-to-performance and performance-to-reward expectancies is crucial to implementation of the Path-Goal model, and this implies, once again, the importance of leader competency in communication skills. Because of the crucial role of the leader in clarifying the path to work-related outcomes valued by subordinates and capable of satisfying subordinate needs, training to enhance communication skills would likely involve utilization of psychological instruments diagnosing what motivates the employee and improving the outcome of communication efforts. Further, clarification of the path to valued work outcomes implies the need for training activities enabling the leader to create information networks and effectively disseminate information critical to employee realization of job satisfaction.

The focus of the Path-Goal Leader on making rewards contingent upon job performance implies the importance of leader skill in goal-setting, and training activities centered around Management by Objectives or performance planning should lead to development of this skill. The achievement of linkage between job performance and pay-offs valued by individual subordinates is influenced by the leader's negotiation skills and implies the need for training activities that enable contracting (either implicitly or explicitly) for subordinate performance. A subordinate's continued compliance with a

contract is dependent upon the Path-Goal Leader's contingency reinforcement skills, and training activities focusing on performance monitoring and evaluation techniques and structuring feedback and rewards can enhance this competency.

Because the Path-Goal Leader is a guide to selection of work-related behaviors that enable subordinate job satisfaction, supervision skills and coaching skills appear critical, and training activities that enhance a leader's skill demonstration techniques, enable the leader to act as a career counselor, and provide supportive behaviors should enhance leader effectiveness.

Finally, the fact that the Path-Goal Leader assists individual subordinates in the selection of work-related behaviors and performance implies the need for team building skills that enable the integration of individual subordinate expectations into the goals and objectives of the work unit.

### Situational Leadership Model

#### Definition of theory

The main proponents of this leadership model have been Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) state that Situational Leadership is based on an interplay among: 1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives, 2) the amount of socioemotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, 3) the readiness (maturity) level that subordinates exhibit in

performance of a specific task, function or objective, and  
4) the focus on the behavior of the leader in relation to the subordinate.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) identify four primary leadership styles that involve different degrees or combinations of task and relationship behavior: 1) Telling - a high degree of task behavior and low degree of relationship behavior, 2) Selling - a high degree of task behavior and relationship behavior, 3) Participating - a high degree of relationship behavior and low degree of task behavior, and 4) Delegating - a low degree of both task and relationship behavior.

Which leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups is dependent upon the maturity level of the subordinates relative to a specific task. Maturity level is defined as a combination of a subordinate's skill level and motivation level resulting in four maturity levels. 1) A low maturity - the subordinate is both unable and unwilling to take responsibility for a task. 2) A moderate maturity - the subordinate is unable but willing to take responsibility for a task. 3) A moderate to high maturity - subordinate is able but unwilling to take responsibility to do what the leader wants. 4) Finally, a high maturity - subordinate is both able and willing to take responsibility for a task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) theorize that effective leadership behavior is characterized by accurately diagnosing the subordinate's maturity level relative to a specific task and utilizing the leadership style possessing the highest probability of success. That is, subordinates with a low maturity level require a telling style of leadership, subordinates with a moderate level of maturity benefit from a selling style of leadership, subordinates with a moderate to high level of maturity respond best to a participating leadership style, and subordinates with a high maturity level work best when under a delegating style of leadership. Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi (1985) developed a decision tree and advocate its use as an aid in diagnosing a subordinate's maturity level and determining the appropriate leadership style.

#### Empirical research

Yukl (1989) argues that while this model has been popular at managerial workshops, it has not been well received by leadership scholars, and he concludes that only a few studies have tested the theory, and those find only partial, weak support for it.

The most widely cited study of Situational Leadership is by Hambleton and Gumpert (1982). Their study involves 65 managers responsible for various operational functions. The important result of this study suggests that there is a

statistically significant relationship between the leadership style of a manager in a particular situation and the manager's perception of subordinate job performance. Hambleton and Gumpert (1982) conclude that highly effective managers know more about Situational Leadership and use it more often than less effective managers. Further, they believe the evidence suggests that when Situational Leadership is applied correctly, subordinate job performance is judged higher by the manager and gains in job performance are statistically significant.

Hersey, Angelini, and Carakushansky (1982) report a study involving 60 executives with university degrees attending a management training course on transaction analysis. The experimental group attended training sessions with structural changes compatible with Situational Leadership used to augment the instructor's style. In these sessions, the situational approach was applied in four stages reflecting the increasing level of the student's maturity and the corresponding need for changes in the instructor's leadership style. The control group attended training administered under a conventional student-teacher format. The experimental group demonstrated significantly higher levels of learning than did the control group, and results indicated that proper application of Situational Leadership theory leads to better student performance when compared with identical learning situations

in which no attempt is made to apply the theory.

A study by Vecchio (1987) of 303 full-time high school teachers in a large midwestern city provides partial support for the principles contained in the theory. Specifically, Vecchio concludes that the findings of the study most strongly support the model in the low-maturity condition. The results were inclusive concerning the moderate maturity condition and did not support the predictive validity of the model for the high maturity condition.

Criticizing Situational Leadership, Yukl (1981) states that by continuing to look only at two broadly defined categories of leader behavior (task and relationship behavior), many important distinctions between different aspects of each kind of behavior are overlooked. Further, Yukl argues that maturity level is too broadly defined and lacks guidance for weighing and combining the elements of maturity and motivation.

There is a need for further investigation of Situational Leadership and at present there is not enough empirical evidence upon which to draw a conclusion concerning the model's validity.

#### Training implications

One should expect to observe a leader properly trained in the Situational Leadership model to accurately diagnose a subordinate or work team's level of competence and commitment



and employ an appropriate combination of directive (task) and supportive (relationship) behavior. Followers should be observed moving toward the achievement of goals or objectives with a high degree of commitment. The dominant perception of a properly trained Situational Leader should be that followers are at varying stages of maturity and commitment in relation to any specific task, and they require flexible styles of leadership. The followers of a Situational Leader should perceive the leader as capable of providing the appropriate combination of direction and support relative to the specific follower and the specific task.

Implementation of the Situational model of leadership implies a need for competency in diagnostic skills. Within most training programs reflective of the Situational model, the activity commonly used to develop this competency is the utilization of some instrument to diagnose the leader's initiating structure or style. However, it should be noted that Vecchio's study of Situational Leadership (1987) suggests that training in this area be expanded to include instruments which indicate the quality of leader-member relationship, subordinate satisfaction, and leader consideration. Correct decisions based on data gained from diagnosis appear crucial to this model and implies the need for training in analytical problem-solving, possibly utilizing a decision tree as suggested by Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi (1985). This

would permit the leader to apply an analytical approach to solving the problem of which leadership style is most appropriate. Teaching the behaviors indicative of each leadership style implies the use of behavior modeling training activities.

The Situational model also requires negotiation skills to enable the leader to contract not only for subordinate performance but for the provision of a leadership style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). This implies the need for coordinated training activities that enable the leader to monitor and evaluate subordinate performance, provide feedback, reward and support behaviors, and restructure leader-subordinate relations as called for in the model. Because the Situational Leader must determine a subordinate's level of task competence and commitment, there is a need to provide training in active questioning and listening techniques.

Finally, the leader in the Situational model must be able to shift focus from individual subordinates to the work group as a whole. This implies the need for team building skills most likely developed through activities enabling the integration of individual expectations and subordinate commitment to implementation of an action plan for realization of team goals.

### Decision-Making Model

#### Definition of theory

Vroom (1983) proposes that the most important aspect of leadership is the leader's action related to distributing decision-making within a group. He believes that a leader's action in relation to decision-making falls on a continuum between autocratic behavior and participative behavior. The proper choice of a decision-making strategy is believed by Vroom (1983) to be a function of two components of leadership effectiveness: the quality of the actions resulting from the decision, and the degree to which subordinates are motivated to work toward the chosen course of action.

This model advocates that a leader must adapt his/her approach to decision-making to situational factors such as the amount of time that can be allowed to make the decision, the subordinate's knowledge of the issues, and the degree to which subordinates must be committed to the final decision. For example, a leader would provide less opportunity for subordinate participation in the decision process when the leader has all the necessary information as opposed to when the leader lacks crucial information, or when the problem is well structured as opposed to unstructured, or when subordinate acceptance of the decision is not critical for effective implementation. A leader would also provide less opportunity for participation when the personal goals of the

subordinate are not congruent with organizational goals as manifested in the problem (Vroom, 1983).

To assist a leader in determining the most effective decision-making process, Vroom (1983) proposes use of a decision tree to evaluate the status of the immediate decision on seven factors: 1) the importance of the quality of the decision, 2) the leader's information relevant to the problem, 3) the extent to which the problem is structured, 4) the importance of acceptance of decision by subordinates to effective implementation, 5) the probability that the leader's decision will be accepted by subordinates, 6) the congruence of organizational and subordinate goals, and 7) the degree of conflict or disagreement among subordinates. The use of this decision-making tree enables a leader to determine which of five decision-making styles are appropriate to the situation: A leader can solve the problem and make the decision independent of subordinates, obtain the necessary information from subordinates and then decide the solution to the problem, share the problem with relevant subordinates and then make the decision which may or may not reflect subordinate influence, share the problem with subordinates as a group and then make a decision which may or may not reflect the group's influence, or share the problem with the group and attempt to reach consensus to a solution.

Empirical research

Yukl (1989) concludes that, in general, results have supported this model, but some decision rules are supported better than others. Vroom and Jago (1988) provide a summarization of six validation studies of the Decision-Making model. The studies summarized were: Zimmer, 1978; Liddell, Elsea, Parkinson, and Hackett, 1986; Field, 1982; Tjosvold, Wedley, and Field, 1986; Bohnisch, Jago, and Reber, 1987; Magerson and Glude, 1979. Vroom and Jago (1988) state that the first six studies isolated successful and unsuccessful decisions and examined the leader's behavior in each; a total of 1,545 decisions were studied: 769 successful decisions and 776 unsuccessful decisions. Further, they report that the leader's behavior in each situation was determined to be either within the feasible set of decision processes for that problem or outside the set.

The Vroom and Jago study of 1978 reports evidence most favorable to the Decision-Making model and the Field study, 1982, produces evidence least favorable to the model. However, when the feasible set status of behavior is compared with the success of the decision, it is reported that across all six studies the results showed that if a manager's behavior conformed to the model, the rate of success was 62 percent; but if the manager's behavior failed to conform to the model, the rate of success was only 37 percent (Vroom and Jago, 1988).

Vroom and Jago (1988) report that the seventh study (Magerson and Glude, 1979) focused on 47 owner-operated cleaning franchises in the United States and Canada. The study reports that the leadership behavior of owner-managers was assessed through use of a problem set. Franchise profitability and employee job satisfactions were also measured with appropriate tools. Responses to the hypothetical problems were reported as being used to divide the sample into owner-operators above and below the median level of overall agreement with the feasible set. The study reports results indicating that those with above average conformity to the model had significantly more profitable operations and more satisfied employees. Vroom and Jago (1988) conclude that the evidence reported in this study not only supports the validity of the model but also supports the usefulness of the problem set as a measure of leader behavior and predictor of managerial success.

Vroom and Jago (1988) go beyond a review of relevant evaluation studies and discuss shortcomings of the Decision-Making model. One such shortcoming in the structure of the decision rules is such that the rules tell you what not to do, not what to do, and in the final analysis the model is not very prescriptive. However, the model fails to differentiate among behaviors outside the set, and a decision process that violates one rule is treated the same as a

decision process that may violate two, three, or four rules. The model also fails to capture all meaningful differences among existing problem attributes; that is, the model makes the assumption that all situations are either black or white; there is not allowance for "probably yes," "maybe," and "probably no." Additional limitations include the fact that the model ignores important attributes of the situation such as subordinate information, time constraints, and geographical constraints, and the model's decision rules are too simple to capture the complexities of organizational reality.

Vroom and Jago (1988) make note of a conclusion by Miner that no leadership theory surpasses the Decision-Making model in its scientific validity and practical usefulness, and that in every test attempted the model is shown to improve the effectiveness of organizational decision-making. In light of the available evidence, Yukl (1981) concludes that it is unlikely additional research will disconfirm the basic logic of the model.

### Training implications

A leader properly trained in the Decision-Making model should be observed choosing a decision-making strategy with a high probability of gaining commitment of the work team toward enacting the chosen plan of action. Followers of such a leader should be observed demonstrating behaviors that reveal their commitment to carrying out the selected plan of action.

The perception dominate in a Decision-Making Leader should be that the process of determining an operational strategy is dependent upon situational variables. Followers of a Decision-Making Leader should perceive that the operational strategy utilized by the leader possesses a high degree of probability for a successful outcome.

Vroom and Jago (1988) report on a leadership workshop reflective of a Decision-Making model of leadership which emphasized team building through the creation of small groups that developed into teams via activities integrating the expectations of members into the common goals and objectives of the team. Diagnostic skills were a high priority and addressed through activities focusing on an in-depth study and computer analysis of individual leadership styles. Case studies directed toward determination of effective leadership style on a case-by-case basis and application of the Decision-Making model were activities used to move toward competency in analytical decision-making skills. Although not specifically mentioned by Vroom and Jago, it is suggested that competency in analytical decision-making could be enhanced through application to selected case studies of a decision-making tree similar to that developed by Vroom (1983).

Competency in coaching skills was addressed through activities in which group members served as consultants to



other members in the formulation of the problem and in the analysis of its status to the model. It is suggested that this activity further developed supportive behaviors in the participants. Finally, in light of the emphasis placed by Vroom and Jago (1988) on team building skills, it is suggested that communication activities, such as questioning and active listening, would enhance leader efforts to build a sense of team.

### Contingency Model

#### Definition of theory

According to Fiedler (1967), leaders tend to display one of two styles that can be measured through use of the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale. The primary motive of a leader with a high LPC score is to have close interpersonal relations with other people, including subordinates. This type of leader tends to emphasize socialization with subordinates and acts in a supportive, non-directive manner if relations need improvement. A leader with a high LPC score tends to make task accomplishment secondary to interpersonal relations with subordinates. The primary motive of a leader with a low LPC score is task achievement. This type of leader will emphasize task-oriented, directive behaviors. A secondary motive of establishing good relations with subordinates will be pursued only if group performance is acceptable (Yukl, 1981).

According to this model, leader effectiveness is dependent upon the relationship between a leader's LPC score and situational variables; notably leader-member relations, the position power of the leader that allows administration of rewards and punishment, and the degree of task structure (highly structured tasks as opposed to unstructured tasks). By combining and weighing these factors on a situational basis, the contingency model advocates that leaders can gain an index of situational favorability (Yukl, 1981).

When a situation is very high or very low in favorableness, leaders with low LPC scores (directive, task-oriented behavior) are hypothesized to be more effective than leaders with high LPC scores (supportive, non-directive behavior). Conversely, when a situation is determined to have only intermediate favorability, leaders with a high LPC score are said to be more effective than leaders with a low LPC score. The contingency model holds leader style to be relatively permanent and advocates that one should not try to change leader style. Rather, leaders should attempt to adapt a situation to their style so as to ensure effective leadership (Yukl, 1981). McCormick and Ilgen (1985) propose a matrix to assist the Contingency leader in determining situational favorability.

Fiedler recently revised his Contingency model of leadership with advocacy of a Cognitive Resource Utilization

theory. This theory enlarges the Contingency model by specifying the conditions under which directive leader behavior (low LPC score) will result in effective utilization of the leader's intelligence. The model predicts that when leaders employ directive leader behavior, are not under stress, enjoy the support of followers, and possess task-relevant knowledge they will make most effective use of whatever cognitive resources they possess (House and Singh, 1987).

#### Empirical research

In a review of studies by Strube and Garcia in 1981 and Peters, Hartke, and Pohlmann in 1985, Yukl (1989) notes that research tends to support this model, although not for every octant and not as strongly for field studies as for laboratory studies.

Testing the Contingency model, Fiedler, Chemers, and Patrick (1984) evaluated two contrasting approaches for increasing the productivity and safety of two underground mines. The first approach is described as an organizational development approach involving team building and problem-solving activities. The experimental approach is described as structured management training using prepackaged instructional modules but modified to include eight hours of training in utilization of leader-match skills as advocated by Fiedler. A placebo group was reported as receiving no training. It is

reported that both the organizational development approach and the experimental approach were equally effective in increasing productivity and safety, but the organizational development approach was substantially more costly to implement. It is reported that managers who were members of the experimental group and received the training in leader-match received substantially better performance ratings from their superiors six to eighteen months after the training than did managers randomly assigned to the non-training alternative.

In reference to training of leaders, Coska (1985) concludes that research results have shown that the effect of leadership training depends upon the interaction of the leader's motivational pattern (LPC) and the degree to which the leadership situation is favorable. Thus, the effectiveness of leadership training lies not in changing the leader, but rather in improving the leader's control and influence--that is, situational favorableness.

Yukl (1981) summarizes an experimental study by Chemers and Skrzypek at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point in which leader LPC and situational variables were manipulated. He reports that the results for the West Point study supported the predicted curvilinear relationship between LPC and group performance, and the curve was similar to that found in other validation studies.

Reviewing criticisms of the Contingency model of leadership, Yukl (1981, 1989) notes that the interpretation of the LPC score has been changed by Fiedler in an arbitrary fashion, and that the current interpretation is speculative and inadequately supported. Furthermore, in most cases the correlational results, although in the predicted direction, are not statistically significant. In addition, the model makes predictions without explaining the reason for the prediction, and the model doesn't explain why three different situational variables should be combined and treated as a single unitary continuum. Finally, since a leader is usually able to alter leader-member relations by acting more or less considerate toward subordinates, leader-member relations should be treated as an intervening variable rather than as a situational variable.

There exists a great deal of controversy concerning the Contingency model of leadership, and present research leaves many questions unanswered concerning the theory's validity and utility.

#### Training implications

A properly trained Contingency Leader should be observed correctly diagnosing the favorability of a work situation and restructuring those situations not initially favorable to his/her leadership style. Followers of a Contingency Leader should be observed demonstrating commitment to completion of

the task at hand as a result of the proper match between leader style and task environment.

The implication of the Contingency model for leadership training is the desirability of leader competency in diagnosis, decision-making, team building, environmental restructuring, and communication skills. Diagnostic skills are critical to the Contingency Leader, and skill competency would likely involve proficiency in use of the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale, enabling the determination of the leader's style, and other diagnostic tools which enable the leader to determine and weigh organizational variables such as leader-member relationship, position power and task structure. It should be noted that in light of Fiedler's recent work in cognitive resource utilization (Yukl, 1989), proficiency in the utilization of diagnostic tools leading to determination of the degree of stress in a work situation due to problematic relationships might be a correlated activity. Accurate diagnosis of leadership style and situational favorableness by the Contingency Leader would appear useless unless accompanied by correct decisions concerning appropriate actions. Such decisions could be enhanced through training activities utilizing an analytical approach to solving the problem of leader-situation match. It is suggested that such an activity might involve the use of a contingency matrix or decision-making tree which lends itself to analytical

processes.

The focus of the Contingency Leader is without doubt on the work team, and team building skills could be enhanced through training activities leading to definition of team goals, integration of individual expectation into the team's goals, and development of a team plan of action for the realization of goals. Restructuring the task environment is unique to this model, and such skill might be developed through case studies and role playing activities that require the leader to manipulate situational variables such as resource allocation, leader-subordinate relations, and task ambiguity. Finally, the need of the Contingency Leader to gain crucial information about the task environment implies the value of communication activities leading to establishment of information networks, improved information dissemination, and improved questioning and listening techniques.

#### Transformational Leadership Model

##### Definition of theory

Tichy and Devanna (1986) advocate that Transformational Leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. Tichy and Ulrich (1984) propose that Transformational leaders arise when a mature organization faces an environmental problem not solvable by slow evolution. It is suggested that a Transformational leader is recognizable by assuming responsibility for reshaping organizational practices to adapt

to environmental triggers, directing organizational changes which instill confidence in employees for new ways of doing things, and helping to overcome resistance to change by creating visions which evoke confidence in new organizational practices.

The Transformational leader is defined as fulfilling four crucial roles. The first role is identifying triggers for change and sensing felt-needs. In this role the leader scans the environment for changes, processes information, and makes decisions to prepare the organization's vision to match the anticipated environmental changes. The second role of the Transformational leader involves the creation of an organizational vision. In this role the leader defines the firm's distinctive competency, determines the firm's overall strengths and weaknesses, allows decisions concerning allocation of resources to areas that will ensure ultimate success, and creates a vision that will allow the organization to position itself in the new environment. The third role is concerned with gaining commitment of individual members to finding a new beginning. This role involves forming essential coalitions, setting goals which are visible and can be reinforced by success, becoming a role model of the desired new behaviors, and systematically using symbols to create meaning during the transition. The fourth role of the Transformational leader is to institutionalize the transition.



This role involves making the alterations in management structure and processes, shared values and norms, and human resources necessary to permit transition of the vision into practice (Tichy and Ulrich, 1984).

#### Empirical research

House and Singh (1987) contend that in contrast to transactional theories of leadership that induce followers to behave in ways desired by the leader in exchange for some good desired by the follower, Transformational Leadership takes as dependent variables the followers' responses to work-related stimuli, their self-esteem, trust and confidence in the leader, follower values, and follower motivation to perform above and beyond the call of duty. Unlike traditional theories, Transformational Leadership does not attempt to describe leaders in terms of task- and person-oriented leader behavior; rather, Transformational leaders are noted as addressing themselves to the followers' wants, needs, and motivations in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Yukl (1989) concludes that studies consistently find that it is important for a leader to articulate a clear and appealing vision relevant to the needs and values of followers. Further, communication of this vision is facilitated by the leader's actions, by what the leader attends to, and by the use of emotional appeals, symbols,

metaphors, rituals, and dramatically staged events.

Bass (1985) notes that managers who are seen by their followers as Transformational leaders are characterized by three behavioral factors. The most dominate dimension is charisma or a concern with faith in the leader, respect for the leader, and inspiration and encouragement provided by his/her presence. The other two factors are individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation.

House and Singh (1987) point out that a computation of a hierarchical regression analysis of transactional and Transformational Leadership on self-reported effort and performance measures of two samples of U.S. Army officers and one sample of industrial managers reported by Waldman in 1985 indicated that Transformational Leadership has a significant effect over and above transactional leadership.

House and Singh (1987) report that high-potential managers were rated significantly higher by followers on Transformational Leadership factors than managers rated as having less potential. Further, investigating the association between team performance in a realistic management simulation and post-game ratings of leaders, Avolio and Bass (1985) report that teams with leaders having higher ratings of Transformational Leadership had significantly higher levels of performance, higher levels of satisfaction with the leader, and greater effectiveness as leaders.

Yukl (1989) concludes that most of the research of Transformational Leadership has been descriptive and qualitative and tends to be too imprecise for reaching firm conclusions, but it does suggest that perhaps the unique contribution of the leader is to collect and integrate the components of a vision provided by followers, then make the vision come alive through persuasive articulation.

#### Training implications

It is suggested that a leader properly trained in the Transformational model should be observed initiating behaviors that inspire and direct organizational change while followers of such a leader should be observed committing themselves to the realization of the vision generated by the leader.

Further, it is suggested that the dominant perception of a properly trained Transformational leader should be the crucial role of followers as channels through which organizational change will be implemented, and the dominant perception among followers should be of the leader as the germinal source and the role model for change.

Levy and Merry (1986) propose that Transformational Leadership requires re-education and should occur in four phases: 1) scanning the environment and predicting environmental conditions, 2) creating an organizational vision defining a firm's distinctive competence, 3) mobilizing organizational commitment, and 4) institutionalizing change.

Implicit in their proposal is the need for Transformational leaders to become competent in diagnosis, decision-making, communication, team building, and role modeling skills.

The Transformational leader's diagnostic skills should result in the clarification of values and the identification of a new organizational mission and purpose. Tichy and Devanna (1986) describe a training program reflective of the Transformational model in which diagnostic skills were addressed through activities involving the telling of stories about the organization to represent values worth preserving and values that needed to be extinguished, and comparing data obtained from subordinates concerning leader style and analyzing the need for individual change. Decision-making skills are critical to the success of the leader in this model because the end result will be the reallocation of organizational resources. In the training program conducted by Tichy and Devanna (1986), participants took a current management process and analyzed it to determine what would have to change to support a new organizational culture. It is suggested that decision-making skills can also be enhanced through case studies and role playing activities which require creativity and discovery of new ways of viewing problems of distribution and utilization of available resources necessary to achieve a desired new organizational state. Such activities should also lead to enhanced leader competency in

environmental restructuring skills.

Communication skills will have a great influence on the effectiveness of a Transformational leader, but the activities used here will be much different from those communication activities found in other training programs. Communication activities here will focus on using stories, anecdotes, and ritual to define the philosophy and culture and disseminate information crucial to realization of the new organization. Contingency reinforcement skills such as structuring feedback and reward systems will be important to the leader in this model as means for building crucial coalitions and moving toward institutionalization of new values.

In their program, Tichy and Devanna (1986) emphasized team building skills through activities that encouraged people who needed to work together to negotiate deals with one another resulting in individuals who had never been interdependent joining forces to try and affect change. Finally, note should be taken of Levy and Merry's (1986) comment that the Transformational leader needs skills in modeling roles which embody attitudes and behaviors that subordinates should work to attain. It is suggested that such skills could be addressed through training activities involving behavior modeling and role playing requiring demonstration of desired behaviors.

### Summary

Of the seven leadership models reviewed, only Vertical Dyad Linkage, Leader Reward, and the Decision-Making model appear to possess adequate empirical research to support their validity. While existing research of the other four models does not directly refute their validity, the research is often inconclusive or inadequate.

## CHAPTER III. LEADERSHIP THEMES

## The Existence of Training Profiles

Once familiar with the seven models of leadership, an awareness arises that individual models of leadership share a common interest in leader skill competencies and may indeed use similar training activities in development of those competencies. The matrix shown in Table 1 suggests the existence of training profiles among the models of leadership. The matrix demonstrates that the Leader Reward, VDL, and Path-Goal models share a desire for leader competency in:

- 1) communication skills, addressed through training activities that focus on establishing information networks;
- 2) goal setting skills, addressed through training activities focusing on Management by Objectives and performance planning;
- 3) negotiation skills, achieved through training activities that emphasize contracting for employee performance and behavior;
- 4) contingency reinforcement skills, achieved through training activities focusing on performance monitoring and evaluation techniques and structuring feedback and reward;
- 5) coaching skills, addressed through activities that develop supportive behaviors; and
- 6) diagnostic skills, achieved through training activities that enable analysis of employee motivation profiles.

While the matrix suggests that the Situational, Contingency, and Decision-Making models may overlap with other

Table 1. Matrix of skills and related training activities reflective of specific models of leadership

	L-R.	V.D.L.	P-G.	S.L.	C.L.	D-M.	T.L.
<u>Communication Skills</u>							
Enhancing active questioning and listening	X	X		X	X	X	
Improving information dissemination	X		X		X		X
Developing information networks	X	X	X		X		
Using story, myth, and ritual							X
<u>Goal Setting Skills</u>							
Utilizing management by objectives	X	X	X				
Enhancing performance planning	X	X	X				
<u>Negotiation Skills</u>							
Contracting for employee behavior and performance	X	X	X		X		
Contracting for leader behavior					X		
<u>Contingency Reinforcement Skills</u>							
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	X	X	X		X		
Developing progressive discipline techniques	X						
Structuring feedback and rewards	X	X	X		X		X
<u>Supervision Skills</u>							
Developing skills demonstration techniques				X			
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	X						



Table 1. (continued)

	L-R.	V.D.L.	P-G.	S.L.	C.L.	D-M.	T.L.
<u>Coaching Skills</u>							
Enhancing inter-personal relations		X					
Developing supportive behaviors	X	X	X	X		X	
<u>Diagnostic Skills</u>							
Analyzing employee motivational profile	X	X	X	X			
Determining preference for leadership style					X	X	X
Assessing organizational climate						X	X
<u>Decision-Making Skills</u>							
Utilizing analytical problem-solving					X	X	X
Utilizing creative problem-solving							X
<u>Environmental Restructuring Skills</u>							
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity						X	
Restructuring leader-subordinate relations		X		X	X		
Developing techniques of resource allocation		X			X		X
Planning for organizational change							X
<u>Team Building</u>							
Defining team mission and goals	X				X	X	X
Integrating individual expectations		X	X	X	X		X
Developing a team plan of action	X			X	X	X	X

Table 1. (continued)

	L-R.	V.D.L.	P-G.	S.L.	C.L.	D-M.	T.L.
<u>Role Modeling Skills</u>							
Defining organi- zational values		X					X
Behavior modeling		X		X			X

models in the training activities utilized to achieve desired competencies, as a group, they differ significantly from other models in that their training profile suggests an emphasis on: 1) leader competency in diagnostic skills, achieved through training activities focusing on developing an awareness of personal leader style; 2) competency in decision-making skills, addressed through training activities that focus on analytical problem-solving; 3) competency in team building skills, achieved through training activities enabling integration of individual expectations and development of a plan of action for realization of team goals; and 4) competency in communication skills, addressed through activities focusing on active questioning and listening.

While it appears that the Transformational model of leadership does share common concerns with other models, the matrix suggests that the model displays a distinct training profile: 1) environmental restructuring skills, achieved through training activities such as resource allocation and

planning for organizational change; 2) team building skills, achieved through activities such as defining team mission and goals, integrating individual expectations, and developing a team plan of action; 3) role modeling skills, achieved through activities involving behavior modeling, role playing and defining organizational values; and 4) decision-making skills, achieved through both creative and analytical problem-solving activities.

#### The Emergence of Leadership Themes

Upon further examination of the training profiles displayed by the seven models of leadership, a sense of three distinct leadership themes emerges, and these themes might well be classified as Transactional Leadership, Conditional Leadership, and Transformational Leadership.

Burns (1978) identifies Transactional Leadership as a transaction between leader and follower in which the follower's behavior is influenced through an exchange for some valued outcome which the leader is in position to deliver. In light of the training profile displayed by the Leader Reward, VDL, and Path-Goal models of leadership, one can deduce a transactional theme in which the ultimate objective of leadership training enables the leader to gain, via development of an implied or psychological contract linking pay-offs to communicated behaviors and levels of performance, compliance of the individual follower to behaviors and levels

of performance desired by the organization. Within this theme, the focus of the leader is most often upon the individual subordinate, and with the exception of the Path-Goal model there is little variation throughout the contract period in the nature of leader-follower relation.

Upon examination of the training profile displayed by the Situational, Decision-Making, and Contingency models, one can deduce the existence of a theme of leadership in which the leader's focus is expanded beyond the individual subordinate to encompass a work team or group. Here, the ultimate objective of training is one of enabling the leader to accurately diagnose a work situation and create a task environment or leader-follower relationship capable of generating a sense of team commitment to enacting a plan for achievement organizational objectives. Further, models expressing this theme of leadership may purposely change the nature of leader-member relations or the task environment, depending upon the leader's diagnosis of conditions in the work environment. Because of this changing relationship, the theme is termed Conditional Leadership.

The third theme of leadership, Transformational, is defined as the fusing of the power base of the leader and the wants, needs, and motivations of the follower toward support of a common purpose (Burns, 1978). Examination of the desired skill competencies and training activities implied in the

literature on Transformational Leadership reveals a theme wherein the leader focuses on an entire organization and seeks to change the very work values and motives of those within the organization. The ultimate objective of the Transformational Leadership training is revival or rebirth of an entire organization.

#### Validation of the Thematic Approach to Leadership Training

To determine support for the existence of the three themes of leadership suggested by the apparent training profiles requires validation of the training implications deduced from the literature on each leadership model. To accomplish this, leading theoreticians advocating the various models were identified and mailed a questionnaire. The questionnaire, in a forced choice format, listed the training implications as drawn from the literature, asked each theoretician to indicate on a scale of 1 through 5 the degree of emphasis each activity would receive in a training program reflective of the model they advocated. Respondents were also given opportunity to suggest activities not included on the questionnaire. Questionnaires were mailed to Robert House and Terrance Mitchell (Path-Goal), George Graen and Terri Scandura (Vertical Dyad Linkage), Henry Sims (Leader Reward), Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (Situational), Fred Fiedler (Contingency), Victor Vroom and A. G. Jago (Decision-Making), and Noel Tichy and Mary Anne Devanna (Transformational).

Questionnaires were returned by at least one proponent of each model excluding the Transformational model.

Mean scores for each suggested training activity were determined according to the transactional and conditional themes of leadership. Those activities having a mean response greater than 3.75 were determined as possessing a high degree of emphasis shared by each model within that leadership theme.

### Results

As indicated in Table 2, advocates of those models expressing a transactional theme indicated that significant emphasis would be given to developing leader competency in the following: 1) communication skills, achieved through activities that emphasize development of information networks; 2) goal setting skills, achieved through activities addressing Management by Objectives and performance planning; 3) negotiating skills, achieved through activities that emphasize contracting for employee performance and behavior; 4) contingency reinforcement skills, achieved through activities that enhance performance monitoring and evaluation techniques and structuring feedback and rewards; 5) coaching skills, achieved through activities developing supportive behaviors; 6) diagnostic skills, achieved through activities which analyze employee motivation profile; 7) team building skills, achieved through activities which enable integration of individual expectations; and 8) role modeling skills,

Table 2. Mean scores of leadership theorist's response to questionnaires seeking indication of the degree of emphasis activities would receive in training reflective of the model they advocate

	Transactional Models	Conditional Models
1 = No Emphasis		
2 = Little Emphasis		
3 = Some Emphasis		
4 = Much Emphasis		
5 = Great Emphasis		
<hr/>		
<u>Communication Skills</u>		
Enhancing active questioning and listening	3.50	4.00 <sup>a</sup>
Improving information dissemination	3.67 <sup>a</sup>	3.00
Developing information networks	3.83 <sup>a</sup>	2.67
<u>Goal Setting Skills</u>		
Utilizing management by objectives	4.00 <sup>a</sup>	2.33
Enhancing performance planning	4.67 <sup>a</sup>	3.67
<u>Negotiation Skills</u>		
Contracting for employee behavior and performance	3.83 <sup>a</sup>	2.67
Contracting for leader behavior	1.00	1.33
<u>Contingency Reinforcement Skills</u>		
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation	4.67 <sup>a</sup>	3.00
Developing progressive discipline techniques	2.67	3.00
Structuring feedback and rewards	4.67 <sup>a</sup>	3.00
<u>Supervision Skills</u>		
Identifying techniques for policy definition	2.33	2.00
Developing skills demonstration techniques	3.67	2.67
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	2.67	2.67

<sup>a</sup>Mean response determined as indication activity would receive significant emphasis in training reflective of all models expressing the leadership theme.

Table 2. (continued)

	Transactional Models	Conditional Models
<u>Coaching Skills</u>		
Studying interpersonal relations	3.67	2.33
Developing supportive behaviors	4.00 <sup>a</sup>	2.67
<u>Diagnostic Skills</u>		
Determining preference for leadership style	2.33	5.00 <sup>a</sup>
Analyzing employee motivational profile	4.00 <sup>a</sup>	3.00
Assessing organizational environment	2.17	3.00
<u>Decision-Making Skills</u>		
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	2.33	4.67 <sup>a</sup>
Utilizing creative problem-solving	1.67	2.30
<u>Environmental Restructuring Skills</u>		
Developing techniques of resource allocation	3.17	2.33
Manipulating subordinate task difficulty	2.00	2.66
Restructuring leader-subordinate relations	2.33	2.00
Planning for organizational change	2.44	2.00
<u>Team Building Skills</u>		
Defining team mission and goals	3.56	3.66
Integrating individual expectations	3.83 <sup>a</sup>	3.66
Developing a team plan of action	3.22	4.00 <sup>a</sup>
<u>Role Modeling Skills</u>		
Defining organizational values	2.83	2.00
Behavior modeling	4.14 <sup>a</sup>	2.33



achieved through activities which enable modeling of behavior.

With exception of the emphasis on modeling of desired behavior shared by the Leader Reward, VDL, and Path-Goal models, all other training activities given emphasis by the theoreticians had been predicted from the review of the literature. Thus, support for the existence of a transactional theme of leadership deduced from the training profiles displayed by the three models appears strong.

✓ Advocates of models expressing a Conditional theme of leadership indicated that emphasis would be given to developing leader competencies in: 1) communication skills, achieved through activities which enhance active questioning and listening; 2) diagnostic skills, achieved through activities which enable determination of a preference for leadership style; 3) decision-making skills, achieved through activities which emphasize analytical problem-solving; and 4) team building skills, achieved through activities which enable development of a team plan of action (Table 2). Each training activity receiving given emphasis by the theoreticians advocating the Situational Leadership, Decision-Making, and Contingency models had been predicted from the review of the literature. Thus, support for existence of a conditional theme of leadership deduced from the training profiles of the three models also appears strong.

Since no reply was received from either proponent of the Transformational model, no conclusions can be drawn concerning validation of the training implications deduced from the literature.

### Implications

A question that begs to be addressed following any presentation of leadership theory is: "What model should serve as the foundation of an organization's leadership training program?" A more relevant question to ask is: "Leadership training for what purpose?"

The training implications of the transactional theme of leadership suggest that in consideration of the requirements of first line supervisors either the Leader Reward, VDL, or Path-Goal model provides an appropriate theoretical foundation for leadership training. Within first line supervision, the scope of the leader's focus is usually narrow enough to permit attention to the behavior and performance of individual subordinates, and the desire of the leader is generally for compliance of subordinate behaviors and performance to standards necessary for meeting organizational goals and objectives. As suggested in Figure 1, one may select a specific model based on the degree to which it is desirable for the leader to focus on individual compliance as opposed to generating a greater sense of team commitment. It would appear that a need for intense focus on compliance of

individual behavior and performance accompanied by little variation in the nature of the leader-follower relationship recommends usage of the Leader Reward model. As one desires less of a focus on individual compliance and more of a focus on generating a sense of team commitment, with situational variations in leader-follower relations being desirable, it would appear that the Path-Goal model is a more appropriate choice.

In view of the responsibilities of middle managers, any of the three models expressing a conditional theme of leadership should be appropriate as the theoretical foundation of leadership training. Within middle management, the leader's focus is frequently on the operation of an organizational function, and the desire is for commitment of the various interrelated elements within that function to an operational strategy designed to accomplish organizational objectives. As suggested in Figure 1, in those situations where the primary concern of the leader is for the outputs of a work team, with infrequent need to focus on the behavior of any specific individual, the Decision-Making model of leadership would appear appropriate for training. However, where the primary concern is not exclusively on the outputs of a team and consideration must be given to individual team members, the Situational Leadership model appears most appropriate for training because training within this model

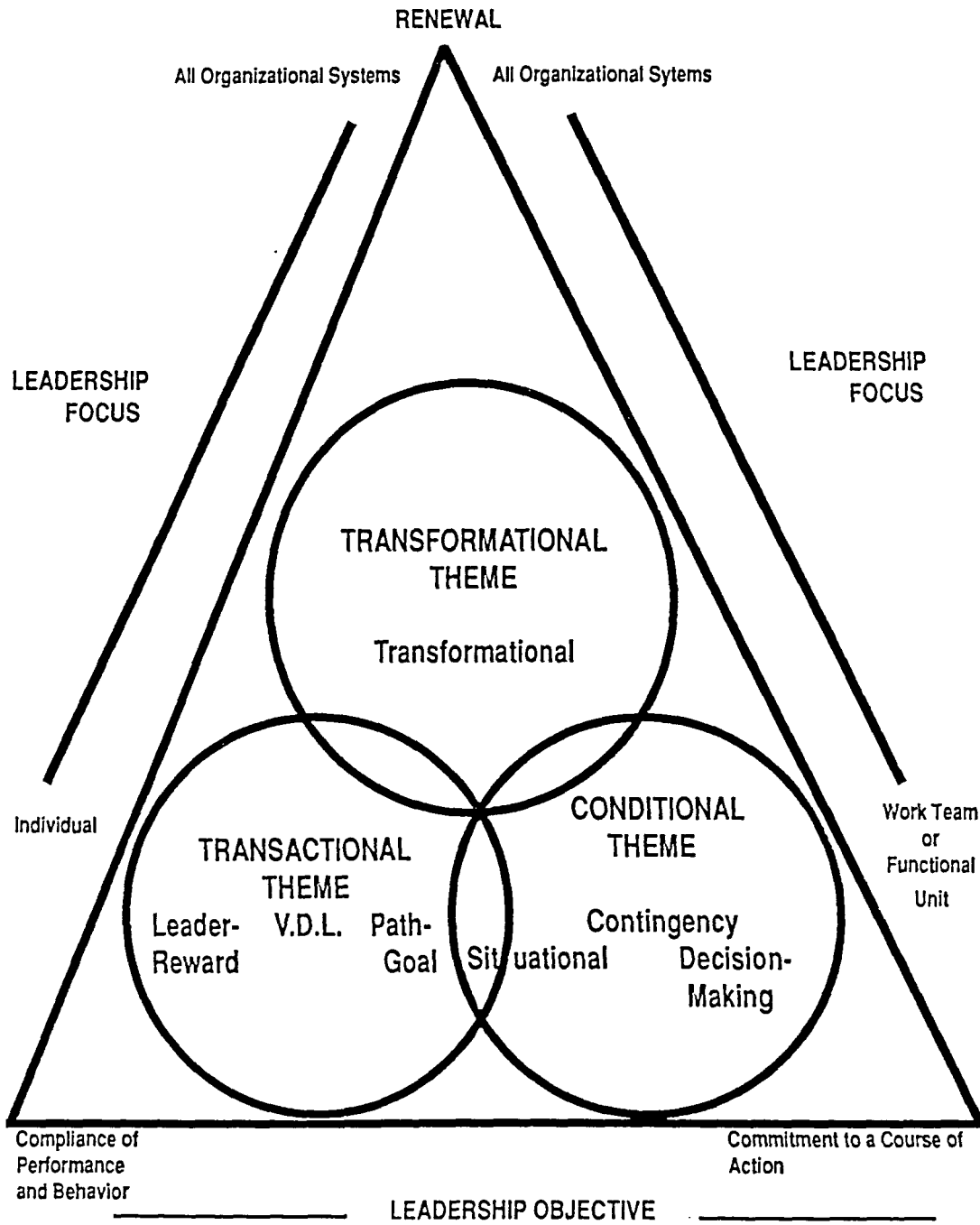


Figure 1. Considerations in developing a leadership training program.

should enhance a leader's ability to respond to the needs of individual subordinates to a greater degree than other models expressing the conditional theme.

The Transformational theme of leadership implies that at the level of the corporate executive, where the leader's focus is on an entire organization, training relative to changes in organizational values and motives is most appropriate.

In conclusion, different training themes appear more appropriate to different levels of management, and one should be sensitive to the level at which a corporation desires leadership training. For example, implementing training in one of the models reflective of the transactional theme at the executive level would, as Warren Bennis (1989) points out, "elevate obedience over imagination" and make it difficult for top management to develop a vision of what the organization is to be, communicate that vision throughout the organization, and gain the critical mass necessary for realization of the vision. Further, it appears that implementation of Transformational Leadership at the level of first line supervisors would likely result in failure to develop critical contracts which define for individual subordinate's work-related expectations, provide outcomes that are valued and need satisfying, and ensure compliance with organizational goals and objectives. Thus, as illustrated in Figure 2, one should expect to find the transactional theme of leadership

dominating training at the level of first line supervisor, the conditional theme of leadership dominating training at the middle management level, and the Transformational theme of leadership dominating training at the executive level.

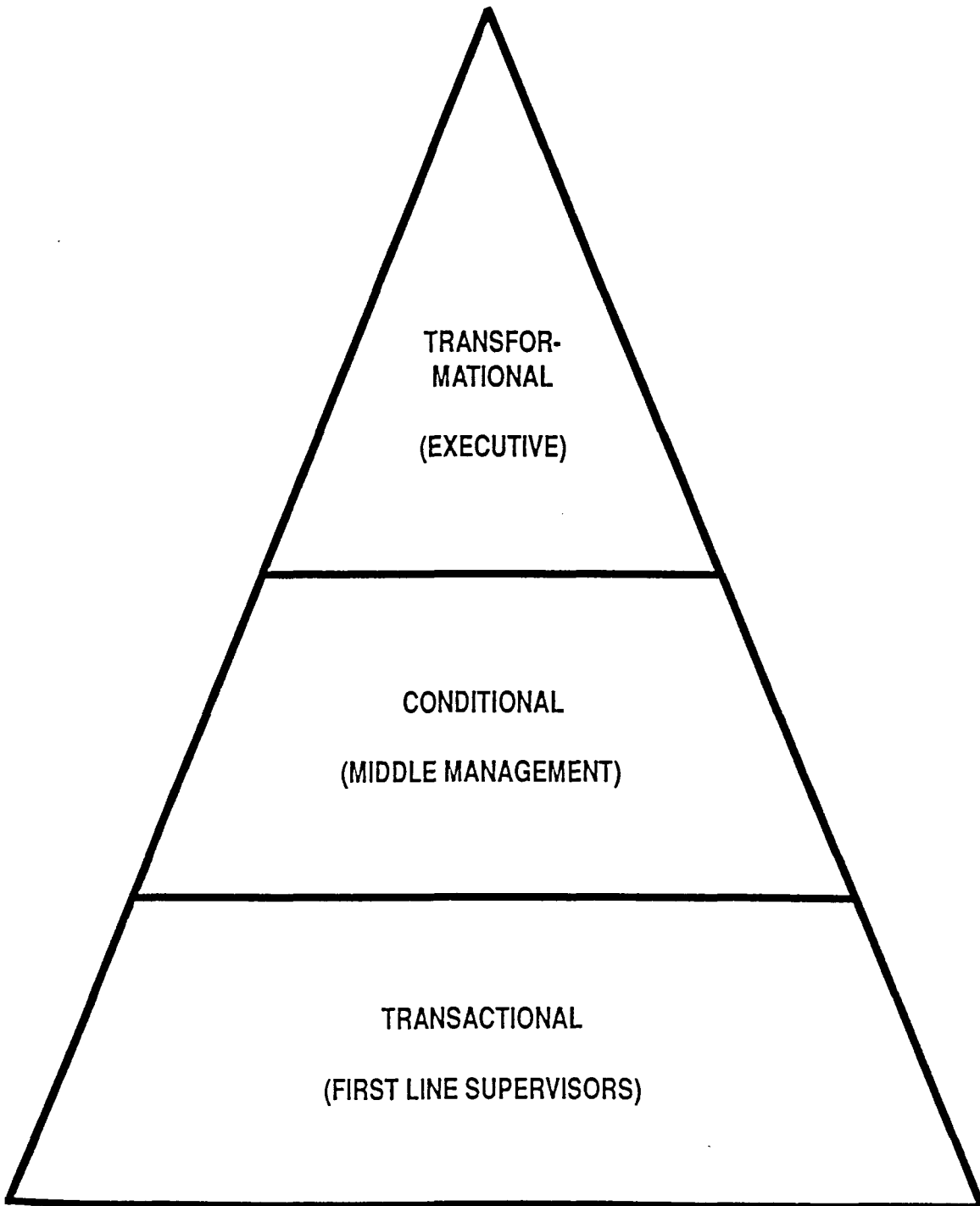


Figure 2. A hierarchy of leadership training themes

CHAPTER IV. LEADERSHIP TRAINING AMONG THE FORBES 500

## Statement of Purpose

In general, this study seeks to investigate the frequency with which leadership training is provided to managers and executives in major corporations, the models serving as theoretical foundations for leadership training provided to managers and executives, the outcomes desired of leadership training provided to managers and executives, and the degree of emphasis given at the middle management and executive levels to training activities reflecting specific themes of leadership. Specifically, this study seeks to determine if significant differences exist in the nature of activities emphasized in leadership training provided to managers and executives, if significant difference exists on an industry basis in the activities emphasized in leadership training provided to managers and executives, and if a significant difference exists on a thematic basis in the activities emphasized in leadership training received by managers and executives as suggested in Chapter 3 of this study.

## Methods, Materials, and Procedures

Design

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was utilized as the research tool in this study. The questionnaire was administered in two parts with the first half focusing on leadership training



practices at the middle management level, and the second part dealing with leadership training practices at the executive level. While the two parts differed in their focus (i.e., middle management versus executive leadership training), the two parts asked identical questions.

The first question sought a response to the frequency with which leadership training is provided to middle management, and questions two and three sought to determine if leadership training programs were developed internally or purchased from a vendor; and if purchased from a vendor, identification of the most recent vendor. The fourth question asked the respondent to identify which of the seven leadership models most closely relates to their current program of leadership provided to middle managers.

Questions five through thirteen sought to identify outcomes desired of leadership training programs currently provided to middle management in terms reflective of three specific themes of leadership. Questions five, seven, and nine stated outcomes reflecting the transactional theme; questions six, ten, and eleven stated outcomes reflecting the conditional theme; and questions eight, twelve, and thirteen stated outcomes reflecting the Transformational theme of leadership.

Questions fourteen through forty-eight asked for responses to the degree of emphasis that specific training

activities, deduced from the review of the literature or suggested by theorist, receive in the current leadership training program. Question forty-nine provided opportunity for the sample to make note of any training activity not previously mentioned but included in the current program of leadership training.

The second half of the questionnaire was a mirror of the first and sought corresponding information concerning leadership training provided at the executive level.

Each questionnaire carried an identification number for the purpose of classifying returns according to industry utilizing the S.I.C. Index (Standards and Poors, 1989). To encourage response from the samples, postcards (Appendix B) mailed approximately fourteen days after the original mailing were utilized as a follow-up technique.

### Population

The population for this study consisted of 688 companies appearing on the 1989 listing of the Forbes 500.

### Sample

Three hundred and forty-four companies were alternately selected from an alphabetical listing of the population. Questionnaires were sent to either the Vice President of Human Resources or the Vice President of Industrial Relations of each selected firm. Sixty-six questionnaires suitable for

entry were returned for a response rate of nineteen percent. Sixty-four of the respondents answered questions regarding the theory of leadership most closely related to leadership training provided to middle managers while forty-nine respondents provided information regarding leadership training provided at the executive level.

Fifty-six respondents provided data on questions regarding outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management level while thirty-eight responded to the same question in regard to leadership training provided to executives. An identical response rate was received to questions regarding the emphasis given activities in leadership training provided to middle managers and executives. Of the fifty-six who responded to questions concerning leadership training at the middle management level (Table 3), thirty-four percent were from the manufacturing sector; seventeen percent were from the transportation, communications, electric, gas, and sanitation services sector; twenty-nine percent were from the financial, insurance, and real estate industry sector; and twenty percent were from various other sectors of industry. Of the thirty-eight responding to questions regarding leadership training provided executives, thirty-eight percent were from the manufacturing sector; thirteen percent were from the transportation, communications, electric, gas, and sanitation sector;

Table 3. Breakdown of respondents by S.I.C. index

Level	Mfg.	Transport., Commun., Utilities, Sanitation	Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	Others
Middle Management N = 56	34%	17%	29%	20%
Executive Level N = 38	38%	13%	22%	27%

twenty-two percent were from the financial, insurance, and real estate sector; and twenty-seven percent were from other sectors of business and industry.

#### Analysis of the Data

All data were entered by the Iowa State Computation Center, Room 121, Durham Hall, and statistical analysis was conducted by the Iowa State Statistical Laboratory, Snedecor Hall, utilizing SASS.

#### Frequency of leadership training

Survey participants were provided six choices from which to indicate the frequency of leadership training provided to middle managers and executives: 1) more than once a year, 2) once a year, 3) once every two years, 4) once every three years, 5) once every five years, and 6) training never provided. Table 4 indicates that at the middle management

Table 4. Reported frequency of corporate leadership training  
(N = 63)

	Middle Managers	Executives
More than once per year	10 16%	03 5%
Once per year	14 23%	12 19%
Once every two years	10 16%	04 6%
Once every three years	12 19%	10 16%
Once every five years	07 10%	11 17%
Training never provided	10 16%	23 37%

level twenty-three percent of the respondents provide leadership training at least once a year, and nineteen percent of the respondents provide leadership training once every three years. Sixteen percent of the respondents provide leadership training once every two years, another sixteen percent provide leadership training more than once a year, and another sixteen percent never provide leadership training at this level. Ten percent of the respondents provide leadership training only once every five years. At the executive level, thirty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that leadership training is never provided, nineteen percent

provide training once a year, seventeen percent provide leadership training once every five years, sixteen percent provide training only once every three years, six percent provide training once every two years, and five percent provide leadership training more than once a year. The data indicate that leadership training may be provided to middle managers with greater frequency than corporate executives and there may be a greater tendency to forgo leadership training of any nature at the corporate executive level.

#### Inhouse versus vendor supplied leadership training

Survey participants were asked to indicate if the current program of leadership training provided to middle managers and executives was purchased from a vendor. A frequency count was made of responses to this question. Fifty-seven of the samples responded to this question regarding middle management training and forty-two responded concerning the executive level. At the middle management level, sixty-five percent of the respondents indicated that leadership training was purchased through a vendor; and at the executive level, fifty-seven percent indicated the same.

#### The theory of leadership most closely relating to current training

Survey participants were given eight choices from which to indicate the leadership theory most closely related to

their current program of training for middle managers and executives: 1) Path-Goal Leadership, 2) Vertical Dyad Linkage Leadership, 3) Situational Leadership, 4) Transformational Leadership, 5) Contingency Leadership, 6) Decision-Making Leadership, 7) Leader Reward Leadership, and 8) Not Sure. As indicated by Table 5, the most popular models of leadership at the middle management were Situational Leadership, identified by fifty percent of the respondents, and Transformational model, identified by nineteen percent of the respondents. The Decision-Making model was identified by fifteen percent of the respondents while eight percent of the respondents identified the Path-Goal model. Five percent of the respondents were not sure, and the Contingency model was identified by one percent of the respondents as was the Leader Reward model. At the executive level, the Transformational model was reported to be the most applicable model being indicated by thirty-five percent of the respondents with twenty percent identifying Situational Leadership. Sixteen percent of the respondents were not sure, twelve percent identified the Decision-Making model, ten percent identified the Path-Goal model, four percent the Leader Reward model, and two percent identified the Contingency model.

The models comprising the transactional theme were reported less frequently than the models comprising the conditional and Transformational themes, and this is not

Table 5. Leadership theory reported as most closely related to the model taught in current leadership training program

	<u>Response</u>		<u>Percentage</u>		
	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	
<u>Transactional Theme</u>	Sub total:		10	14	
Leader Reward	1	2	2	4	
Path-Goal	5	5	8	10	
Vertical Dyad Linkage	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	
<u>Conditional Theme</u>	Sub total:		66	35	
Situational Leadership	32	10	50	21	
Contingency Leadership	1	1	1	2	
Decision-Making Leadership	<u>10</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>12</u>	
<u>Transformational Theme</u>					
Transformational Leadership	<u>12</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>35</u>	
<u>Not Sure</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>16</u>	
		(N = 64)	(N = 49)	1.00	1.00

surprising in that these models were suggested in Chapter 3 as being most appropriate to training provided at the level of first line supervisors. The models comprising the conditional theme of leadership were reported twice as frequently as the Transformational model at the middle management level and this



appears congruent with the deduction made in Chapter 3 that such models should be most appropriate to leadership training at the level of middle managers. Finally, leadership training at the corporate executive level appears almost equally split between the models comprising the conditional theme of leadership and the Transformational model.

Determining the difference in outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management and executive levels

Survey participants were asked to indicate through a Likert-like format (1 = no importance to 5 = great importance) the degree to which outcomes reflecting the three themes of leadership defined in Chapter 3 were important to successful demonstration of leadership as taught to their middle managers and executives. Each theme was represented by three outcome statements. Means were determined for responses to each outcome statement. The null hypothesis that the variances between the two populations on each outcome statement were equal was tested using a one-tailed F-test at the .05 level of significance.

Table 6 illustrates the difference in the applications of the three themes for the middle management and executive levels. Results show the difference in managerial level with respect to the three outcomes reflecting the transactional theme. Only in the leader individually communicating expected levels of performance or behavior to subordinates was a

significant difference found. The fact that significant differences were found for the leader's sensitivity to situational factors and changing leadership style or restructure the task to obtain an appropriate match of style and situation indicates a difference in application of the conditional theme to the managerial level. In short, the conditional theme was perceived as more applicable to the middle manager level. This appears congruent with the deduction made in Chapter 3 that transactional and conditional themes should be more appropriate to outcomes desired at either the first supervisor or the middle management level than at the executive level.

Table 6 also reveals that the Transformational theme is perceived as more applicable to leadership training at the corporate executive level. Results show leadership training at the executive level to be more interested in training the leader to be continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment and to seek to create an organizational culture appropriate to changes in the external business environment than leadership training at the middle management level. Although not at a level of significance, the desire for leadership training to result in alignment of subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission also appears greater at the executive level than at the middle management level. Each of these outcomes reflects a Transformational

Table 6. T-test of mean response for training outcomes desired of middle managers and executives

Scale: 1 = no importance		2 = little importance	
3 = some importance		4 = much importance	
5 = great importance			
Outcomes	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	T-value
<u>Transactional theme</u>			
Leader works individually with subordinates to communicate expected level of performance and behavior	(N = 56) 4.28	(N = 38) 3.71	2.77**
Leader is sensitive to outcomes and pay-offs valued by subordinates in exchange for behaviors and performance desired by the firm	(N = 56) 3.35	(N = 38) 3.39	-0.185
Leader seeks to recognize performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards	(N = 56) 3.41	(N = 37) 3.45	-0.220
<u>Conditional Theme</u>			
Leader is sensitive to situational factors that influence the ultimate commitment of the work team to meeting goals and objectives	(N = 56) 4.05	(N = 37) 3.64	2.49*
Leader either changes leadership style or restructures the task to obtain an appropriate match of style and situation	(N = 56) 3.35	(N = 37) 2.86	2.29*

\*Significant at the .05 level of significance

\*\*Significant at the .01 level of significance

Table 6. (continued)

Outcomes	Mean		T-value
	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	
Leader must accurately diagnose the task situation prior to selection of a leadership style	(N = 55) 3.18	(N = 37) 2.78	1.73
<u>Transformational theme</u> Leader seeks to align subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission	(N = 56) 3.83	(N = 38) 4.21	-1.73
Leader is continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment	(N = 56) 3.44	(N = 38) 4.26	-3.90**
Leader seeks to create an organizational culture appropriate to changes in the external business environment	(N = 56) 3.39	(N = 38) 4.05	-2.93**

theme and appears congruent with the deduction made in Chapter 3 that the Transformational theme should be most appropriate to outcomes desired of leadership training at the executive level. However, one should note that Table 6 reveals no significant difference between middle management and executive level leadership training in regard to other outcomes reflective of the transactional and conditional themes such as sensitivity to pay-offs in exchange for

performance and behaviors, recognition of performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards, and diagnosis of task situation prior to selection of leadership style. This suggests that there may be some overlap of thematic outcomes desired of leadership training provided at the middle management and executive levels.

#### Emphasis given specific training activities

Using a Likert format (1 = none to 5 = great), survey participants were asked to indicate the degree of emphasis specific activities receive in the leadership training program currently provided middle managers and executives. Means were tabulated for each activity. The null hypothesis that there existed no difference between the means of the two populations regarding emphasis given each activity was tested using a one-tailed F-test at the .05 level of significance.

Table 7 reveals that in developing communication skills the emphasis given to enhancing active questioning and listening, improving information dissemination, and developing information networks was not significantly different between middle management and executive leadership training. Similarly, no significant difference appeared between leadership training at the middle management level and at the executive level regarding training activities related to goal setting skills (e.g., Management by Objectives, Management by Results, and Performance Planning).

Table 7. T-test of the mean response to emphasis given activities in leadership training at the middle management and executive level

Scale:		1 = no emphasis	2 = little emphasis	
		3 = some emphasis	4 = much emphasis	
		5 = great emphasis		
		<u>Mean</u>		
Activities	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	T-value	
<u>Communication skills</u>				
Enhancing active questioning and listening	(N = 56) 3.75	(N = 38) 3.28	1.78	
Improving information dissemination	(N = 56) 3.44	(N = 38) 3.57	-0.54	
Developing information networks	(N = 56) 3.07	(N = 38) 3.34	-1.12	
<u>Goal setting skills</u>				
Management by objectives	(N = 56) 3.51	(N = 38) 3.28	0.84	
Management by results	(N = 56) 3.48	(N = 38) 3.34	0.51	
Enhancing performance planning	(N = 56) 3.82	(N = 38) 3.60	0.90	
<u>Negotiating skills</u>				
Contracting for employee performance and behavior	(N = 54) 2.79	(N = 37) 2.65	0.46	
Contracting for leader behavior	(N = 54) 2.48	(N = 37) 2.59	0.43	
Studying collective bargaining techniques	(N = 54) 1.59	(N = 37) 1.89	-1.29	

Table 7. (continued)

Activities	Mean		T-value
	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	
<u>Contingency reinforcement skills</u>			
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	(N = 56) 3.46	(N = 37) 2.94	2.35*
Developing progressive discipline techniques	(N = 56) 2.71	(N = 38) 2.26	1.77
Structuring feedback and rewards	(N = 56) 3.67	(N = 38) 3.21	2.03*
<u>Supervision skills</u>			
Identifying techniques for policy definition	(N = 56) 2.40	(N = 34) 2.82	-1.63
Developing skill demonstration techniques	(N = 55) 2.76	(N = 34) 2.26	2.04*
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	(N = 55) 3.38	(N = 36) 2.94	1.62
<u>Coaching skills</u>			
Studying interpersonal relations	(N = 56) 3.94	(N = 36) 3.44	2.07*
Developing supportive behaviors	(N = 56) 4.01	(N = 37) 3.62	1.79
Career development counseling	(N = 56) 3.01	(N = 37) 3.02	-0.03
<u>Conflict resolution skills</u>			
Identifying sources of group conflict	(N = 56) 3.28	(N = 37) 3.54	-1.12

\*Significant at the .05 level of significance

Table 7. (continued)

Activities	Mean		T-value
	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	
Developing conflict management strategies	(N = 56) 3.32	(N = 37) 3.35	-0.13
<u>Diagnostic skills</u>			
Diagnosing personal leadership style	(N = 55) 3.72	(N = 37) 3.89	-0.72
Analyzing what motivates employees	(N = 55) 3.69	(N = 36) 3.44	1.16
Assessing organizational climate	(N = 55) 3.41	(N = 36) 3.91	-2.10*
<u>Decision-making skills</u>			
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	(N = 56) 3.23	(N = 37) 3.40	-0.70
Utilizing creative problem-solving	(N = 56) 3.30	(N = 37) 3.48	-0.74
Influencing decision of others	(N = 56) 3.42	(N = 37) 3.75	-1.62
<u>Environmental restructuring skills</u>			
Developing resource allocation techniques	(N = 55) 2.67	(N = 38) 3.23	-2.04*
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity	(N = 53) 2.22	(N = 36) 2.44	-0.88
Restructuring management-subordinate relations	(N = 53) 2.94	(N = 36) 3.05	-0.48
Developing plans for organizational change	(N = 54) 3.20	(N = 38) 3.78	-2.22*
<u>Team building skills</u>			
Defining team mission and group goals	(N = 56) 4.01	(N = 38) 4.34	-1.60



Table 7. (continued)

Activities	Mean		T-value
	Mid. Mgmt.	Exec.	
Integrating individual expectations	(N = 56) 3.60	(N = 37) 3.59	0.05
Developing a team plan of action	(N = 56) 3.69	(N = 38) 3.86	-0.75
<u>Role modeling skills</u>			
Defining organizational values	(N = 55) 3.49	(N = 36) 4.00	-2.11*
Behavior modeling and role playing	(N = 56) 3.41	(N = 36) 3.16	0.934

The activities associated with developing negotiating skills in leaders were given little emphasis (i.e., low mean values) at either the middle management or executive levels. However, no significant difference was found to exist. One might ask if negotiation skills in general are of little importance in leadership training or if the activities associated with negotiation skills in this study were not appropriate to development of such skill.

Table 7 does reveal that respondents reported greater emphasis given to enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques and structuring feedback and rewards in the leadership training provided to middle managers than in

that provided corporate executives. This finding indicated that the development of contingency reinforcement skills is perceived as more important to middle managers than to executives. Some support was found regarding the applicability of supervision skills to leadership training in that developing demonstration skill techniques was found of greater statistical importance ( $p < .05$ ) for middle managers than for executives.

Similarly, some support was found for differences in the applicability of coaching skills to leadership training at the managerial versus executive levels. The development of coaching skills through activities involving the study of interpersonal relations was found to receive greater emphasis ( $p < .05$ ) at the middle management level than at the executive level. However, there were no significant differences between the two groups in the emphasis given to activities developing supportive behaviors and career development counseling.

None of the activities associated with conflict resolution skills appeared to receive a significant difference of emphasis in leadership training provided to middle managers and corporate executives. Thus, the leadership training provided middle managers appears to emphasize contingency reinforcement, supervision, and coaching skills.

Leadership training for corporate executives appears to place emphasis on diagnostic, environmental restructuring, and

role modeling skills. For example, executive leadership training emphasizes activities assessing organization climate in pursuit of developing diagnostic skills. No significant difference was found in regard to activities analyzing what motivates employees and diagnosing personal leadership style.

In attempting to develop environmental restructuring skills, executive leadership training appeared to give greater emphasis ( $p < .05$ ) to activities enabling the leader to develop resource allocation techniques and plans for organizational change. However, no significant difference was found regarding activities manipulating subordinate task ambiguity and restructuring management-subordinate relations.

Finally, in regard to role modeling skills, it appeared that executive leadership training gives greater emphasis ( $p < .05$ ) to activities enabling a leader to define organizational values, but no significant difference was found regarding behavior modeling and role playing. Moreover, no significant differences were found relative to the emphasis given at the executive level to decision-making or team building skills.

In summary, the T-test of mean responses for specific training activities suggests that only the emphasis given performance monitoring and evaluation, structuring feedback and rewards, developing skill demonstration techniques, and

the study of interpersonal relations is significantly different ( $p < .05$ ) from the emphasis given the same activities in the training of corporate executives. The results also suggest that at the executive level activities such as assessing organizational climate, developing plans for organization change, and defining organizational values is significantly different ( $p < .05$ ) from the emphasis given the same activities in the training of middle managers.

#### Difference in leadership training by industry

In an attempt to determine if outcomes desired of leadership training vary according to industry, the responses were classified by industry code into one of four industry groupings: 1) Manufacturing, 2) Transportation, 3) Communications, Electric, Gas, and Sanitation Services, 3) Financial, Insurance, and Real Estate, and 4) Others. A single-factor analysis of variance, ANOVA, was conducted using as dependent variables responses to those questions concerning outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management level and the corporate executive level. A one-tailed F-test (the value of F being determined by the mean square for the factor being tested divided by the mean square of error) was utilized to test the null hypothesis that the mean response to each dependent variable was not significantly different on an industry basis.

As illustrated in Table 8, the one way ANOVA revealed no significant difference on an industry basis in the outcomes desired of leadership training at either the middle management or corporate executive level.

Results testing for the existence of differences in emphasis given to leadership training activities on an industry basis are shown in Table 9. This table reveals that on an industry basis, a significant difference in emphasis of training activities existed only in regard to developing skill demonstration techniques at the middle management level. Further examination revealed that this difference in emphasis was most pronounced in those samples classified as transportation, communications, electric, gas, and sanitary services. However, the finding of one significant difference among sixty-eight F-tests could have occurred by chance, so little credence is given to this isolated finding.

Searching for a relationship between emphasis given to training activities and the desire for outcomes reflecting specific leadership themes

The three items representing each leadership theme were summed to yield a single score for each theme. The reliability of the three statements used to measure each theme was determined by calculating a Cronbach coefficient alpha to reflect the estimates of the average of the correlations between and among the three statements used to capture each

Table 8. One way ANOVA of responses by industry to outcomes desired of leadership training

Outcomes	Mid. Mgmt. F-Value	Exec. F-Value
Leader works individually with subordinates to communicate levels of performance and behavior	0.52	0.07
Leader is sensitive to situational factors that influence ultimate commitment of work team to meeting goals and objectives	0.86	0.17
Leader is sensitive to outcomes and pay-offs valued by subordinates in exchange for behaviors and performance desired by firm	0.39	0.78
Leader seeks to align subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission	0.21	0.55
Leader seeks to recognize performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards	0.32	0.38
Leader either changes leadership style or restructures task to obtain appropriate match of style and situation	0.13	0.14
Leader accurately diagnoses task situation prior to selection of a leadership style	0.28	0.44
Leader is continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment	0.60	0.09
Leader seeks to create organizational culture appropriate to changes in external business environment	1.03	0.74

Table 9. One way ANOVA of response by industry to emphasis given leadership training activities

Activities	Mid. Mgmt. F-Value	Exec. F-Value
<u>Communication skills</u>		
Enhancing active questioning and listening	0.56	0.48
Improving information dissemination	0.36	0.33
Developing informational networks	0.63	0.33
<u>Goal setting skills</u>		
Utilizing management by objectives	1.89	0.55
Utilizing management by results	1.34	0.79
Enhancing performance planning	0.66	0.29
<u>Negotiating skills</u>		
Contracting for employee performance and behavior	0.39	0.28
Contracting for leader behavior	0.35	0.13
Studying collective bargaining techniques	0.25	0.83
<u>Contingency reinforcement skills</u>		
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	1.95	0.10
Developing progressive discipline techniques	1.89	1.14
Structuring feedback and rewards	0.86	0.22

Table 9. (continued)

Activities	Mid. Mgmt. F-Value	Exec. F-Value
<u>Supervision skills</u>		
Identifying techniques for policy definition	0.94	1.28
Developing demonstration skill techniques	2.95*	1.08
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	1.33	0.94
<u>Coaching skills</u>		
Studying interpersonal-relations	0.35	0.44
Developing supportive behaviors	0.46	0.17
Career development counseling	0.44	0.82
<u>Conflict resolution skills</u>		
Identifying sources of group conflict	1.69	0.15
Developing conflict management strategies	2.29	0.53
<u>Diagnostic skills</u>		
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	0.12	1.42
Analyzing what motivates employees	0.63	0.59
Assessing organizational climate	0.40	0.29
<u>Decision-making skills</u>		
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	0.78	0.92

\*Significant at the 0.05 level of significance



Table 9. (continued)

Activities	Mid. Mgmt. F-Value	Exec. F-Value
Utilizing creative problem-solving	0.69	0.08
Influencing decision of others	2.62	0.22
<u>Environmental restructuring skills</u>		
Developing techniques of resource allocation	1.03	0.63
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity	0.94	0.04
Restructuring management-subordinate relations	0.51	1.23
Developing plans for organizational change	1.08	0.05
<u>Team building skills</u>		
Defining team mission and group goals	0.49	1.29
Integrating individual expectations	0.03	1.81
Developing a team plan of action	0.77	0.57
<u>Role modeling skills</u>		
Defining organizational values	0.41	0.69
Behavior modeling and role playing	1.73	1.18

theme. Table 10 illustrates that at the middle management level the three statements reflecting a transactional theme did not demonstrate a significant degree of reliability, but at the executive level the same three statements demonstrated a moderate degree of reliability. The three outcome statements reflecting a conditional theme of leadership demonstrated a moderate degree of reliability at the middle management level and strong reliability at the executive level. The strongest reliability was reported in those statements reflecting a Transformational theme at the middle management level, and those same statements demonstrated a moderate degree of reliability at the executive level.

Having gained an index of reliability of the outcome statements to reflect a specific theme of leadership, the next step involved determining if a relationship existed at either the management and the corporate executive levels between a thematic grouping of outcome statements and the emphasis given individual training activities. Each individual training activity was treated as an independent variable. The mean responses to the three outcomes reflective of a specific leadership theme were pooled to arrive at a mean for each theme, enabling use of the three leadership themes as dependent variables. A coefficient of correlation (Pearson's Correlation Coefficient) was determined between each independent variable (the pooled mean of responses to outcomes

Table 10. Cronbach coefficient alpha for theme as reported in text

Theme		Mid. Mgmt. Alpha	Exec. Alpha
Transactional	Raw variables	.510	.658
	Standardized	.505	.656
Conditional	Raw variables	.686	.780
	Standardized	.670	.780
Transformational	Raw variables	.788	.638
	Standardized	.788	.628

desired of leadership training) and the dependent variable (the emphasis given a specific training activity). Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was then used to assess whether the value of the Correlation Coefficient indicated a dependency between the two variables. The null hypothesis,  $H_0: \rho = 0$ , was tested using a two-tailed test at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Rejection of the null hypothesis was interpreted as indication of a dependency between the two variables.

Table 11 demonstrates that leadership training for middle managers utilizes all three leadership themes. Thus, although thematic differences are apparent between leadership training at the middle management and executive level (see Table 6), within leadership training at the middle management level, differences in thematic emphasis occur as well.

Table 11. Pearson correlation coefficients between thematic grouping of outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management level and emphasis given training activities

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Communication skills</u>			
Enhancing active questioning and listening	0.146	0.151	0.176
Improving information dissemination	0.140	0.144	0.351**
Developing information networks	0.128	0.072	0.352**
<u>Goal setting skills</u>			
Utilizing management by objectives	-0.004	0.074	-0.130
Utilizing management by results	0.237	0.235	-0.138
Enhancing performance planning	0.360**	0.232	0.312*
<u>Negotiation skills</u>			
Contracting for employee performance and behavior	0.306*	0.135	0.363**
Contracting for leadership behavior	0.311*	0.154	0.439**
Studying collective bargaining techniques	-0.067	0.063	0.125

\*Significant at the 0.05 level of significance

\*\*Significant at the 0.01 level of significance

Table 11. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Contingency reinforcement skills</u>			
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	0.287*	0.102	0.043
Developing progressive discipline techniques	0.141	0.091	-0.071
Structuring feedback and rewards	0.436**	0.326*	0.313*
<u>Supervision skills</u>			
Identifying techniques for policy definition	-0.034	0.266*	0.024
Developing demonstration skill techniques	-0.128	0.266*	0.019
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	0.233	0.137	0.133
<u>Coaching skills</u>			
Studying interpersonal- relations	0.160	0.120	-0.131
Developing supportive behaviors	0.237*	0.196	0.100
Career development counseling	0.167	0.295*	0.311*
<u>Conflict resolution skills</u>			
Identifying sources of group conflict	0.207	0.367**	0.356**
Developing conflict management strategies	0.289*	0.382**	0.395**

Table 11. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Diagnostic skills</u>			
Diagnosing personal leadership style	0.289*	0.383**	0.271*
Analyzing what motivates employees	0.112	0.132	-0.110
Assessing organizational climate	0.146	-0.061	0.180
<u>Decision-making skills</u>			
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	-0.127	0.095	0.018
Utilizing creative problem-solving	0.027	0.029	0.131
Influencing decisions of others	-0.013	-0.034	0.041
<u>Environmental restructuring skills</u>			
Developing techniques of resource allocation	0.289*	0.304*	0.470**
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity	0.046	0.254	0.266
Restructuring management-subordinate relations	0.237	0.129	0.308*
Developing plans for organizational change	0.185	0.057	0.646**
<u>Team building skills</u>			
Defining team mission and group goals	0.472**	0.042	0.503**
Integrating individual expectations	0.464**	0.056	0.322*

Table 11. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
Developing a team plan of action	0.458**	0.124	0.430**
<u>Role modeling skills</u>			
Defining organizational values	0.131	-0.068	0.491**
Behavior modeling and role playing	0.096	0.227	0.328*

Table 11 also shows that specific training activities are perceived as being more reflective of certain themes than others. For example, the significant correlation for goal setting skills (i.e., enhancing monitoring and evaluation techniques), negotiation skills (i.e., contracting for employee performance and contracting for leader behavior), contingency reinforcement skills (i.e., performance monitoring and evaluation and structuring feedback and rewards), coaching skills (i.e., developing supportive behaviors), conflict resolution skills (i.e., developing conflict management strategies), diagnostic skills (i.e., diagnosing personal leadership style), environmental restructuring skills (i.e., developing techniques of resource allocation) team building skills (i.e., defining team mission

and group goals, integrating individual expectations, and developing a team plan of action) are perceived as being connected to leadership training reflective of a transactional theme at the middle management level of leadership training.

Other skill developing activities, e.g., contingency reinforcement skills (i.e., structuring feedback and rewards), supervision skills (i.e., identifying techniques for policy definition and developing demonstration skill techniques), coaching skills (i.e., career development counseling), conflict resolution (i.e., identifying sources of group conflict and developing conflict management strategies), diagnosis (i.e., diagnosing personal leadership style), and environmental restructuring skills (i.e., developing techniques of resource allocation) are perceived as more related to a desire for the conditional theme of leadership.

Finally, desire for the Transformational theme of leadership training at the middle management level is reflected in the emphasis placed on specific communication skills (i.e., improving information dissemination and developing information networks), goal-setting skills (i.e., enhancing performance planning), negotiation skills (i.e., contracting for employee performance and behavior and contracting for leader behavior), contingency reinforcement skills (i.e., structuring feedback and rewards), coaching skills (i.e., career developing counseling), conflict



resolution skills (i.e., identifying sources of group conflict and developing conflict management strategies), diagnostic skills (i.e., diagnosing personal leadership style), environmental skills (i.e., developing techniques of resource allocation, restructuring management-subordinate relations, and developing plans for organizational change), team building skills (i.e., defining team mission and group goals, integrating individual expectations, and developing a team plan of action), and role modeling skills (i.e., defining organizational values and behavior modeling and role playing). Moreover, an analysis of Table 11 also shows that some specific training activities may be perceived as being related to multiple leadership themes.

In leadership training provided to corporate executives (Table 12), a desire for outcomes reflecting the transactional theme of leadership was shown through an emphasis on developing goal setting skills (i.e., utilizing Management by Objectives and utilizing Management by Results), negotiation skills (i.e., contracting for employee performance and behavior, contracting for leader behavior, and studying collective bargaining techniques), contingency reinforcement skills (i.e., enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques and structuring feedback and rewards), coaching skills (i.e., studying interpersonal-relations and developing supportive behaviors), conflict resolution skills (i.e.,

developing conflict management strategies), environmental restructuring skills (i.e., developing techniques of resource allocation and restructuring management-subordinate relations), and role modeling skills (i.e., behavior modeling and role playing).

At the level of corporate executive, a desire for the conditional theme of leadership was demonstrated through an emphasis on activities developing contingency reinforcement skills (i.e., structuring feedback and rewards), conflict resolution skills (i.e., identifying sources of group conflict and developing conflict management strategies), diagnostic skills (i.e., diagnosing personal leadership style, analyzing what motivates employees, and assessing organizational climate), decision-making skills (i.e., utilizing analytical problem-solving and utilizing creative problem-solving), environmental restructuring skills (i.e., manipulating subordinate task ambiguity and restructuring management-subordinate relations), team building skills (i.e., defining team mission and group goals and developing a team plan of action), and role modeling skills (i.e., defining organizational values and behavior modeling and role playing).

The desire for the Transformational theme of leadership was demonstrated at the corporate executive level through an emphasis on training activities developing conflict resolution skills (i.e., developing conflict management strategies),

Table 12. Pearson correlation coefficients between thematic grouping of outcomes desired of leadership training at the executive level and emphasis given training activities

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Communication skills</u>			
Enhancing active questioning and listening	0.312	0.183	-0.043
Improving information dissemination	0.266	0.256	0.188
Developing information networks	0.259	0.026	0.044
<u>Goal setting skills</u>			
Utilizing management by objectives	0.220	-0.041	-0.338*
Utilizing management by results	0.384*	0.163	0.035
Enhancing performance planning	0.467**	0.100	-0.119
<u>Negotiation skills</u>			
Contracting for employee performance and behavior	0.429**	0.198	-0.129
Contracting for leadership behavior	0.469**	0.244	0.238
Studying collective bargaining techniques	0.326*	0.216	0.069

\*Significant at the 0.05 level of significance

\*\*Significant at the 0.01 level of significance

Table 12. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Contingency reinforcement skills</u>			
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	0.377*	0.342*	-0.127
Developing progressive discipline techniques	0.154	0.105	-0.267
Structuring feedback and rewards	0.409*	0.476**	0.260
<u>Supervision skills</u>			
Identifying techniques for policy definition	0.171	0.260	0.164
Developing demonstration skill techniques	0.335	0.201	-0.091
Planning, organizing, and controlling work	0.118	0.149	-0.094
<u>Coaching skills</u>			
Studying interpersonal-relations	0.432**	0.130	-0.050
Developing supportive behaviors	0.444*	0.134	0.017
Career development counseling	0.258	0.187	0.058
<u>Conflict resolution skills</u>			
Identifying sources of group conflict	0.225	0.392*	0.208
Developing conflict management strategies	0.324*	0.354*	0.398*

Table 12. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Diagnostic skills</u>			
Diagnosing personal leadership style	0.251	0.324*	0.395*
Analyzing what motivates employees	0.272	0.339*	0.189
Assessing organizational climate	0.223	0.410*	0.717**
<u>Decision-making skills</u>			
Utilizing analytical problem-solving	0.059	0.377*	0.075
Utilizing creative problem-solving	0.226	0.487**	0.249
Influencing decisions of others	0.153	0.228	0.244
<u>Environmental restructuring skills</u>			
Developing techniques of resource allocation	0.355*	0.309	0.164
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity	0.274	0.513**	0.201
Restructuring management-subordinate relations	0.474**	0.436**	0.296
Developing plans for organizational change	0.166	0.297	0.695**
<u>Team building skills</u>			
Defining team mission and group goals	0.256	0.421**	0.385*
Integrating individual expectations	0.237	0.206	0.155

Table 12. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
Developing a team plan of action	0.241	0.480**	0.412*
<u>Role modeling skills</u>			
Defining organizational values	0.167	0.389*	0.583**
Behavior modeling and role playing	0.341*	0.406*	0.214

diagnostic skills (i.e., diagnosing personal leadership style and assessing organizational climate), environmental restructuring skills (i.e., developing plans for organizational change), team building skills (i.e., defining team mission and group goals and developing a team plan of action), and role modeling skills (i.e., defining organizational values). Note should be taken of the significant negative correlation between an emphasis on utilizing Management by Objectives and a desire for outcomes reflecting the Transformational theme; this would seem to indicate that as the desire for Transformational outcomes increases less emphasis would be given to activities involving Management by Objectives.

## CHAPTER V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

## Summary

The frequency of leadership training

The reported frequency of provision of leadership training suggests that a greater effort is being made to deliver leadership training to middle management than to corporate executives. Approximately thirty-five percent of the respondents in this survey fail to provide any leadership training to their corporate executives whereas only sixteen percent of the respondents fail to provide leadership training to their middle managers. Approximately sixteen percent of the respondents indicated that they provide leadership training to their middle managers more than once a year whereas only five percent of the respondents indicated that leadership training is provided to their executives more than once a year, and where approximately sixteen percent of the respondents indicated that they provide leadership training to their middle managers at least once every two years, only six percent of the respondents indicated that they provide their executives leadership training with the same frequency.

Inhouse versus vendor delivered leadership training

The data suggest that corporations often prefer to purchase their leadership training pre-packaged. Over fifty percent of the respondents indicated that they purchase

their leadership training for both the middle management and executive levels from vendors as opposed to developing such programs inhouse. The data raise the issue of the ability of pre-packaged training programs to develop those leadership behaviors crucial to specific organizational needs. In other words, does the emphasis on vendor supplied programs imply that broad, general leadership behaviors are being developed within organizations without giving sufficient consideration to the specific behaviors required to meet unique organizational needs?

Do dominant models for corporate leadership training exist?

Situational and Transformational Leadership may be the dominant models for leadership training in corporate America at this point in time. Fifty percent of the respondents in this survey reported Situational Leadership as the model most closely related to leadership as taught in their current program to middle managers, whereas approximately nineteen percent of the respondents identified the Transformational Leadership. Approximately thirty-five percent of the respondents identified Transformational Leadership as the model most closely related to the leadership training provided their executives, and approximately twenty-one percent of the respondents at this level identified Situational Leadership.



Do different themes of leadership identify with organizational hierarchies?

The reliability of the outcome statements to reflect the theme with which they are associated as determined by the Cronbach Alpha (Table 10) ranged from high to moderate depending on the level of leadership training. The outcome statements associated with the transactional theme of leadership in middle management training appeared to be unreliable.

This study anticipated that outcomes reflecting a transactional theme of leadership would be most appropriate for leadership training provided to first line supervisors, outcomes reflecting the conditional theme of leadership would be most appropriate for leadership training provided middle managers, and outcomes reflecting the Transformational theme would be most appropriate for leadership training provided to executives. Further, it was anticipated that some degree of overlap between the themes would exist relative to the hierarchy of training participant (Figure 1). As anticipated, the T-test of mean responses (Table 6) determined two of the three outcomes desired of leadership training reflecting the conditional theme to be statistically more significant to the training of middle managers than to the training of executives, and two of the three outcomes desired of leadership training reflecting the Transformational theme were

determined to be statistically more significant to the training of executives than to the training of middle managers. Thus, the two themes appeared to identify themselves with the predicted organizational hierarchy.

The failure of middle management and executive leadership training to demonstrate a statistically significant difference relative to a desire for two of the three outcomes associated with the transactional theme was unanticipated. Acknowledging that in the training of middle managers one should expect to find some desire for those outcomes associated with the transactional theme of leadership, the question arises, "If the outcomes associated with the Transformational theme are truly more appropriate to the training of corporate executives, why does the training of corporate executives fail to demonstrate a statistically significant difference from middle management in regard to transactional outcomes, outcomes seemingly more appropriate to the training of first line supervisors or middle managers than corporate executives? One possible answer may be the reliability of those outcomes as stated in this study to define the transactional theme of leadership at the middle management level. Further, it is conceivable that the transactional (and conditional to a degree) theme may represent a necessary but not significant condition for Transformational Leadership training. Stated differently, the three themes might represent a systematic

process of leadership training in which it is desirable to receive training reflecting the transactional theme before experiencing training reflecting the Transformational theme, and it is desirable to receive training reflecting the conditional theme before experiencing training reflecting the Transformational theme.

Do differences exist in emphasis given training activities at the middle management and executive levels?

Any significant difference in the training provided to middle managers and executives relative to the emphasis given those activities associated with the three themes of leadership may be influenced by the focus and objectives of the leadership hierarchy (Figure 1). The T-test of mean responses (Table 7) suggests that those activities involving enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation, structuring of feedback and rewards, developing skill demonstration techniques, and the study of interpersonal relations receive significantly greater emphasis at the middle management level than at the executive level, and such emphasis would seem appropriate when a leader's focus is on gaining compliance of individual subordinates or the commitment of a work unit to a course of action. The T-test of mean response (Table 7) also suggests that those activities involving assessment of organizational climate, developing resource allocation techniques, planning for organizational change, and defining

organizational values receive significantly greater emphasis at the executive level than at the level of middle management, and such emphasis would certainly be appropriate when a leader's focus is on the renewal of all organizational systems.

Do differences in outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management and executive levels exist according to industry?

On an industry basis, no significant difference in the outcomes desired of leadership training at the middle management and executive levels was determined (Table 8).

Do differences in emphasis of training activities at the middle management and executive levels exist according to industry?

There appeared to be no significant difference on an industry basis between middle management and executive leadership training relative to the emphasis given those activities associated with the three themes of leadership (Table 9).

Does the emphasis given to specific training activities predict a desire for outcomes of training to reflect specific themes of leadership?

In Chapter 3, a deduction was made that a desire for outcomes to training reflecting the three distinctly unique themes of leadership would be evident from analysis of those

activities given emphasis during leadership training. In other words, certain training activities appear congruent with realizing outcomes associated with a specific theme of leadership, and one would not expect to find activities incongruent with a desired thematic outcome to be given emphasis during leadership training. As indicated in Table 13, the degree of overlap between leadership themes in activities receiving emphasis is much greater than anticipated.

Those activities which appear to clearly define, regardless of organizational level, a desire for transactional outcomes as opposed to conditional outcomes to leadership training include enhancing performance planning, contracting for employee performance and behavior, contracting for leader behavior, enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques, developing supportive behaviors, and developing techniques of resource allocation. In addition, at the middle management level team building activities such as defining team mission and group goals, integrating individual expectations, and developing a team plan of action appear to provide further clarification of a desire for transactional outcomes as opposed to conditional outcomes. Further, at the corporate executive level an emphasis on utilizing management by results, studying collective bargaining techniques and interpersonal relations, restructuring management-subordinate

Table 13. A visual of significant positive correlations between training activities and a desire for thematic outcomes at the middle management and corporate executive levels

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Communication skills</u>			
Enhancing active questioning and listening			
Improving information dissemination			MM <sup>a</sup>
Developing information networks			MM
<u>Goal setting skills</u>			
Utilizing management by objectives			
Utilizing management by results		CE <sup>b</sup>	
Enhancing performance planning	MM CE		MM
<u>Negotiation skills</u>			
Contracting for employee performance and behavior	MM CE		MM
Contracting for leadership behavior	MM CE		MM
Studying collective bargaining techniques		CE	

<sup>a</sup>MM = Significant positive correlation at the middle management level

<sup>b</sup>CE = Significant positive correlation at the corporate executive level

Table 13. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Contingency reinforcement skills</u>			
Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques	MM CE	CE	
Developing progressive discipline techniques			
Structuring feedback and rewards	MM CE	MM CE	MM
<u>Supervision skills</u>			
Identifying techniques for policy definition		MM	
Developing demonstration skill techniques		MM	
Planning, organizing, and controlling work			
<u>Coaching skills</u>			
Studying interpersonal relations	CE		
Developing supportive behaviors	MM CE		
Career development counseling		MM	MM
<u>Conflict resolution skills</u>			
Identifying sources of group conflict		MM CE	MM
Developing conflict management strategies	MM CE	MM CE	MM CE

Table 13. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
<u>Diagnostic skills</u>			
Diagnosing personal leadership style	MM	MM CE	MM CE
Analyzing what motivates employees		CE	
Assessing organizational climate		CE	CE
<u>Decision-making skills</u>			
Utilizing analytical problem-solving		CE	
Utilizing creative problem-solving		CE	
Influencing decisions of others			
<u>Environmental restructuring skills</u>			
Developing techniques of resource allocation	MM CE	MM	MM
Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity		CE	
Restructuring management-subordinate relations	CE	CE	MM
Developing plans for organizational change			MM CE
<u>Team building skills</u>			
Defining team mission and group goals	MM	CE	MM CE
Integrating individual expectations	MM		MM



Table 13. (continued)

Activities	Trans- actional	Condi- tional	Transfor- mational
Developing a team plan of action	MM	CE	MM CE
<u>Role modeling skills</u>			
Defining organizational values		CE	MM CE
Behavior modeling and role playing	CE	CE	MM

relations, and role modeling appears to add clarification to the desire for transactional outcomes.

Differentiating a desire for outcomes reflecting the conditional theme of leadership from the transactional theme is difficult. Across organizational levels only an emphasis on identifying sources of group conflict and diagnosing personal leadership style appears to clearly define a desire for outcomes associated with the conditional theme of leadership. At the middle management level, emphasis on activities such as identifying techniques for policy definition and developing demonstration skill techniques appears to help define a desire for conditional outcomes from a desire for transactional outcomes of leadership training. At the corporate executive level, emphasis on activities

analyzing what motivates employees, assessing organizational climate, utilizing analytical and creative problem-solving, manipulating subordinate task ambiguity, and defining organizational values adds clarity to the distinction between a desire for conditional and transactional outcomes of leadership training.

An emphasis on developing plans for organizational change, defining team mission and goals, developing a team plan of action, and defining organizational values appears to clearly separate the desire for Transformational outcomes for other thematic outcomes across all organizational levels. At the middle management level, emphasis on such activities as improving information dissemination and developing information networks appears to help define a desire for Transformational outcomes from a desire for other thematic outcomes, but no such additional indicators appear at the corporate executive level.

Finally, activities such as structuring feedback and rewards, developing conflict management strategies, and diagnosing personal leadership style appear to receive emphasis in leadership training regardless of the desired thematic outcomes.

Does the data indicate a movement toward realization of a leadership theme based on organizational hierarchy?

Table 6 indicates that at the middle management level the desire for leadership training to result in outcomes

reflecting the conditional theme of leadership is more significant than at the corporate executive level. Table 6 further indicates that the desire for leadership training to result in outcomes reflecting the Transformational theme is more significant at the executive level than at the middle management level. However, as Table 13 indicates, there are more activities demonstrating a positive correlation with a desire for conditional outcomes at the executive level than at the middle management level and more activities demonstrating a positive correlation with a desire for Transformational outcomes at the middle management level than at the executive level. One must question if corporate leadership training at the middle management and executive levels is in actuality structured to achieve desired outcomes.

#### Limitations of the Study

Although the activities listed in the questionnaire were deduced from an extensive search of the literature and as much as possible validated by respected theorists, they may not accurately reflect the activities in actual use in current leadership training programs. It should be noted that one survey was accompanied by a detailed letter explaining that the activities listed in the survey indicated oversimplified and outdated concepts of leadership and did not reflect an in-depth understanding of corporate leadership, and another survey response made note that leadership as represented in

the questionnaire was too complex and that in reality corporate leadership was a more simple concept. Thus, consideration must be given to how well the survey tool actually measured current practices in corporate leadership training.

The wording of the activities listed in the survey instrument may have caused confusion in the minds of the respondents. Activities such as "career development counseling" may have been ambiguous and open to interpretation. This phrase could have been interpreted as providing the participant with career development counseling opportunities or as providing activities developing the participant's ability to render career development counseling to employees.

The study is limited in the lack of information concerning who actually responded to the questionnaire. One must ask if in those situations where the respondent was a corporate executive can one reasonably assume a clear grasp of what is emphasized in the training of middle managers? In those situations where the respondent was not a corporate executive, can one reasonably assume a clear grasp of what is emphasized in the training of corporate executives?

The low Cronbach alpha of outcomes reflecting the transactional theme at the middle management level must be considered a limitation of the study. A repeat of this study

would suggest a redefinition of the outcomes in an attempt to achieve a greater degree of reliability of the statements to reflect the transactional theme at that level.

The correlation analysis utilized in this study failed to clearly differentiate those respondents demonstrating a desire for outcomes reflecting one specific theme. In other words, it was possible for a respondent to demonstrate a high level of desire for each of the three outcomes associated with a specific theme and at the same time demonstrate an equally high level of desire for the three outcomes reflecting a different theme. Repetition of this study would benefit from defining those respondents demonstrating a high level of desire for the outcomes of a specific theme and at the same time demonstrating a low level of desire for those outcomes reflecting the remaining two themes. Once this is accomplished, a regression analysis of the relationship between outcome statements and the emphasis given specific activities in corporate leadership training may result in improved predictive validity.

### Conclusions

The training of America's business managers has traditionally focused on enabling them to carry out management functions introduced by Fayol in the early 1900s: planning, organizing, controlling, and forecasting (Wexley and Latham, 1981). It is well documented that while developing competency

in these traditional functions, managers enabled American businesses to lead the world in productivity for 25 years after World War II. However, by the late 1970s, the productivity of America's businesses was lower than each of the top eleven Western industrial nations (Wexley and Latham, 1981), and by the early 1980s corporate America had suffered through a severe recession, unemployment had reached a post-depression high, and businesses ranging from steel mills to high technology were struggling for survival in an increasingly hostile environment (Peters and Waterman, 1982).

While many management experts propose that the demise of American business is a result of environmental influences such as unions, government and consumer groups, unfair international competition, and rapidly changing technology, Peters and Waterman (1982) advocate that the unfavorable situation can be traced directly to the philosophical foundations of traditional management practices. Asserting that Japanese productivity is not so much a result of Japanese ingenuity as it is the result of understanding human beings, Peters and Waterman (1982) charge that traditional management emphasis on development of functional systems results in viewing human productivity in only stark, rational numbers and is devoid of any understanding of, or appreciation for, human emotion and behavior. They advance the proposal that American management can benefit from the Japanese realization that

~~treating people--~~not money, not machines, not minds--as our greatest resource may be the key to increasing the productivity of America's businesses.

~~X~~ Management training which emphasizes development of functional skills at the expense of human relation skills may have led to Bennis and Nanus' (1985) observation that American businesses suffer from being over-managed and under-led, and Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that chances for survival of America's businesses will improve when management ceases functioning as managers and bosses and start behaving as leaders. It appears that America's business leaders may be taking heed of these admonitions. A recent survey of companies listed among the Fortune 500 asked the C.E.O.s this question: "If you could put the top ten percent of all executives into a seminar, what would the topic be?" The responses suggest that the most desired topic would focus on development of leadership behaviors. A desire for training in traditional functional management was a distant third in the survey (Stephan, Mills, Pace, and Ralphs, 1988). Thus, there appears to be much concern about the relationship between the behaviors of America's corporate leaders and corporate survival, and it is suggested that ~~X~~ this concern encompasses corporate training designed to develop leadership skills in managers and executives.

In light of corporate America's newfound interest in executive leadership behaviors, this study demonstrates a disparity between the cry and hue for executive leadership training and the reality that leadership training is rarely or infrequently provided at that level of the corporation. One must question the sincerity of corporate desire to enhance the leadership behaviors of its executives and ask if an assumption is being made that in rising to the level of corporate executive one has already developed all the leadership behaviors necessary to ensure corporate survival.

It is of interest to note that the three models determined in this study as having a preponderance of empirical support (Leader Reward, Vertical Dyad Linkage, and Decision-Making) were virtually ignored by the respondents when asked to identify the model most closely related to their current model of leadership training, and two models having doubtful empirical support but enjoying a high degree of exposure (Situational and Transformational Leadership) were most frequently associated with current leadership training. This fact raises the question: "To what degree are those in charge of design and delivery of corporate leadership training knowledgeable about the academic models of leadership?" Further, this study demonstrates corporate willingness to turn to vendors to meet their leadership training needs rather than develop such programs inhouse, and in light of the extensive



marketing efforts by Blanchard Training and Development, Inc., to sell Situational Leadership and the recent publicity generated by books such as The Transformational Leader (Tichy and Devanna, 1986), one must question: Is the selection of a model of leadership training on which to build a corporate training program influenced more by publicity and marketing than research and validation?

If, as has been suggested, to remain competitive in a global market American businesses must move away from training those in positions of leadership to demonstrate functional management behaviors and toward becoming leaders of people in organizational environments, the results of this study raise a concern about the manner in which corporations are making this change. First, although this study indicates that it is possible to identify significant differences in emphasis given to a few specific activities utilized in leadership training provided to middle managers and corporate executives, one must question why there is not a greater distinction. To be more specific, why did no significant difference in emphasis on activities utilized to develop decision-making skills, negotiation skills, communication skills, and team building skills appear between the training of middle managers and corporate executives? In reality, is there little difference in what is emphasized in the training of middle managers and what is given emphasis in the training of corporate executives?

Second, this study reveals a paradox between what corporate America defines as its expectations of leadership training and the basis on which it selects activities to receive emphasis in training. Middle management clearly revealed a significant desire for outcomes reflecting conditional and transactional leadership, but the majority of significant correlations of emphasis given training activities were with a desire for Transformational outcomes. Leadership training at the corporate executive level clearly demonstrated a significant desire for Transformational outcomes, but the majority of significant correlations of emphasis given training activities were with outcomes reflecting conditional leadership outcomes. One must ask: Is there a disparity between what corporations state as the desired outcomes to their leadership training and the basis on which activities are selected for inclusion in the training program?

Finally, if the importance of this study lies in the significant correlations between emphasis given specific training activities and a desire for outcomes reflecting a theme of leadership, then this study suggests that those charged with design and delivery of the training may not have an appreciation of the appropriateness of leadership behaviors for levels of organizational hierarchy. How appropriate are Transformational Leadership behaviors to the middle manager faced with gaining work unit commitment to specific

organizational goals or objectives? In other words, how useful is it to select training activities with the intention of enabling middle managers to create an organizational culture, to be continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment, and align subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission? How well served is the corporate executive faced with developing global strategies through training seeking to develop behaviors seemingly more appropriate to first line supervisors? More specifically, why would trainers select training activities with the intention of enabling corporate executives to work individually with subordinates to communicate expected levels of performance, exchange outcomes and pay-offs to subordinates for desired behaviors and performance, and recognize performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards?

The results of this study suggest that corporate leadership training is an area of management deserving of further research and investigation.

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APPENDIX A

Iowa State University *of Science and Technology* Ames, Iowa 50011-1050



June 5, 1989

Industrial Relations Center  
324 Curtiss Hall  
Telephone: 515-294-6401

Dear Executive:

I am investigating leadership training among corporations listed in the Forbes 500 as of May 1, 1989, which will result in writing a master's thesis in Industrial Relations at Iowa State University. This survey is funded in part by the Industrial Relations Department and the Graduate College of Iowa State University and St. Joseph Mercy Hospital of Mason City, Iowa.

I would like to request a few moments from your busy schedule to respond to the survey. This survey seeks to look at leadership training provided to both middle level managers and corporate executives. The number in the upper right hand corner of page one of the questionnaire is for purposes of control only and follow-up if necessary. Confidentiality of response will be maintained at all times, and all questionnaires will be destroyed upon entry of the data.

If you should desire a copy of the final analysis of this survey, please attach your business card to the returned questionnaire or write:

Ernie Stark, Director  
Management Development  
St. Joseph Mercy Hospital  
84 Beaumont Drive  
Mason City, IA 50401

If you are not in a position to respond to this questionnaire, please forward it to the appropriate individual. Your timely response to this questionnaire will be deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

Handwritten signature of Ernie Stark in cursive script.

Ernie Stark

Enclosure

PART I: LEADERSHIP TRAINING AT THE MIDDLE MANAGEMENT LEVEL

1. Please check the frequency with which any individual mid-level manager within your organization would receive leadership training.

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once a year           | <input type="checkbox"/> More than once a year   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once every two years  | <input type="checkbox"/> Once every 3 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once every five years | <input type="checkbox"/> Training never provided |

If leadership training is never provided to middle level managers, please proceed to question #50 concerning executive leadership training.

2. Does your organization purchase leadership training for its middle level managers from a vendor? Yes  No

3. If you answered "yes" to question #2, please indicate the most recent vendor and the title of the program \_\_\_\_\_

4. Please check the leadership theory which most closely relates to the model of leadership taught in your current program to middle managers.

Path-Goal Leadership: The leader increases the number and kinds of personal pay-offs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and makes paths to these pay-offs easier to travel by reducing road blocks and pitfalls and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction enroute.

Vertical Dyad Linkage: In exchange for outcomes that are desired by subordinates and under control of the leader, the leader establishes a special relationship with a limited number of subordinates willing to incur extras obligations.

Situational Leadership: The leader diagnoses the level of subordinate competency and motivation relative to a specific task and adopts a leadership style most effective to that level of subordinate development.

Transformational Leadership: The leader assumes responsibility for reshaping organizational practices to adapt to environmental triggers, directing organizational changes which instill confidence in employees for a new ways of doing things.

Contingency Leadership: Rather than trying to change managerial leadership style, the leader restructures the environment in which the subordinate must complete a specific task in such a way that the situation becomes favorable to the leader's style.

Decision Making Leadership: The leader adapts his/her approach to decision making to situational factors such as amount of time to make decision, subordinate's knowledge of the issues, and the degree of desired subordinate commitment to the final decision.

Leader-Reward Leadership: The leader structures discriminative stimulus that clue the behavior of subordinates and schedules reinforcement contingencies relevant to the behavior desired in response to the stimulus.

Not Sure

Please indicate the degree to which the following are important to successful demonstration of leadership as taught to your middle level managers.

	No Importance	Little Importance	Some Importance	Much Importance	Great Importance
5. The leader works individually with subordinates to communicate expected levels of performance and behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The leader is sensitive to situational factors that influence the ultimate commitment of the work team to meeting goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The leader is sensitive to outcomes and pay-offs valued by subordinates in exchange for behaviors and performance desired by the firm.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The leader seeks to align subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Leader seeks to recognize performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The leader either changes leadership style or restructures the task to obtain an appropriate match of style and situation.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Leader must accurately diagnosis the task situation prior to selection of a leadership style.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The leader is continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The leader seeks to create an organizational culture appropriate to changes in the external business environment.	1	2	3	4	5

Please examine the following skill areas and the training activities listed under each skill area. Circle the degree of emphasis each training activity or a similar activity now receives in your leadership training program for middle level managers.

MIDDLE MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP TRAINING	DEGREE OF EMPHASIS				
	No Emphasis	Little Emphasis	Some Emphasis	Much Emphasis	Great Emphasis
<u>Communication Skills</u>					
14. Enhancing active questioning and listening.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Improving information dissemination.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Developing information networks.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Goal Setting Skills</u>					
17. Utilizing management by objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Utilizing management by results.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Enhancing performance planning.	1	2	3	4	5

	DEGREE OF EMPHASIS				
	No Emphasis	Little Emphasis	Some Emphasis	Much Emphasis	Great Emphasis
<u>Negotiation Skills</u>					
20. Contracting for employee performance and behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Contracting for leader behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Studying collective bargaining techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Contingency Reinforcement Skills</u>					
23. Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Developing progressive discipline techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Structuring feedback and rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Supervision Skills</u>					
26. Identifying techniques for policy definition.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Developing demonstration skill techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Planning, organizing, and controlling work.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Coaching Skills</u>					
29. Studying interpersonal-relations.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Developing supportive behaviors.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Career development counseling.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Conflict Resolution Skills</u>					
32. Identifying sources of group conflict.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Developing conflict management strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Diagnostic Skills</u>					
34. Diagnosing personal leadership style.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Analyzing what motivates employees.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Assessing organizational climate.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Decision Making Skills</u>					
37. Utilizing analytical problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Utilizing creative problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Influencing decisions of others.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Environmental Restructuring Skills</u>					
40. Developing techniques of resource allocation.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Restructuring management-subordinate relations.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Developing plans for organizational change.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Team Building Skills</u>					
44. Defining team mission and group goals.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Integrating individual expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Developing a team plan of action.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Role Modeling Skills</u>					
47. Defining organization values.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Behavior modeling and role playing.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Other training activities receiving much or great emphasis _____					

PART II: LEADERSHIP TRAINING AT THE CORPORATE EXECUTIVE LEVEL

50. Please check the frequency with which any individual corporate executive within your organization would receive leadership training.

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once a year           | <input type="checkbox"/> More than once a year   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once every two years  | <input type="checkbox"/> Once every 3 years      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once every five years | <input type="checkbox"/> Training never provided |

If leadership training is never provided to corporate executives, please disregard the remaining questions and return the questionnaire in the accompanying return mailing envelope.

51. Does your organization purchase leadership training for its corporate executives from a vendor? Yes  No

52. If you answered "yes" to question #51, please indicate the most recent vendor and the title of the program \_\_\_\_\_

53. Please check the leadership theory which most closely relates to the model of leadership taught in your current program to corporate executives.

Path-Goal Leadership: The leader increases the number and kinds of personal pay-offs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and makes paths to these pay-offs easier to travel by reducing road blocks and pitfalls and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction enroute.

Vertical Dyad Linkage: In exchange for outcomes that are desired by subordinates and under control of the leader, the leader establishes a special relationship with a limited number of subordinates willing to incur extras obligations.

Situational Leadership: The leader diagnoses the level of subordinate competency and motivation relative to a specific task and adopts a leadership style most effective to that level of subordinate development.

Transformational Leadership: The leader assumes responsibility for reshaping organizational practices to adapt to environmental triggers, directing organizational changes which instill confidence in employees for a new ways of doing things.

Contingency Leadership: Rather than trying to change managerial leadership style, the leader restructures the environment in which the subordinate must complete a specific task in such a way that the situation becomes favorable to the leader's style.

Decision Making Leadership: The leader adapts his/her approach to decision making to situational factors such as amount of time to make decision, subordinate's knowledge of the issues, and the degree of desired subordinate commitment to the final decision.

Leader-Reward Leadership: The leader structures discriminative stimulus that clue the behavior of subordinates and schedules reinforcement contingencies relevant to the behavior desired in response to the stimulus.

Not Sure

Please indicate the degree to which the following are important to successful demonstration of leadership as taught to your corporate executives.

	No Importance	Little Importance	Some Importance	Much Importance	Great Importance
54. The leader works individually with subordinates to communicate expected levels of performance and behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
55. The leader is sensitive to situational factors that influence the ultimate commitment of the work team to meeting goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
56. The leader is sensitive to outcomes and pay-offs valued by subordinates in exchange for behaviors and performance desired by the firm.	1	2	3	4	5
57. The leader seeks to align subordinate work values to corporate vision and mission.	1	2	3	4	5
58. Leader seeks to recognize performance differentials through allocation of organizational rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
59. The leader either changes leadership style or restructures the task to obtain an appropriate match of style and situation.	1	2	3	4	5
60. Leader must accurately diagnosis the task situation prior to selection of a leadership style.	1	2	3	4	5
61. The leader is continually sensitive to changes in the external business environment.	1	2	3	4	5
62. The leader seeks to create an organizational culture appropriate to changes in the external business environment.	1	2	3	4	5

Please examine the following skill areas and the training activities listed under each skill area. Circle the degree of emphasis each training activity or a similar activity now receives in your leadership training program for corporate executives.

CORPORATE EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP TRAINING	DEGREE OF EMPHASIS				
	No Emphasis	Little Emphasis	Some Emphasis	Much Emphasis	Great Emphasis
<u>Communication Skills</u>					
63. Enhancing active questioning and listening.	1	2	3	4	5
64. Improving information dissemination.	1	2	3	4	5
65. Developing information networks.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Goal Setting Skills</u>					
66. Utilizing management by objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
67. Utilizing management by results.	1	2	3	4	5
68. Enhancing performance planning.	1	2	3	4	5

## DEGREE OF EMPHASIS

Negotiation Skills

	No Emphasis	Little Emphasis	Some Emphasis	Much Emphasis	Great Emphasis
69. Contracting for employee performance and behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
70. Contracting for leader behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
81. Studying collective bargaining techniques.	1	2	3	4	5

Contingency Reinforcement Skills

82. Enhancing performance monitoring and evaluation techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
83. Developing progressive discipline techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
84. Structuring feedback and rewards.	1	2	3	4	5

Supervision Skills

85. Identifying techniques for policy definition.	1	2	3	4	5
86. Developing demonstration skill techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
87. Planning, organizing, and controlling work.	1	2	3	4	5

Coaching Skills

88. Studying interpersonal-relations.	1	2	3	4	5
89. Developing supportive behaviors.	1	2	3	4	5
90. Career development counseling.	1	2	3	4	5

Conflict Resolution Skills

91. Identifying sources of group conflict.	1	2	3	4	5
92. Developing conflict management strategies.	1	2	3	4	5

Diagnostic Skills

93. Diagnosing personal leadership style.	1	2	3	4	5
94. Analyzing what motivates employees.	1	2	3	4	5
95. Assessing organizational climate.	1	2	3	4	5

Decision Making Skills

96. Utilizing analytical problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
97. Utilizing creative problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
98. Influencing decisions of others.	1	2	3	4	5

Environmental Restructuring Skills

99. Developing techniques of resource allocation.	1	2	3	4	5
100. Manipulating subordinate task ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	5
101. Restructuring management-subordinate relations.	1	2	3	4	5
102. Developing plans for organizational change.	1	2	3	4	5

Team Building Skills

103. Defining team mission and group goals.	1	2	3	4	5
104. Integrating individual expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
105. Developing a team plan of action.	1	2	3	4	5

Role Modeling Skills

106. Defining organization values.	1	2	3	4	5
107. Behavior modeling and role playing.	1	2	3	4	5

108. Other training activities receiving much or great emphasis \_\_\_\_\_



APPENDIX B

Dear Executive:

You recently received a request to respond to a survey of leadership training within companies listed in the Forbes 500. If you have responded to the survey, let me offer a heart-felt "thanks". If you have not yet responded, I would like to once again seek your assistance in this research by completing the survey and returning it in the self-addressed envelope that accompanied the original mailing.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Ernie Stark".

Ernie Stark