

# Communicating IN THE 21<sup>st</sup> CENTURY 3rd Edition

Baden Eunson



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10 Leadership and communication

The realities of leadership	10.4	Transactional and transformational leadership	10.17
Leadership and management	10.5	The employment modes model	10.19
What do leaders do, and what do they want?	10.6	The problem of Machiavellianism	10.20
Basic leadership styles	10.7	Constrained leadership and non-leadership	10.22
Leadership and power	10.10	Reverse leadership: managing up	10.23
Leadership traits	10.11	<b>STUDENT STUDY GUIDE</b>	<b>10.26</b>
Leadership: one best style?	10.12	SUMMARY	10.26
The democratic style	10.12	KEY TERMS	10.26
Theory X and Theory Y	10.12	REVIEW QUESTIONS	10.26
The Managerial Grid	10.13	APPLIED ACTIVITIES	10.27
Leadership and situations	10.15	WHAT WOULD YOU DO	10.27
Hersey and Blanchard's Situational		References	10.27
Leadership® model	10.15	Suggested reading	10.30
		Acknowledgements	10.31

# 10

# Leadership and communication



*After reading this chapter you should be able to:*

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- A collage of four images: a hand holding an iPad showing various app icons; a man in a white shirt and tie signing documents; a woman smiling while talking on a mobile phone; and a close-up of a microphone.



Leadership means different things in different situations. In one situation, some of us might be followers, whereas in other situations we might be leaders. For example, the following are all leaders:

- the chief executive officer of a large corporation
- a boss of a teenage gang
- a teenager who always seems to be a trendsetter in clothing and hairstyle
- a priest speaking to a church congregation
- a lecturer speaking to a group of students, which includes Marie, an aerobics instructor
- Marie the aerobics instructor leading a class, which includes her lecturer
- the lowest-ranking but most experienced and respected member of a work team
- a murderer who triggers a series of copycat killings
- the supervisor of a fast-food kitchen
- a student who speaks out in class and changes the mind of at least one other student
- a hermit who may be unaware that three people in a nearby town revere him
- a film reviewer
- Jesus Christ
- Adolf Hitler
- the most dominant girl in an in-group that bullies other girls
- the first lemming in a herd to jump off a cliff.

All these leaders in some way influence or exert power over others so that those others follow, emulate or are affected by those doing the leading.

A critical part of leadership is communication. In this chapter, we will consider a number of different models of leadership, and pay particular attention to the communication processes involved in the interaction of leaders and followers. We will consider the nature of leadership as described through various models of leadership, and then consider some of the roles played by leaders in organisations, as well as managing up or reverse leadership.

## The realities of leadership

Virtually all human organisations are characterised by a hierarchy or pyramid structure: a few powerful people at the top, with many less powerful people at the bottom. But is this the way it will always be, or are things changing? For example, in the past few centuries, the political system of monarchy – the rule of an individual over the many – has all but died out. In recent decades, there have been substantial declines in the prestige held by, and the respect given to, elected political leaders, religious leaders, corporate managers and professionals such as doctors and lawyers. Within workplaces, there is much talk of empowerment, or the transfer of power from the top level to further down the hierarchy, especially with the rise of self-managing teams (Cloe & Goldsmith 2002; Appelbaum, Bethune & Tannenbaum 1999).

Does this then mean that the day of leaders has gone? Not at all. Indeed, to the extent that leadership often involves considerable inequalities in power-wielding and rewards for such power-wielding, then it is flourishing, and sometimes not in ways that meet with everyone's approval. For example, William McDonough, former president of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, noted that in the 1982–2002 period the average US chief executive officer's pay had gone from 42 to 400 times that of the average US production worker, and argued that this executive compensation was 'terribly bad social policy and perhaps even bad morals' (Ip 2002). Some observers have noted that occasionally very high rewards for corporate leaders seem to be given when the performance of those leaders is less than perfect or even criminally negligent (Haigh 2003; Huffington 2003). Others have argued that despite the notions of empowerment and team or group decision making

that are prevalent today, hierarchies and inequality are inevitable, and that we are deluded to think otherwise (Leavitt 2003; Jaques 2002).

The picture is complicated further by the emergence of new challenges for leadership. For example:

- As workers become more geographically dispersed (working from home, working in branch offices, working in other countries), how do leaders respond to such dispersion? (Cascio & Shurygailo 2003; Avolio, Kahai & Dodge 2001)
- How might the increase in the number of female managers and leaders change concepts of leadership and management? (Appelbaum, Audet & Miller 2003; Stelter 2002; Stephens 2003)
- How will globalisation and multiculturalism affect transcultural management? (Hofstede 2001; Manning 2003)
- How do changes in public sector organisations affect concepts of leadership and management? (Borins 2002; Kellerman & Webster 2001)
- Do workers in a knowledge-based economy need a different style of supervision? (Mumford et al. 2002)

Clearly the realities of leadership are complicated, but that should interest us rather than discourage us. For example, when we look at workplaces, are leadership and management the same thing or are they different?

## Leadership and management

An old definition of management is ‘getting things done by others’. Is leadership the same thing? To a certain extent, yes. Fiedler (1996) defines leadership as being that part of management that involves supervision of others, and tends to use the terms interchangeably. Kotter (1990), however, argues that leadership and management in organisations should be treated as separate qualities, although obviously there is a substantial overlap: ‘Management is about coping with complexity. Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change. More change demands more leadership’ (Kotter 1990, p. 2).

For Kotter, **management** is more about tactics and means, whereas **leadership** is more about strategy and ends. However, management and leadership have to be in harmony or balance, suggests Kotter. If not, then undesirable potentially destabilising imbalances emerge (figure 10.1).

**Management:** concerned with tactics and means

**Leadership:** concerned with strategies and ends

<b>Imbalance #1</b> <b>Decision-maker is strong on management but weak on leadership, which leads to situations in which:</b>	<b>Imbalance #2</b> <b>Decision-maker is strong on leadership but weak on management, which leads to situations in which:</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ there will be a strong emphasis on short time frames, details, risk elimination and scrupulous rationality; with little focus on the long term, the big picture, people’s values and strategies based on calculated risks</li> <li>■ there will be a strong focus on specialisation, fitting people to jobs, and compliance to rules; with little focus on integration, alignment, empowerment and commitment</li> <li>■ organisational responses will tend to be rigid, not innovative, and thus incapable of dealing with changes in markets and competitive or technological environment.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ there will be a strong long-term vision without short-term planning and budgeting</li> <li>■ there will be an almost cult-like environment without much specialisation, structure and rules</li> <li>■ there will be an increasing number of situations that eventually get out of control (critical deadlines, budgets, and promises not met) and threaten the very existence of the organisation.</li> </ul>

**FIGURE 10.1** Imbalances in the management–leadership mix

Source: Adapted from Kotter (1990).

# What do leaders do, and what do they want?

What is it that leaders and/or managers actually do? Researchers have been working in this area for some time, and some interesting trends have begun to emerge. A study of more than 500 Australian and New Zealand managers (Durant & Morley 2002) showed that managers allocated time as follows:

- Managerial tasks (20%) – having the information you need to get the job done, solving problems, making decisions, converting decisions to actions, managing projects, managing finances, managing knowledge
- Managing staff (19%) – team-building, recognition and reward, managing performance, coaching and developing
- Influencing (14%) – negotiating, influencing, networking, managing upwards, influencing stakeholders, dealing with resistance
- Interpersonal (13%) – positive relationship building, collaborating, creating a harmonious work environment
- Organisational change (13%) – flexibility in responding to new ideas, creating organisational change, dealing with ambiguity, innovation
- Strategy (11%) – establishing strategy and priorities, creating a vision, implementing the business strategy
- Managing self (10%) – keeping up to date with professional knowledge, dealing with increasing complexity, remaining cool under pressure.

The same study revealed that, overall, the main challenges perceived by managers were:

1. Building your team to achieve outcomes
2. Achieving a reasonable work–life balance
3. Being flexible in responding to new ideas and change
4. Creating or following through on organisational change
5. Managing upwards, and building positive relationships with others.

Overall data can sometimes mask interesting trends, however, and the perception and ranking of challenges may vary according to who is doing the perceiving and ranking. For example, the ages of managers/leaders may predispose them to perceive and rank challenges in significantly different ways (Bennis & Thomas 2002) (table 10.1).

**TABLE 10.1** Challenges ranked (1–5) by managers of differing age groups in 2002

Challenge	Generation Y	Generation X	Existentialists (37–46)	Baby boomers (47+)
Achieving a reasonable work–life balance	1		4	2
Building your team to achieve outcomes	2		1	
Creating/following through on organisational change	3		2	5
Influencing others	4			
Coaching and developing staff	5		5	
Being entrepreneurial, seizing opportunities				
Managing your own career development		1		



Challenge	Generation Y	Generation X	Existentialists (37–46)	Baby boomers (47+)
Building positive relationships with others		2		1
Being flexible in responding to new ideas and change		3	3	3
Getting your message across to others		4		
Dealing with conflict		5		
Inspiring and motivating your people				4

Source: Durant and Morley (2002, p. 5). Reproduced with permission.

## Basic leadership styles

Let's consider how leaders deal with workloads and with other people. One of the most basic ways of understanding approaches to leadership is to see what emphasis different leaders place on:

- *concern for the task* – getting on with the job, and not bothering too much about human relationships
- *concern for people* – relating to personal needs, without worrying too much about the mechanics of administrative procedures.

All leaders deal with both concerns, but the mix of concerns can vary considerably. For example, leader A may place minimum emphasis on people factors and maximum emphasis on task factors, leader B may place minimal emphasis on task factors and maximum emphasis on people factors, and leader C may strive to place equal emphasis on both factors. To complicate matters further, follower D may prefer leaders who emphasise task over people factors, follower E may prefer the opposite, whereas follower F may prefer leaders who strive for a balanced approach. The task/people distinction is a fundamental one in the leadership models we discuss later.

### ASSESS YOURSELF

To determine what type of leadership style you have, complete the following questionnaire.

#### Part 1: Leadership questionnaire

**Directions:** The following items describe aspects of leadership behaviour. Respond to each item according to the way you would most likely act if you were the leader of a workgroup. Circle whether you would most likely behave in the described way: always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S) or never (N).

Item		Response				
1.	I would most likely act as spokesperson for the group.	A	F	O	S	N
2.	I would encourage overtime work.	A	F	O	S	N
3.	I would allow members complete freedom in their work.	A	F	O	S	N

(continued)

Item		Response				
4.	I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.	A	F	0	S	N
5.	I would permit members to use their own judgement in solving problems.	A	F	0	S	N
6.	I would stress being ahead of competing groups.	A	F	0	S	N
7.	I would speak as the representative of the group.	A	F	0	S	N
8.	I would needle members for greater effort.	A	F	0	S	N
9.	I would try out my ideas in the group.	A	F	0	S	N
10.	I would let members do their work the way they think best.	A	F	0	S	N
11.	I would be working hard for a promotion.	A	F	0	S	N
12.	I would tolerate postponement and uncertainty.	A	F	0	S	N
13.	I would speak for the group if there were visitors present.	A	F	0	S	N
14.	I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.	A	F	0	S	N
15.	I would turn members loose on a job and let them go to it.	A	F	0	S	N
16.	I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group.	A	F	0	S	N
17.	I would get swamped by details.	A	F	0	S	N
18.	I would represent the group at outside meetings.	A	F	0	S	N
19.	I would be reluctant to allow members any freedom of action.	A	F	0	S	N
20.	I would decide what should be done and how it should be done.	A	F	0	S	N
21.	I would push for increased production.	A	F	0	S	N
22.	I would let some members have authority that I could keep.	A	F	0	S	N
23.	Things would usually turn out as I had predicted.	A	F	0	S	N
24.	I would allow the group a high degree of initiative.	A	F	0	S	N
25.	I would assign group members to particular tasks.	A	F	0	S	N
26.	I would be willing to make changes.	A	F	0	S	N
27.	I would ask members to work harder.	A	F	0	S	N
28.	I would trust group members to exercise good judgement.	A	F	0	S	N
29.	I would schedule the work to be done.	A	F	0	S	N
30.	I would refuse to explain my actions.	A	F	0	S	N
31.	I would persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.	A	F	0	S	N
32.	I would permit the group to set its own pace.	A	F	0	S	N
33.	I would urge the group to beat its previous record.	A	F	0	S	N
34.	I would act without consulting the group.	A	F	0	S	N
35.	I would ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.	A	F	0	S	N
<b>T</b>		<b>P</b>				

Source: Adapted from Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden's revision of the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire, *American Educational Research Journal*, 1969, vol. 6, pp. 62-79. Reproduced with permission.

**Scoring:** You will score your own questionnaire on the dimensions of task orientation (T) and people orientation (P).

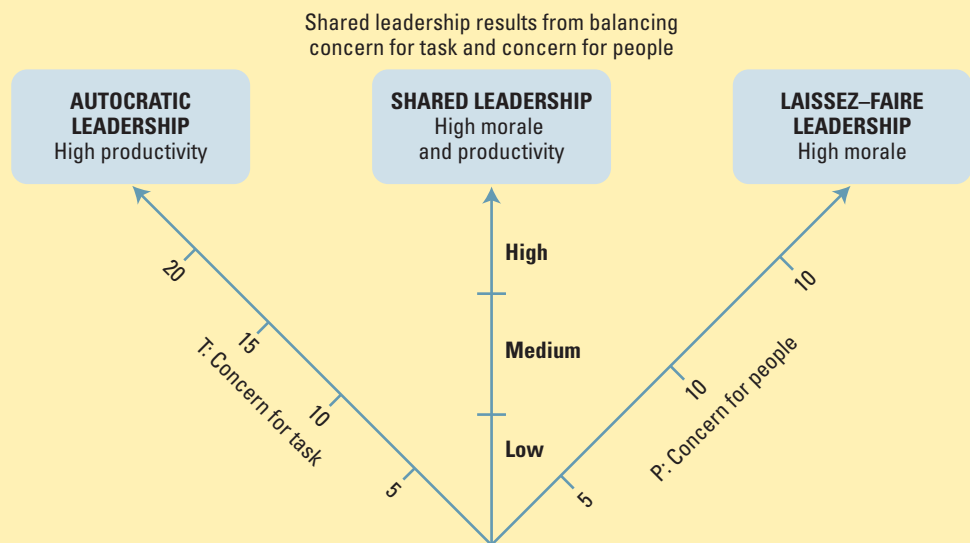
1. Circle the item number for items 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 30, 34 and 35.
2. Write the number 1 in front of a circled item number if you responded seldom (S) or never (N) to that item.
3. Write the number 1 in front of item numbers not circled if you responded A (always) or F (frequently).
4. Circle the number 1s that you have written in front of the following items: 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34 and 35.
5. Count the circled number 1s. This is your score for the level of your concern for people. Record the score in the space following the letter P at the end of the questionnaire.
6. Count the uncircled number 1s. This is your score for your concern for the task. Record this number in the space following the letter T.
7. Next, look at the leadership style profile sheet below and follow the directions.

**Variations:**

1. Participants can predict how they will appear on the profile prior to scoring the questionnaire.
2. Paired participants already acquainted can predict each other's scores. If they are not acquainted, they can discuss their reactions to the questionnaire items to find some bases for this prediction.
3. The leadership style represented on the profile sheet can be illustrated through roleplaying. A relevant situation can be set up, and the 'leaders' can be coached to demonstrate the styles being studied.
4. Subgroups can be formed of participants similarly situated on the shared leadership scale. These groups can be assigned identical tasks to perform. The work generated can be processed in terms of morale and productivity.

### Part 2: Leadership style profile sheet

**Directions:** To determine your style of leadership, mark your score on the concern for task dimension (T) on the left-hand arrow in figure 10.2. Next, move to the right-hand arrow and mark your score on the concern for people dimension (P). Draw a straight line to join the P and T scores. The point at which that line crosses the shared leadership arrow indicates your score on that dimension.



**FIGURE 10.2** T-P leadership model

Source: 'T-P Leadership Questionnaire: an assessment of style,' from JW Pfeiffer and JE Jones (eds) 1981, *A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training*, vol. 1, pp. 7-8, 10-12.

# Leadership and power

When we consider the interactions of leaders with followers, we need to consider the role of power and influence. What is power exactly? How is it that one person can exert control or influence over another? Is it possible to empower others – that is, for leaders/managers to cede or delegate power to others?

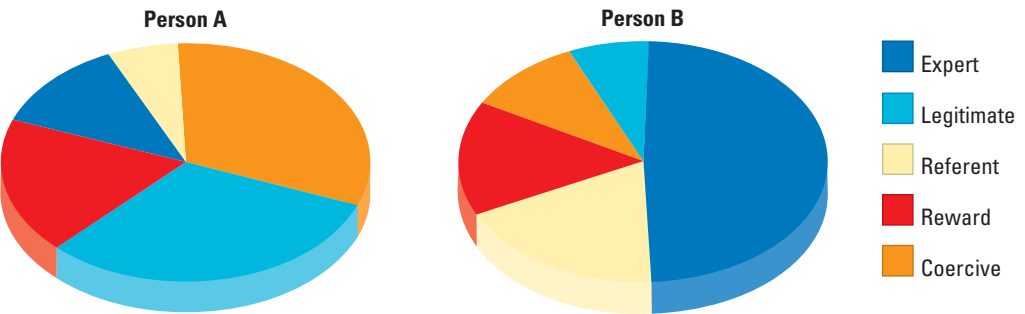
**Five bases of power:**  
legitimate, coercive, reward, expert and referent

In the **five bases of power** model, developed by French and Raven (1959), power flows from one or all of five bases (table 10.2). (See also Yaga 2002; Rahim, Antonioni & Psenicka 2001.) This model is sometimes extended to include other power bases, such as informational, traditional, charismatic and connectional (Raven 1999; Petress 2003; Ambur 2000).

**TABLE 10.2** Five bases of power

Power base	Details
LEGITIMATE	Legitimate power comes from official position in a hierarchy, and/or signs of power and rank such as uniforms, the work environment and the acceptance of authority by others.
COERCIVE	Coercive power relates to the ability to inflict physical pain on others and/or the ability to demote, fire, transfer or assign unpleasant tasks to others.
REWARD	Reward power relates to the ability to provide things that are valued by others. These things include promotion, salary increase, positive performance appraisal reports, interesting work and colleagues who are pleasant to work with, as well as smiles, friendliness and praise.
EXPERT	Expert power flows from an individual's expertise in a particular area, especially if that expertise is valued by others. If a person has a monopoly of skills in an area, then his or her expert power is high; if others have the same skills, then that person's expert power is low.
REFERENT	Referent power is wielded by those whom we admire and perhaps wish to copy or emulate. Referent power is most clearly seen when celebrities endorse products (even though such celebrities have no particular expertise, or expert power, in that product's field or area). We sometimes say that such individuals have charisma.

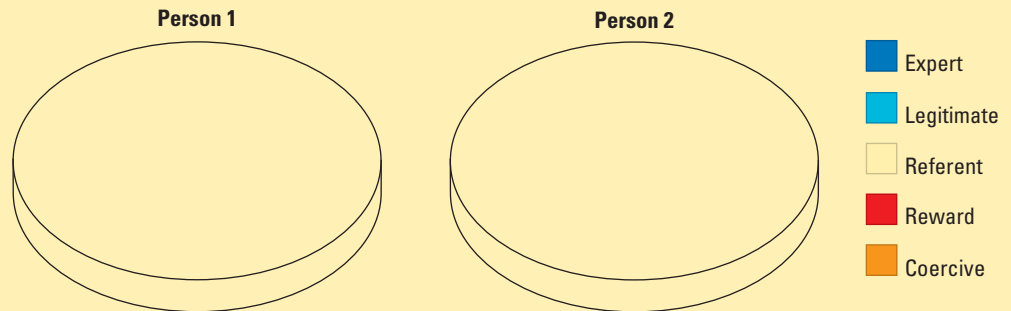
Compare, for example, the power base mixes of two people: Person A draws heavily on coercive and legitimate power, whereas person B draws more heavily on expert power and referent power (figure 10.3). Person A tends to be close to that of the traditional command-and-control manager, who gets people to do what he or she wants because of fear. Person B is probably a manager who depends more on expertise and charisma to get things done.



**FIGURE 10.3** Power bases for person A and person B

## ASSESS YOURSELF

Think of two people you have worked under or have taken instruction from in the past. Using the blank pie charts in figure 10.4, draw in the approximate segments of the different power bases of each person.



**FIGURE 10.4** Blank power bases



Leaders are assumed to possess certain characteristics or personality traits, such as decisiveness, self-confidence and diplomacy.

- socioeconomic mobility
- tallness
- verbal fluency
- achievement drive
- age
- creativity
- drive for responsibility
- extroversion
- persistence
- physical fitness
- socioeconomic class
- tact, diplomacy
- tolerance of stress
- weight/muscle/fat distribution.

## Leadership traits

One of the most basic approaches to leadership is that of traits or characteristics. This approach suggests that leaders can be identified because they possess certain attributes or qualities, such as:

- ability to enlist cooperation
- active, energetic approach
- aggressiveness
- decisiveness
- ethical conduct
- intelligence quotient
- physical attractiveness
- self-confidence

Traits are usually understood to be inborn, but some in this list can be acquired. Trait theory has considerable intuitive appeal: most of us would have no trouble in marking out individuals as 'natural leaders' or being 'leadership material' because of what we perceive to be their traits or characteristics. However, trait theory is very much out of fashion. Much research has gone into measuring traits, but there is still little basis for presuming

that a person possessing certain traits, or groups of traits, will necessarily be a leader or a good leader.

Nevertheless, while trait theory may be dead, it refuses to lie down (Byrt 1980). Traits are still being identified in leadership research (Barlow, Jordan & Hendrix 2003; Smith & Sharma 2002) and in the related field of research into entrepreneurs. Such research suggests that entrepreneurs may display the following positive (and negative) traits (Vecchio 2003):

- high confidence or overconfidence
- being prone to risk-taking
- a need for achievement
- well disciplined
- a need for control
- a sense of distrust
- a desire for ‘applause’
- a propensity for action
- finding it easy to admit mistakes
- greater social intelligence or ‘street smarts’ than conventional IQ
- being prone to narcissism (having grandiose views of personal superiority and low empathy for others).

## Leadership: one best style?

As researchers became disenchanted with trait theories, they turned their attention to the idea of leadership styles. A number of theorists advanced the idea that there may be an ideal style of leadership that would be appropriate for any workplace.

### The democratic style

Human relations-oriented researchers such as Lewin analysed work groups led in one of three styles: laissez-faire (where leaders gave followers little direction or support), authoritarian and democratic. They found that laissez-faire leadership was least effective in terms of quality and quantity of output; and whereas authoritarian and democratic styles produced equal quantitative outputs, the democratic style was associated with higher quality of outputs (Lewin, Lippitt & White 1939).

### Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor (1960) developed the notion of **Theory X** and **Theory Y** (figure 10.5). This model helps to explain differing views of leadership, motivation, organisational structure and even views of human nature.

**Theory X:** people by nature dislike work  
**Theory Y:** people by nature like work

Theory X	Theory Y
People by nature: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ dislike work; they are lazy, and try to avoid it as much as possible</li><li>■ need to be controlled and motivated by others, using rewards and punishments</li><li>■ dislike responsibility</li><li>■ dislike achievement</li><li>■ cannot be trusted</li><li>■ never change</li><li>■ are gullible and easily manipulated</li><li>■ are self-centred and do not care about organisational goals</li></ul>	People by nature: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ like work and will seek it out</li><li>■ like responsibility</li><li>■ like achievement</li><li>■ can be trusted</li><li>■ can change</li><li>■ are perceptive and not easily manipulated</li><li>■ want their organisation to succeed</li></ul>

**FIGURE 10.5** Theory X and Theory Y



McGregor saw that Theory X characterised most organisations up until the middle of the twentieth century. Theory X was the ‘hard’ model of human nature, which saw humans as motivated only by money, repelled by the idea of work, and in need of coercive and authoritarian leadership. Theory Y, by contrast, was the ‘soft’ model, which saw humans as motivated by more than money, interested in work for its own sake, and in need of trusting and empowering leadership (Truss et al. 1997).

Theory Y has much in common with Lewin’s democratic style, and was seen by some observers as the natural evolutionary successor to the harshness of Theory X. Theory Y has been used extensively to justify more humane approaches to work design, allowing workers to participate more in decision making, to achieve some measure of ‘psychological growth’ and, to a certain extent, to usurp some of the power of leaders or managers. For example, Robert Townsend (1984, p. 109) applied Theory Y principles at Avis Rent-a-Car to achieve a substantial turnaround in results:

The only excuse for organisation is to maximise the chance that each (employee), working with others, will get for growth in his job. You can’t motivate people. That door is locked from the inside. You can create a climate in which most of your people will motivate themselves to help the company reach its objectives. Like it or not, the only practical act is to adopt Theory Y assumptions and get going.

This is certainly an attractive aspect of the theory, although pessimists such as Kilcourse (1996) believe that the participatory utopia of a Theory Y workplace is slipping from our grasp because the forces of globalisation make for a large pool of deskilled and marginalised workers whose lack of skill will ensure that they are excluded from participation.

Of course, it all depends on what we mean by ‘participatory utopia’. To uncritically advocate a Theory Y approach in all workplaces may presuppose certain things, such as:

- non-managers actually being interested in participating in decision making. Many workers may simply see a job as a meal ticket, and work to live rather than live to work.
- non-managers always preferring democratic to autocratic or laissez-faire leadership styles. Some workers may like the loose rein of the laissez-faire, whereas others may prefer the firm smack of authoritarian control.
- managers (who have the power to implement Theory Y-type values and systems) being ‘benevolent despots’ who are wise enough to avoid creating a quasi-therapeutic relationship with subordinates. Some managers are manipulative and patronising ‘psychological despots’, as illustrated in the following quotation.

**Psychological despotism:** the foolish arrogance of some leaders who presume that they alone are competent and well adjusted, while everyone else is in need of instruction and therapy

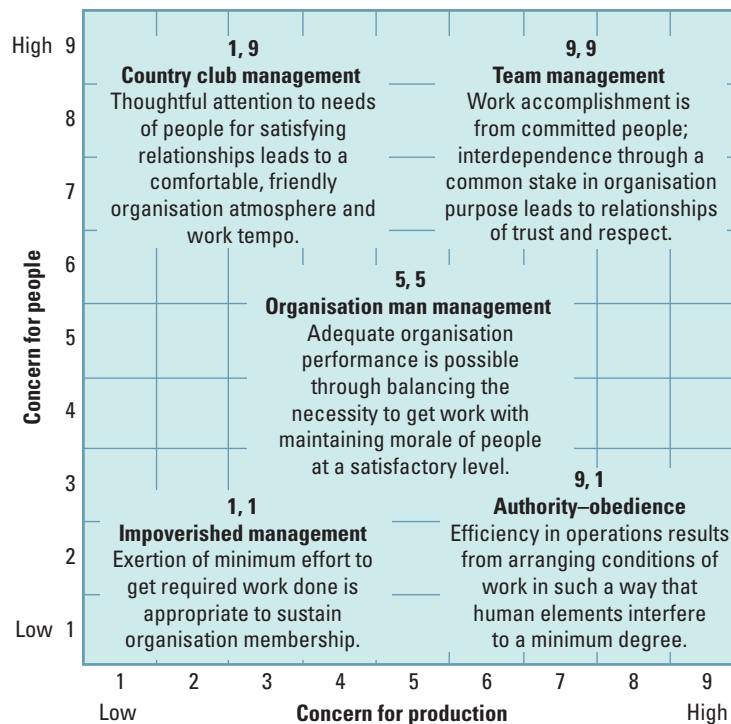
The work relationship has to be based on mutual respect. **Psychological despotism** is basically contemptuous – far more contemptuous than the traditional Theory X. It does not assume that people are lazy and resist work, but it assumes that the manager is healthy while everyone else is sick. It assumes that the manager is strong while everyone else is weak. It assumes that the manager knows while everyone else is ignorant. It assumes that the manager is right, whereas everyone else is stupid. These are the assumptions of foolish arrogance. Above all, the manager-psychologist will undermine his own authority. There is, to be sure, need for psychological insight, help, counsel. There is a need for the healer of souls and the comforter of the afflicted. But the relationship of healer and patient and that of superior to subordinate are different relationships and mutually exclusive. (Drucker 1974, p. 243)

## The Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton created a grid model of leadership in 1964 based on the task–people dichotomy (Blake & Mouton 1985; Blake et al. 2000; Newborough 1999). The grid, known

**Managerial Grid:** a leadership grid wherein the ideal style is high concern for people and high concern for task

as the **Managerial Grid** or leadership grid, uses two axes: concern for production and concern for people (figure 10.6).



**FIGURE 10.6** The Managerial Grid

Source: Blake and Mouton (1985, p. 12). Reproduced with permission.

There are five major styles of management within this system:

- 1, 9 impoverished management
- 1, 9 country club management
- 5, 5 organisation man management
- 9, 1 authority-obedience type management
- 9, 9 team management.

Blake and Mouton argue that a '9, 9' is the ideal style to strive for, as it embodies maximum commitment to people and maximum commitment to production. The five major styles are extreme points or positions, and in real life people are more likely to score numbers like 5, 7 or 3, 6. Blake and Mouton have also found that managers tend to have a main style and also a backup style. Sometimes this backup style is their actual style, while their main style is in fact how they would like to be.

The main advantages of the grid approach are that:

- it is simple and visual
- the number codings allow a shorthand way of analysing workplaces and relationships ('I think that you were a bit 9, 1 with the meeting this morning')
- it can help technically oriented managers realise that they need to improve their people skills
- it can help overly people-oriented managers realise they need to improve their technical skills
- it demonstrates that people can develop a better managerial style in small steps
- it can help managers and subordinates see that it is not necessary to choose either concern for people or concern for production (a false dilemma), but in fact it is possible to show both.

There are similarities between the models put forward by Lewin, McGregor, and Blake and Mouton (figure 10.7).

**FIGURE 10.7** 'One best style' approach to leadership

<b>Lewin</b>	Laissez faire	Authoritarian	Democratic
<b>McGregor</b>		Theory X	Theory Y
<b>Blake &amp; Mouton</b>	1, 1 Impoverished management	9, 1 Authority–obedience	9, 9 Team management

The main disadvantages of the grid are that:

- it does not have much to say about factors such as power or change
- it may be another embodiment of 'psychological despotism'
- it may not always be appropriate to have the 'one best style' for all situations
- it can oversimplify complex relationships.

Thus Anthony, after giving an exposition of the grid's approach, remarks:

The reader might well have concluded by now that managers would be better (and more cheaply) employed studying the entrails of chickens, and he might have entertained the passing thought that we were all wasting our time on such ponderous nonsense ... It would take a considerable program of research to validate the hypothesis that all 'behavioural science' management teaching is rubbish, so we shall have to content ourselves with the unproved assertion that most of it seems to be so. (Anthony 2001, p. 44)

## Leadership and situations

The main problem with the 'one best style' approach to leadership, according to some critics, is that it ignores the contingencies or unique factors in workplaces that relate to:

- the capabilities and motivations of followers
- the nature of the tasks to be performed
- the power relationships prevailing in the situation
- the types of organisation and employment modes concerned.

Different researchers have taken different approaches to contingency theories of leadership. For example, Fiedler, Chemers and Mahar (1977) argued that leadership style will vary according to whether leader–follower relations are good or bad, whether tasks are complex or simple, and whether the leader has strong or weak position power. House et al. (2003) saw leadership style varying according to subordinate attributes (authoritarianism, ability), work setting attributes (task, formal authority system) and the latitude leaders have to compensate for things lacking in the setting and to create pathways so that subordinates will be able to achieve both work and personal goals. Vroom and Jago (1998) suggest that leaders switch between being directive and being participative according to the decision-making context (How important is the technical quality of the decision? If you make a decision by yourself, how likely is it that followers will accept or resist the decision?). The vulnerability of followers in some situations will have a critical impact on the trust, or lack of trust, between them and their leaders (Lapidot, Kark & Shamir 2007).

## Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership® model

Contingency theorists of leadership (e.g. Fiedler, Chemers & Mahar 1977; Vroom & Jago 1998; House et al. 2003) argue that, with leadership, 'it all depends ...' Perhaps the most prominent contingency theory is the Hersey–Blanchard model. In this model

(figure 10.8), there is a mapping of people factors against task factors, as in Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid.

	Low task	High task
Low relationship	<p>Leader style 4 <b>DELEGATING</b></p> <p>Best match: able and willing/confident follower</p>	<p>Leader style 1 <b>TELLING</b></p> <p>Best match: unable and unwilling/insecure follower</p>
High relationship	<p>Leader style 3 <b>PARTICIPATING</b></p> <p>Best match: able but unwilling/insecure follower</p>	<p>Leader style 2 <b>SELLING</b></p> <p>Best match: unable but willing/confident follower</p>

**FIGURE 10.8** Dynamics of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership® model

Source: Based on Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001).

Situational Leadership® is a registered trademark of the Center for Leadership Studies.

**Situational Leadership®:** a model of leadership that matches the relationship and task behaviour of the leader to levels of readiness of the follower

While the Grid emphasises attitudes, the **Situational Leadership®** model emphasises behaviour – in other words, deeds, rather than words, are seen as offering the better insight into how leaders and followers really interact.

There are four styles of leadership in this model:

1. **TELLING** – S1 (high task, low relationship): provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance
2. **SELLING** – S2 (high task, high relationship): explain your decisions and provide opportunities for clarification
3. **PARTICIPATING** – S3 (low task, high relationship): share ideas and facilitate in making decisions
4. **DELEGATING** – S4 (low task, low relationship): turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation.

However, leaders using this model also need to take into account the job readiness, or ability, and the psychological readiness, or willingness, of followers. The readiness levels of followers are:

1. **LOW READINESS** – R1: unable and unwilling or insecure
2. **LOW TO MODERATE READINESS** – R2: unable but willing or confident
3. **MODERATE TO HIGH READINESS** – R3: able but unwilling or insecure
4. **HIGH READINESS** – R4: able and willing or confident.

A follower might be R1 in software skills, R2 in report writing, R3 in negotiation skills, and R4 in presentation skills. A competent situational leader therefore matches her/his leadership style to the readiness level of the follower in each situation – S1 for R1, S2 for R2, S3 for R3, and S4 for R4. If a salesperson excels at selling but is not so good on paperwork and follow-up, her manager might leave her alone to sell but supervise more closely on the paperwork phase until she develops more skills. In Situational Leadership®, therefore, it is the follower who determines the appropriate leadership behaviour. R1 and R2 styles are leader-directed, while R3 and R4 styles are follower-directed. That is why followers moving from R2 to R3 may become temporarily less confident: they are now more on their own, without direct supervision, and they need to stretch their wings a little.

The main advantages of the Situational Leadership® model are:

- It takes into account the fact that different followers will have different needs.
- It may help leaders think more about the different needs of different followers.

- It is dynamic – that is, it makes provision for followers to develop and to take on more responsibility via delegation, and it allows leaders to act as coaches and mentors.
- It is simple and visual.  
The main disadvantages of the Situational Leadership® model are:
- The research data underpinning the model are not strong (Graeff 1997; Vecchio, Bullis & Brazil 2006).
- The flexibility in style shown to different followers/employees may be perceived instead as inconsistency, favouritism and victimisation.
- Leaders may in fact prefer only one style (e.g. S2), rather than to move through different styles (Avery 2001).
- Followers may perceive that leaders have styles that are quite different from those that leaders think they are displaying (Avery 2001).
- Appropriate matches between leadership style and subordinate readiness do not necessarily lead to higher levels of subordinate job satisfaction and performance and lower levels of job stress and intention to leave (Chen & Silverthorne 2005).
- Not all leadership styles are appropriate on a situational basis (Abramson 2007).  
We will shortly look at another contingency leadership theory – employment modes – but before we do that we need to consider a number of other leadership theories.

## Transactional and transformational leadership

**Transactional leadership:** a pragmatic approach, more concerned with means than ends

Burns (2003) and Bass and Avolio (2002) have developed the notion of transactional versus transformational leadership. **Transactional leadership** is a pragmatic style that tends to be more concerned with means than ends. It tends to be characterised by:

- contingent rewards – leaders and followers agree on goals, and satisfactory completion of those goals results in material rewards
- rational problem solving and exchange to achieve mutual goals
- management by exception – leaders/managers monitor outputs, processes, standards and rules, and do not intervene unless followers/employees are not performing
- laissez-faire style – leaders/managers use a ‘hands-off’ low task, low people orientation style of leadership.

**Transformational leadership:** a charismatic approach, more concerned with ends rather than means

**Transformational leadership** is a style that tends to be more concerned with ends than means. It tends to be characterised by:

- charisma – the personal magnetism and charm, or referent power of the leader is important (Jacobsen & House 2001)
- inspiration – focus is on symbolism, missions or visions and large-scale goals, and instilling pride and motivation in followers
- intellectual stimulation – attention is paid to rigorous and novel problem-solving approaches
- individualised consideration – leaders/managers interact closely with followers, acting as coaches and mentors
- involved style – leaders/managers use a ‘hands-on’ high task, high people, empowering style of leadership (Sarros & Santora 2001).

Transformational/charismatic leaders are inclined to set great store in vision or mission statements for organisations (Kirkpatrick, Wofford & Baum 2002), and may use rhetorical techniques in their discourse to persuade followers (table 10.3).

Transformational/charismatic leaders are not necessarily ‘the good guys’ of leadership – Hitler and Stalin, for example, could be described as transformational (Jablin 1998).

**TABLE 10.3** Rhetorical strategies in discourse of transformational/charismatic leaders

Rhetorical technique	Analysis	Exponent	Example
Contrast	Using antithesis between two ideas	John F. Kennedy, US President (1961–1963)	<b>A.</b> <i>Ask not what your country can do for you</i> <b>B.</b> <i>Ask what you can do for your country.</i>
List	Enumeration of ideas, especially in threes	Abraham Lincoln, US President (1861–1865)	<b>1.</b> <i>Government of the people</i> <b>2.</b> <i>by the people</i> <b>3.</b> <i>for the people</i>
Position taking	Creating a build-up to a statement, sometimes using contrasts and lists	Margaret Thatcher, British Prime Minister (1979–1990)	<i>For the unspoken assumption behind the policies of withdrawal and unilateral disarmament:</i> <b>1.</b> (a) <i>is that others will continue to bear their burdens</i> (b) <i>and pick up ours as well,</i> <b>2.</b> (a) <i>that others would continue to accept our products</i> (b) <i>even though we refuse to accept theirs,</i> <b>3.</b> (a) <i>that others would ensure the defence of Europe</i> <b>4.</b> (b) <i>and provide a shield behind which we could shelter.</i> PT <i>What a contemptible policy for Britain.</i>

Source: Adapted from Den Hartog and Verborg (1997, p. 366).

The main advantages of transactional leadership are:

- It focuses on real issues like money compensation to match effort.
- It allows people to get on with their jobs without being micro-managed and second-guessed by over-controlling bosses.
- It focuses on real outcomes rather than intangibles such as vision and symbolism, which do not always connect with reality.

The main disadvantages of transactional leadership are:

- It can lead to followers 'sinking or swimming' because of a lack of leadership support.
- It can lead to an undue emphasis on monetary rewards without focusing on factors such as intrinsic job satisfaction.
- It can be too narrow and mundane in approach: followers are given no big ideas, symbolism, excitement and 'brain candy' to motivate them.

The main strengths of transformational leadership are:

- It can satisfy the hunger of employees/followers for inspiration and big goals.
- It can tap into non-monetary motivational patterns.
- It can boost developmental processes such as coaching and mentoring.

The main weaknesses of transformational leadership are:

- It seems too much like 'heroic leadership' – that is, it depends on leaders having almost supernatural qualities (and may contribute to the 'romance of leadership' fallacy).
- It can lead to bread-and-butter issues being ignored, with undue emphasis being placed on empty symbolism and hype.
- Charismatic leaders may be dysfunctional when power is shared, as in a self-managing team.



- Charismatic leaders may be so dominant that they may create a vacuum when they depart (Yukl 1999).
  - Charismatic leaders may suppress dissent and organisational voice (Tourish & Vatcha 2005).
- Effective leadership may in fact involve using both transactional and transformational styles in differing circumstances, although this may confuse and destabilise the organisation unless done well.

## The employment modes model

We saw earlier that contingency theories of leadership may be relevant if there are many variables in a workplace situation: it may make sense for leaders to change their style, or mode of interaction with followers, if the mix of task complexity, follower behaviour and power relations is right.

Now that we have considered transformational and transactional leadership, let’s consider a contingency model that relates leadership style to modes of employment (Liu et al. 2003). The **employment modes model** takes into account that there are substantial changes underway in the nature of jobs and employment – the world in which all employees have permanent jobs and relate to their bosses on that basis is changing, and this may have a bearing on leadership behaviour.

In this model, there are four modes of employment: contract, acquisition/job-based, alliance/partnerships and internal development/knowledge-based jobs (table 10.4).

**Employment modes model:**  
matches job types with  
leadership styles

**TABLE 10.4** Leadership styles and employment modes

Employment mode	Sample jobs	Underlying objectives	Leadership demands	Leadership styles
Contract	Administrative positions, technical jobs, assemblers, low-level clerical, programmers, consultants, drafting support, janitorial, maintenance, general labour, support staff, temporary workers	Temporary jobs, specific tasks, generic skills, cost benefits, flexibility, short-term focus	Provide specific instructions, ensure compliance, provide hourly or job-based rewards, no emotional attachment or long-term commitment	Directive
Acquisition/ job based	Accountants, administrative positions, engineers, salespersons, graphic designers, customer service agents, drivers or delivery representatives, account managers, human resource professionals, lawyers, trainers	Exchange between valuable skills or knowledge and market-based rewards; immediately perform tasks requiring expertise; low commitment	Ensure performance quality to attain company goals, save investment in training and development, provide appropriate rewards and maintain balanced exchange relationship	Transactional
Alliance/ partnership	Actuarial consulting, architectural services, consultants, executive development trainers, human resource consultants, benefits administration, management consultants, organisational development, software engineers, psychologists	Accomplish common goals through cooperation, mutual benefits; capitalise the other party's specialised knowledge or skill	Vision in the necessity of alliance, use valuable human resource, build mutual trust, ensure relatively high commitment to the alliance	Transformational

(continued)

**TABLE 10.4** (continued)

Employment mode	Sample jobs	Underlying objectives	Leadership demands	Leadership styles
Internal development/ knowledge-based	Analysts, artists, strategic planners, middle management, design engineers, mechanical engineers, functional managers, salespersons, professional employees, research and development employees, research scientists	Internally develop valuable and firm-specific human resources, obtain high commitment and long-term relationship; unique competitive advantage	Investment in internal development; entitle employees with more autonomy, participative decision making; encourage creativity and initiative, ensure high organisational commitment	Empowering

Source: Liu et al. (2003, p. 142).

Because the underlying objectives of each employment mode are different, the demands on leadership are different. This means that it may make sense to match four different styles of leadership – directive, transactional, transformational and empowering – to differing employment modes.

The strengths of the employment modes model are:

- It takes account of real changes in job design that have occurred in recent times.
- It incorporates newer leadership theories, such as transactional and transformational leadership.
- It gives leaders an objective and measurable standard – the nature of job roles – to consider when contemplating leadership style rather than more subjective standards, such as follower motivation and capability and the power mix.

The weaknesses of the model are:

- Employees in different modes may perceive differential leader behaviour as inconsistent rather than flexible.
- It may result in leaders perceiving followers as trapped in one particular role or job mode, whereas in reality employees may move between roles or modes throughout their careers.
- It blurs the line between transactional and empowering, insofar as empowerment is usually considered to be a part of transformational leadership.

## The problem of Machiavellianism

We have seen that power is a critical part of leadership. But what about the ethics of power and control? What about organisational politics? Is it necessary for a leader to be adept at playing the games of organisational politics or ‘micropolitics’? What is the best way to exert power and influence? Is honesty always the best policy in trying to exert power and influence? Does the end always justify the means? Does a leader need to be a manipulator and fixer to be successful? For example, how would you respond to the following statements?

- The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
- Never tell anyone the real reason that you did something unless it is useful to do so.
- It takes more imagination to be a successful criminal than a successful businessperson.
- It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and that it will come out when the chance arises.
- Barnum was probably right when he said that there is at least one sucker born every minute.
- It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
- Generally speaking, people will not work hard unless forced to do so.

**Machiavellianism:**  
manipulative behaviour

If you gave a strong ‘yes’ to all of these statements, then there is a chance that you might be a ‘high Mach’. (Compare the last point above with McGregor’s Theory X.) The Mach score was developed by Christie and Geis (1970) to measure **Machiavellianism**, behaviour that may not be ethical:

Since the publication of Machiavelli’s *The Prince* in 1532, the name of its author has come to stand for the use of guile, deceit and opportunism in interpersonal relations. A ‘Machiavellian’ is traditionally thought to be someone who manipulates others for his own purposes. This inventory attempts to distinguish between the behaviour of a person who agrees with Machiavelli’s ideas (a ‘high Mach’) and that of a person who disagrees with such ideas (a ‘low Mach’). It is an effort to measure a person’s general strategy for dealing with people, especially the degree to which he feels other people can be manipulated in interpersonal situations.

It is important to guard against the conventional pejorative implications surrounding the term ‘Machiavellianism’. None of the research evidence indicates that high Machs are more hostile, vicious or vindictive than low Machs. It shows only that they have a cool detachment (the ‘cool syndrome’), making them less emotionally involved with other people and even with their own beliefs or behaviour. In addition, no differences have been found between high Machs and low Machs on the basis of intelligence, social status or social mobility. (Christie 1978)

Some further characteristics of low Machs and high Machs are given in table 10.5.

**TABLE 10.5** Characteristics of high Machs and low Machs

Characteristic	High Mach	Low Mach
Emotional involvement with others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Cool syndrome — relatively unmoved by emotional involvement with others</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Soft touch — more likely to do or accept what another wants simply because that person wants it</li></ul>
Social influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Less susceptible to social pressure or influence</li><li>■ Might be more successful in negotiation, because detachment helps in resisting social demands</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ More susceptible to social pressure or influence</li></ul>
Conventional morality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Will lie or cheat more when given ‘rational’ justification</li><li>■ Suspicious of other people, but not of events, objects, ideas</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Can be persuaded to cheat when personally swayed</li><li>■ Less suspicious, more trusting of others</li></ul>
Cognitive vs personal orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Tend to ignore the potential aspects of human relations, social values or ethical considerations in a situation, and concentrated instead on the explicit, cognitive aspects</li><li>■ Cool, cognitive, specific approach taken, thus they never appear to be ‘obviously manipulating’; gets others to help in such a way that they are unaware of the techniques used on them</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Personal orientation</li><li>■ Take the needs and concerns of others as own, looking at the other person as a person, seeing a situation from his point of view, thinking in terms of his feelings and wishes</li><li>■ Attend more to the particular person confronting them</li><li>■ Get carried away in interactions with others, while high Machs maintain a perspective on the whole situation</li></ul>
Control of group structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Tend to take over leadership in face-to-face situations</li><li>■ Initiate and control group structure and thereby control both process and outcome</li><li>■ Appear to have a greater ability to organise their own resources and those of others to achieve a task goal</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Tend to take over leadership less in face-to-face situations</li></ul>

Sources: Adapted from Christie and Geis (1970); Christie (1978).

Some research (Ricks & Fraedrich 1999) indicates that high Machs tend to be:

- last-born children
- younger rather than older
- female just as easily as male.

High Mach leaders may also score high on charisma (Deluga 2001).

Do high Machs always outperform low Machs? No. Organisational structure seems to have an impact on Mach behaviour. Highly structured work situations have many rules and regulations, with job roles clearly spelt out and not much latitude for individual initiative and risk-taking. In high structure or mechanistic organisations, high Machs tend not to flourish, and low Machs do. In organic or more wide-open organisations, high Machs tend to be more at ease. Thus, high Machs tend to flourish more in sales situations than in project management situations; and even though as sales people they may perform better than low Machs, they may receive poorer ratings from managers (possibly because high Machs may irritate others) (Ricks & Fraedrich 1999; Graham 1996; Aziz, Kim & Crotts 2002). Overall, high Mach personalities seem to thrive where organisational politics exist (O'Connor & Morrison 2001; McGuire & Hutchings 2006; Aziz 2007). Mach behaviour, therefore, whether we like it or not, may be a critical part of our understanding of leadership, power and influence.

## Constrained leadership and non-leadership

So far, we have considered numerous different aspects of leadership, but we need to return to fundamental questions, such as:

- Is leadership necessary?
- Is leadership overrated?
- What if leadership was in fact irrelevant, illusory, neutralised, critically dependent on others, or a combination of some or all of these?

Pfeffer (1981), for example, suggests that leaders do not have much impact at all in certain situations, with environmental and industry forces being far more potent. A test of this is whether it would make a difference to replace leader A with leader B given certain contextual factors, and the answer in some situations is a clear and, from the standpoint of some leadership theorists, embarrassing 'no'.

**Romance of leadership:** a delusion or fallacy that leaders have magical or near-magical powers

In the same vein, Meindl (1990) argues that there is a **romance of leadership** delusion or fallacy, wherein people want to believe in heroic leaders who are imbued with magical powers, whereas in fact they are just human beings like the rest of us (Schyns, Meindl & Croon 2007; Felfe & Petersen 2007). This romantic fallacy occurs when a sporting team is losing and the coach gets fired, which may not necessarily improve the situation at all (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn 2002). Harold Macmillan (British Prime Minister, 1957–63) once remarked, apropos the tendency of Americans to expect extraordinary things of their elected President: 'If people want a sense of purpose, they should get it from their archbishop. They should certainly not get it from their politicians' (quoted in Stewart 1984).

**Substitutes for leadership:** rules, systems and behaviours in organisations that may undercut or negate the exercise of power by leaders

There may also be **substitutes for leadership** (Kerr & Jermier 1978; Schreishem 1997; Dionne et al. 2002; Keller 2006) and neutralisers of leadership (figure 10.9). For example, a manager might find that, while on paper he has a fair amount of power, in reality such power is undercut by:

- employees who know so much about their jobs that they require no supervision
- requirements of external and internal customers that so closely determine task structure that there is no latitude for discretionary decision making

- rewards and punishments being in the hands of external staff departments such as human resources
- employees being physically distant and difficult to communicate with.

**FIGURE 10.9** Substitutes for and neutralisers of leadership

Sources: Adapted from Kerr and Jermer (1978); Schreisheim (1997).

Subordinate characteristics	Task characteristics	Organisational characteristics
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Ability, experience, training, knowledge</li> <li>■ Need for independence</li> <li>■ ‘Professional’ orientation — valuing horizontal rather than vertical relationships</li> <li>■ Indifference towards organisational rewards</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Unambiguous and routine</li> <li>■ Methodological invariance (machine-paced operations, contractual specifications imposed by customers)</li> <li>■ Provide own feedback concerning accomplishment</li> <li>■ Intrinsically satisfying</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Formalisation (explicit plans, goals and areas of responsibility)</li> <li>■ Inflexibility (rigid, unbending rules and procedures)</li> <li>■ Highly specific and active advisory and staff functions</li> <li>■ Close-knit, cohesive work groups</li> <li>■ Organisational rewards not within the leader’s control</li> <li>■ Spatial distance between superiors and subordinates</li> </ul>

Heenan and Bennis (1999) have also developed the idea of ‘co-leaders,’ or people who assist leaders. Some of these assistants or second-in-charge people are in fact more competent than the official leader, and constitute the ‘power behind the throne’ (Kellerman & Webster 2001).

We have now considered a number of models of leadership, noting the role that communication plays in all of them. Let’s reverse our perspective and consider the ways in which leaders need to practise reverse leadership, or managing up – attempting to exert influence or power on their own bosses, and thus reversing the normal flow of power and decision making.

## Reverse leadership: managing up

**Managing up:** the process by which subordinates influence superiors

**Managing up**, or reverse leadership, may at first sight appear to be a paradox – in hierarchies, power flows downwards, and surely leadership can only be about managing down. We have already seen that there can be significant constraints on the exercise of power, such as in the substitutes for leadership model. In reality, there is considerable scope for subordinates or followers exercising counter-control and influence over their leaders. Former ICI chairman Sir John Harvey-Jones has said (*Management Today* 2000):

While management from below may seem to be a contradiction in terms, in reality every boss needs continual constructive help and support. Even though hierarchies have largely been abolished, the fact is that the relevant decisions and actions are always best taken by those closest to the problems. The boss can be a help or a hindrance in these matters, and there is no doubt that the enlightened boss recognises his own limitations and spends time discussing issues with his subordinates. However, not all bosses have the same need; it is the role of the subordinate to try and affect the environment in which he operates to ensure that the appropriate decisions and actions are taken. To do this requires tact, skill and a lack of concern about claiming credit for the ultimate actions. I hope that the study of this arcane art is enhanced, and it attracts the intellectual thinking and effort that are needed.



Managing up does not necessarily mean manipulation or intense conflict. It may simply mean that subordinates and superiors can work in synergy, and perhaps subordinates can control the nature of that synergy more than they might at first think.

Peter Drucker (quoted in Dobson & Singer 2000) notes that managing your boss may in fact be a good career move:

You don't have to like or admire your boss, nor do you have to hate him. You do have to manage him, however, so that he becomes your resource for achievement, accomplishment, and personal success.

Gabarro and Kotter (1980) suggest that a good managing-up strategy depends firstly on making sure that you are able to understand your boss and his or her context – in particular:

- the boss's goals and objectives
- the pressures on the boss
- the boss's strengths and weaknesses
- the boss's blind spots
- the boss's preferred work style.

The above considerations also need to be set against your own personal situation, including:

- your own strengths and weaknesses
- your personal style
- your predisposition towards dependence on authority figures.

After synthesising these perspectives, it should become possible to develop and maintain a relationship that:

- fits both your needs and styles
- is characterised by mutual expectations
- keeps your boss informed
- is based on dependability and honesty
- selectively uses your boss's time and resources.

In sizing up bosses with a view to managing them successfully, you should try to determine not only what they can do for you but also what you can do for them. Boss management becomes much easier when you can offer something that they do not have and believe that they can use.

We could call this complementarity, teamwork, co-leadership, synergy, expert power – or all of these. Work out what you could bring to the relationship, and then offer that (Badowski & Gittines 2005; O'Neil 2004).

Most bosses, fortunately, are quite human and reasonable. For those that are not, it pays to at least have planned out some type of management strategy for dealing with such individuals (table 10.6). Managing upwards in these circumstances is, if nothing else, a form of self-defence.



**TABLE 10.6** Managing problem bosses

BOSS TYPE	ANALYSIS	COUNTER-MANAGEMENT STRATEGY
THE BULLY	The bully is loud, abusive, threatening, intimidating, and reported (usually by the bully herself) to have influential friends in high places. Bullies have a strong desire to control others; for them, life is one long power struggle.	Bullies are afraid of two things: their own imperfection and any form of intimacy. When you deal with this type of boss, stand up straight, look and talk directly, call her by name (that is, get her attention without taking a fighting stance), and try to problem-solve with her. Try to control your own fear, as fear only encourages this type of boss. Stand still, show no agitation, and give the bully time to vent her anger.
THE PROCRASTINATOR	Procrastinators are usually friendly, agreeable and well intentioned. However, they have two major faults: they put off decisions at all costs and use generalities to avoid being specific. Procrastinators are actually victims of a perfectionist upbringing: they postpone doing tasks to avoid distress and beat around the bush to avoid being honest and hurting anyone's feelings.	Procrastinators fear making a mistake, revealing their inadequacies and failing. If your boss is a procrastinator, try to find the 'hidden barrier' to the situation. Be reassuring: let him know that it's all right to make a mistake while you're learning. Ask what he means when he uses vague or ambiguous words, and negotiate precise due dates for all work. Give support after he does make a decision: explain how it helps you when he does decide.
THE KNOW-IT-ALL	The know-it-all knows a lot, but her problem is that she acts as if she knows everything. She is very impatient, which expresses itself in an inability to listen. If she is faced with poor data, she blames others, for she has little need for other people and hates working in groups. The know-it-all thinks her own personal wit and knowledge is the only way to measure other people's performance.	The know-it-all is afraid of not pleasing others and of falling short of her own standards of perfection. Don't fight, blame or confront this type of boss; avoid trying to be the counter-expert. Instead, challenge her to problem-solve. Question, listen and acknowledge; then give feedback and suggest alternatives.
THE INCOMPETENT	The incompetent is in over his head. He pretends to know much more than he really does. He may steal your ideas and put his name on them. His greatest fear is being shown up for his shortcomings.	If you work for the incompetent, keep detailed and accurate records of both his incompetencies and your own ideas. When you talk, use facts rather than emotion to make your point. Help him to either become competent or to find an alternative career (and proceed with caution on the latter!). Document your own contribution to the firm.

Source: Adapted from Matejka and Dunsing (1989).

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, we saw that leadership can be relevant or irrelevant in various situations. Whereas power seems to be shifting from the tops of hierarchies to lower levels in those hierarchies, leaders still seem to be well in control in many hierarchies. There are differences between management and leadership, and these need to be studied so that they are not confused. Managers tend to allocate time between managerial tasks, managing staff, influencing, interpersonal communication, organisational change, strategy and self-management. Managers from different generations may perceive challenges differently, however. Leadership situations can often be explained by paying attention to the task and people factors in workplaces. Power is also a critical factor, and can be understood by, for example, looking at power bases, such as legitimate power, coercive power, reward power, expert power and referent power. Are leaders born or made? If they are born, then traits are critical for the understanding of leadership. There are various 'one-best-style' leadership approaches, such as Lewin's three styles approach, Theory X and Theory Y, and the Managerial Grid. There are various contingency approaches to leadership, such as the situational leadership model and the employment modes model. Transactional and transformational or charismatic leadership styles were also discussed. There may be factors that weaken or diminish leadership or make it irrelevant, such as the romance of leadership fallacy, substitutes for leadership and co-leadership. Finally, it may be possible and desirable to exert reverse leadership, or managing up, counter-controlling those officially in power. Such managing up may be even more important when subordinates need to manage problem bosses, such as the bully, the procrastinator, the know-it-all or the incompetent.

## KEY TERMS

employment modes  
model *p. 10.19*  
five bases of power  
*p. 10.10*  
leadership *p. 10.5*  
Machiavellianism *p. 10.21*  
management *p. 10.5*  
Managerial Grid *p. 10.14*  
managing up *p. 10.23*

psychological despotism  
*p. 10.13*  
romance of leadership  
*p. 10.22*  
Situational Leadership®  
*p. 10.16*  
substitutes for  
leadership *p. 10.22*  
Theory X *p. 10.12*

Theory Y *p. 10.12*  
transactional leadership  
*p. 10.17*  
transformational  
leadership *p. 10.17*

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. 'Hierarchy is inevitable and empowerment is a myth. There will always be leaders and followers.' Discuss.
2. What similarities and differences are there between management and leadership?
3. 'Leadership is something you are either born with or not born with.' Discuss.
4. 'In the organisations of the future, only expert power will matter.' Discuss.
5. List three strengths and three weaknesses of the 'one best style' approach to leadership.
6. List three strengths and three weaknesses of contingency approaches to leadership.
7. What relationship might there be between the management/leadership distinction and the transactional/transformational leadership distinction?
8. 'To be a leader, you have no choice but to be a high Mach.' Discuss.
9. Is it possible to manage up?

## APPLIED ACTIVITIES

1. Lead a discussion with others on the Theory X and Theory Y models. Which theory do you think provides a more accurate description of human nature?
2. Consider someone you know who is in a leadership position. Analyse this person in terms of at least two leadership models.
3. Consider one person who is in a public leadership position. Analyse this person in terms of at least two leadership models.
4. Consider your response to the power bases exercise. Discuss with others how it might be possible to change someone's mix of power bases.
5. Think of a workplace you are familiar with, and analyse it in terms of the employment modes model. How might its pattern of employment modes affect leadership exercised within it?
6. Consider a workplace you are familiar with. How many substitutes for leadership factors are present in this workplace, and what effect might these have on the exercise of leadership?
7. Think of two other types of problem bosses, and devise some counter-management strategies for them.

## WHAT WOULD YOU DO?

Harry is the floor supervisor of your work unit. He was away most of last week on a leadership-training seminar. Everything went very smoothly while he was away. In fact, some people were joking about 'just what is it that Harry does anyway?' On his return, there was something different about Harry. He seemed to be relating to staff in a slightly different way, although the changes haven't met with everyone's approval. 'I just don't get Harry', Maya says to you. 'He really is playing favourites. He was very nice to Bobby just now, giving advice away like it was going out of style, but when I asked for help on the Mainline project spreadsheet, he just told me that he "had complete confidence in my ability to complete it". Hah! Is that meant to be sarcasm?' Later, you chat with Harry, relating Maya's words. 'I'm not playing favourites at all!' he protests. 'I'm just trying to manage contingently – you know, manage people in different ways according to their needs? So much for my good intentions!'

What would you say to Harry?

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