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# Effective Management: Which Style is Best?

Brock M. Dunbar

brockdunbar\_22@hotmail.com

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# Effective Management: Which style is best?

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**Brock Dunbar**

In the ever changing world we live in today, it is vitally important for any company, organization, or agency wanting to be successful to examine and implement strategies that promote the most effective management strategies. Consideration of personality qualities and differences of each subordinate under a manager is also important. Due to the wide range of issues managers face and an ever-changing workforce, it is imperative that managers study concepts and methods that are most effective to motivate and inspire their subordinates.

People desire management to always have the answers; they look to them for guidance. Social diversity and changes alone are enough to make ones' head spin when considering taking a position in management. On a completely different level, but no less important, are the idiosyncrasies of each individuals' personality and the traits each exhibit. This presents all managers with a complex, complicated, and delicate challenge of how to deal with their subordinates as a whole and as individuals.

Many different forms of management exist today and are as wide ranging as the different types of personalities one will encounter. Some managers use negative reinforcement, fear, and the threat of punishment or termination to motivate their employees. Others use incentives or merit, while others choose to adapt a positive reinforcement style. In order for a manager to summon the most out of their employees, they must be willing and able to examine and adapt to the different behaviors and personality types contained within their subordinates.

### **Conflict in the Workplace**

Conflict in the workplace is an issue any manager will face in any industry. Conflict in this instance is defined as “a process in which an individual perceives that another person has negatively affected something that matters to him or her” (Trudel, Reio, 2011, pg. 397). Conflict

has a multitude of negative outcomes for an organization ranging from lost work time and lower productivity to a decrease in moral that influences other workers. To make matters even more serious, employees can feel disenfranchised with the advancement of technology. Combine that with conflict in the workplace and the formula for workplace violence exists. How a manager responds to that conflict can define the overall success of the organization and the moral of the employees.

Conflict management is an aspect of management that all managers are exposed to and must learn to deal with in the most proficient of ways. Examining behavioral patterns of conflict management can help companies establish behavioral tendencies. Studies have shown that these behavioral tendencies can be modified through cognitive and behavioral training. The different styles of conflict management are integrating (collaborating or problem-solving), dominating (competing or forcing), accommodating (obliging), avoiding, and compromising (Trudel & Reio Jr., 2011). Of these five different styles integrating has proven to be most beneficial to both parties, most effective, and certainly has the most positive results. Another style linked to a positive outcome is compromising, while dominating, accommodating, and avoiding were all linked to negative outcomes (Trudel & Reio Jr., 2011).

Conflict within organizations often occurs in phases. The first phase is latent conflict where conditions suitable for discord are present due to factors such as interdependence or incompatibility. The second phase is perceived conflict. This occurs when parties believe or perceive that incompatibilities or interdependence exist (Miller, 2015).

The third phase is called felt conflict. At this point conflict has become personalized and strategies to deal with the conflict are developed. The next phase is manifest conflict which

comes through communication. Strategies used at this point will see rounds of escalation or de-escalation depending on the individuals and strategies used. The final phase of conflict is conflict aftermath. At this stage the conflict has been settled but the nature of the individual, their functioning in the organization, and their relationships may change (Miller, 2015)

Each individual will deal with conflict in idiosyncratic ways, but generalized styles of conflict will be further examined. Some conflict management theorists have adopted a similar approach to define conflict as Blake and Mouton have established to describe management styles. These theorists have composed a graph where the X axis represents concern for others and the Y axis represents concern for self. The higher the number on either axis denotes a higher concern for that respective aspect. Five conflict styles can be addressed according to this grid (Miller, 2015).

Competition is characterized by the ultimate concern for self and a non-existent or low concern for others. Avoidance is considered to be where a low concern for self and others are present and almost always ineffective. Compromise is a middle of the road approach where equal concern is given to both self and others, but neither is a priority and concessions are made to reach a solution. Accommodation is where the ultimate priority is placed on others at the expense of concern to self. Collaboration is where the highest regard is paid to both others and self; solutions of this kind present mutually beneficial arrangements (Miller, 2015).

One particular avenue that managers can pursue to alleviate organizational conflict is through bargaining and negotiation. Bargaining is often a formal activity where both sides sit down and address points of contention. A strategy often employed in bargaining is the concept of mutual concessions. As the name denotes this is where in the bargaining process if one side

has to sacrifice or make a concession, the other party involved will be required to do the same. When conflict exists between groups, often an individual is appointed to bargain on behalf of the group (Miller, 2015).

Two specific types of bargaining are distributive and integrative. In distributive bargaining both parties engaged in conflict have the intention of finding a solution that maximizes their own gains and minimizes their losses (Miller, 2015). This type of bargaining takes place when limited resources are available and often the outcome is viewed as a win-loss. Due to the fact that each party involved is only concerned with their own goals, tactics such as withholding information and deception are prevalent (Miller, 2015).

Integrative bargaining contrasts distributive bargaining in the fact that both parties are concerned with mutually beneficial arrangements. This type of bargaining is often marked by open information exchange, careful listening, and often employ multiple communication channels (Miller, 2015).

Another type of bargaining may have to be used if no other viable solution has presented itself. This option involves bringing in a third party to settle the conflict. Third party conflict resolution often takes on the form of mediators or arbitrators. A mediator serves, more or less, as a referee that listens to both sides' arguments or issues but holds no decision making authority. When an arbitrator is used both parties' present feasible solutions and the arbitrator makes a decision based on those arguments (Miller, 2015).

In a study amongst school administrators, a correlation was discovered between the decrease in using the integrating conflict management style and an increase in uncivil behavior in the workplace. This study also found that the integrating approach was positively related to

decision quality, satisfaction, fairness, and trust (Trudel & Reio, 2011). Not only do managers have a conflict resolution style of their own, each individual employee has a preferred method of conflict resolution which makes it even more important for a manager to be aware of their style and the styles of their subordinates.

In a study conducted where interactions between two people occurred, it was established from the results that, of the meetings where good rapport was evident, those meetings resulted in a mutually agreeable outcome. The meetings where a low rapport existed, it was found that less attention was paid to the other party and the outcomes were not considered mutually beneficial (Jap, Robertson, & Hamilton, 2011). In a similar experiment negotiations occurred on two different mediums. One was a face to face interaction and the other was via electronic communication or some form of instant messaging. Of these interactions, it was concluded that meetings occurring face to face had a higher rapport and a more positive outcome was also reported; compared to the online interactions where a lower rapport and a less positive outcome was reported (Jap, Robertson, Hamilton 2011).

In both of these experiments it was reported that undesirable behavior was exhibited more in the low rapport interactions. These behaviors included deceiving the other party and compromising the other party. Deceptions included misleading statements, overpromising, or outright lying. Compromising the other party included violating the other parties' explicit instructions (Jap, Robertson, and Hamilton 2011). Rapport can be considered a positive management style. Some managers may not see the importance of it and others simply may have too many subordinates to try to establish such a thing. Having a good rapport with ones' supervisor will only result in positive outcomes.

As a manager, one will be faced with many issues and situations. One important situation is resolving negative or unwanted behavior. Each situation will be different depending on the individual, but a somewhat standard approach can be used to resolve the issue. The ability of the manager to tailor the solution to the personality of the individual is the charge of being an effective manager. In a study examined in an article by Payne and Dozier it was shown that positive reinforcement was more effective in reducing undesirable behavior than negative reinforcement alone (Dozier & Payne, 2013). Also, “consistent with research on differential reinforcement and choice, some studies have shown that the non-contingent delivery of positive reinforcers also is effective in decreasing problem behavior maintained by negative reinforcement” (Dozier & Payne, 2013, p. 699). Simply put when positive reinforcement is given and it is unconditional, the likelihood of decreasing problematic behavior increases. One limitation to these studies, however, is that problematic behavior was maintained by both positive and negative reinforcement (Dozier & Payne, 2013). With that being said, it is important for managers attempting to experiment with positive reinforcement be vigilant and consistent in how positive reinforcers are used.

Another issue most managers will face is how to improve productivity. Productivity can be measured by throughput and yield. Throughput can be defined as how quickly a task is completed and yield is whether those tasks are performed correctly (King, King, & Davis, 2014). It is fair to say that if a manager wants to improve the measure of productivity, these are two factors one should definitely focus on. There are, of course, industries where measures of productivity are measured differently but throughput and yield are two general areas that can apply to most industries. If a manager is given the task of cutting costs, a default option is downsizing either the number of employees and/or reducing man hours in a work week.



Reduction may not be necessary as an evaluation of employee productivity could make up for budget deficiencies.

## Personality Types

An effective manager should be able to recognize and differentiate the personalities of his subordinates in order to most effectively inspire them. One way to determine different personality types is through the Meyer's Brigg's Type Indicator. The MBTI is a self-examination that allows individuals to become aware of how they perceive events, ideas and other people. It also helps to gain an understanding of how an individual comes to conclusions based on their perceptions (Roush & Atwater, 1992). It also provides a four dimensional description of a personality and provides the ability to quantify non-psychopathological personality types. This system has been in place for over forty years. (Boyle, 1995).

The MBTI has roots dating back to the early 1900s when a Swiss psychiatrist named C. G. Jung postulated that human behavior was not random, but instead was predictable and with predictability came classifications (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989). At the time, Jung broke away from the popular ideas about behavioral trends saying they were not due to weaknesses, abnormalities, or psychological sickness. Instead he proposed they were due to preferences of our personalities that form and develop early in our childhood. "Such preferences become the core of our attractions to and repulsion from people, tasks, and events all life-long" (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989, p. 11).

The different psychological types of the MBTI include introversion/extroversion or where people get their energy (Hubbell, 1991). Included in these types are: sensation/intuition or how people take in information, thinking/feeling or how people make decisions, and

judging/perceiving or how people approach the world (Hubbel, 1991). Each of these types come together to form sixteen various personalities a manager must recognize and communicate with, inspire effective and efficient work, and rectify conflict.

The MBTI examines four dimensions of a personality by distinguishing between and Introvert (I) or Extrovert (E), Sensing (S) or Intuitive (N), Thinking or Feeling (F), and Judging (J) or Perceiving (P). This provides sixteen different personality make-ups. A four letter code is used to describe each personality i.e., ISTP, ENFJ, INFP, etc. Each type is said to describe specific behavioral tendencies, decision making styles, attitudes, and orientations (Boyle, 1995).

Introversion/Extroversion is not viewed as shyness versus outgoing, but rather one's attitude toward the world being centered outwardly on others or inwardly on self. The E/I index can also describe whether a person's focus is on people or things for extroversion, or concepts and ideas for Introversion (Roush & Atwater, 1992). Typically an extrovert will exhibit an outgoing personality that communicates well and enjoys social experiences. Extroverts can also exhibit impulsive behavior or decision making. Conversely an introvert is often quiet, enjoys solitude, and uncomfortable in social situations. Introverts tend to be more conceptual in their approach to decisions (Roush & Atwater, 1992).

The Sensing/Intuitive dimension references an individual's perception style. Sensing being one that attends to sensory stimuli; where Intuition is a more detached analysis of stimuli and events. Sensing can also refer to one who gathers information through the five senses, where intuitive individuals will view events or people through possibilities, meanings, and relationships. Individuals belonging in the sensing category are often pragmatic and tend to focus on the reality of the present. Intuitive individuals are often imaginative and theoretical.

They frequently hold more regard to the future than the present, and will focus on abstract ideas and notions (Roush & Atwater, 1992).

Thinking involves a more logical reasoning in decision making while Feeling is a more subjective and interpersonal approach (Boyle, 1995). Thinkers tend to focus on objectivity and tend to approach decisions from an impersonal perspective. They also tend to hold justice and equality in high regard. Those who fit under the feeling index will often focus on interpersonal aspects of a decision or idea, and value this above technical or abstract concepts (Roush & Atwater, 1992).

The Judging aspect involves prompt decision making. Perceiving is more patient and gathers more information before decisions are made. Those fitting into the judging category will place high importance on structure and order in their lives. They can be described as highly organized, decisive, and purpose driven. Another aspect of one who fits the judging description is they will tend to shut off information when they feel enough pertinent data has been received to make a decision (Roush & Atwater, 1992). Perceivers on the other hand enjoy flexibility and spontaneity. They will often leave decisions open until the last possible moment to make sure all applicable information has been gathered to make the most informed decision possible (Roush & Atwater, 1992).

It should be noted that according to Jung's theory each individual develops a preference for how they interpret information and make decisions early in life, but just because an individual has a preference does not mean they are incapable of using another style not suited to our preferences. In a similar way that a person born left-handed can learn to use their right hand for certain tasks. That does not mean that person has become right-handed, it just means they

have learned how to develop a skill that is outside their default preference (Trudel & Reio Jr., 2011).

A good manager will also realize this in the employees working for them. While certain people may exude predictable behaviors and preferences, they can, from time to time, display behavior patterns that are outside of their normal tendencies. It is a testament to all managers that are able to recognize the behavioral tendencies of their employees, but even more so to be able to predict their behavior, communicate, and direct their employees based on those patterns.

It is easy for a person to generalize or catalog people according to certain traits or characteristics they exhibit. These labels that are created can often have positive or negative connotations attached to them such as a person is a 'work-a-holic', they are uptight, or they are free spirited and the list goes on. These labels that are created offer individuals communication shortcuts the "facilitate our dealings with one another at work and at home, with friends, relatives, and veritable strangers" (Kroegeer & Thuesen, 1989, p. 7) . When a label is given to someone it allows others to have a general idea of how that particular person may respond in certain situations.

Unfortunately, these labels can lead to negative stereotypes and a misunderstanding that has the potential to hinder communication and create self-fulfilling prophecies (Kroegeer & Thuesen, 1989). Categorizing people in this way occurs when distinctive qualities or characteristics are observed and recognized in others in ways that are liked or disliked. With the Meyers Briggs Type Indicator this categorizing and generalizing presents the opportunity to skillfully and objectively quantify personality types. For those who use the MBTI, it presents the opportunity to improve communication and ameliorate day to day dealings with individuals.

It should also be mentioned that the MBTI is a psychological instrument that only qualified individuals should institute. For some organizations the steps necessary to train managers to use this tool is simply not feasible. For the large organizations that have the resources to do so, however, they would be employing the most reliable and valid method for determining individual preferences (Kroegeer & Thuesen, 1989).

### **Positive and Negative Reinforcement**

Another issue managers' face is the interpersonal relationship established between coworkers and members of management. This relationship can be defined as rapport. When rapport is established between employers and employees, a degree of trust is created. This trust will make conflict resolution easier and less likely to result in threats and ultimatums. A mutual understanding of the others' point of view is established, and the emotional needs of the other are more easily understood. Studies have shown a positive affect that results from good rapport and it contributes to increased work performance, creativity, and teamwork (Jap, Robertson, & Hamilton, 2011).

One of the worst things a manager can do is to respond to a negative individual angrily. This will only further reinforce the negative feelings and attitudes of the affected individual. One alternative is to provide the affected individual with training in problem solving skills and conflict resolution. Negative employees should be instructed to use their strengths to further organizational goals; not as a detriment. For example, if an employee habitually complains about deficiencies instead of degrading them; ask for their suggestion as to viable solutions. (Reynolds 2007.) It should not be understated that it is also important to address coworkers who are affected by the negative individual. Coaching them on how to deal with negativity can be a

practical solution to minimizing the affect the negative person has on moral and productivity. Generally a negative person craves the acceptance of their peers and while they may view their negativity as a way of unifying coworkers, it actually alienates them from the group. (Reynolds 2007.)

If an organization does not have a department that offers assistance to employees it should be considered if the organization wishes to remain successful. It is important that managers develop the ability to demonstrate empathy and not meet negativity with more negativity. If it becomes apparent a manager is unable to deal with a negative employee, perhaps the organization should reexamine how they train those in leadership roles. Each of the three types of negativity may not be exclusive. In fact they may reinforce each other. This makes it all the more important that negativity in the workplace be dealt with effectively in order to increase employee satisfaction. A happy employee is a more productive employee. (Reynolds 2007.)

Positive reinforcement is a simple system to introduce in the workplace. It requires a manager to give specific instructions, look for good behavior, and praise effectively. To be effective at this a manager must not assume good behavior and ignore it when it occurs. A willingness to recognize and verbally affirm the desired behaviors must also be present. Last but not least a manager must also effectively convey the praise of the desired behavior by being specific about the praise rather than vague or general praise (McDaniel, 1987).

In a study in the food service industry a program was developed and instituted called the “Pat on the back” system or POTB. In this program paper slips were used to publicly recognize employees and managers as a means for reinforcing desired behaviors. All associates were

encouraged to fill out as many of these slips as deemed necessary. When management received these slips an effort to immediately recognize each employee was made for whatever behavior they exhibited. Whichever employee had the most slips at the end of the month received the award for employee of the month. After seven months a survey was taken amongst the organization and over half of the employees reported the POTB system improved their morale (Rainville & Maghen, 2013).

Not all managers are concerned with good rapport or positive reinforcement. Some, due to personality deficiencies or poor training, rely on negative reinforcers for results. These can include instilling fear, threats or intimidation, and punishments up to and including termination. It is rare to find an industry where either a manager or a subordinate is not labeled as “negative.” This label can be somewhat subjective but the outcomes of a negative person are certainly measurable. A negative person can complain about workplace injustices, rally coworkers against the establishment, bully other workers, and perceive every request as oppressive and derogatory (Reynolds, 2007).

Negativity can take on many forms and has many flavors but what is constant is the detrimental effect it has on the work environment and the level of success that is measured within the organization. In some medical studies it has been shown that negativity in and amongst the workplace can have a negative effect on clinical trials (Reynolds, 2007). When moral or productivity suffers as a result of negativity, it presents a challenge that must be addressed in the organization.

Many different factors can contribute to negativity. These factors can include depression, poor management, overwork, and financial, relational, or health issues of the individual. The

root of these issues can be traced to either self, circumstances, or the organization. Negativity that comes from within is called chronic idiopathic negativity. Negativity that comes from circumstances is referred to as socio-situational negativity, and when negativity comes from ones' view of the organization is referred to as iatrogenic negativity (Reynolds, 2007). All three of these forms of negativity are equally dangerous, but how an effective manager deals with them separates an effective manager from an ineffective one.

When it becomes apparent that negativity exists an organization must take steps to resolve the issues if they wish for the organization to be successful. These steps include direct communication in staff meetings, making genuine efforts to follow through on declared goals, and recognizing even minor successes and accomplishments of affected individuals (Reynolds, 2007).

## **Leadership**

An aspect of management that can often be overlooked is leadership. This term can be defined by how a manager inspires and influences others to achieve an objective (Monterosso M., 2008). Early theorists hypothesized that leadership traits are inherent not acquired. This line of thinking is referred to as trait theories. These theories propose that certain qualities are associated with successful leaders. These traits are intelligence, self-confidence, integrity, and sociability (Miller, 2015).

Similar to trait theories are style theories. These theories suggest that successful leaders exhibit particular behavioral styles that cause them to be prosperous. Style and trait theories contrast with more modern management theories because they assume there is a particular set of traits or behavior that is best for each situation. The argument against such theories is made that



different individuals may be better suited for different leadership situations. The line of thought that disagrees with trait and style leadership theories is known as contingency theories. This theory suggest that a leader more focused on tasks would thrive more in a structured environment rather than situations that required heavy interpersonal interactions (Miller, 2015).

Many different leadership styles exist but three particular leadership styles are *Laissez Faire*, Transactional, and Transformational. A *Laissez Faire* leader is one who is passive and often disinclined to inspire coworkers or give direction. They typically relinquish their leadership role and will abstain from decision making. Maximum freedom and power is given to the subordinate when a Laisse Faire leader manages a group (Deluga, 1990).

One type of leader is a transformational leader. This refers to a leader that creates a relationship with their followers and helps the followers to reach their full potential. A concept that is central to transformational leadership is the idea of exemplification. This can be defined by a leader who wants to instill particular ideals or qualities in their followers and they do so by displaying or exemplifying those ideals and qualities in their own behavior (Miller, 2015). In other words a transformational leader must practice what they preach.

Transformational leadership has four dimensions: charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Charisma, or idealized influence, is how the leader behaves in a manner that demonstrates empathy and admiration amongst the followers. Charismatic leaders are often idealistic and display conviction. They captivate their followers by appealing to them on an emotional level. Inspirational motivation is the level to which the leader conveys a vision that appeals to and inspires their followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Leaders exhibiting inspirational motivation insist that followers meet high standards. They are optimistic about future goals and communicate those goals effectively. They also provide a sense of accomplishment for the jobs that are completed. Intellectual stimulation is how a leader challenges preconceived notions, how they take risks, and how they draw upon followers' ideas. Leaders exhibiting this trait often challenge and inspire ingenuity in their followers. Individualized consideration refers to how a leader observes and attends to each follower's needs, serves as a counselor or guide to the follower, and listens to the follower's needs (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Another type of leader is a transactional leader. This is a contrast to the transformational leader where communication plays a key role. In a transactional leader some sort of exchange occurs between the leader and the follower (Miller, 2015). For example, a transactional leader of an organization may promise a pay raise or bonus in exchange for successful and prompt completion of a project. A transactional leader has a *quid pro quo* mentality about relationships with their followers.

Transactional leadership has three dimensions: contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception. Contingent reward is how the leader develops positive transactions with followers. Expectations are clear and the rewards for accomplishing those expectations are also made known to the followers. Management by exception is the degree the leader takes corrective actions based on the results of transactions occurring between the leader and follower. As noted by Howell and Avolio,

The difference between management by exception—active and management by exception—passive lies in the timing of the leader's intervention. Active leaders monitor

follower behavior, anticipate problems, and take corrective actions before the behavior creates serious difficulties. Passive leaders wait until the behavior has created problems before taking action (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, pp. 755-756).

A third form of leadership exists but it is essentially non-leadership. It is called *laissez-faire* leadership. The term comes from French meaning “to let it do” (Mulder, 2017). On one end of the management spectrum is authoritarian management where the employees have little to no input on organizational decisions that are made and their opinions are either ignored or not accepted. On the other end of the spectrum is *laissez-faire* leadership where management takes a hands-off approach. There is little to no involvement from the management standpoint and nearly all decisions are done collectively amongst the employees. Delegation of managerial tasks is also given to the employees. Managers that employ this style of leadership may provide resources to their employees but do not oversee the processes. Instead there is a large amount of trust that the employees can solve problems and make good decisions on their own (Mulder, 2017).

Any leader in any organization is faced with an undeniable fact, whether one volunteered for leadership or was promoted to it, you are affecting people’s lives. This is a byproduct of leadership that happens whether it is desired or not. For a large number of people embarking upon leadership roles their understanding of it may be clouded by things like company goals, budget concerns, compliance, human resource issues, or other important facets. All of those issues mentioned and many that were not are all important aspects of leadership, but it is not the most important. “How you influence others is the most important” (Staver, 2012, p. 4).

Leadership has seen an evolution in philosophy over the last hundred years or so. In the early twentieth century leaders concerns were only with getting a job done. Little to no regard was paid to the employee because it did not have to be. Women did not work and members of ethnic minorities were not viewed equally as human beings. As technologies changed so too did the attitude towards leadership. People began to realize that the human factor was equally important as the end numbers. For a successful business culture to thrive equal attention must be paid to both spectrums (Staver, 2012).

If a person finds themselves in a position of leadership and it seems as though their team is not successful, what kinds of things can a leader do to improve the environment? For starters they should accept their circumstances. That does not mean idealistic hopes will someday become reality; it means a making fearless inventory of one's own strengths and weaknesses. It also means accepting whatever the situation may be and working within that reality as effective as possible. When a leader takes this first step and accepts the truth, their ability to solve problems and increase team productivity increases (Staver, 2012).

Another thing a leader can do is take action. Delaying action can limit leadership effectiveness and can ultimately be paralyzing for a team or organization. Leaders must also exercise discretion and know when to take risks and when not to. The best way for a leader to make a decision is to analyze as much information that is available to them. It becomes vitally important that a leader demonstrate good analytical skills and make decisions based on that analysis. Decisions should not be based entirely on scientific analysis either. A human element, the gut or feeling element, must also be considered. While science and human feelings are often polar opposites, a good leader will learn how to maintain a healthy balance between the two.

Drawing too heavily on either side can lead to decisions that are not as effective as they could have been (Staver, 2012).

The next thing a good leader must do is to take responsibility for their decisions. Actions are certainly important for organizational growth, but action without responsibility can lead to disaster. The more a company promotes accountability in leadership's decisions the more likely that company will have success. A mark that truly separates a good leader from the rest of the pack is when a leader inspires followers to be accountable and responsible as well (Staver, 2012).

One aspect of leadership that cannot be understated is the importance of recognizing the progress of the followers a leader directs. When a leader's expectations are clear it is easier for those inspired by the leader to produce positive results. It is important to note that a delicate balance exists between under-recognizing and over-recognizing. Each is as potentially detrimental to a team as the other. Acknowledging progress is something that is not simply demonstrated by a reward of food, a special designation, or a bonus. Truly acknowledging the progress of a team requires a leader to accurately express how that progress matters to that individual leader. A certain level of vulnerability is required to accomplish this, however (Staver, 2012).

Stagnation is something that every person in every level of an organization must try to avoid. Especially for leaders it is important to be open to new habits. Too often however, leaders cling to previous habits that may have been successful. Some habits leaders must be committed to include accountability, communicating powerfully, and coaching (Staver, 2012).

What exactly is accountability? The answer depends on how it is used. Accountability can be used as a positive factor to help employees or it can be used as punishment. If accountability is used correctly it can greatly strengthen any organization and could be viewed as a gift. It is not an opportunity to engage in helicopter management or constantly hovering over employees and watching their every move. If this style is practiced it will not take long for the employees to resent the leader. Accountability should be observance with the whole picture in mind, asking good questions, and encouraging corrections when needed (Staver, 2012).

The reason accountability is needed is to ensure organizational goals are met. A leader must be cautious when outlining these goals. If no freedom is given in how the goals are accomplished adverse outcomes can result such as decreased productivity, lack of pride in completed work, and an absence in momentum. Clarity about organizational goals without a leader hovering over their employees while still allowing flexibility in how those goals are accomplished is the best way to understand accountability (Staver, 2012).

Communication and doing so in a powerful and effective manner is another important habit to adopt. Powerful communication involves communicating clearly and tactfully. When communication is clear there is no room for open interpretation about what is being said. However when this aim to be concise is taken too far and can easily turn into bluntness which many can find offensive. That is where a need for tact comes into play. Tactfulness in its' extreme form can be perceived as ambiguity. So a balance between clarity and tact is necessary for powerful communication. To best achieve this balance it is important to understand the point in advance of communicating, know ones' audience, and then deliver the message compendiously and without austerity (Staver, 2012).

The third new habit a good leader should practice is coaching. Similar to accountability, coaching should not be viewed or used as a form of punishment. Rather it should be used as a tool to advance each individual's level of performance. "There is no way you can possibly drive performance if you are not spending one-on-one time with your followers in meaningful, performance-based conversation" (Staver, 2012, p. 163). The ultimate objective in coaching is to achieve the highest level of performance and actualization possible. Coaching comes with its own set of challenges because no matter what a leader cannot control or change another person. If a person is not coachable the skill of the coach is irrelevant. For coaching to be effective all persons involved must be willing to accept and apply change (Staver, 2012).

The final aspect of effective leadership is to kindle new life; to inspire and build passion in not only oneself but also one's followers. Inspiring and building passion are not accomplished in one single giant step; instead it should be done slowly in the same way that when a spark is added to kindling to build a fire it slowly spreads to consume the entire pile of wood. If followers do not feel kindled they will struggle to fully incorporate anything (Staver, 2012).

Accepting one's circumstances, taking action, taking responsibility, acknowledging progress, committing to new habits, and kindling inspiration all come together to form the make-up of a courageous leader. Taking the first letter of each above mentioned strategy combine to form an acronym A-T-T-A-C-K (Staver, 2012). Using the "attack" strategy to become a courageous leader is an effective way to improve performance in both the organization as a whole and the individuals that comprise the organization.

A truly effective leader is one that not only inspires their subordinates, but also can “tap into existing energies, discover the strengths, and remove barriers to further progress” (Marquet, 2012, p. 179). Any organization will undergo periods of growth and stagnation. The key to organizational success is for leaders to recognize and establish the sense of purpose that existed during the moments of progress and growth, and sustain the drive that motivates ones employees toward continual growth and success. One way to accomplish this is to maintain open and frequent lines of communication. Also monitoring output efficiency and recognizing individual successes. Over time previous successes can be imbued on the past as the organization’s legacy. Allowing the legacy to be a constant goal or standard of performance will minimize the periods of stagnation and disappointment (Marquet, 2012).

Guiding principles that a leader should seek to inspire within those in an organization include initiative, innovation, intimate technical knowledge, courage, commitment, continuous improvement, integrity, empowerment, teamwork, openness, and timeliness (Marquet, 2012). Initiative is taking action without direction. Innovation is looking at new methods of accomplishing the same goals. Intimate technical knowledge is fully learning what is required of a particular position. Courage is choosing to do the right thing especially when the right thing may be uncomfortable or undesirable. Commitment is being present when going to work, not just a mindless routine. Continuous improvement is an ambition to continually improve. Integrity is honesty amongst each other and within ones’ self. Empowerment is encouraging subordinates to take action and support them when mistakes are made. Teamwork is the cliché all-for-one-and-one-for-all mentality not undercutting each other as well. Openness is the freedom and encouragement to speak ones’ mind. Finally timeliness means doing things punctually (Marquet, 2012). Showing up to work on time, finishing projects promptly, and



anything else that requires timeliness is done so with a desire for professional punctuality. Any leader or manager that adopts these guiding principles and instills them into their followers will see a more productive and cohesive team.

## **Management Theories**

Leadership and management have seen an increase in studies and theories dating back to the late nineteenth century. One of the first theorists was Henry Fayol. It should be noted here that Henry Fayol's theory of management is one that prescribes a rigid and strict hierarchy and is considered a classical approach to management. A classical approach to management tends to view an organization as a functioning machine with particular emphasis on specialization and standardization. It would be logical to infer that since Fayol developed his theory over a hundred years ago; many of the ideas and principles are outdated and not applicable to organizations in the modern world. This inference would be incorrect, because all one needs to do is examine their daily activities to observe the prevalence of classical management principles. One example is to examine the process of obtaining fast food and the process involved in preparing the food. Standardization and specialization are undoubtedly obvious in this process (Miller, 2015).

## **Henry Fayol's Theory of Classical Management**

His contributions to management theory include five essential elements of management. Fayol's essential elements describe in a generalized manner what duties each manager should do. These elements are planning, organization, command, coordination, and control (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). It is interesting to note that communication is not included in the essential elements of management. Likely an implicit quality, there is no doubt that communication is vital to the success of any element of management.

Planning involves foresight to best attain organizational goals. Organization concerns the distribution of human resources and the evaluation of those resources. Command involves setting tasks for employees to meet goals. Coordination refers to the different activities within an organization and how they can be applied to the whole organization for maximum benefit. Control is the comparison of goals to activities to ensure those goals are met (Miller, 2015).

If the essential elements of management demonstrate what a manager should do, then the fourteen principles of management describe how a manager should enact those elements. These principles include: division of work, authority, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to the general interests, remuneration, centralization, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative, and *esprit de corps*. Fayol cautioned, "Principles are flexible and capable of adaption to every need" (Pryor & Taneja, 2010, p. 491).

The fourteen principles can be grouped into four sets which deal with how an organization should be managed. The first set is principles relate to the organizational structure. The following six principles of management prescribe a structured and hierarchal organization. In this set the scalar chain prescribes that an organization should have a strict vertical hierarchy and communication should follow this hierarchy as well. Unity of command states that an employee should receive orders from only one supervisor. Unity of direction says that when activities have a similar goal they should be controlled by a single manager. Division of labor details that when employees are assigned a limited number of tasks; those tasks are more likely to be completed. Order states that each employee should have an appointed place and task. And span of control states that the fewer employees a manager is responsible for the more effective that manager will be (Miller, 2015).

The next three principles deal with power relationships within an organization. Centralization says that when management has control over decision making and employee activities an organization will be most effective. Authority and responsibility infers that a managers' authority is derived from their position within the organization and from innate personal traits and characteristics, however responsibility and accountability must be exercised to balance the authority. Discipline declares that adherence to organizational rules and obedience to the managers that direct the workforce is a necessity (Miller, 2015).

The next sets of principles govern the way rewards are apportioned. Remuneration of personnel is rewarding employees for their work with appropriate salaries and benefits. This principle operates under the notion that employees work performance is determinate of the remunerations they receive. Equity refers to remuneration and any other aspect of organizational behavior should be doled out impartially. Tenure stability states that sufficient time on the job to achieve maximum performance should be guaranteed by the organization (Miller, 2015).

The last set of principles governs the attitude of the organization. Subordination of individual interest to general interest simply refers to putting the interests of the organization above any particular individual interest. Initiative describes how a manager should value the efforts of an individual and direct those efforts to best serve the organization. *Esprit de corps* denotes the loyalty, pride, and brotherhood that are established amongst those in the organization and no dissidents should be allowed to endanger it (Miller, 2015).

Henry Fayol describes how an organization should operate and how it should be structured. He insists that in order for an organization to be effective they must follow the above stated principles. It should be noted that his theories are of a prescriptive nature. It does not

examine and describe how an organization actually functions and is structured. While relatively strong evidence supports that his theory does not accurately describe or explain how an organization functions, his theory of classical management has dramatically shaped how management is taught and evaluated in a professional business atmosphere (Miller, 2015).

### **Max Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy**

Another popular management theory from the classical management approach is Max Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy. His theory differs from Henry Fayol in that Fayol's theory offers a prescriptive approach to how managers should act and how organizations should be run. Weber's theory is termed an ideal type theory. This does not suggest a particular form an organization should have but rather prescribes the ideal ways an organization should operate (Miller, 2015).

Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy should not be viewed as either an organization is or is not a bureaucracy. Rather his theory should be viewed as a measuring stick to how close an organization functions with relation to the ideal bureaucracy. In other words,

Bureaucracy is a condition that exists along a continuum, rather than being a condition that is either present or absent. This point may be expanded to state that bureaucracy is a form of organization which exists along a number of continua or dimensions. (Hall, 1963, p. 33)

Within Weber's theory are six facets of bureaucracy. These include a clearly defined hierarchy, division of labor, centralization, closed systems, the importance of rules, and the function of authority. A clearly defined hierarchy is similar to Fayol's ideas of structure in an

organization as are the facets of centralization and division of labor. Where Weber's theory is different from Fayol begins with his ideas of a closed system (Miller, 2015).

In a closed system an organization or bureaucracy should be secure from outside influences. Distractions and interruptions can result from external influences which can impede on how smoothly the organization functions (Miller, 2015).

Another aspect that differs from Fayol is the importance of rules. Weber argues a rational approach should be taken to rules, and all contingencies should be accounted for in those rules as well. He also advocates for these rules to be arrayed in a formalized written form (Miller, 2015).

The most important aspect of Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy lies in the aspect relating to the functioning of authority. He insists that bureaucracies operate under an official authority, obedience, or sovereignty. This authority has three possible roots: traditional authority, charismatic authority, and rational-legal authority (Miller, 2015).

With traditional authority, power comes from a conventional belief system regarding what positions should have authority. For example many companies have presidents or chief executive officers that hold a certain level of authority that may not necessarily be based on the individuals' abilities or conduct (Miller, 2015). Weber believed this authority came from "the established belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the legitimacy of the status of those exercising authority under them.... Obedience is owed to the person of the chief who occupies the traditionally sanctioned position of authority and who is (within its sphere) bound by tradition (Constas, 1958, p. 401)

Charismatic authority refers to the magnetism of the individual and their ability to inspire and attract followers. Weber felt this authority's "legitimacy rests on the devotion to the specific and exceptional sanctity or heroism of an individual person and of the normative patterns or order revealed or ordained by him" (Constas, 1958, p. 401). This type of authority is often seen in political leaders who rally support based on their positions on particular matters or events. The danger in charismatic leaders is their authority can be unstable. Often the followers are led by positive emotions evoked by the leader. If the leader does something that disappoints or angers the followers then the power or authority the leader had will diminish (Miller, 2015).

Due to its' unstable nature, Weber felt that charisma must routinize itself in order to be a reliable source of authority. He believed this could be accomplished through two means: A hereditary line where the charisma is passed to a hereditary successor and a charisma that attaches to the position not the person occupying it. The second type he believed would eventually transition to a legal-rational authority (Constas, 1958).

The final origin of authority lies in rational-legal authority. This type of authority differs from traditional and charismatic because those two refer to the authority commanded by an individual. In rational-legal authority the power relies on expertise, norms, and rules making it an impersonal position of authority (Miller, 2015). Weber stated, "Legitimacy rests on a belief in the 'legality' of patterns of normative rules and the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands. . . . Obedience is owed to the legally established impersonal order" (Constas, 1958, p. 401)

Weber believed that all three types of authority can exist in an organization both singularly and in combination. He felt that traditional-legal authority is the one that dominated a

bureaucratic system. So much so Weber promoted this type of authority as the foundation for bureaucratic functioning (Miller, 2015).

### **Frederick Taylor's Theory of Scientific Management**

Another management theorist who contributed classical management ideas was Frederick Taylor. If Fayol proposed how an entire organization should be structured, Taylor focused more on the interaction between manager and employee. There are four tenets to the Theory of Scientific Management: there is one best way to do every job, proper selection of workers, training workers, and an inherent difference between management and workers (Miller, 2015).

Taylor developed his principles in the early 1900s and at that time the customary way for new employees to learn a skill or trade was through apprenticeship. He saw many flaws and inequalities develop from this practice. To combat this he formulated that one best way to do every job can be established through time and motion studies (Miller, 2015). Establishing the most efficient way of performing a job was accomplished through observing different ways of doing the same job, and concluded which option was best. That method was taught to all employees performing that job.

The second precept of Taylor is proper selection of workers. He believed only the best workers should be selected for a particular job. If an employee could not perform that job in a satisfactory manor they were moved to a different position. If they could not efficiently perform any job then they were terminated (Miller, 2015).

The third idea goes hand in hand with the one best way to do every job. Training of workers would be conducted based on the conclusions of the time and motion studies (Miller, 2015)

The final aspect of Taylor's Scientific Theory of Management is an inherent difference between managers and employees. He proposed that managers should perform planning and administrative duties while workers should perform the labor. In this regard, Taylor advocated for a firm division of labor where the workers performed physical labor directed by management (Miller, 2015).

### **Human Relations Approach to Management**

The classical management theorist viewed organizations as a whole and gave little regard to the feelings and needs of the individual worker. Managers that only draw on classical management ideas will likely be viewed as difficult to work for or highly impersonal. While many of those theories were postulated during the early 1900s it is evident in many organizations that elements from those theories are still practiced today. A different approach to management is the human relations approach (Miller, 2015).

One of the bedrock ideas that human relation theories draw on are from the experiments conducted by Nathaniel Hawthorne. Through a series of experiments, he discovered that when attention was given to individuals; changes in their behavior would result. This phenomenon, previously undiscovered at the time, was termed the Hawthorne effect. Essentially, Hawthorne discovered that when attention was paid to social factors of workers; worker output increased. This concept became a launching pad for others to conduct social experiments in the name of improving workplace productivity (Miller, 2015).

### **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

One theorist that emerged was Abraham Maslow. His Hierarchy of Needs Theory is also the basis of many future management theorists. Maslow proposes human beings function and



are driven based on needs that all build upon each other. The first need is the physiological need which encompasses the basic needs to sustain human life. Including food, water, sleep, and gratification of the senses, a manager or organization can satisfy these needs by providing wages to procure such things and by ensuring working conditions that are not detrimental to the human body (Miller, 2015).

The second need is the need for safety. These needs include the freedom from danger and environmental impacts. For a manager or organization to provide this, again through wages to obtain housing and afford working conditions conducive to safe environments. The third need is the Affiliation need. While this need has specific social ties, from a business standpoint co-workers develop working relationships and establish rapport to fulfill the need of acceptance or belonging. The fourth need is esteem needs. This refers to individuals' need for a sense of accomplishment or feeling of achievement. This need encompasses internal needs and external needs. A manager can fulfill this by challenging them to excel and rewarding them when they do, also by establishing a reward structure (Miller, 2015). The final need is the self-actualization need. Maslow defines this by "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Miller, 2015, p. 41). The best way an organization can provide this is by offering positions or projects that allow individuals to challenge them.

Maslow believed these needs were hierarchal which means one need must be satisfied before the next need can be met. In essence, a person is not going to try to become everything they are capable of if they do not have food to eat and a house to live in. For a manager or organization if the basic wages are not adequate; affiliation and actualization needs will not be met. It is evident that Maslow drew on the Hawthorne studies for his ideas on affiliation, esteem, and actualization (Miller, 2015).

## Douglas McGregor Theory X and Theory Y

Another theorist that emerged was Douglas McGregor (Miller, 2015). His Theory X and Theory Y Management represented two opposing assumptions a manager could make about the workforce. The Theory X manager represented those who drew heavily on the negative views of classical management theory. McGregor felt three assumptions could be made of a Theory X manager. He argued that “management was responsible for organizing money, material and people; people must be controlled and motivated to fit organizational needs; without intervention and direction, people would be passive or resistant to the achievement of organizational needs” (Miller, 2015, p. 42).

Theory X also makes assumptions about the average worker. The first is that they are by nature lazy and will always work as little as they can. Second, they are ambitionless and prefer following rather than accepting responsibility. Third, they care nothing for needs in the organization because they are fundamentally egocentric. Fourth, they do not enjoy change and are naturally resistant to it. Lastly, they are not intelligent, they are naïve, and easily tricked by the pretenders and the manipulators (Miller, 2015). Managers that operate under this guise often have a negative and pessimistic view of their subordinates. These types of managers often exhibit coercive and autocratic styles, and often employ hostile tactics of punishment and threats (Sahin, 2012).

By stark contrast a manager operating under Theory Y assumptions view their subordinates on the completely opposite end of the spectrum. McGregor believed those with a Theory Y mentality viewed physical labor or mental expenditure as something natural in the same way as rest and leisure. He believed people would exert self-motivation and self-control toward goals they were committed to. Rewards such as self-actualization and satisfaction of ego

were powerful enough to inspire commitment to organizational goals. He felt the average person accepted and desired responsibility. He believed creativity and resourcefulness was not limited to a few individuals in the organization but rather was widely distributed. He also believed that because of the confines of an industrial environment, the full intellectual potential of individuals are only partially used (Miller, 2015).

Douglas McGregor was an advocate for the use of Theory Y management. He felt like organizational goals would be accomplished, and believed that the workforce would be more fulfilled thus more productive when managers adopted this mentality. Instead of the negative and pessimistic outlook on people, Theory Y managers hold a positive and optimistic view of subordinates. Managers with this mentality often have a more participative style of management using positive motivations and rewards. Overall, Theory Y managers view their subordinates as human beings that have person, emotional, and social needs. When those needs are met they become more productive workers (Sahin, 2012).

Taking McGregor's theory a little farther by Meyer and Allen is the concept of affective commitment which is "the extent to which subordinates are emotionally attached to, identify with and are involved in the organization" (Sahin, 2012, p. 161). Studies where affective commitment was found in the workforce showed desirable individual and organizational outcomes were present. Feelings of affective commitment were found when individuals felt organizational support and integrity, and when they felt the organization valued them on an individual level (Sahin, 2012).

The Leader-Member Exchange theory also expounds on Theory X and Y managers' styles and subordinates affective commitment to the organization. "According to this theory,

social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust.

Subordinates develop relationships based on the implicit expectation of reciprocally beneficial exchanges based on trust and felt obligation.” (Sahin, 2012, pp. 161-162).

In a study conducted by Sahin, a positive correlation was discovered between Theory Y managers and affective commitment. The reason for this positive association is because when a Theory Y management style is used, subordinates may believe the manager is providing resources both palpable and immaterial. Subordinates repay this with desirable behaviors including affective commitment. In other words when a manager is nice and provides things for their subordinates, the subordinates desire and feel obligated to repay these generous acts with behavior that will encourage further positive treatment (Sahin, 2012).

Managers using Theory X and Y assumptions about human motivation will create, exhibit, and support conduct and policies that can have autocratic and democratic leadership styles. McGregor believed that leaders may draw upon and use principles from each theory but doing so did not necessarily classify them as one or the other. McGregor goes on to say that different management styles may be required in different circumstances. (Sahin, 2012).

Thus far classical and human relation approaches have been covered. The classical approach views an organization as a machine with little regard for the employee, and the human relation approach values the employee and views the organization like a family. The next type of approach is a human resources approach. In this approach the individual is not only valued as a person but also as a potential intellectual contributor to the organization. Essentially the human resources approach expounds on the human relations approach (Miller, 2015).

## Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

One particular idea from the human relations approach was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. They developed the Managerial/Leadership Grid. The duo created this grid as a tool to increase organizational efficiency and effectiveness and to improve the fulfillment of individual workers (Miller, 2015). The Managerial Grid was created with the understanding that when leaders show a concern for people and production they will be most successful. The Grid is based on an X-axis that concerns production and a Y-axis that concerns people. A number from one to nine is assigned for each axis and then the point is established on the grid. Lower numbers indicate a low concern for the respective aspect and higher numbers designate a high regard (Blake & Mouton, 1982).

The first management style denoted by the grid as 1, 1 is considered impoverished management. In this form of management there is a low concern for both the people and the level of production. This type of leader cares nothing for organizational goals or for the needs of the individuals working for them (Miller, 2015). The next style on the grid is 1, 9 and this is considered country club management. This style is characterized by a low regard for production but the utmost concern for people. This kind of manager will prioritize a friendly and pleasant work environment above all other goals (Blake & Mouton, 1982).

The next style is 5, 5 which is considered middle of the road management. In this style a manager has a balanced concern for production and employee satisfaction. While the manager is equal in their concern for people and production, neither is a priority. The next style is 9, 1 otherwise known as authority-compliance. This style is characterized with the ultimate priority on organizational output at the expense of the worker. Many managers that have adopted a classical management mindset will operate in this manner. The manager may appear to their

superiors as a successful manager but most likely will be viewed by their subordinates as undesirable to work for (Miller, 2015).

The final style in the Managerial Grid is portrayed by 9, 9 otherwise known as team management. Where a middle of the road manager showed equal concern for both production and people while neither was a priority; a 9, 9 manager makes both aspects the highest priority. A manager operating under this mindset will believe that “interdependent action of committed, talented, and satisfied individuals is necessary and the best way to achieve organizational goals” (Miller, 2015, p. 50). Blake and Mouton both advocate the 9, 9 on the Managerial Grid to be the ideal approach for any organization, because ultimate concern for the organization and the people working for it will maximize productivity and employee satisfaction (Blake & Mouton, 1982).

Several different management and leadership theories have been covered which begs to ask the question which method or style is best? On one end of the spectrum theorists say there is no one best method of leadership. Each situation requires a different style. Other theorists argue there is one best method of leadership which is learned from the emerging behavioral sciences. With two opposing ideas of management both views cannot be correct. Because there is no empirical evidence to definitively support either perspective, a contradiction exists (Blake & Mouton, Theory and Research for Developing a Science of Leadership, 1982).

Through a series of experiments, Blake and Mouton have discovered ten principles of human behavior that are keys to exercising effective leadership; they do concede that these principles are subject to refinement based on legitimate research findings in the future (Blake &

Mouton, Theory and Research for Developing a Science of Leadership, 1982). The ten principles they discovered are as follows:

1. Fulfillment through participation is the motivation that gives character to human activity and supports productivity.
2. Open communication is essential for the exercise of self and shared responsibility.
3. Accepting others as capable of reaching standards of excellence promotes trust and respect.
4. Shared participation in problem solving and decision making stimulates active involvement and commitment, productivity, and creative thinking.
5. Conflicts are solved by direct confrontation of their causes, with understanding and agreement as the basis of cooperative effort.
6. Mutual agreement is the strongest basis for supervision.
7. Effective interaction between boss and subordinate enhances synergy.
8. Management is by objectives.
9. Organization members who cooperate are interdependent in giving mutual support.
10. Learning from experience is through critique and feedback. (Blake & Mouton, Theory and Research for Developing a Science of Leadership, 1982, p. 285)

Considering the everyday challenges a manager faces, a grain of truth may be present in the situationalism approach. Because no two situations are the same, each situation must be managed differently. This idea leads to the separation of the principles and the strategies to which they are employed (Blake & Mouton, Theory and Research for Developing a Science of Leadership, 1982).

## Rensis Likert

Another theorist in the human resources approach was Rensis Likert. He hypothesized that four different forms of organizations existed and are differentiated by factors such as communication, decision making, goals, control, and performance. The four different systems are denoted by roman numerals and range from I to IV (Miller, 2015).

In Likert's System I, he called it the exploitive authoritative organization. This system is categorized by inspiration through fear and threats, strictly downward and inaccurate communication, and top-level decision making and control. Organizations that exhibit this behavior employ the worst aspects of classical management theories (Miller, 2015).

System II otherwise known as benevolent authoritative organizations is characterized by motivation through financial and self-esteem rewards. There is limited communication from top level managers to low level employees, and all decisions are made from the top. The biggest difference between System I and System II is System II does not exploit the workforce in the way System I organizations do. Management still has a lack of trust and undervalues the opinions of the individual (Miller, 2015).

System III is considered the consultative organization. Here there is a definitive split from the first two systems. In this system decisions are still made at the top levels of the organization. When decisions are made however, the employees are consulted and their opinions are considered when those decisions are made. Communication moves freely from the top to the bottom of the organization as well (Miller, 2015).

System IV is the most desirable for those who agree with theorist like McGregor. This system is known as a participative organization. In this system decisions are made at all levels of



the organization and goals are agreed upon by consensus of the group. Communication flows in vertical directions throughout the organization as well as horizontally. Each potential contribution from an individual is valued, and rewards are given to individuals according to the idiosyncratic needs of each (Miller, 2015).

These systems represent the broad spectrum of how different organizations operate and the attitudes and mindsets managers have that operate under these systems. Likert goes on to advocate System IV beyond a simple managerial mindset. He encourages organizations to enact structural changes that enhance both participation of individuals and organizational performance (Miller, 2015).

### **Communication**

An aspect of management that has been briefly touched on is communication. This is an aspect of humanity that is unavoidable; in order to be the most efficient and effective manager one must consider its' importance. The type of communication a manager uses will depend greatly on management theory they have adopted. For managers accepting classical management ideas, their communication model will follow that of task related communication. This means that communication will be strictly related to business related decisions with little to no concern for interpersonal relationship. The method of communication these organizations generally use are issued in written form, and communication within the organization comes from the top level and filters down with no communication travelling upward. Managers that adopt classical management theories will frequently communicate with a decisively formal style (Miller, 2015).

Other kinds of communication managers' use with subordinates are innovation-related and maintenance-related communication. Innovation-related communication is related to communication concerning new ideas. Maintenance-related communication is related to sociological issues that support human relations (Miller, 2015). Managers that operate with a classical management mentality will discourage innovation and maintenance-related communication because such things would be viewed as counterproductive to organizational goals. The assumption here would be a scientifically best way to perform a job has already been determined, and workers are not capable of presenting better solutions to workplace decisions (Miller, 2015).

Communication within organizations that have adopted human relation or resource management theories will function quite differently. In these organizations the opinions of the individual are valued and encouraged to further organizational goals. Communication in these organizations will have multi-directional communication, meaning not only will information flow downward from upper management, but also vertically upward and horizontal. It can also be free flowing where all members of an organization are encouraged to communicate with peers and supervisors alike (Miller, 2015).

In classical minded organizations communication will almost always be received in written form due to the value of highly organized structures and rules. In human resource and relation minded organizations communication can be written but may include face-to-face, telephone, a variety of technological forms, and other forms of verbal and non-verbal communication (Miller, 2015).

It has been established that communication in classical management organization will take on a highly formalized style. This goes back to the classical theorists' importance placed on structure and formalities. Little to no slang or jargon will be present in such forms of communication and ideas will always be clear and concise. By contrast in organizations that have implemented human resource or relation management styles can have formal communication. It would not be uncommon to find communication taking place on an informal level as well (Miller, 2015).

## **Power**

Power is something that exists in all organizations and is something all managers contain. How a manager uses this power and where the source of their power comes from are different matters entirely. Three different ideas of power are present the traditional approach, the symbological approach, and the radical-critical approach (Miller, 2015).

In the classical approach, power is viewed as a concrete object that people or groups hold. Scholars that adopt this approach associate power with a status obtained in the organization and the degree of control exercised over capital. In the symbological approach, power is apparent as a byproduct of relationships and collaborations. Those accepting this school of thought focus on how an understanding of power is obtained through communications and how sociological relationships are formed within an organization (Miller, 2015). The third approach is the radical-critical approach. Scholars adopting this approach tend to focus on the deeper structures of power; the unwritten constructs that go beyond superficial power structures. Radical-critical theorists "explore ways in which economic, social, and communicative relationship produce and maintain organizational power relationships (Miller, 2015, p. 102).

So where does power originate? The potential sources of power in an organization can be limitless but they can include the use of organizational structures, rules, and regulations, the control of decision-making processes, technology and information, control of informal organization, formal authority, control of modes and means of production, and organizational discourse (Miller, 2015).

The idea control of modes and means of production refers to substructures of society. Modes of production entail economic settings that motivate the processes of production. In a capitalist method of operation, Marx argues that power is based on sequestering surplus labor which creates a conflict between workers and owners. This conflict is something that may be unnoticed by both workers and owners. The realization that profit is determined by market conditions instead of unpaid labor. The worker would be paid for services rendered and would not be aware of unpaid labor (Miller, 2015).

The term means of production simply refers to actual processes that yield products or services. Karl Marx believed,

Industrialization dehumanized and isolated workers from work and work products. The division of labor, treatment of labor as a commodity, and the separation of the individual from his or her product produced a fragmented, lost person, estranged from his or her own production activities. (Miller, 2015, p. 102)

This is in sync with the idea that as jobs become more specialized and monotonous the worker becomes devalued and seen as easily replaceable. This unspoken form of power is certainly present in many industries today. It also allows for management to easily and frequently monitor the behavior of workers (Miller, 2015).

While many different forms and sources of power exist, it is an inescapable fact that any person involved in management will be faced with certain facets of power. To most effectively and efficiently use whatever power is afforded to them, managers must recognize the extent of the power and control they have and use them responsibly. With this in consideration perhaps all members involved in management or leadership would do well to take note and practice the old adage “And just as you want men to do to you, you also do to them likewise” (Luke 6:31, New King James Version).

Power and control will have many different forms and flavors depending on the organization. In organizations that are team oriented and follow human resource or relation management theories a new form of control is emerging. This is called concertive control and is defined when, “the locus of control in an organization shifts from management to workers, who collaborate to create rules and norms that govern their behavior. The role of top management in this process is to provide a value-based corporate vision that team members use to infer parameters and premises that guide their day-to-day actions” (Miller, 2015, p. 109).

Power within an organization may not always lie with management. In a form of power called hegemony, dominant groups lead other groups to accept subordination as standard and acceptable. Another way of explaining this would be manufactured consent where employees willingly accept hierarchal power structures (Miller, 2015). When this process occurs, one group is controlled by another through means of active participation and coercion.

This creates an atmosphere of oppression that can lead to resistance and emancipation. Resistance simply refers to ways in which workers can attempt to counter the way organizations exert power and control. Emancipation refers to the liberation of people from restrictive

traditions, power relationships, and ideologies that limit opportunities, inhibit the fulfillment of needs, and distort overall satisfaction (Miller, 2015).

## **Emotion**

In every aspect of human interactions there is an element of emotion that can ultimately affect the outcome. From an organizational standpoint most models and structures are centered on a rational and logical approach. Even conflict management is taught to be approached from a logical standpoint. Anyone that has ever made a decision can attest to the fact that logic does not always prevail; emotional decisions are often made instead.

Theorists originally adopted a concept of bounded rationality to explain how decisions could not always be made rationally due to the intellectual and circumstantial limitations of rationality. Then a new idea came about. Instead of bounded rationality it is bounded emotionality. In this approach theorists stated that organizations should consider emotional life as a central focus (Miller, 2015).

Some professions even require the use of emotions as part of the job. Occupations in the medical field often place a high value on bedside manner or how well the professional can empathize with the patient. This type of requirement is referred to as emotional labor. Organizations view emotional labor as important when it can be used to increase organizational success (Miller, 2015).

Emotional importance is not exclusive to professions where emotional labor is necessary. Emotions also develop from workplace relationships. Positive and negative emotions can develop from such relationships. One negative emotional relationship is when workplace bullying occurs. Workplace bullying can be defined by “persistent, verbal, and nonverbal

aggression at work that includes personal attacks, social ostracism, and a multitude of other painful messages and hostile interactions” (Miller, 2015, p. 201). On the positive end of the emotional scale is compassion. This can be defined by connecting, responding, and making a positive difference in other peoples’ lives.

Negative emotions are certainly a concern for any manager or organization in that such things left unchecked can lead to workplace stress and burnout. Workplace stress can be defined as “the response of adaptation, mediated by individual characteristics, response generated by external actions or events which require a special mental and/or physical effort from the individual” (Ciucescu & Feraru, 2010, p. 30). Stress can lead to a condition known as burnout. Burnout is when an individual feels worn out from the stresses at work. On any given day the stresses of a job may not be significant, but cumulatively individuals can suffer from emotional exhaustion, lack of personal accomplishment, and experience depersonalization (Miller, 2015).

With burnout being a major concern for any manager or organization, identifying the causes of burnout are particularly important. Three of the most commonly identified causes of burnout are workload, role conflict, and role ambiguity. It is here a successful manager must be intuitive enough to recognize the early signs of burnout. Work load related burn out can be from the volume of work or in the difficulty of the work. Role conflict can occur when an individual has job responsibilities that create two conflicting roles. Role ambiguity tends to occur when the role requirements for a job are abstruse and uncertain (Miller, 2015).

Some strategies an individual can use to cope with burnout include problem-centered coping, appraisal-centered coping, and emotion-centered coping. The key is to avoid dysfunctional behavior as a result of burnout; behavior such as substance abuse and absenteeism.

Problem-centered coping involves examining the situation and devising strategies to deal with direct causes of burnout. Appraisal-centered coping involves changing the perspective of how stressful situations are viewed. Emotional-centered coping deals with negative affective outcomes of burnout (Miller, 2015).

While those strategies may work for the individual, a manager cannot assume an individual suffering from burnout will take steps on their own to rectify the problem. Some managerial ways to deal with burnout include participation in decision making offering social support. When a manager or organization provides employees the opportunity to participate in decision making, improvements in worker satisfaction and productivity have been observed. By offering participation in decision making two potential causes of burnout can be alleviated; role conflict and role ambiguity (Miller, 2015).

Another strategy a manager can use to combat burnout is through offering social support. Social support can include emotional support, informational support, and instrumental support. Offering emotional support involves demonstrating empathy or the ability to relate and sympathize with the problems or issues an individual faces. Emotional support can even include offering an ear to listen or a shoulder to cry on (Miller, 2015).

Informational support involves providing details and guidance which can decrease stressors such as work load and role conflict. Instrumental support can be provided in situations where physical or material assistance is required. Examples of such support include helping an individual finish a project, increasing the number of employees to lighten work-loads, or providing additional training to improve acquire new job skills (Miller, 2015).



## Conclusion

Many different forms of leadership exist, and the type of leader that will be most effective can be different for each situation an organization may face. For instance the type of leader who is successful in a new company with few employees may not be successful in an established company with a large number of employees. One thing is certain; a successful leader must also be a successful communicator. Whether that means communicating between other members of management, communicating to one's subordinates, or communicating outside of the organization; a successful leader must be able to do any and all of these proficiently.

Considering the many issues a manager faces, it is important to also consider what factors motivates the value of reinforcements and punishments. Factors that increase that value are referred to as establishing operators. Decreasing those values is referred to as abolishing operators (McGinnis, Houchins-Juarez, McDaniel, & Kennedy, 2010). A manager must be intuitive enough to recognize the distinction these values can be on each individual. For example words of affirmation may be the most effective reinforcement for one employee while it may have no effect on another. Also a reward for productivity may be the most effective reinforcement for some, and in others it has no effect. At the same time threat of punishment may be the most effective motivator for some while for others it has quite the opposite effect (McGinnis, Houchins-Juarez, McDaniel, & Kennedy, 2010). For this method to be most effective a supervisor will have to experiment with different reinforcements and punishments for each individual; noting which are more effective and abandoning those attempts that are not effective.

While issues that arise will certainly warrant negative reinforcement or punishment, these methods should only be used when absolutely necessary and all other means of inspiration have

been exhausted. There is no prescription for a manager that will encompass all employees, and for a manager to be successful they must be intuitive and observant enough to realize the needs of each subordinate and tailor a method of inspiring them accordingly. If a manager is not capable of such; an organization should examine their supervisory training and also search for competent and qualified individuals that can fill those shoes.

Every organization is structured differently and the same can be said for the employees and management within those organizations. While a prescriptive solution for every situation is certainly desirable, it is absolutely unfeasible. Each manager will have a different style he or she may prefer and that style may need to be altered based on the personality of the particular individual that manager is challenged with handling. One thing is certain however, while many different styles and forms of management exist; success will always follow those who demonstrate empathy and show concern for the emotional well-being of his or her subordinates.

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