MAPPING THE LEADER/MANAGER

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Introduction
A common feature of many of the more recent ‘business turnaround’ successes has been an attempt to influence the whole management culture of the organisation. What seems to have been sought in particular is a style which:

- emphasises concern for people as much as enthusiasm for the task;
- seeks totally new, imaginative outputs as much as improving upon old ones.

Many current writers on management and leadership seems to be advocating a similar combination, but so far no adequate model or visual representation of it appears to have been developed. I believe that changes in the role of the manager mean that earlier ways of representing management style are becoming less relevant. New models have become necessary and this article is intended to help in the development of such a framework.

In it I outline a way of describing leadership and management style, which simply takes the ‘concern for task’ and ‘concern for relationships’ dimensions of many earlier models of management style, and combines these with the ‘transformational’ and ‘transactional’ dimensions now often used in discussing leadership.

The basic framework is shown in Fig. 1. It is intended to be of help to Management Development and Organisation Development practitioners in thinking about and describing changes needed, and hopefully achieved, at individual, team, departmental, or organisational level.

Management Style
It is not my intention to attempt a history of the development of theories about management style; many such summaries are available already. What I must do, however, is indicate the main ways in which most well-known models
seem to differ from each other, as it is in its ability to resolve such differences that much of the benefit of this framework seems to lie. In doing so, therefore, I will need to cover some old ground.

**Dimensions Used**
The behaviours and attitudes identified over the years as ways of significantly differentiating between management styles have been remarkably consistent. There have nearly always been two descriptions: one basically ‘hard’, the other ‘soft’. Theories have tended to differ, however, in the way the dimensions were used.

**Either/Or**
Probably originating in the Human Relations movement’s reaction to the Scientific Management of the early 1900s, several approaches claimed that management style could be described as being one of two possible types. At Harvard, Bales (1958) reported that in small groups two quite different kinds of leader would emerge - one a **Task Leader**, the other a **Socio-Emotional Leader** - and that individuals could be either one or the other, but never both. McGregor (1960) pointed out the two basically opposed sets of beliefs that managers can have about their staff, calling these Theory X and Theory Y And in his studies, Likert (1961) found that supervisors could be either **job-centred** or **employee-centred**, noting that high-producing sections had a higher proportion of the latter type.

**More/Less**
For others, while the descriptions were very similar, the underlying model was of a single continuum upon which any manager could be ‘placed’. More of
one ‘style’ implied less of the other. A central idea that developed from work by the University of Michigan (Kahn and Katz, 1960) was the ‘Michigan Style Continuum’, with production-centred behaviour at one end and employee-centred behaviour at the other. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958, 1973), in their two classic articles in the Harvard Business Review described a range running from authoritarian to democratic. Fiedler’s (1967) model was based upon the degree to which the situation was favourable to the leader, but nevertheless assumed a continuum of style, from more task-oriented to more relationships-oriented.

**Both/And**
The leadership studies started in the 1940s at Ohio State University (Stogdill and Coons, 1957) identified similar factors, but called them initiating structure and consideration. Where this approach did differ, however, was in its finding that an individual could display varying amounts of both sorts of behaviour – that the two dimensions were independent. Other researchers following the same path were Blake and Mouton (1964) concern for task and

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**Figure 2. MANAGEMENT STYLE (Basic approaches)**
concern for relationships orientation; and Hersey and Blanchard (1977) – task behaviour and relationship behaviour.

Probably because it is a contingency theory (see below) a third dimension, effectiveness was included in the second of these but, although this can be useful, it is probably more accurately thought of as the result of a choice of style, rather than as a part of a description of the style itself.

Normative v Contingent Models
The second way in which the models differed (the first having been in how the dimensions were used) was in whether or not there was believed to be one generally applicable ‘best’ style. Some models (e.g. those of McGregor, Likert, and Blake and Mouton) were ‘normative’, clearly advocating one approach in particular. Others (e.g. Fiedler, Reddin, 1970, and Hersey and Blanchard) were ‘contingent’, saying that it all depends upon the circumstances prevailing at the time. This is a difference of opinion which will probably ‘run and run’ as there is still no general agreement. Most ‘competency-based’ approaches, for example, are essentially normative, whereas any ‘client-centred’ methods tend to be contingent and situational.

Attitudes or Behaviours
Some of the models (e.g. McGregor, and Blake and Mouton) are based upon the way the manager him/herself thinks or feels about the relative importance of the dimensions. Other models, the majority in fact (e.g. Likert, Tannenbaum and Schmidt, Fiedler, and Hersey and Blanchard) are based more upon observed behaviour, regardless of what the underlying reasons for it might be.

Only the Ohio studies seem to have set out to measure both, with a Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) given to the manager’s boss, associates or staff, and a Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) completed by the manager.

Interactive v Additive
Blake and Mouton’s ‘Managerial Grid’ and Hersey and Blanchard’s ‘Leader Effectiveness Model’ do appear fairly similar at first sight, even though we have seen that the former is essentially normative and attitude-based, the latter contingent and behaviour-based.

If we look at their descriptions of the high task/high relationship combination in each case, however, we discover another important difference.

Blake and Mouton: Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose leads to (my italics) relationships of trust and respect.

Hersey and Blanchard Seen as satisfying the needs of the group for setting goals and organizing work, also (my italics) providing high levels of socio-emotional support.

In the former, the two dimensions are interdependent, with enthusiasm of everyone for the task itself leading to improved relationships (‘interactive’). In
the latter, however, it could be interpreted that high task control on the part of
the manager is being made more acceptable because there is a high level of
supportive, caring behaviour (‘additive’). These two approaches are really quite
different, and neither seems to be fully covered by the other model.

For me the most interesting aspect of this last set of characteristics, however, is
that it leads us neatly into the area of possible difference between ‘leadership’
and ‘management’. If management style is to do with the relative emphasis on
the task or the relationships, as with Hersey and Blanchard, leadership appears
to be about the choice of direction and the generation of enthusiasm for the
task itself, as implied by Blake and Mouton.

**Leadership Style**

A clear distinction between the leader and the manager was put forward by
Abraham Zaleznik (1977) in a prize-winning article in the *Harvard Business
Review*. In this, he not only described the different activities of the two roles,
but suggested that they were sufficiently dissimilar to require a different type
of person in each case. While this might seem reasonable for people at the very
top of the organisation, I believe that many leadership qualities are also
required at lower levels, and that these can be possessed by good managers at
those levels too.

In essence, Zaleznik saw the leader as ‘using power to influence the thoughts
and actions of other people’, ‘taking of risks and striking out in new
directions’.

Using Edwin Land (of Polaroid camera fame) as an example, he said that
leaders are active instead of reactive, shaping ideas instead of responding to
them, and that they adopt a personal and active attitude towards goals. He
said that the influence a leader exerts in altering moods, evoking images and
expectations, and in establishing specific desires and objectives determines the
direction a business takes. The net result of this influence, he said, is to change
the way people think about what is desirable, possible and necessary.

In the same article, Theodore Levitt (1976) was quoted, describing how
‘management’ contrasts with this, saying that it consists of the rational
assessment of a situation and the systematic selection of goals and purposes;
the systematic development of strategies to achieve these goals; the
marshalling of the required resources; the rational design, organisation,
direction and control of the activities required to attain the selected purposes;
and, finally, the motivating and rewarding of people to do the work’.

In writing about leadership, the political scientist James McGregor Burns
(1978) drew a distinction between transforming leadership, which appears to

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While this may well have represented someone’s ideal of what management ought to be like, one
has to ask just how ‘rational’ much of our management practice really is, and how much is in fact
largely unconscious and irrational.
correspond to the first of these descriptions, and transactional leadership, roughly matching the second. As he put it: ‘The secret of transforming leadership is the capacity of leaders to have their goals clearly and firmly in mind, to fashion new institutions relevant to those goals, to stand back from immediate events and day-to-day routines and understand the potential and consequences of change.’

The two words, transformational and transactional have now entered the everyday vocabulary of organisational development, and do seem to offer a less ambiguous distinction than the contrasting labels ‘leader’ and ‘manager’.

John Nicholls (1988) pointed out, however, that ‘transforming’ in this context tends to be used in two distinct ways – either transforming organisations, or transforming people.

Good examples of the ‘people-transforming’ approach may be found in two books edited by John D. Adams (1984, 1986). Autobiographical books, on the other hand, seem to be more on the ‘organisation transforming’ side. Otherwise, most of the highly popular ‘excellence’ books and others studying the leadership approach of particularly successful captains of industry (e.g. by Tichy and Devanna, 1986) seem generally to mix up these two types of transformation.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also combined task leadership and people leadership under the one word ‘leadership’. ‘The problem with many organizations’, they said, ‘is that they tend to be overmanaged and underled. They may excel in the ability to handle the daily routine, but never question whether the routine should be done at all. There is a profound difference between management and leadership, and both are important. “To manage” means “to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct” “Leading” is “influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion.” The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. The difference may be summarised as activities of vision and judgement – effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines – efficiency.’

It is misleading, however, to suggest that leadership is needed only at the top of an organisation. Kotter (1988), for example, emphasised that leadership is needed not only at the top, but at virtually all levels of the organisation, including ‘even lower level managerial, professional, and technical employees’.

This point was also made by Bennis and Nanus as one of their ‘myths’ about leadership. They said it is a myth that leadership exists only at the top of an organisation, and admitted that they may have played into this myth unintentionally by focusing exclusively on top leadership. But it’s obviously false, they said: in fact, the larger the organisation, the more leadership roles it is likely to have.
The Leader/Manager: A Synthesis

So where does this leave us? As regards MANAGEMENT style, models in the past appear to have been based on two dominant concerns, roughly equivalent to a requirement for, on the one hand, a practical or instrumental approach (task-centred) and, on the other, an emotional or expressive one (people-centred). But we have noted some confusion over whether the dimensions are interactive (as they would be in a ‘transforming’ style) or additive (which would be more ‘transactional’).

Conversely, as regards LEADERSHIP style, we have the two dimensions: an enthusiasm for transformational (head up, creative) behaviour on the one hand, and for transactional (head down, reactive) behaviour on the other. But this time there is confusion as to whether it is really about changing the task or changing the people!

An answer must therefore surely lie in combining these four dimensions into one framework. Figure 3 therefore amplifies it to indicate these enthusiasms and concerns in more detail.

Let us see whether such a framework would help us deal with some of the differences discussed earlier.

Dimensions Used

The main difference between the ‘either/or’, the ‘more/less’ and the ‘both/and’ models described was in whether the dimensions were seen to be independent or not.

My own belief is that, where an individual’s attitude is concerned, all four dimensions can be independent. Although basic preferences will undoubtedly remain, any manager can, I believe, be helped to increase his or her enthusiasm or concern for any one of these dimensions, without a corresponding reduction in the ‘opposite’ one. We come to the question of behaviour later.

On the other hand, there does seem to be a greater probability that the task dimension will, at least to start with, be negatively correlated with the people one, and similarly the transformational with the transactional. It therefore seems appropriate to show these as a straight line, but perhaps with a ‘score’ for each going from a zero at the centre to a maximum at each of the ends.

With such a layout, it would be possible to cover all possibilities:

- **Either/or:** if we go along with McGregor and with Zaleznik, we can simply ‘locate’ people above or below and left or right of the axes.

- **More/Less:** if we prefer the ‘continuum’ approach of Tannenbaum and Schmidt, we can pinpoint someone’s position on each of the two axes, and even plot where the two would intersect each other on the ‘map’.
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

**Enthusiasm for:**
- the new, the radical
- being the first, unique
- taking risks
- being proactive
- having vision
- being future-oriented
- being creative and innovative
- showing initiative
- looking outside and beyond current role
- doing the ‘right things’
- ‘double loop learning’

MANAGER’S CONCERN FOR TASK

**Concern for:**
- tasks
- priorities
- goals
- objectives
- results
- outputs
- targets
- timescales
- standards
- production

MANAGER’S CONCERN FOR PEOPLE

**Concern for:**
- relationships
- people
- people’s thoughts
- feelings
- beliefs
- attitudes
- motives
- values
- self-esteem

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

**Enthusiasm for:**
- improvement
- productivity
- making things: better, faster, cheaper, smoother
- solving problems
- ‘doing things right’
- being more: efficient, cost-effective, responsive, reactive, systematic
- being fair
- ‘single loop learning’

**Figure 3. THE LEADER/MANAGER (Attitudes)**
Both/and: should we prefer to assume that all four dimensions combine to produce a typical behaviour pattern (which is the approach I normally take), an area may be plotted, rather than one point. Chris Robertson (1991) describes how an integration of qualities is achieved by the great leaders, even though we may generally categorise leaders as particular types (i.e. as ‘either/or’).

The major advantage of the framework developed in this article, however, is that the most significant dimensions both of the ‘management’ and of the ‘leadership’ models are brought together in one overall picture which, as I have indicated above, I believe to be of increasing importance.

**Normative v Contingent**

The assumption within most high performing organisations would appear to be that with regard to attitude (which these dimensions really are), managers should have a high concern for all four dimensions. Part of my work, indeed, has been to encourage managers as the norm to see their role as becoming more transformational in nature.

As regards behaviour, however, I believe that requirements vary with the situation (and far more than most ‘competency-based’ approaches assume).

This framework again gets us off the hook of assuming that it must be either normative or contingent since, as we see below, both attitudes and behaviours can be covered within this one framework.

**Attitudes Or Behaviours**

It seems to me that the task and people dimensions are best seen in terms of ‘areas of concern’: how far one is concerned about these things, whether one chooses to demonstrate this or not. The transformational and transactional dimensions, on the other hand, appear mainly to represent an enthusiasm for different types of outcome. Is the change to be discontinuous (sudden) or incremental (gradual)? This too is largely an attitude and therefore not immediately observable either. They both become observable, however, when the dimensions are combined (in the quadrants between the axes in the diagram), when the particular ‘enthusiasm’ is applied to the particular ‘concern’.

As an example, take someone whose area of concern tends to be more about people than about task (which you will not know unless they do something), and their enthusiasm is more towards the transactional, bead-down, reactive rather than the transformational, bead-up, creative (again, not in itself observable).

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2 Incidentally, the model he proposes does have several things in common with this one, although with a different orientation. The similarity between these models and with many in areas other than management is a topic that I hope to return to at a later date.
These enthusiasms and concerns both become observable, however, when they come together in behaviour, such as in carefully listening to a staff member’s problems and making sure that something is done to help.

I would therefore suggest that the axes of the diagram represent attitudes (or beliefs, values, opinions, feelings etc.), and the quadrants between them contain observable behaviour. Figure 4 shows the nature of behaviour that might be observable within each of these four quadrants and how each of them may be seen as being either ‘too little’, ‘too much’, or ‘just right’.

Figure 4. THE LEADER/MANAGER (Behaviour)

Interactive v Additive
As we have seen, the Blake and Mouton model appears to have no place for an attitude favouring high task control and supportive, caring behaviour. The Hersey and Blanchard one seems, on the other hand, to miss behaviour related to the ‘common stake in organisation purpose’ and leading to ‘relationships of trust and respect’. The framework described here allows both aspects to be covered.

Transforming Organisations Or Transforming People?
Again, this framework is specially designed to recognise that both types of behaviour are possible, that there is a difference between them, and that there is a need for both. It is, I believe, an important distinction, since it helps us
identify why certain aspects of transformational leadership might not be ‘working’ within an organisation.

A Practical Application
This framework was first detailed in an unpublished paper (Farey, 1988). It was generally well-received by those who read it, but one of them said that, while he found it quite interesting, ‘so what?’. A good question, since it pointed out that no indication had been given of how it might actually help anyone with their actual work in this field. Let me therefore give an example.

The area of management development in which I have tended to specialise is that of ‘upward feedback’ – giving managers the opportunity to find out what their staff would like them either to do more or to do less to be more effective as their manager. To quote Chris Robertson (1991), this is one way in which managers may experience ‘a deep and often painful acknowledgement of blindness and ties to outdated habits’. The method, at least to start with, involves the use of questionnaires filled in by the staff, which are then summarised in a way that protects the anonymity of each respondent, while providing maximum detail for the manager.

Initially I had obtained the items for the questionnaire in a way probably typical of most consultants working in this area – getting a group of managers to identify the ones they thought were most important. This seemed unsatisfactory, however, for the very obvious reason that it was what the individual staff member thought was important that really mattered, not what some unconnected managers elsewhere might have thought.

I therefore wanted to create a questionnaire which had the greatest chance of including what each individual respondent might consider important, but which was also of an acceptable length.

The leader/manager model helped me to do just that. I had collected over the years more than a thousand possible items of behaviour for such a questionnaire, and I found that almost every one of them could be described in terms of its position on a transformational/transactional dimension and also its position on a task/people one. What emerged was a sort of ‘Dewey Decimal Classification’ (the one that libraries use for books) of management behaviours. The numbering starts at ‘twelve o’clock’ on the Leader/Manager diagram and continues clockwise around the circle. This classification then allowed me to reduce the number of items to an acceptable level, while retaining the full ‘spread’ of the original list. I found that these items fell into five fairly obvious clusters within each quadrant, giving ‘sub-divisions’ in each case.

A resulting ‘map’ of how someone’s managerial behaviour is perceived by his or her staff is shown as Figure 5. The circle represents what the respondents would consider to be an ‘ideal’ level. Inside the circle indicates ‘too little’, outside is ‘too much’.
Figure 5. THE LEADER/MANAGER ('Map' of Behaviour)

This gives a helicopter view of someone’s perceived managerial approach, which may then be amplified with the data from the five items making up each of the 20 clusters. For example, in Figure 5, our manager is seen by the respondents as needing to do a bit more ‘listening and learning’. A further graph would then be available to see where the main difficulties seemed to be, giving a breakdown of the responses for each of the following:

- seeking feedback and being ready to change;
- letting staff question, disagree and complain;
- allocating and using time for visiting staff;
- being accessible and available when needed;
- listening and paying close attention.

This is a method that I have now used in several large organisations, either as a basis for individual counselling, or (the method I prefer if I can get them to agree to it!) as material to be simultaneously given to and discussed by a mixed group of managers or by all the members of one management team.
Conclusion

As we have seen, there is an increasing recognition of the need for more ‘leadership’ at all levels of the organisation. Kotter describes how nearly everywhere firms are being forced ‘to reconsider traditional strategies, policies and routine methods of doing business. As a result, thousands and thousands of managers and executives are being asked to develop new products, new distribution channels, new marketing methods, new manufacturing processes, new financing strategies and much more’.

This article suggests that this need for new ways of managing the rapidly changing business scene is giving rise to a parallel need for new ways of ‘mapping’ leadership and management style. A new framework is proposed, which combines the major features of several earlier models. Examination of this framework shows that it could well provide a more appropriate model for management development than those devised when the world of work was rather different from what it is now, and certainly from what it is fast becoming.

REFERENCES

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