CONVERSATIONAL LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION, AND SOCIAL MOTIVATION: A FIELD DESCRIPTIVE STUDY IN TWO ORGANIZATIONS

by

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Conversational Leadership, Organizational Identification and Social Motivation:

A Field Descriptive Study

in Two Organizations

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A cognitive rules-based approach was employed to reconceptualize leadership as an interpersonal communication phenomenon. Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theory of the Coordinated Management of Meaning was used to study the relationship between perceived conversational forms of leader-follower dialogue and followers' organizational identification, social motivation, and felt compulsion to comply with leaders' directives. A field descriptive study involved interviews of a proportionate stratified sample of employees within two hospitals. Each subject was asked to reconstruct two conversations. One conversation occurred with an individual whom the subject perceived as an effective leader; the other conversation was with an individual viewed as an ineffective leader. For each conversation, subjects completed scalar items measuring the perceived impact of various rule dimensions upon (a) the form of the conversation and (b) global outcomes such as organizational identification.

Five research questions were raised: (1) How do the conversational forms characterizing effective leadership differ from those constituting the performance of ineffective leadership? (2) How are particular types of communicative strategies associated with the social construction of power and domination? (3) How do dimensions of

communication competence such as: (a) predictability of the communicative interchange, (b) valence of the episode, (c) degree of appropriateness, and (d) creativity vary across forms of conversation characterizing effective and ineffective leaders? (4) How does the level of identification with: (a) definition of system, (b) the means to achieve ends, and (c) goals differ between effective and ineffective leadership? (5) What are the relationships among effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform directives, and social motivation?

Six conclusions were generated from the data: (1) Effective leaders communicate differently than do ineffective leaders by: (a) constructing different forms of conversation, (b) using a variety of forms of domination, and (c) being competent communicators. (2) Followers use different types of identifications and perceived levels of leadership effectiveness when assessing their overall level of organizational identification. (3) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should be viewed as interdependent phenomena that increase with leadership effectiveness. (4) Followers assess different identifications when evaluating their level of motivation to accomplish goals. (5) The enactment of effective leadership increases the possibility that followers will move in directions desired by leaders. (6) A descriptive methodology is an appropriate vehicle to examine the social construction of leadership, power, and domination.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership and motivation have been viewed as key social processes that are critical for the effective functioning of organizations and the attainment of collectively desired goals.

Members of a social group must perform leadership roles which direct, coordinate, and motivate individuals to achieve goals and prevent social systems from becoming chaotic and ultimately collapsing (Shaw, 1981). As a result, various social, political, and management theorists have attempted to characterize the parameters of effective leadership. Their design has been to train individuals how to develop strategies that facilitate leadership roles with the consent of group members (Weber, 1978; Blake & Mouton, 1978).

Given the interest in leadership study during the past few decades, one would anticipate a consensus regarding what constitutes effective leadership. However, such a consensus does not exist because several issues are unresolved. First, debates over whether leadership is best conceived as a context dependent or context free phenomenon are present in the literature (Blake & Mouton, 1982). Second, the assumption that leadership studies should focus predominantly on behavioral styles is being challenged by "neo-trait" theories of leadership (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Mahar, 1979).

A similar level of dissensus exists within the literature regarding the available means leaders may use to motivate others. Originating predominantly from social psychology, a variety of perspectives have emerged that maintain unique and, at times, incongruent assumptions about human behavior. Human motivation has variously been explained as a product of external reinforcement (Yukl, Wesley, & Seymore, 1972), the need for self actualization (Maslow, 1954), feedback and goal-setting (Locke, 1968; Locke et al., 1983), or a combination of internal needs and environmental characteristics (Herzberg, 1966). As a result, debate has centered on whether human motivation can best be characterized as primarily (a) causal or (b) purposive (Otteman & Luthans, 1975; Vroom, 1964) or whether it must ultimately (c) incorporate both elements (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Despite a plethora of theoretical orientations and research approaches to leadership, a vast majority accept structural paradigms and forms of explanation. This may prove problematic as they provide an incomplete analysis of the social concept known as leadership. For example, structural paradigms have been criticized for their failures to focus upon the relationship between communicative action and social realities such as leadership (Berger & Luckman, 1967; Habermas, 1979) or upon how pre-existing social structures constrain the enactment of leadership within social organizations (Giddens, 1979). The result is a fundamental inability for structural paradigms to: (a) account for how social actors enact leadership in everyday conversation, (b) redefine what constitutes effective leadership practice within an

organization across time, or (c) explain the impact of organizational rituals and culture upon leadership.

The purpose of this research is to develop an alternative approach to the study of leadership that may transcend the current limitations in structural theory. First, central problems and limitations inherent in micro and macro structural approaches to leadership are articulated. Second, new areas for research prompted from these limitations are detailed. Third, an approach based on Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theory of Coordinated Management of Meaning is developed that attempts to address these limitations. A shift in theoretical orientation necessitates a reconceptualization of both familiar and new terms. Theoretical concepts within this alternative approach are defined. Fourth, the theoretical and practical significance of this problem is detailed. Fifth, a descriptive methodology is outlined for testing this theory within two organizations.

CENTRAL PROBLEMS IN LEADERSHIP

Leadership study has generally been based on the principles of structural explanation. According to Wilson (1983), structural forms of explanation stress identifying elements that comprise a structure and specifying the interrelationships existing between them. Harre (1979) asserts that structural explanation may be further differentiated by the importance attributed to the unique powers of individual elements upon the development of the structure. Specifically, structural explanation can be delineated as either micro

Micro explanation emphasizes the need to account for the or macro. idiosyncratic qualities of elements and how their interaction impacts their assembly into an emergent structure. For example, in their study of leader-follower conversations Fairhurst, Rogers, and Sarr (1985) employed micro explanation to operationalize the domination structures as the pattern of individual communicative messages. Put simply, larger structures of domination emerged from the unique patterning of types of messages produced by leaders and followers. Conversely, macro explanation stresses identifying typical elements such as roles and their function within an a priori structure. Lewis, Cummings, and Long (1983) utilized macro explanation as they identified a variety of communication roles that, when performed within particular types of organizational structures, led to heightened perceptions of worker productivity. The impact of the particular person performing these roles is lessened in favor of articulating the defining characteristics of a role and its relation to overall organizational structure. Theorists such as Reddin (1970) utilize macro-structural explanation as a means of articulating structural characteristics which influence leadership practice.

While differences exist between micro and macro-structural orientations toward leadership, several common criticisms may be levied against both approaches. Specifically, they share five weaknesses. (1) Both orientations are insensitive to the fundamentally recursive nature of daily communicative action and larger organizational structures (Giddens 1976; 1979). (2) Structural explanation is incapable of adequately accounting for the creation and

presence of social contexts that impact leadership performance or views it as unimportant (Cronen & Lannamann, 1983). (3) Both orientations ignore the interpretive process which individuals engage in when attributing meanings to their social world (Putnam, 1983). (4) A majority of research utilizing structural explanation cannot account for the conversational enactment of leadership (Betty & Gossert, 1982). (5) The interdependent and systemic nature of leader-follower interaction is diminished (Barge, 1985b).

These limitations present a variety of problems for researchers in identifying the parameters of effective organizational leadership. By ignoring the possibilities that members of any social collectivity may employ unique definitions of what constitutes effective leadership, researchers may unknowingly employ concepts and measurement instruments that severely differ from the organizational definitions in use. This may prompt a distorted description of leadership processes as they occur within the organization. Furthermore, the inability to account for the conversational enactment of leadership limits researchers to describing what leaders do and precludes an analysis of how they go about doing it. This prevents organizational practitioners from specifying various types of communication strategies that may facilitate the enactment of leadership roles. One method for addressing these limitations within current leadership theory and research is to employ a communication perspective that emphasizes the role of communication in the social construction of leadership.

THE PROBLEM

Examining leadership from a communication perspective allows an analysis of conversations between leaders and followers. It also permits an examination of the impact of conversations upon outcomes such as motivation and identification. This orientation highlights new areas for leadership investigation and research. Specifically, four areas for research are suggested: (1) the relationship between forms of conversation and leadership, (2) how leaders employ communication strategies to secure the felt obligation of followers, (3) the connection between leadership and communication competence, and (4) the association among leadership, identifications, and motivation.

Leadership style theory has emphasized broad behavioral styles that differentiate effective from ineffective leaders. However, little research has been conducted that examines differences in how effective and ineffective leaders pattern their conversations. While preliminary evidence has been offered that the conversational performance of leadership may be characterized as coordinated and institutionalized, no research has been conducted to characterize the conversational patterns of ineffective leadership (Barge, 1985a). Furthermore, leaders enact power and domination to motivate followers to achieve desirable goals. However, the relationship between types of communication strategies comprising forms of power and domination is unclear. The first two research questions explore these areas.

- R. Q. I How do the conversational forms characterizing effective leadership differ from those constituting the performance of ineffective leadership?
- R. Q. II How are particular types of communicative strategies associated with the social construction of power and domination?

Contingency leadership theory stresses the importance of selecting a leadership style that is appropriate for the particular situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). From this point of view, leaders need to be competent communicators in order to dissect situations and adapt to them. This line of reasoning leads to the third research question.

R. Q. III How do dimensions of communication competence vary across forms of conversation characterizing effective and ineffective leaders? The dimensions are:

(1) predictability of the communicative interchange, (2) valence of the episode, (3) degree of appropriateness, and (4) creativity.

The level of identification individuals perceive with an organization is positively related to their motivation to discharge organizational responsibilities and make decisions according to organizational values and policies (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Tompkins & Cheney, 1982; Lee, 1970). However, the relationship between leadership and its impact upon identification and social motivation has not been explored. The last two research questions examine these interrelationships.

- R. Q. IV How does the level of identification with (a) the definition of system, (b) the means to achieve ends, and (c) goals differ between effective and ineffective leadership?
- R. Q. V What are the relationships among effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform directives, and social motivation?

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP, SOCIAL MOTIVATION, AND IDENTIFICATION

Current theories of leadership utilizing structural explanation are poorly equipped to address the interrelationships specified in the previous research questions. Therefore, the inability of extant leadership theory to examine how leaders and followers construct the social concepts of leadership and motivation in daily dialogue necessitates a shift in theoretical orientation. Such a theoretical orientation must acknowledge the fundamentally recursive nature of social life and the central role of communication in the creation, maintenance, and alteration of leadership. Theories of structuration fulfill these criteria (Giddens, 1976; 1979; Clegg, 1975; Bordieu, 1977). Specifically, one theory of structuration, Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theory of the Coordinated Management of Meaning, is employed to reconceptualize leadership and address current limitations present in micro and macro-structural leadership theory.

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

The Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) is one of several rules-based approaches existing within the communication discipline. Yet, it has generated significant research within organizational communication from a rules-based perspective. For example, CMM has been used to examine the collective image organizational members hold of themselves (Cronen & Harris, 1980), sex and promotion (O'Brien, 1980), communication and productivity (Laird, 1982), and communication and leadership (Barge & Johnson, 1985). One reason for CMM's acceptance by researchers as a viable means to analyze organizational communication may reside in three basic assumptions which promote CMM as a useful method for overcoming the limitations present in micro and macro-structural leadership theory.

First, communication and social realities possess a reflexive relationship. Particular forms of communication generate social realities which in turn constrain the form future communication may assume. For example, individuals within a firm may initially enact leadership as a form of ingratiation whereby each individual promises to perform subsequent acts to benefit the other. Over time, these initial patterns may become institutionalized and consequently restrict individuals to construct messages of ingratiation when they enact leadership. Such a cultural pattern of ingratiation may become modified as the influx of new personnel or changing needs of organizational members may prompt new communicative patterns for leadership. This first assumption acknowledges the importance of accounting for the conversational enactment of leadership and its reflexive relationship with larger organizational patterns.

Second, human beings create contexts for viewing social action. Pearce and Cronen contend that individuals construct contexts to aid them in interpreting the meaning of particular social acts. The need for individuals to construct contexts for viewing social action is critical since subsequent action is based on the subjective meanings persons attribute to messages. The inability of people to contextualize ongoing interaction may cause confusion and prevent them from coordinating their messages with others to achieve desirable goals. CMM permits researchers to understand fully how leaders and followers coordinate their actions by recognizing the importance of analyzing the contexts individuals employ to interpret action and the personal meanings derived from their use.

Third, an adequate analysis of interaction must include an examination of the meanings which individuals attribute to interaction. Pearce and Cronen (1980) contend that solely using a personal unit of analysis emphasizes the unique characteristics of individuals and the meanings they attribute to interaction. However, it ignores the fact that another person's messages may serve as constraints upon an individual's message selection. A transpersonal unit of analysis incorporates both the personal meanings people attribute to ongoing interaction and the overt speech between them. As individuals converse, the message produced by one individual becomes a potential constraint that limits the response that may be given by another individual. CMM allows researchers to view interaction systemically as the messages that interlock persons in dialogue and the meanings both attribute to them are examined.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The shift to a new theoretical orientation in the study of leadership and communication necessitates a redefinition of both familiar and new concepts. Of primary interest for this study are the terms "rule," "leadership," "power" and "domination," "legitimation," "social motivation," and "identification." Each is explained here from a communication rules approach with a more substantial explication presented in the following chapter.

"Rule" has been variously conceptualized as normative prescriptions for sequencing action (Cushman, Valentinsen, & Dietrich, 1980; Shimanoff, 1980), consensually shared constructions that enable actors to assign meaning to communication behavior (Nofsinger, 1974; 1976), sequential probabilities for interaction (Stech, 1975), or cognitive linkages that facilitate linguistic production (Chomsky, 1959; 1965). The definition used here originates from a cognitive social action approach (Laird, 1982). Within such an approach, "rules" are cognitive linkages that enable people to interpret action and meaning in order to structure subsequent action. For example, a rule from this perspective might be stated as, "In the context of effective leadership, when a leader makes a request of a follower, an effective leader is obligated to provide a rationale for the request in order to motivate the follower to comply with the request."

Since "leadership" is viewed as an interpersonal communication process whereby leaders and followers construct and perform their roles with the variable consent of other members within a social system, the probability that an individual can create and enact the

role of a leader is contingent upon the other members agreeing to be led by that individual. From a communication perspective, "leadership" is a conjoint activity by leaders and followers who use messages implicitly or explicitly to: (1) define the parameters of a social system, (2) provide means to achieve ends, (3) motivate an actor to perform desired means by changing the felt compulsion of another actor, and (4) structure goals.

Types of "power" and "domination" are means leaders employ to constrain the follower's perceived choices regarding the definition of the parameters, means, goals, and degree of felt compulsion within a social system. Power and domination are similar as they both may be estimated by followers as ranging from highly to minimally legitimate or appropriate. However, "power" reduces a follower's perceived choice of action to either compliance or non-compliance. For example, managers may be enacting a type of power when they direct a subordinate to perform an activity and the subordinate perceives the only choices to be performing the specified activity or being terminated. Conversely, "domination" implies a wider latitude of perceived choices of actions by followers. Using the previous example, a type of domination may exist when the subordinate perceives a wide latitude of activities that can be performed which comply with the goal of the directive.

"Legitimation" occurs when leaders and followers construct a context for their actions to be viewed as appropriate. In order for individuals to create leadership and followership roles, they use communication strategies to insure their actions are perceived as

legitimate by others. The ability for leaders to secure the felt obligation of their followers is severely limited if their own actions are viewed as inappropriate.

"Social motivation" focuses on the communication processes which leaders use to prompt followers in ways that achieve goals. Unlike more traditional approaches to motivation, this orientation concentrates on motivation that stems from human action or communication versus job or environmental characteristics such as flex-time or job enrichment.

The degree to which followers feel motivated to comply with a leader's directive is mediated by: (a) the level of identification they perceive with the leader, (b) the specified goal, and (c) the means to achieve the goal. Defined in a way similar to that of Burke (1969), "identification" is a state of being that occurs when individuals knowingly or unknowingly perceive a social system's identity or set of values, beliefs, attitudes, and ideas as integrated and synonymous with their own identity. Current research has demonstrated that as levels of identification with a social system increase, individuals perceive fewer alternative acts from which to choose (Simon, 1976). As such, this enhances the probability that a follower will be socially motivated to comply with a leader's directive.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Communication has been viewed as a central process critical for organizations to manage, coordinate, and motivate members to

accomplish desirable goals. Researchers need to focus upon communication practices that aid leaders in directing followers towards collectively desired goals. This research is significant for three reasons: (1) it identifies communication strategies leaders use to secure the compliance of followers, (2) actual leadership behavior as it occurs within natural settings is observed, and (3) it helps clarify the relationship between organizational identification and motivation.

First, this approach provides an initial base from which to articulate various communication strategies and acts which are critical to secure compliance and facilitate perceptions of effectiveness. This is an important beginning step because many managerial theories of leadership - such as those of Blake and Mouton (1978), Reddin (1970), and Vroom and Yetton (1973) - focus upon general behavioral styles that leaders employ and not the specific communicative acts that engender feelings of compliance.

Second, a significant problem in the study of leadership has been "the relative failure of leadership research to be grounded in the observation of actual leadership behavior as it occurs in natural settings" (Husband, 1985, p. 104). This study addresses this criticism directly as it focuses upon specific communicative behaviors that are employed by leaders within a field setting.

Finally, this study facilitates a direct examination of the relationship between organizational identification and social motivation. Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that organizations are more successful and productive if they have strong corporate cultures.

Such cultures are characterized by workers who strongly identify with the organization. The premise that strong cultures tend to be more productive rests upon the implicit assumption that members of strong cultures will be more motivated to accomplish the goals of an organization than those members of weak cultures. However, research between organizational identification and motivation has been mixed; some studies support the relationship (Lee, 1971) and others do not (Goodman et al., 1970). Perhaps the relationship between organizational identification and social motivation has been obscured by not researching the meanings which people attribute to ongoing interaction. This research incorporates actors' meanings into the research process and provides an initial test of the relationship between organizational identification and social motivation given this new orientation.

PROCEDURES

This study employed a field descriptive methodology conducted within two medical organizations. The field descriptive portion of the study used a proportionate stratified sampling technique with managerial level as strata to select the subject sample. Once the sample had been determined, a face-to-face interview was arranged with each subject. During each interview, two conversational episodes were reconstructed. One episode involved a conversation with an individual whom the subject viewed as an effective leader and the other episode involved an individual viewed as an ineffective leader. The subjects were then asked to respond to these conversations on a series of

scales tapping various structural linkages of rules, the forms of power and domination enacted, the degree of identification, and levels of felt compulsion to comply with the directive provided by the leader.

ANALYSIS

Several different types of analyses were conducted. First, differences in the general form of conversation and the enactment of power and domination occurring between effective and ineffective leadership were contrasted. Second, statistical analyses correlated various aspects of communication competence to overall perceptions of communication competence. Differences between effective and ineffective leaders regarding their overall level of communication competence and the types of messages they produce were examined. Third, correlational analyses were conducted to examine the relationships among leadership, motivation, identification, and felt compulsion.

ORGANIZATION OF DISSERTATION

The dissertation consists of six chapters. Chapter 2 contains three sections: (1) an extended analysis of central problems in current leadership theory and research, (2) a critique of the viability of Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theoretical approach to the study of leadership, and (3) a description of a new approach to leadership, social motivation, and identification premised on CMM. Chapter 3 reports the research design and procedures employed.

Chapters 4 and 5 present the results and statistical analyses respectively for Hospitals A and B. Chapter 6 summarizes the conclusions and implications to be drawn from the current research. Both theoretical and pragmatic concerns are addressed. A statement of strengths and weaknesses within the research is explicated and directions for future research presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The enactment of leadership within social organizations is commonly acknowledged by social scientists as critical for coordinating organizational members to achieve desirable goals. As a result, a variety of approaches have been employed to describe leadership aptitudes and activities which facilitate goal achievement. These approaches include trait (Stogdill, 1948; Gibb, 1954) style (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1959; Blake & Mouton, 1982), contingency (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Vroom & Yetton, 1973), and role-making theories (Liden & Graen, 1980). While these perspectives differ greatly, they share an underlying adherence to structural explanation. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight limitations of extant leadership research and suggest an alternative premised on communication theory. First, central problems and limitations in leadership theory originating from the use of structural explanation are outlined. Second, a new orientation premised on a theory of structuration, Pearce and Cronen's (1980) Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM), is offered as one means of overcoming these limitations. Third, a new perspective to leadership and motivation based on CMM is developed in propositional form. Fourth, a summary of this new approach is explicated.

CENTRAL PROBLEMS IN LEADERSHIP

A wide variety of philosophers such as Kuhn (1970) and Burrell and Morgan (1979) have hypothesized that the paradigm social scientific researchers employ greatly influences the kind of social phenomena they view as important and the form explanation must take in order to adequately account for the phenomena. A majority of current leadership theorists utilize the principles of structural paradigms and explanation in articulating the parameters of leadership (Barge & Johnson, 1985). Structural forms of explanation focus upon the elements that comprise a structure and their interrelationships. Harre (1979) contends two forms of structural explanation, micro and macro, have become prominent in the social sciences. Micro explanation concentrates upon the unique characteristics of elements and their interaction that influences the emergent structure. For example, Watson (1982b) identified the various communicative acts of domination produced by leader-follower dyads and ascertained the structure of domination which emerged in the interaction. Conversely, macro explanation emphasizes the importance of typical elements such as roles and their necessary relationships or structure that perpetuate the system. In stressing the importance of information networks, theorists such as Farace, Monge, and Russell (1977) utilize macro structural explanation. The importance of the unique characteristics of individuals occupying roles such as a "bridge" or "isolate" are diminished in favor of identifying the parameters of the role and how it functions within the information network. Theorists within the study of leadership have either emphasized

micro-structural aspects of leadership that occur at a dyadic level (Watson, 1982a; Liden & Graen, 1980) apart from any type of organizational influences, or have adopted a more macro-structural orientation which emphasizes structural characteristics that affect leadership (Fiedler, 1967).

Despite differences in micro or macro analyses of leadership, several common criticisms may be levelled at both approaches because they adhere to structural forms of explanation. Specifically, micro and macro structural approaches have five limitations: (1) both orientations are insensitive to the recursive nature of interaction at the micro level and its relationship to more macro organizational structures, (2) the presence and creation of social contexts that frame the performance of leadership are either viewed as unimportant or cannot be fully explained, (3) actor's meanings are ignored in the research process, (4) they cannot focus upon the conversational enactment of leadership, and (5) the systemic nature of leader-follower interaction is diminished. These criticisms can be effectively overcome by expanding current structural paradigms to focus on how social actors create and structure leadership via communicative action; these new paradigms stress structuration.

One limitation of current structural paradigms is the inability to account for the recursive relationship between structure and action. Giddens (1979) maintains that human social interaction has a dual structure whereby forms of social interaction simultaneously reflect institutionalized social structures and reproduce or reconfigure these structures which facilitate future forms of social

interaction. Giddens defines structures as preexisting sets of rules and resources that delimit what kinds of action constitute the appropriate performance of social phenomena such as leadership. However, contemporary theorists employing micro and macro structural theories of leadership either ignore the impact of preexisting social structures or neglect how communicative action reproduces or alters these already existing social structures.

In micro structural research, institutionalized patterns of leader-follower behaviors present within an organization are treated as unexplained parameters of conduct. Micro structural approaches to leadership observe communicative acts of leaders and followers and discern the structural patterns of their interaction. This type of orientation is exemplified in Watson's (1982b) study of patterns of dominance and compliance in leader-follower dyads. She suggests that social structures such as leadership "can be identified by recurring patterns analyzed in terms of communication" (p. 108). Using Ellis' (1979) relational coding schema, Watson analyzed the communicative interchange between student leaders and followers participating in a management simulation game. She discovered that leaders tend to resist efforts by their subordinates to control the flow of conversation. What this study neglected is the influence of any cultural pattern that may have emerged during the simulation regarding the performance of leadership. Leaders may not structure their responses to subordinate messages solely on the basis of their personal value or belief systems. Rather, they may reflect a pattern of how to interact with subordinates established in previous interactions.

While micro structural approaches stress the importance of grounding structure in observable communicative action, macro structural approaches emphasize the reified static nature of structure and neglect how communicative action can reproduce and reconfigure existing structures. Approaches to leadership by Reddin (1970) and Hersey and Blanchard (1982) attempt to identify a priori structural aspects such as rules and roles that place parameters upon the appropriate performance of leadership. For example, Reddin (1970) identifies five structural characteristics such as the organizational technology and subordinates that impact the type of leadership style to be selected. While these a priori structures impact the selection and performance of particular types of communicative actions, the influence leadership enactment has on confirming or changing existing structures of rules and roles is diminished. This may be an invalid assumption. Schriescheim and Kerr (1977) comment "the leadership area is today without any instrument of demonstrated validity and reliability" (p. 33). A potential reason for this lack of reliability is that the instruments employed reflect the reified theoretical conceptions of what constitutes effective leadership practice. Theorists and researchers view these conceptions as remaining stable across time. Ignoring that social actors may redefine what "counts as" leadership vis-a-vis communication causes leadership instruments to be based upon conceptions no longer operating within an organization.

The second problem confronting micro and macro structural approaches is how to account for the importance, creation, and

modification of social contexts that influence leadership behavior. According to Giddens (1979), social actors' behaviors are partially contexted by "sociocultural" rules and resources or structures previously created by a language community. The presence of contexts provides guides that social actors may utilize in structuring leader and follower behavior. Micro approaches to leadership diminish the importance of context in the performance of leadership. For example, Liden and Graen's (1980) Vertical Dyad Linkage model of leadership focuses upon the interpersonal processes that social actors perform to create leadership roles. They contend individuals engage in a "role-making" process to create the roles of leaders and followers. Such an approach initially diminishes the importance of context in the creation of leader-follower roles as actors are seemingly unconstrained by rules operating in the context of creating leader-follower systems provided by the organization. However, the Vertical Dyad model accounts for the emergence and modification of a relational definition by leaders and followers that serves as a context which provides rules guiding appropriate interaction. Therefore, leaders and followers are able to create and modify contexts that guide their subsequent interaction.

Conversely, macro approaches stress the importance of context upon the selection of behaviors but are unable to account for the creation or modification of context. House (1971), for example, suggests that context consists of the degree of structure or ambiguity inherent in a job task. The selection and appropriateness of leader behaviors are influenced by the context which is the level of task

structure that a leader finds in a particular situation. However, House and his associates are unable to answer the question, "Where does context originate?" While they have documented the context specificity of the appropriateness of particular leadership behaviors. they are unable to explain why these particular contextual features are more relevant than others. Furthermore, they assume that the leadership behaviors prescribed by contexts will remain unchanged over time. Although House (1971) has hypothesized that leaders will be more effective when they use a task-oriented style during a highly unstructured task and employ relationship-oriented styles during highly structured tasks, Schriesheim and Von Glinow (1977) report a number of studies that disconfirm this contention. One reason that these particular behaviors are not viewed as effective may be that the range of permitted behaviors within that context has expanded over time within the organization. It may be that the suggested contexts and range of permitted behaviors in operation at the beginning stages of the organization are restructured or modified across time.

The third problem is that theorists and researchers using micro and macro structural theories of leadership do not account for actor's meanings in the research process. Both orientations stress an objectivistic approach to inquiry in explaining leadership practice. At a more micro level of analysis, Watson (1982a) employed a relational coding schema similar to one used by Millar and Rogers (1976) in her analysis of leader-follower patterns of dominance and compliance. She assumed the patterns of domination and compliance for leader-follower systems would be more accurately reflected on or by an

objective content analytic schema. This method dismissed the need for examining how social actors personally construe the patterns of compliance and domination as they are believed to define the patterns in a manner consistent with the content schematic used, but such an assumption may be invalid. Folgers and Sillar (1977) found a correlation of 0.136 when they compared the global judgments of perceived dominance made by observers with an index of dominance generated by a content analysis for a given interaction. This study highlights the danger of imposing objectivist frameworks on leadership as members of a language community, like the observers in this study, may define the social phenomena using different criteria than those employed by the outside observers.

An identical problem exists for extant macro structural theories of leadership. Blake and Mouton's (1978) questionnaire for leadership style has actors respond to a series of scales regarding task or people-orientation. The scales are descriptions of task or relationship-oriented behaviors as defined by Blake and Mouton and do not reflect how individuals within an organization define what acts are considered task or relationship-oriented. A lack of naturalistic data or the inclusion of actor's meanings may prove problematic as members of a social system and researchers investigating a social system may view the same phenomena quite differently (Cicourel, 1974). As Laird (1982) observes in her critique of functional-structural explanation, organizational communication researchers typically enter organizations with a priori definitions of the concept under investigation and a pre-set measuring instrument. However, this

measurement instrument may not accurately reflect the concept as it is viewed by the organization due to the unique cultural definitions of the phenomenon. This highlights the need at both micro and macro levels of explanation to explicate the organizational definitions of leadership.

A fourth problem with current conceptualizations of leadership theory is the failure to focus upon the enactment of leadership processes in everyday conversation. As Weber (1978) and other theorists note, leadership is a social process performed by members of social system. Processes, according to Weick (1969), "consist of individual behaviors that are interlocked among two or more people" (p. 43). This points to the need for theorists and researchers to focus on the series of communicative acts performed by individuals which constitute the social process known as leadership.

Macro and micro structural approaches to leadership, nevertheless, have typically deemphasized how leaders and followers enact leadership in daily conversation. It is important to point out that the one notable exception to this problem is the micro orientation proposed and utilized by Watson (1982a; 1982b). However, a majority of researchers using micro and macro approaches have selected measurement instruments that stress perceptions of the function communication plays in leadership processes. For example, Vroom and Yetton's (1973) macro theory of leadership suffers from this problem when they stress overt communication styles. Their model of leadership explicates five different decision-making styles and a set of conditions appropriate for each. "Styles" refer to general

behavioral functions such as gives advice, coordinates discussion, and obtains subordinate's input. Yet, the theory and research methods utilized cannot account for actual messages which leaders use that constitute a given style (Jago & Vroom, 1980). Instead, the model stresses the functions of communication behaviors rather than describing the kinds of messages leaders use to perform these functions.

A fifth problem confronting extant leadership theory is the lack of viewing leader-follower interaction from a systemic perspective. At a micro level of analysis, Liden and Graen (1980) argue that leaders differentiate between, and interact differently with, subordinates on the basis of "(a) competence and skill, (b) extent to which they can be trusted (especially when not being watched by the supervisor), and (c) motivation to assume greater responsibility within the unit" (pp. 451-52). These qualities of followers influence the leader's selection of communicative action directed towards the followers prior to the actual interaction. At this level, leadership is viewed systemically since follower characteristics impact the communication of the leader. However, when leaders interact with subordinates, the constraints that messages produced by subordinates place upon the communication of leaders is ignored. This reduces the systemic nature of interaction. For example, in Liden and Graen's (1980) study, subordinates indicate how leaders give assistance and use power. Yet, the researchers never indicate how either subordinates request assistance or what actions they perform that causes leaders to use power. Leader behavior is reduced to personal action directed at

subordinates and is unconstrained by the types of communicative actions that subordinates perform. Again, it is important to note that the research conducted by Watson (1982) is one notable exception as she contends that messages produced by leaders and followers are contingent upon the previous utterance produced by the other.

In macro structural approaches, it is only in selecting and explaining the effectiveness of a style that current theories recognize the systemic quality of leadership. They acknowledge that unique characteristics of followers may restrain the leader's array of feasible styles. Current leadership theory implicitly assumes that how leaders construct messages constitutes a given style when the leader directs these messages at followers. The followers passively accept the directive of the message. Whereas follower attributes previously may have curtailed the selection of a leadership style, the messages which followers produce during conversation are assumed to have no impact upon the message selection by leaders. The systemic nature of leadership is diminished and is reduced to personal action directed towards followers. Some research suggests that this assumption is invalid. For example, Betty and Gossert (1982) correlated the frequencies of nine message types uttered by leaders during a meeting with the leader's levels of consideration (CS) and initiating structure (IS) and they found only one out of eighteen possible correlations statistically significant. One possible explanation for the absence of any systematic relationship may be their failure to recognize that messages directed at leaders by followers impact the type of subsequent messages generated by leaders.

For example, if followers ask a question, a leader may typically respond with a declarative statement. By ignoring the influence of follower's messages upon leaders, any relationship between message types and CS and IS could be obscured.

If the study of leadership is to account for the systemic creation, maintenance, and alteration of leadership through communicative action, researchers must extend the parameters of structural paradigms and explanation. Such an extension requires the revised theory to meet five requirements: (1) the theory must be able to account for the recursive nature of human social life, (2) the importance, creation, and modification of social contexts that influence leadership behaviors must be addressed, (3) actors' meanings should be included in the research process, (4) it should permit researchers to focus upon the enactment of leadership in everyday conversation, and (5) systemic or transpersonal units of analysis must be employed. Given these criteria, such a theory must emphásize the role communication plays in the social construction and alteration of leadership. Approaches similar to Giddens' (1979) theory of structuration provide such an orientation.

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

Theories of structuration provide one means of addressing limitations in micro and macro structural theories. Anthony Giddens' (1976; 1979) theory of structuration will be used as a representative anecdote to outline the basic tenets of structuration. First, theories of structuration emphasize the recursive nature of structure

and action and stress the importance of focusing upon the enactment of social realities in everyday conversation. Giddens (1979) proposes that social theory must extend the principles of structural explanation to examine directly how preexisting social structures impact communicative practice and in turn how communication practice reaffirms and changes these same structures. According to Giddens, the concept of structuration

involves...the duality of structure, which relates to the fundamentally recursive character of social life and expresses the mutual dependence of structure and agency. By the duality of structure I mean that the structural properties of social systems are both the medium and the outcome of the practices that constitute those systems (p. 69).

These structures simultaneously are the medium through which social practice is facilitated and constrained as they indicate what communicative acts are appropriate for a given social phenomenon. They are also outcomes since structures only exist in practice. For example, grammatical rules exist for languages that facilitate and constrain the construction of grammatical sentences. These grammatical rules are the a priori structures and medium that provide members within a language community rules for generating grammatically correct sentences. However, these grammatical structures are also outcomes since rules exist only through being applied and acknowledged in interaction. Therefore, theories of structuration are sensitive to the recursive relationship between structure and action and recognize the role daily conversation plays in structuring and restructuring social structures such as leadership.

Second, Giddens (1979) proposes that all action is "situated" in

four senses. First, action is situated in a temporal sequence. McPhee and Poole (1980) observed "[B]eing located in a temporal flow also constrains the pattern of activity. We cannot do everything at once, so we must sequence and assign priorities to what we do, neglecting some things entirely" (p. 4). Leaders wanting to employ a participative style of management in decision-making may be unable to do so due to time constraints. Second, action is contexted by the preexisting social structure which delimits and constrains the actions of individuals. Third, action is contexted by the powers of the social actors involved in the interaction. Actors may be aware of rules that govern the enactment of social phenomena but are either unable to articulate them (practical consciousness) or do not possess the linguistic capacity to express the rules (discursive consciousness). Fourth, action is contexted by the unintended consequences of action. As McPhee and Poole point out, democratically oriented leaders may unknowingly increase the reliance of the group upon them by giving the group instructions on how to operate in a democratic manner rather than increase the groups' ability to operate in a democratic fashion. It is the unintended consequences of our action that may cause a priori structures to be modified. Given this notion of situation, theories of structuration stress the importance of context in analyzing social action and emphasizes that contexts are created, maintained, and altered vis-a-vis communication and may be impacted by the unintended consequences of social action.

Third, theories of structuration employ actors' meanings into the research process. Similar to Schutz (1967), Giddens asserts that language communities create mutual stocks of knowledge that govern action and what "counts as" reasons for action. These stocks of knowledge are variably accessible to social actors. Giddens states

...mutual knowledge employed by actors in the production of social encounters, are not usually known to those actors in an explicitly codified form...The accounts actors are able to provide of their reasons are bounded, or subject to various degrees of possible articulation, in respect of tacitly employed mutual knowledge (p. 58).

Therefore, in order to understand social action as it occurs within a language community, researchers need to reconstruct the stocks of social knowledge or the rules for meaning and action that are employed by individuals.

Fourth, the creation, maintenance, and alteration of social structures are viewed systemically. The creation of social structures entails a dialectic between actors as only one actor cannot create a social reality. Giddens asserts that the social structuring of forms of power and domination must necessarily be a dialectical concept as "Power relations...are always two-way, even if the power of one actor or party in a social relation is minimal compared to another" (p. 92). In order for power to exist, there must be at least one or more social actors within a system that one actor is attempting to exercise power over. As such, researchers must focus on both social actors within a system and the rules and roles they employ within their interaction.

Theories of structuration appear to be one means of addressing and overcoming the problems in current structural conceptions of leadership. Giddens (1976; 1979), Clegg (1975), and Bordieu (1977) have all developed structurational approaches similar in their base assumptions and yet different in other areas. For this study, Pearce and Cronen's (1980) Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) was

selected to reconceptualize current leadership theory. It was selected over competing theories for two reasons. First, most structurationist theories emphasize normative forms of explanation or define structures as to what social actors typically do or mean, but they are unable to explain how atypical patterns are either created or are viewed as appropriate. According to Harris, Cronen, and Lesch (1980), deviation from preexisting normative structures that govern initial interaction may cause social actors to be viewed as more competent than actors who conform to the a priori structure. From normative structurationist theory, this deviation and its corresponding appropriateness may be explained as a result of its unintended consequences. However, the theory is unable to account for the possibility that the social actor desired to bring about a change in the social structure. CMM is able to account for such intentionality by stressing the importance of idiosyncratic and typical communicative patterns. Second, CMM is the only structurational theory that has developed operationalizations of its theoretical concepts and conducted empirical research into proposed relationships. For example, Poole, Seibold, and McPhee (1985) have articulated a theory of structuration regarding group decision-making processes but have not generated research from their theory. Conversely, CMM has developed operationalizations and measurement instruments to test the theory in organizational contexts. Research has been conducted that examines the relationship between communication and promotion patterns of males and females (O'Brien, 1979), productivity (Laird, 1982), and leadership (Barge, 1985a).

Since CMM accounts for typical and idiosyncratic rules that guide communicative action and operationalizes structurational concepts, it is employed to reconceptualize leadership.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

CMM is a rules-based theory of human communication which defines communication as the process of cocreating, comaintaining, and coaltering social realities. Pearce and Cronen (1980) suggest forms of communication and social realities possess a mutual and cocausal relationship. Particular forms of communication or messages generate social realities which in turn constrain the forms of communication permitted within a social reality. For example, suppose leader-follower conversations within an organization were characterized by leaders always giving one-up messages and followers always responding with one-down messages. If this pattern were initiated and maintained across time by leader-follower systems, it could form a cultural pattern of leadership that informs the types of subsequent conversations leaders and followers may produce.

Cronen, Pearce, and Harris (1982) also contend that persons interpret communicative acts and subsequently sequence messages on the basis of personal rules for meaning and action. However, as persons interact, these personal rule systems interpenetrate one another. The personal rules systems become intertwined through the messages individuals aim at one another and generate a set of rules that guide the system as a whole. This concept emphasizes the need to examine both the personal rule systems actors utilize during the interaction and how messages interlink these personal systems to create a larger

interpersonal system. This interpersonal system is no longer a personal system but a transpersonal one since it not only includes the personal rule systems of actors but incorporates phenomena that are not inherently personal - i.e., the messages that transpire between the actors. Thus, in order to gain a complete picture of communication among individuals, both the personal and transpersonal systems must be examined.

PERSONAL SYSTEMS

CMM is grounded in the assumption that human beings create contexts which are necessary for interpreting actions in the physical and social worlds of which they are members. Furthermore, these contexts are organized into a hierarchy of meaning. In order to examine how persons interpret social phenomena, researchers examine the personal systems of individuals. These personal systems include rules used to interpret the meaning of some event. Furthermore, personal systems also consist of a set of rules that transforms these interpretations of events to sequence subsequent action upon the environment. These two types of rules present within the personal system are respectively called constitutive and regulative rules.

Hierarchy of Meaning

A key assumption is that actors hierarchically organize meaning. Cronen, Pearce, and Harris (1982) provide a typical six-tiered model of social contexts that actors may employ in interpreting social phenomena:

Level 6 Cultural Patterns (CP)

Very broad patterns of world order and humankind's relationship in that order. These patterns locate human

experience in a larger conceptual framework and legitimize ways of knowing and acting.

Level 5 Life Scripts (LS)

The repertoires of action that make up an individual's concept of self.

Level 4 Relationship (RL)

Implicit agreements between persons concerning the collective "we"--who we are as a couple or family, for example.

Level 3 Episodes (Ep)

Communicative routines that persons view as wholes. Episodes are comprised of reciprocal speech acts and are characterized by their constitutive and regulative rules.

Level 2 Speech Acts (Sp Act)

The things that people do to each other with words and gestures. Speech acts refer to the relational level of meaning (e.g., compliments, threats, promises, etc.).

Level 1 Content (Cn)

Information about anything that is communicable but containing no indication of what kind of message it is (p. 77).

These different levels of meaning within the hierarchy provide contexts that aid human beings in interpreting actions and meanings within a social environment. For example, how individuals construe the cultural patterns regarding what "counts as" effective leadership may influence how they interpret a leader's invitation to participate in making a decision. If individuals construe the cultural pattern of an organization as emphasizing democratic ideals in leadership, they may interpret the invitation as a sincere attempt by the leader to include them in the decision-making process. However, if they interpret the cultural pattern as stressing autocratic ideals, they

may view the invitation as a perfunctory act not to be taken seriously. Furthermore, the influence that any level(s) of the hierarchy has upon the interpretation of meaning and action differs due to the situation. For example, if followers were concerned with making a good impression upon leaders, they may interpret all interactions with leaders in the context of their relationship. The levels of the hierarchy of meaning are linked together and subsequently used to sequence interaction via constitutive and regulative rules.

Constitutive and Regulative Rules

Two types of rules organize the personal rule systems for meaning and action. Constitutive rules link together varying levels of meaning and relate meanings to behavior. Typically, constitutive rules take the form, "In the context of [a level within the hierarchy of meaning], another [level within the hierarchy of meaning] is interpreted as X." For example, in the context of the cultural archetype characterizing leadership, the speech act of a leader requesting the input of subordinates regarding a decision may be viewed as highly effective.

Regulative rules take these "meanings" attributed to behaviors and transmute them into action. Regulative rules specify actions that are conceived by the individual as permitted, prohibited, obligated, or irrelevant given the meanings they attribute to some phenemona. If a subordinate views a leader's request as legitimate within the cultural pattern, s/he may feel obligated to respond with some type of suggestion for the leader.

Within a regulative rule, two types of forces generate action. Prefigurative forces indicate the degree to which actors feel they should perform a certain speech act because of strong antecedent conditions. These antecedent conditions include preceding actions by others plus the impact of the different levels of the hierarchy of meaning upon action. If an employee within an organization with a high degree of prefigurative force were asked why s/he performed a certain action, s/he might respond "because of X." In this instance, X may range from the immediately preceding message uttered by another person to the life script of an individual. The prefigurative influence generated by the life script, for example, may be reflected by the claim, "I had to do X because that's the kind of person I am." Prefigurative forces based on previous meanings for similar situations reflect the perceived degree of institutionalization of action. Practical forces indicate the degree to which an actor performs a speech act in order to achieve a desired consequent condition. In this instance, an employee with a high degree of practical force would respond, "in order to achieve Y."

TRANSPERSONAL SYSTEMS

The systemic nature of interaction is accounted for by a transpersonal unit of analysis. As persons interact, their personal rule structures interpenetrate and create a transpersonal system which is guided by logical force. Such logical forces are the rules which permit, prohibit, or obligate certain communicative action. When individuals direct messages at one another, the message constructed by one individual becomes an antecedent condition for the other actor and

generates prefigurative forces which influence the performance of a message by the other individual. Interaction must be viewed systemically as messages aimed at other actors produce prefigurative forces within the actor and potentially constrain the selection of which message to perform.

As Kuhn (1970) observes, the shift to a new paradigm entails that preexisting terms present in the old paradigm take on new meanings and functions. The same is true of terms used in structural theories of leadership when they are translated into a structurational approach to leadership. Within the small group literature, several common themes emerge regarding the performance of leadership such as the process leaders use to legitimate their role, goal setting, how leaders produce consensus and identification among group members, and how leaders use power to secure the obligation of and motivate group members (Goodall, 1985). Given the adoption of a new theoretical orientation, these key leadership concepts and their interrelationships must be specified.

COMMUNICATION, LEADERSHIP, AND SOCIAL MOTIVATION

Viewing leadership and social motivation from a rules-based communication perspective necessitates a definition of both familiar and new terms. The postulate, propositions, corollaries, and definitions are rather simple and intuitive; yet they provide a marked contrast and extension of micro and macro structural approaches to leadership.

POSTULATE: Forms of leadership and forms of conversation

possess a cocausal relationship. In other words leadership is a social reality constructed by actors in everyday conversation. This is a position espoused by a variety of social action theorists (Pearce & Cronen, 1980; Blumer, 1969; Berger & Luckman, 1966). For example, Wilmot (1975) discusses positive spirals, a form of conversation where each message by one actor produces a more extreme and desirable response from the other. It may well be that some social organizations have created a cultural pattern for leadership which requires a "mutual seduction" by leaders and followers. This cultural pattern informs a particular form of conversation, a positive spiral, which in turn may reproduce or refigure the cultural pattern of leadership through its performance or variations in performance.

PROPOSITION I: Leadership is an interpersonal communication process whereby leaders and followers use messages implicitly or explicitly to: (1) define the parameters of a social system, (2) provide means to achieve ends, (3) motivate an actor to perform desired means by changing the felt compulsion of another actor, and (4) structure goals for a social system. The inclusion of the definition of a social system stresses the importance of leadership in the creation of social systems. The processual nature of leadership is recognized since changes in felt compulsion are necessary in order to facilitate goal achievement. Additionally, the study of goal setting encourages a systemic view of leadership that includes examination of means-ends linkages.

<u>Definition</u>: <u>Leaders</u> are individuals who are sufficiently competent to produce forms of conversation that enact leadership,

legitimate the role as leader, cocreate forms of power and domination to increase felt compulsion among followers. They perform these activities on a regular basis with varying degrees of consent of other followers within a social system. Formal managers may or may not be leaders. This approach implies that anyone within an organization has the potential to cocreate the role of a leader.

Legitimation Corollary: Leaders and followers must legitimate their respective roles within a social system. In order for people to create leadership and followership roles, their actions must be viewed as legitimate by others within that social system. The failure to legitimate roles and actions may lead to an inability for leaders to secure obligations from followers. Legitimation is a communication process that constructs a context for actions to be viewed as appropriate. It is a social phenomenon that rests upon the perceptions and acts of all members within a social system. Actors may need to engage in legitimizing actions intended to coalter or comaintain the degree and range of legitimacy within a social system. Legitimizing or communication strategies are at a personal level and conceived as personal action directed at another actor to maintain or alter the degree and range of perceived appropriate actions within a social system.

A synthesis of potential strategies identifies four types of communication strategies that actors use in attempting to maintain or increase legitimation (Pearce, 1975). (1) Altercasting occurs when one actor either implicitly or explicitly informs another actor of the roles which s/he is to assume in their interaction in order to limit

the range of perceived actions available. For example, the comment "You're my subordinate," represents an explicit altercast. (2) Ingratiation or bargaining is a negotiation strategy based upon the norms of reciprocity. It typically involves requesting that an actor perform a certain action now because of future benefits that might be accrued from its execution or because of past actions that benefitted the actor. (3) Metacommunication is typically defined as explicit communication about communication. More specifically, it involves an exchange of messages where the message content pertains to the relationship between the communicators. In CMM, metacommunication refers to any explicit communication concerning levels of the hierarchy of meaning such as the episode, relationship, or cultural archetype levels. For example, if a leader makes the claim during a conversation that a follower should accept his/her directive because "That's how we do things in this organization," s/he is using metacommunication that makes reference to the existing cultural pattern. (4) Influence, a form of metacommunication, is explicit communication directed at another actor that gives a reason for performing a certain action and may include reference to either antecedent or consequent conditions such as a threat or promise.

Compulsion Corollary: Leaders and followers cocreate forms of power and domination to enhance the perceived felt compulsion of other actors for leadership. The enactment of power and domination is not limited to providing means to achieve goals. Rather, forms of power and domination may be cocreated to constrain an actor's perceived choices regarding the definition of the parameters, means, goals, and

degree of felt compulsion within a social system.

Forms of power and domination may be distinguished on three criteria. First, consistent with Weber (1978), power is structurally differentiated from domination on the grounds that power restricts an actor's perceived choice of appropriate action to a much narrower range of appropriate actions that comply with a particular directive than does domination. Second, types of power and domination may be conceptualized along a continuum of low to high degrees of legitimation within a social system. Third, whether the appropriateness of messages performed in a conversation is legitimated prior to the interaction or emerges during the interaction may be another criteria to discriminate between power and domination. Using these three criteria, six ideal typical forms of power and domination actors may cocreate to increase the level of felt compulsion within a social system are identified.

Power is enacted when individuals knowingly or unknowingly use communication strategies that are viewed as minimally legitimated by another actor to constrain the perceived choices of another actor. The perceived choices are limited to either compliance to the request or noncompliance. For example, a line-worker in a factory attempts to enact power when s/he tries to constrain the choices of a corporate financial planner regarding a financial decision for the corporation. Due to the lower perceived expertise of the line-worker, the planner may view any attempts to constrain his/her choices as minimally legitimated but may acquiesce to the attempt if the line-worker presents a strong argument. Institutionalized power is another ideal

typical form that is structurally similar to power yet has a higher degree of legitimation and is prefiguratively defined. Institution in this sense is defined similarly to Berger and Luckman (1967) as the "reciprocal typifications of habitualized action by types of actors" (p. 54). Emergent power is cocreated when actors use communication strategies to constrain the perceived or felt choices of another actor that acquire legitimacy from the interaction itself. Legitimacy is not granted prior to the interaction but rather emerges within it.

Domination is enacted when individuals use minimally legitimated communication strategies to constrain the perceived choices of the actor to an array of appropriate actions. The range of perceived actions by a social actor is expanded from simple compliance or noncompliance to a directive as in power episodes to a number of appropriate actions, any of which could satisfy the directive. One ideal type is institutionalized domination where the strategies are viewed by the target of the domination attempt as legitimated prior to the interaction. Emergent domination differs as the strategies used to constrain perceived choices become viewed as legitimate by the other actor during the interaction. For example, in domination episodes, a superordinate may alert a worker to several possible actions or tasks that may achieve a goal. The choices have been greatly expanded from a power situation when compliance or noncompliance to a desired action are the only choices to where compliance may now be achieved through a greater variety of actions. Dependent upon the perceived degree and type of legitimation, this can be construed as domination, institutionalized domination, or emergent

domination.

By viewing power and domination as social constructions and transpersonal concepts, it is possible to examine the manner by which actors enact power and domination episodes in everyday conversation. A useful method to examine the enactment of power and domination within conversational episodes is to describe the degree of general prefigurative and practical forces present within both actors' rules structures (Figure 1). This framework provides a set of criteria to apply to everyday conversation in order to determine what type of power or domination is being enacted. This figure constrains its focus to ideal unilateral power and domination episodes. One actor (P_1) is conceived as performing types of communication strategies that create forms of power and domination which another actor (P_2) accepts.

The prefigurative and practical forces are determined by the role an actor creates in interaction, by whether a power or domination episode is being enacted, and by the degree of legitimation present. For example, in a unilateral institutionalized power episode, the actor (P_1) asserting a power attempt has very strong prefigurative forces and very strong practical forces whereas the person accepting the power attempt (P_2) has very strong prefigurative and very weak practical forces. The strong prefigurative forces on the part of the more powerful actor are a result of the institutional or habitual routine nature of the interaction. This combination of linkages stresses that the more "powerful" actor selects speech acts on the basis of trying to achieve desired goals and is not restricted to what the other actor has previously said. The strong prefigurative forces

Figure 1

A Model of Forms of Power and Domination

	Person 1							Perso	n 2	
Types of Power and Domination	Prefig- urative Forces	Practical Forces	Range of Acts	Degree of Legiti- mation	Type of Legitimation	Prefig- urative Forces	Practical Forces	Range of Acts	Degree of Legitı- matıon	Type of Legitimation
Unilateral Power	Low	High	Low- High	Low	Prefigurative or Emergent	High	Low	Low	Low	Prefigurative or Emergent
Unilateral Institutionalized Power	Very High	Very High	Low- High	High	Prefigurative	Very High	Very Low	Very Low	Нìgh	Prefigurative
Unilateral Emergent Power	Mod High	High	Low- High	Mod High	Emergent	Low	Low	Low	Mod High	Emergent
Unılateral Dominance	Low- Mod.	Low- Mod.	Low- High	Low	Prefigurative or Emergent	Low- Mod.	Low- Mod.	Mod High	Low	Prefigurative or Emergent
Unilateral Institutionalized Dominance	Very High	High	Low- High	Нıgh	Prefigurative	Mod High	Low- Mod.	Mod High	High	Prefigurative
Unilateral Emergent Dominance	Low- Mod.	Mod High	Low- High	Mod High	Emergent	Low- Mod.	Mod High	Mod Hıgh	Mod Hıgh	Emergent

present in the actor acquiescing to the power attempt results from the higher degree of prefigurative legitimation. This episode apparently has a set pattern from which deviation is not permitted. This actor's individual speech acts are not based upon anticipated consequent conditions, but are instead geared towards responding appropriately to the other actor's preceding speech act.

PROPOSITION II: Conversational forms of power and domination and communication strategies possess a reflexive relationship. In order to cocreate forms of power and domination, there must be some implicit or explicit acknowledgement of the degree and type of legitimation present by actors. This acknowledgement may be reflected by the type of communication strategies displayed in conversation. Forms of power and domination not only engender certain types of communication strategies, but they may also be socially created through communication strategies. As a result, proportions of the four communication strategies tend to generate particular types of power and domination episodes. Conversely, the enactment of forms of power and domination episodes may constrain the types of communication strategies performed by actors. It is possible to indicate the relative proportions of communication strategies both present within a particular episode and between episodes (Figure 2).

<u>Legitimizing Corollary</u>: As the degree of legitimation increases, the numer of ingratiation strategies decreases while metacommunication and influence strategies increase.

<u>Prefigurative Definition Corollary</u>: As the prefigurative definition of a conversational episode increases, the need for

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Figure 2

Type and Degree of Strategies in Power and Domination Episodes

•	•	· ·	•			•		
	Alterc	asting	Ingratiation		Metacom	Influence		
	P ₁	P ₂						
Unilateral Power	High	Low	Low	Low	Low- Mod.	Low	Mod.	Low
Unilateral Institutionalized Power	Hīgh	Low	Very Low	Very Low	N.A.	N.A.	High	Low
Unilateral Emergent Power	Hıgh	Low	Very Low	Very Low	Mod High	Low- Mod.	High	Low
Unilateral Domination	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.
Unılateral Institutionalized Domination	Low	Low	Mod.	Low	High	Mod.	Нıgh	Low
Unilateral Emergent Domination	Low	Нıgh	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.

ingratiation strategies decreases.

An example of communication strategies used in a unilateral institutionalized power episode may be useful. Altercasting will be a more prevalently used strategy in this type of episode by the more powerful actor. The high degree of prefigurative legitimation allows the more powerful actor to invoke a typical episode with a prescribed range of speech acts that may be performed. Ingratiation will be a seldom used strategy as bargaining is not required since the powerful actor can impose his/her actions on the less powerful actor.

Metacommunication will be used relatively often as it may serve to clarify a previous directive that the less powerful actor may have misperceived. Influence strategies will be utilized very often as a reason given for the action(s) may be all that is required to constrain an actor's choices due to the high degree of prefigurative legitimation.

PROPOSITION III: Social motivation is an interpersonal communication process whereby leaders and followers cocreate forms of power and domination to secure the felt compulsion of other members of a social system to perform subsequent acts that facilitate achieving a desired goal. This view of motivation stresses the importance of social action or communication as a means to increase the felt compulsion of other social actors. Rather than traditional orientations towards motivation, this perspective is concerned with motivation stemming from human action versus particular environmental or work characteristics such as job enlargement (Chung & Ross, 1977), macro-organization design (Likert, 1967), and modification of the work

week (Ronen & Primps, 1981).

This perspective towards motivation is consistent with the basic elements of social action theory as defined by Parsons (1937). The process of social motivation consists of three component parts. First, an agent or individual must perform some act identified as a motivation attempt. A motivation attempt is any conversational act by a leader that attempts to manipulate the level of felt compulsion within a social system to promote the performance of means to achieve some desired goal. Second, as alluded to in the previous definition, a motivation attempt must implicitly or explicitly include a goal that is desired by the initiator of the motivation attempt. Third, the initiator must implicitly or explicitly specify means by which to achieve the goal. The definition of means and goals may exist prior to the performance of a social motivation attempt or may emerge during interaction. While the definition and specification of means and goals are necessary for a motivation attempt, the process by which the means and goal definitions are achieved is more properly conceived of as leadership since social motivation focuses primarily upon the construction of levels of felt compulsion in actors to facilitate the performance of means to achieve goals.

Motivating Forces Corollary: The probability an actor will feel compelled to perform a specified means to achieve a desired goal is contingent upon the extrinsic and intrinsic forces created during a social motivation attempt. As Hamner and Organ (1978) observe:

Performance = f (Motivation X Ability)

This equation states that the performance of desired behavior towards

goal achievement is a function of an individual's motivation or force and the ability to perform the task. Motivation and performance possess a positive linear relationship since increases in motivation, with ability level held constant, will lead to increases in performance level.

Two types of motivational forces are typically identified in the social psychological literature. Motivation theorists, who recognize the impacts of external or environmental characteristics plus internal or individual characteristics of employees upon work performance, have respectively labelled these concepts as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Herzberg, 1966). Extrinsically motivated behaviors refer to any set of behaviors motivated by the introduction of some external or environmental stimuli such as threats or rewards. Conversely, "intrinsically motivated behaviors are those behaviors that are motivated by the underlying need for competence and self-determination" (Deci & Ryan, 1980). This theoretical "middle ground" suggests a complete account of motivated behaviors can only be obtained by incorporating both causal (i.e. Skinner, 1957) and teleological (i.e. Maslow, 1954) explanation.

In the traditional social psychological sense, the process of social motivation would technically be conceived as extrinsic motivation since messages are directed towards actors present within the environment or social system. However, this traditional approach has assumed that operationalizations of extrinsic motivation within research studies are recognized as they are intended by the researcher. Such an assumption may be invalid. For example, Delaney

(1962), in a verbal learning experiment, discovered that subjects who were aware of the linkage between schedules of reinforcement and the related desired behaviors "learned" at a greater rate than those who were unable to recognize the pattern. This experiment illustrates that concepts such as learning, performance, and motivation are not totally contingent upon the presence of objective stimuli within an environment, but are heavily dependent on how the subject construes these stimuli. Because of the importance of actors' meaning structures, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation could more profitably be conceived as extrinsic and intrinsic forces that occur within an actor's meaning structure created vis-a-vis communication in a social system. Extrinsic forces, like extrinsic motivation, refer to the causal or prefigurative forces within an individual's personal system of meaning that generate action. Intrinsic forces refer to the teleological or practical forces guiding an individual's actions, the desirability of the actions, and the sense of competence while performing those actions.

Identification Corollary: The impact of forms of power and domination upon an actor's felt compulsion to perform subsequent acts to achieve a desired goal is mediated by levels of identification within a social system. Barge and Johnson (1985) found that several forms of power and domination resulted in higher perceptions of felt compulsion when effective leadership was enacted by members of an organization. No particular form of power and domination was uniquely associated with higher levels of felt compulsion by followers within a social system. One explanation for the arrival at the same outcome

variable from a variety of initial starting points may be the level of identification within a social system constrained the choices of the followers. Research has demonstrated that the higher the degree of organizational identification, individuals perceive fewer alternative actions from which to choose (Simon, 1976; Laird & Hemphill, 1983). Since the range of alternative courses of action such as non-performance is constrained, the probability a person will feel compelled to perform a specified act contained within a directive or command is high. While the enactment of forms of power and domination is a necessary condition to increase levels of felt compulsion on the part of others, it is not a sufficient condition that will automatically lead to the performance of specified means. Rather, it will be contingent upon the perceived levels of identification by the follower.

<u>Definition</u>: <u>Identification</u> is a state of being that occurs when an individual knowingly or unknowingly perceives a social system's identity or set of values, beliefs, attitudes, and ideas as integrated and synonymous with their own identity. Similar to social motivation, identifications may be engendered in individuals by social action.

Two interpretations of this definition are possible. One interpretation equates identification with agreement whereby an individual and an organization maintain separate identities. Under this interpretation, identification is measured by the level of agreement between the two. The second interpretation, and the one used in this essay, views identification as integration (Burke, 1969). The individual's and organization's identities are joined and

integrated as one. For example, an identified individual from the former perspective may state, "My personal goals are in agreement with the organization's goals," whereas an identified individual from the latter might say, "My goals are the organization's goals." The integrative approach seems to parallel Katz and Kahn's (1966) definition of identification.

While the previous definition of identification is general in nature, specific types of identification can also be discerned that parallel various aspects of the social motivation process. interactions of people in social systems generate rules which may concern who can direct who within given situations, what are considered to be the goals of a social system, and what "counts as" proper and valid means to achieve those goals. Specific types of identification can be defined for these three aspects. Role identification is the degree to which an individual perceives another individual as having the right to enact a certain role within a given situation. This corresponds to French and Raven's (1959) notion of referent power. An individual enacting a particular role is viewed as having certain characteristics which cause the recipient to view his/her actions as appropriate. For example, an individual may be perceived by others as possessing the right to issue commands given particular types of situations in the organization. Means identification is the degree to which the means utilized to achieve a goal in a particular situation are appropriate in the social system. Similarly, goal identification is the degree to which an individual finds the goals of the social system relevant for him or her.

An example may be warranted. A vice-president of sales calls an assistant into the office and informs him/her that s/he is to go out and meet a client. Further, the assistant is instructed to bribe the client in order to achieve a lucrative contract for the firm. In this situation, the assistant may have a high degree of role identification as given the type of situation in this organization, s/he perceives the vice-president as having the right to initiate such a request. Further, goal identification may be high as the assistant perceives the specified goal in this situation as integrated with the accepted organizational goal, to increase the number of business contracts. However, means identification may be low as bribery may not be accepted as a viable means to obtain goals within the organization.

Identification Interaction Corollary: Levels of role, means, and goal identifications interact to produce varying levels of perceived identification by an actor during a motivation attempt. As Cronen et al. (1979) note, the types of meanings people attribute to a phenomenon interact to produce global perceptions of conversational episodes such as degree of membership. Similarly, different combinations of specific identifications interact to produce differing levels of overall organizational identification. For example, if all three types of identification are either high or low, one would expect that the overall level of identification would be high or low respectively. The notion that "lower" level identifications such as role identification interact to produce changes in "higher" level identifications is similar to the notion that combinations of lower level meanings in hierarchical systems can produce changes in the meanings individuals

assign to phenomena at higher levels (Rommetveit, 1971; Delia, 1975).

Compliance Corollary: Organizational identification possesses a reflexive relationship with the degree to which an actor will feel compelled to move in the direction desired by the initiator of the motivation attempt. Theorists in both psychology (Davitz, 1969) and speech communication (Cronen & Price, 1976) have recognized that individuals may react to influence attempts in a variety of manners. Building on Davitz' work, Cronen and Price (1976) contend an audience may react to a public speaker in any one of three ways. First, the audience may move toward the public speaker's position which entails an acceptance of the speaker's position. Second, the audience may move away from the speaker's contentions or withdraw the attention given towards the message. Finally, as a result of the message, the audience may move against the speaker and feel prompted to display behaviors that would oppose the speaker's goals.

These three types of outcomes to public presentations may also be applied to the compliance or non-compliance outcomes stemming from social motivation attempts. The initiation of a social motivation attempt may lead to one of three behavioral outcomes. First, the target of a motivation attempt may entirely identify with the attempt and comply with the guidance the motivator suggests. Second, one type of non-compliance for a social motivation attempt is for the actor to ignore the attempt and not perform the desired behavior specified by the initiator. For example, when a line-worker is told to perform a particular task, s/he may "forget" to do it. Third, another form of non-compliance is to oppose or undermine the initiator's social

motivation attempt. Such opposition may be evidenced in a number of strategies that may be employed by actors such as building coalitions, appealing to higher authorities, or engaging in work slowdowns (Kipnis et al., 1980).

The overall level of identification an actor perceives in reference to a social motivation attempt is positively related to the probability the actor will move toward the desired goal specified by the initiator. As Simon (1976) and Laird and Hemphill (1983) have empirically demonstrated, the higher the degree of identification the fewer alternative courses of action there are to choose from. Therefore, as an actor becomes more identified with a social motivation attempt, s/he will perceive fewer alternative actions that s/he can perform other than moving towards the direction desired by the initiator. Similarly, lower levels of identification increase the range of alternatives an actor may select from which increases the likelihood that s/he may move away or against the initiator of a social motivation attempt.

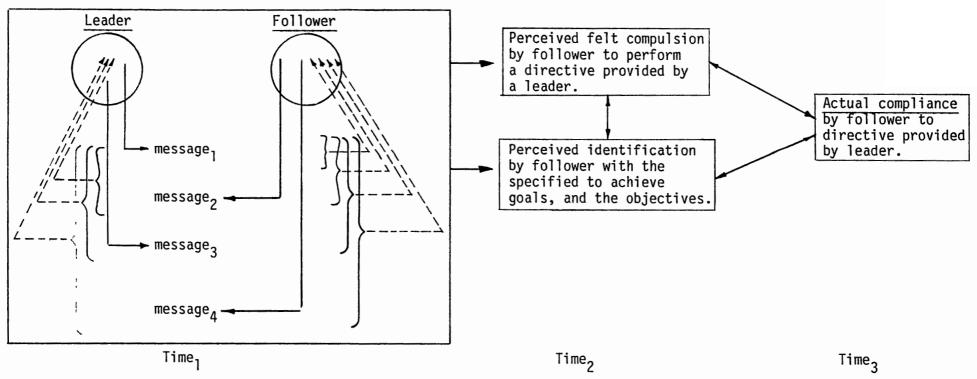
SUMMARY

The concepts of leadership and motivation have traditionally been theorized and researched within micro and macro-structural paradigms. Heavy reliance upon these paradigms has limited researchers in their ability to examine leadership as enacted in daily dialogue, explain the influence of a priori organizational structures upon leadership performance, and view leadership as a systemic phenomenon. In order to address these shortcomings, a new theoretical

orientation to the study of leadership and social motivation based on Pearce and Cronen's (1980) Coordinated Management of Meaning is articulated.

Premising an approach to leadership upon an interpersonal communication theory such as CMM necessitates a direct examination of the conversations which occur between leaders and followers and their subsequent impact upon the motivation, identification, and compliance by followers. Using the postulate, propositions, and corollaries developed earlier, an interpersonal leadership model summarizing these concepts is presented (Figure 3). First, leaders initially engage in conversation with followers to motivate them to perform a particular activity to achieve a desirable goal at Time 1. These conversations consist of a series of alternating sequences of messages produced by both participants as represented by the solid lines. Further, each participant monitors the ongoing sequence of messages in order to attribute meaning to the interaction and structure the messages that follow. This process is characterized by the brackets and dotted lines. These initial exchanges may take on a variety of conversational forms such as coordinated or enigmatic episodes (Cronen et al., 1979). During these initial conversations, leaders attempt to increase the follower's perceived level of felt compulsion by cocreating forms of power and domination within the dialogue.

Second, at a later time (Time 2), followers knowingly or unknowingly assess the impact of the earlier conversation with the leader upon their perceived felt compulsion and identification with the directive provided by a leader. While the forms of the initial



conversation generate levels of felt compulsion and identification by the follower, the level of felt compulsion interacts with the degree of identification. The degree to which a follower identifies with the leader, the means specified to achieve goals, and the objectives moderates the perceived felt compulsion by the follower to perform a directive. Conversely, increased felt compulsion may engender feelings of heightened identifications as followers perceiving a limited choice in performing a directive may rationalize their performance by viewing the leader as possessing the right to make such a directive. This reciprocal relationship between the two concepts is indicated by the double-headed arrows.

Finally, variations in perceptions of felt compulsion and identification affect the probability the follower will actually perform the directive provided by a leader. Subsequently at Time 3, the follower provides some behavioral indication of compliance or non-compliance with the directive. This may consist of either complying with the directive, ignoring the directive, or constructing courses of action that prevent a leader from achieving the desired goals contained within the directive. A methodology for empirically examining these hypothesized relationships is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The description of what constitutes truly effective leadership has been a major focal point for social scientific research during the last few decades. Numerous approaches depicted the necessary skills, aptitudes, or styles that leaders must possess in order to lead and secure the felt obligation of followers within a social group.

Nevertheless, a vast majority of current theory either neglects the conversational performance of leadership or leaves the relationship between communication and leadership implicit within its theoretical framework. This problem precludes leadership theorists from articulating the communicative strategies that individuals employ to become leaders.

The present research study developed an approach to leadership that is grounded in the daily conversation of social actors within organizations. Rather than constrain analysis to those variables such as corporate cultures that encapsulize communication by leaders, an adequate leadership theory must also be able to account for the social construction of these variables vis-a-vis daily dialogue. In Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theory, leadership is reconceptualized as an ongoing interpersonal communication process where persons have conversations to: (1) define the parameters of a social system, (2) provide means to achieve ends, (3) motivate an individual to perform desired means by changing the felt compulsion of another actor, and

(4) structure goals for a social system. The forms which these conversations between leaders and followers assume subsequently influence the degree to which a follower may identify with a leader and feel motivated to perform a directive provided by a leader. Viewing leadership as a conversational process between individuals shifts the focus from identifying situational variables that encompass leadership activities to identifying how leaders accomplish these activities using communication.

Five research questions were proposed to examine the utility of this theory to describe the conversational performance of leadership. Within the leadership style literature, emphasis has been placed upon describing broad behavioral styles that differentiate effective from ineffective leadership. While the perspective proposed here is concerned with distinguishing between effective and ineffective leadership communication, this approach focuses upon the patterning of messages within conversation and not general behavioral styles. This emphasis upon the actual message production process among leaders and followers prompts the following research question: "How do the conversational forms characterizing the enactment of effective leadership differ from those constituting the performance of ineffective leadership?"

Individuals such as leaders may employ a variety of means to achieve the compliance of other organizational members such as coalition building or making appeals to higher authorities (Kipnis et al., 1980). One means of motivating followers to accept and subsequently perform the directives which leaders provide is through

the enactment of power and domination within leader-follower dialogue. Leaders use messages to construct types of power and domination in an attempt to constrain the perceived choices of the followers. In order to examine how types of messages are related to power and domination, the following research question was asked: "How are particular types of communicative strategies associated with the social construction of forms of power and domination?"

Situational leadership theorists (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) contend that successful leaders are sensitive to situational variables and adapt their behavior accordingly. Similarly, interpersonal communication theorists have asserted that individuals must be competent communicators and manage their interaction in order to achieve desirable goals (Cushman & Craig, 1976; Harris, 1979). This entails the ability of actors to interpret the situation and coordinate their actions with others. The emphasis upon being sensitive to situational variables by both leadership and communication theorists intimates that effective leaders may also be competent communicators. This raises the third research question: "How do dimensions of communication competence vary across forms of conversation characterizing effective and ineffective leaders? The dimensions are: (1) predictability of the communicative interchange, (2) valence of the episode, (3) degree of appropriateness, and (4) creativity."

Several theorists have hypothesized that a positive relationship exists between followers' level of motivation and their degree of identification with the organization (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Lee, 1971). Furthermore, as the level of identification increases,

individuals perceive fewer options from which to select and perform within a given situation (Simon, 1976; Laird & Hemphill, 1983). This suggests that when followers more highly identify with leaders, they may experience a heightened level of felt obligation to comply with leaders' directives. The final two research questions probe this relationship: "How does the level of identification with the definition of system, with the means to achieve ends, and with goals differ between effective and ineffective leadership?" and, "What are the relationships among effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform directives, and social motivation?"

This approach to conversational leadership and social motivation was tested in a field descriptive study within two midwestern hospitals. The sample from Hospital A was comprised of members of the cardio-pulmonary unit while subjects in Hospital B were selected from the nursing staff. In order to describe the method utilized, an overview of the selection process for subjects, the procedures employed, and the statistical analyses conducted are presented.

FIELD DESCRIPTIVE STUDY

A field setting was chosen since it is more sensitive to the special characteristics of an organization than a laboratory setting. According to Bouchard (1976), field settings capture contextual features of organizations that cannot be fully replicated in a laboratory. In this case, field description provided a method to test the sensitivity of the analytical frameworks developed for detecting differences in the conversational manifestation of leadership, power, domination, and social motivation.

The purpose of the field descriptive portion of the current research was to: (1) describe the conversational forms between effective and ineffective leaders and their followers, (2) examine the relationship between types of messages and forms of conversation, (3) explore the relationship between communication competence and leadership, and (4) assess the impact of leadership performance upon followers' motivation and organizational identification. To obtain this information, scalar items were developed that measured followers' perceptions of the conversational form of dialogues occurring between them and individuals they perceived as leaders. Scalar items were also constructed that tapped the followers' global impressions regarding the same conversations. Operationalizations of these variables and the procedures are detailed below.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF MESSAGE VARIABLES

Determining the conversational forms of leadership, power, and domination required followers to self-report their impressions of the messages they produced during a dialogue. How individuals perceived their levels of prefigurative forces, practical forces, and range of alternative acts selection indicated the conversational form (Cronen et al., 1979). To obtain these indicators, followers initially reconstructed conversations which they recalled having with individuals perceived as leaders. They then completed scalar items that represented these variables for every message they uttered during a dialogue. This questionnaire was called the Follower Questionnaire (Appendix A). The three variables were operationalized in Likert-like scales as follows:

[1] Perceived Prefigurative Forces:

- a) The situation seemed to require me to say this kind of message.
- b The type of relationship we have requires me to say this kind of message.
- c) Saying this kind of message closely reflects who I am and what a person like me must do.
- d) A person like me in this organization would feel it is very important that I say this kind of message.

[2] Perceived Practical Forces:

- a) The response the other person gave me to my message was very desirable.
- b) I said this type of message in order to bring about a particular response.
- c) I wanted to say this kind of message and what the other person would do next would not change my need to do it.

[3] Perceived Range of Alternative Acts:

a) There are many other types of messages I could have said in this situation.

These scales have been used in several studies using CMM to examine conversations and have a test-retest reliability of .68 to .79 (Cronen et al., 1979).

The types of message strategies leaders used during conversation and their level of communication competence was obtained by recording followers' impressions of the leaders' messages uttered during the reconstructed dialogues. For each message uttered during a conversation by a leader, followers completed a series of scalar items named the Leader Questionnaire (Appendix A) that assessed: (1) the perceived type of communication strategy a particular message represented, (2) the degree to which a message was viewed as legitimate and the type of legitimation present, and (3) how communicationally competent the leader was perceived in sequencing

his/her message with the messages produced by the follower.

Communication competence was defined as the ability of a person to manage the requirements of a social system of which s/he is a member (Harris, 1979). Competent actors are: (a) able to structure messages viewed as appropriate by other members of social system, (b) sequence their messages in a fashion that prevents other members from becoming confused, and (c) guide, in conjunction with the other actor, the direction the conversation will take. The following Likert-like items operationalized the perceptions of leaders' messages:

[1] Perceived Communication Strategies:

- a) This kind of message makes it extremely clear to me what role is appropriate for me to act out during this kind of conversation.
- b) This kind of message is a comment about what is going on between us in this conversation.
- c) This kind of message tells me if I do what is suggested I will receive something in return.
- d) I view this kind of message as a threat.
- e) I view this kind of statement as a reason for taking (leader's) advice or following the given directive.

[2] Perceived Degree and Type of Legitimation:

- a) This kind of message was extremely appropriate for (leader) to say.
- b) (Leader) definitely needs to explain to me why s/he said this kind of message.

[3] Perceived Communication Competence:

- a) This type of message was very appropriate for (leader) to say.
- b) I think (leader) could predict with a high degree of certainty the kind of response s/he would get by saying this kind of message.
- c) (Leader) could have experimented with other types of messages without causing me to be confused.
- d) Saying this kind of message helps (leader) control the direction this conversation will go.

Research by Harris (1979) and Schaefer and Johnson (1985) demonstrated reliability for these items with Cronbach reliability coefficients ranging from .56 to .88. Reliabilities for the type of legitimation (Item 2B) and influence measures (Items 1D and 1E) have not been demonstrated.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF GLOBAL IMPRESSION VARIABLES

The preceding operationalizations of variables permit a micro analysis of the specific communicative acts performed by leaders and followers in dialogue. However, outcome variables such as: (1) identifications, (2) perceived level of felt compulsion, (3) types of motivating forces, (4) overall levels of communication competence, (5) the valence of the conversation, (6) perceived leadership, (7) compliance, and (8) conversational coherency were examined at a more macro level. Followers completed a Global Questionnaire (Appendix A) which measured their perceptions of these various outcomes of conversations with leaders. Using a series of Likert-like scales, these concepts were operationalized as follows:

[1] Perceived Identifications:

- a) The other person and I were working towards very similar goals in this conversation.
- b) The goals we were trying to achieve by having this conversation are very similar to the goals of the organization.
- c) The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation are very similar to the goals of the organization.
- d) Given our relationship, it was very acceptable for the other person to perform the role of a leader during our conversation.
- e) In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person to perform the role of a leader in similar kinds of situations.

- f) In our organization, it is very acceptable for individuals like the other person in the conversation to act like a leader in similar kinds of situations.
- g) The manner we used to achieve the goals was extremely appropriate given who we were.
- h) The ways we used to achieve the goals were highly acceptable given who we were.
- i) The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.
- j) This kind of conversation makes me feel like I belong in this organization.

[2] Perceived Level of Felt Compulsion:

a) I felt very strongly I did not have to follow the guidance the other person gave me during the conversation.

[3] Perceived Motivating Forces:

- a) I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helps me achieve a very desirable work-related goal.
- b) I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it brings about an extremely desirable personal goal.
- c) The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal.
- d) The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.

[4] Perceived Communication Competence:

- a) I communicated very competently during this conversation.
- b) The other person communicated very competently during this conversation.

[5] Perceived Episode Desirability and Effectiveness:

- a) This conversation was extremely desirable.
- b) This conversation was very ineffective in moving us towards some work-related goals.
- c) This conversation definitely helped me achieve a personal goal.
- d) This conversation was highly effective in my achieving a personal goal.

[6] Perceived Leadership:

- a) I acted like a very effective leader during this conversation.
- b) The other person acted like a very effective leader.

[7] Perceived Compliance:

- a) During this conversation, I listened very closely to what the other person had to say but will probably do what I want regardless of the other person's advice or directions.
- b) At the end of this conversation, I would definitely like to perform some act to prevent the other person from achieving his/her goal.
- c) This conversation definitely made me feel like working towards some common goals the other person brought up.

[8] Perceived Level of Coherence:

- a) The other person spoke so badly, I could not understand what s/he wanted me to do.
- b) The other person spoke so well, I absolutely understood what s/he wanted me to do.

Reliabilities for these items were achieved in the following manner. First, students in an undergraduate organizational communication class reconstructed a conversation held previously with an individual they perceived as an effective leader (n=27). For this conversation, they completed a series of items similar to those in Table 1. Each global variable was operationalized with two Likert-like items. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients were then computed for each variable. From those scalar items achieving reliability (a > .69), one item of the two was selected for inclusion on the final questionnaire. Second, those items not achieving reliability were reworded, and two items measuring the variable were placed upon the final Global Questionnaire (Appendix A). Reliabilities were then computed for all surveys collected from both organizations. All items achieved

Table 1

Polishilities for Global Measurement Items

Reflabilities for Grobal Measurement Ite	1115
SCALES	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
Goal Identification at Relationship Level	
The other person in the conversation and I were working towards very similar goals in this conversation.	
The goals in this conversation the other person and I were working towards were extremely similar.	.81
Goal Identification at Organizational Level	
The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation were very different from the goals of the organization.	
The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation were very similar to the goals of the organization.	.93*
Role Identification at Relationship Level	
It was highly appropriate for the other person to act like a leader during our conversation because of our relationship.	
Given our relationship, it was very acceptable for th other person to perform the role of a leader during our conversation.	e .74
Role Identification at Organizational Level	
In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person in this conversation to perform the role of a leader in similar kinds of situations.	
In our organization, it is very acceptable for individuals like the other person in the conversation to act like a leader in similar kinds of situations.	.87*
Means Identification at Relationship Level	
The ways we used to achieve the goals were highly inappropriate given who we were.	
The manner we used to achieve the goals was extremely appropriate given who we were.	.92*

Table 1 (Continued)

SCALES	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
Means Identification at Organizational Level	-
The ways we used to meet our goals are very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.	
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.	.89
Overall Organizational Identification	
This kind of conversation definitely makes me feel like I belong in this organization.	
This kind of conversation definitely makes me feel like I don't belong in this organization.	
This kind of conversation makes it very easy for me to identify myself with the organization.	
This kind of conversation definitely makes me feel like a part of the organization.	.92
Level of Felt Compulsion	
I felt very strongly I did not have to follow the guidance the other person gave me during the conversation.	
I felt very strongly that I had to follow the advice the other person gave me during this conversation.	.87
Intrinsic Motivation Towards a Work-Related Goal	
I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helped me achieve a very desirable work-related goal.	
I definitely wanted to have this conversation because it helps me bring about an extremely desirable work-related goal.	.69

Table 1 (Continued)

SCALES	CRONBACH'S	ALPH
Intrinsic Motivation Towards a Personal Goal		
I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it brings about an extremely desirable personal goal.		
The other person talked to me during this conversa- tion in a way that greatly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.	.91	
Extrinsic Motivation Towards a Work-Related Goal		
How the other person talked to me during this conversation definitely motivated me to achieve some work-related goal.		
The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal.	.76	
Extrinsic Motivation Towards a Personal Goal		
The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.		
The other person talked to me during this conversation in a way that greatly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.	n .92	
Communication Competence for Self		
I communicated very competently during this conversation.		
I acted like an extremely competent communicator during this conversation.	.86	
Communication Competence for Other		
The other person communicated very competently during this conversation.		
In this conversation, the other person spoke like an extremely competent communicator.	. 71	

SCALES	Table 1 (Continued)	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
Episode Valence		
This conversatı	on was extremely desirable.	
I felt this con	versation was highly desirable.	.97
Episode Effecti	ve to Achieve Work-Related Goal	
	on was very effective in moving work-related goals.	
	on was very ineffective in moving work-related goals.	.72
Episode Effecti	ve to Achieve Personal Goal	
This conversati achieving a per	on was highly effective in my sonal goal.	
This conversati a personal goal	on definitely helped me achieve •	.83*
Leadership Effe	ctiveness of Self	
I acted like a this conversati	very effective leader during on.	
I acted like a this conversati	very ineffective leader during on.	.89
Leadership Effe	ctiveness of Other	
The other perso leader.	n acted like a very effective	
The other perso leader.	n acted like a very ineffective	.76
Level of Withdr	awal	
carefully to wh but will probab	versation, I listened very at the other person had to say, ly do what I want regardless of n's advice or direction.	
closely to what will probably d	versation, I listened very the other person had to say, but o what I want regardless of the advice or directions.	.73

Table 1 (Continued)

SCALES CRONBACH'S ALPHA

Level of_Aggression

At the end of this conversation, I would definitely like to perform some act to prevent the other person from achieving his/her goal.

At the end of this conversation, I would definitely want to perform some act that prevents the other person from achieving his/her goal.

.91

Level of Movement

I definitely felt like working towards some common goals brought up by the other person because of this conversation.

This conversation definitely made me feel like working towards some common goals the other person brought up.

.94

Level of Conversational Coherence

The other person spoke so badly, I had absolutely no idea what s/he wanted me to do.

The other person spoke so well, I absolutely understood what s/he wanted me to do.

-88*

^{*}Reliabilities computed on data obtained from final questionnaire.

reliability as measured by Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .69 to .97 (Table 1).

SUBJECTS

In Hospital A, 34 individuals were selected and in Hospital B, 32 individuals were sampled. Subjects from Hospital A were drawn from the pulmonary-cardiology unit which is divided into separate pulmonary and cardiology sub-units. The total unit is organized under a director supervising the general activities and responsibilities of approximately 100 employees. The director has one assistant director who reports directly to him and approximately eight supervisors who report to both the director and assistant director (Figure 4).

Subjects from Hospital B were drawn from the nursing unit. Six nursing sub-units were included in this sample: (1) oncology, (2) pediatrics, (3) critical care, (4) nursing development, (5) surgical, and (6) medical. Each sub-unit is headed by either a head nurse or supervisor who is responsible for the planning of floor activities, the scheduling of personnel, and conducting performance appraisals of personnel. An assistant head nurse reports to each head nurse. Additionally, each shift has a charge nurse who is responsible for the sub-unit during that time period (Figure 5).

A proportionate stratified sampling technique was used to select the sample to be interviewed for each hospital. First, the relative number of employees within each sub-unit were tallied and the proportion they represented of the entire unit computed. Second, based on these proportions, a stratified sample was drawn within each sub-unit using managerial levels as strata. This yielded a sample

Figure 4
Organizational Chart for Hospital A
Cardiology-Pulmonary Unit

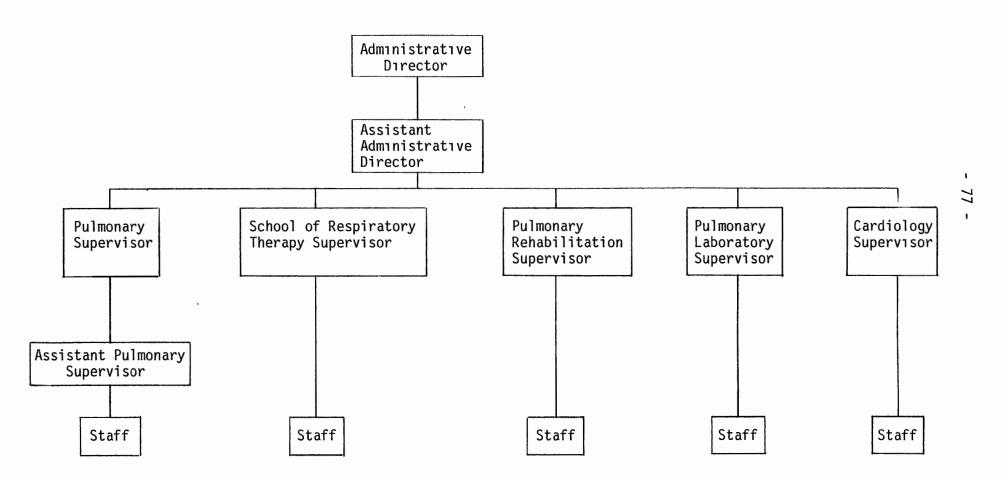
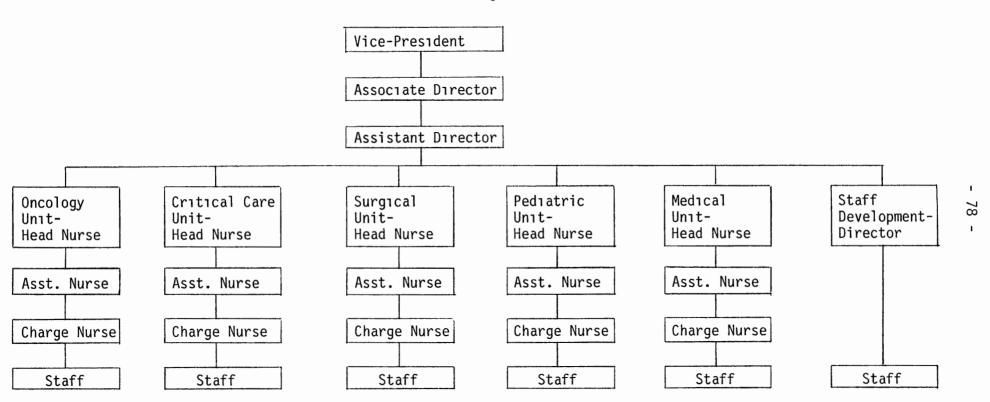


Figure 5
Organizational Chart for Hospital B
Nursing Unit



that reflected the relative proportion of members between sub-units while including a proportionate sampling of hierarchical levels of management. A proportionate sampling technique was used since the generalizability of chief interest was to the population of individuals constituting the entire unit versus sub-units or levels of management.

DATA COLLECTION

Once the subject sample was determined, the data were collected in a two-step procedure. First, an initial interview was conducted with each subject where they reconstructed two conversations they had with individuals they perceived as leaders. Second, they were requested to complete a series of follow-up questionnaires regarding their perceptions of the conversations.

Initial interview

Subjects were interviewed in a standard hospital office.

Individuals selected to participate in this part of the study were interviewed with a highly structured and scheduled interview guide.

The interviews obtained the following types of information: (1) the reconstruction of conversations with effective and ineffective leaders at a message-by-message level, and (2) contexts surrounding the conversation, such as the relationship between the participants. The interview guide is presented in Appendix A. It is important to note that subjects were informed that leaders are not necessarily formal managers but may be anyone within the organization. Subjects reconstructed two conversations that had occurred between them and individuals they perceived as effective and ineffective in motivating

them to achieve either work-related or personal goals. They were then thanked for their participation and requested to complete a series of questionnaires at a later time regarding these two conversations.

Questionnaire

After subjects received packets containing the written message-by-message transcripts of the two conversations with effective and ineffective leaders, they were asked to complete four questionnaires. First, for each message performed in the conversations, they completed two questionnaires measuring different message variables. For their own utterances they completed the Follower Questionnaire. For the utterances of the perceived leader, they completed the Leader Questionnaire assessing the types of communication strategies employed, the degree and type of legitimation, and the aspects of communication competence. Second, all subjects were asked to complete the Global Questionnaire tapping global impressions for each conversation. Third, they completed a questionnaire measuring a variety of demographic variables. These packets were distributed and collected two weeks later. The return rate for these packets in Hospital A and B were 81 percent and 58 percent respectively. Tables 2 and 3 contain a demographic summary of those subjects returning the completed questionnaires for both hospitals.

ANALYSIS

Several statistical analyses were performed upon the scalar measurement items using the Statistical Package for the Social

Table 2
Summary of Demographic Questions for Hospital A

Demographic Varıable	Lev	<u>rels</u>	Frequencies of Re- sponses at Each Level
Position	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Administrative Director Assistant Administrative Director Supervisor Assistant Supervisor Staff	0 1 5 1
Department	1. 2. 3.	Cardiology Pulmonary School of Respiratory Therapy	8 16 2
Sex	1.	Female Male	16 10
Years at *	3.	0-3 Years 4-7 Years 8-15 Years 16-20 Years Over 20 Years	6 11 7 1
Years in Department	2. 3.	0-3 Years 4-7 Years 8-15 Years 16-20 Years Over 20 Years	9 10 7 0 0
Age	1. 2. 3. 4.	Under 25 25-35 Years Old 36-45 Years Old Over 45	5 15 5 1

^{*}The name of the organization is removed to ensure its anonymity.

Table 3
Summary of Demographic Questions for Hospital A

Demographic Variable	Levels	Frequencies of Re- sponses at Each Level
Position	 Head Nurse Assistant Head Nurse Supervisor Staff Nurse L.P.N. 	4 1 1 9 3
Department	 Oncology Pediatrics Critical Care Surgical Medical Staff Development 	2 3 3 4 2 4
Sex	1. Female2. Male	18 0
Years at	 0-3 Years 4-7 Years 8-15 Years 16-20 Years Over 20 Years 	2 4 7 3 2
Years in Department	 0-3 Years 4-7 Years 8-15 Years 16-20 Years Over 20 Years 	8 4 2 2 2
Age	 Under 25 25-35 Years 36-45 Years Over 45 	1 7 7 3

^{*}The name of the organization is removed to ensure its anonymity.

Sciences (SPSSX). The various operationalizations of variables are reported below for each research question.

RESEARCH QUESTION I

The first research question focused on differences between the conversational patterns characterizing effective and ineffective leadership. Two distinct analytical frameworks were employed to classify the reconstructed conversations according to: (1) their perceived conversational form, and (2) the type of power and domination present. First, the conversational typology developed by Cronen et al. (1979) was employed to analyze the general conversational or episodic form of the leader-follower dialogues. This typology is premised on the belief that perceived conversational forms are reflected by the personal rule structures which actors employ during dialogue. Ascertaining the episodic form requires an analysis of how individuals view: (1) the impact of antecedent acts, episode, relationship, life script, and cultural archetype upon their message selection, (2) the degree to which their message selection was goal directed, (3) the valence of the other's response to their messages, (4) the range of alternative messages, and (5) the valence of the episode.

These variables were operationalized as follows. First, mean scores for each item from the Follower Questionnaire were computed (Items 1A-1E, 2A-2C, 3A). For every conversation, the responses for

each item were summed across all messages and averaged. Second, the response to the perceived episode valence on the Global Questionnaire was recorded (Item 5A). Third, the responses were subsequently classified as either low/negative (score means of one to two), moderate/neutral (score means ranging from three to five), or high/positive (score means ranging from six to seven). The validity of classifying these conversations to their respective classes was assessed by correlating the average prefigurative and practical forces within each conversational type.

Next, the types of power and domination present in the conversations were analyzed. The perceived forms of power and domination present within leader-follower dialogues were differentiated using criteria outlined in Figure 2: (1) perceived prefigurative forces, (2) perceived practical forces, (3) perceived degree of legitimation, (4) perceived type of legitimation, and (5) perceived range of alternative acts. These variables were operationalized in the following manner. First, perceived prefigurative forces were operationalized as the average of the means for the Follower Questionnaire items measuring antecedent conditions, episode, relationship, life script, and cultural archetype summed across all the messages performed by the follower within a conversation (Items 1A-1E). Second, perceived practical forces were operationalized as the average of the means for the Follower questionnaire items measuring the consequent-act linkage, the consequent message valence, and functional autonomy summed across all messages performed by the follower (Items 2A-2C). Third, the

perceived degree of legitimation and type of legitimation were computed by averaging the responses on the respective items measuring these variables from the Leader Questionnaire (Items 2A and 2B). Finally, the perceived range of alternative acts was operationalized as the average responses to Item 3A on the Follower Questionnaire. The validity of classifying the conversations to their respective form of power and domination was assessed by a series of Kruskal-Wallis one-way analyses of variance. Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA's were computed comparing the average prefigurative and practical forces, degree of legitimation, type of legitimation, and range of alternative acts among conversational types.

Systematic differences between the forms of conversations characterizing effective and ineffective leadership were also tested. Chi-square statistics were computed that differentiated between the general forms of conversation and the types of power and domination by effective and ineffective leaders.

RESEARCH QUESTION II

The focus of the second research question was on the relationship between types of communication strategies and forms of power and domination. Specifically, these analyses tested the accuracy of the proposed relationships between communication strategies and power and domination contained in Figure 2. To compare the data gathered in both hospitals to the propositions present in Figure 2, three steps were taken. First, followers' responses on the Leader Questionnaire to items measuring their perceptions of the

leader using altercasting, ingratiation, metacommunication, and the influence strategies of threatening and rationale giving were each averaged for every conversation (Items IA-IE). Second, the individual conversations were grouped according to power and domination conversational type and group means computed. Third, the pattern of group means for communication strategies were compared to those hypothesized in Figure 2. The relationships hypothesized for the leader (P_1) were employed in the analysis.

Additionally, differentiation was made between the types of communication strategies which effective and ineffective leaders employ. This differentiation was made by computing a series of T-tests for related samples comparing the relative levels of each communication strategy between conversations characterizing effective versus ineffective leaders.

RESEARCH QUESTION III

The third research question addressed three sub-questions: (1)

Are leadership and communication competence distinct concepts?, (2)

Are effective leaders perceived as more competent communicators than ineffective leaders?, and (3) What is the relationship between conversational variables, communication strategies, and perceptions of communication competence?. First, T-tests for related samples compared perceptions from the Global Questionnaire of the other person's leadership (Item 6B) and communication competence (Item 4B). Furthermore, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation associating these two variables was computed. Second, a series of T-tests for related samples compared the following variables from the Leader Questionnaire

between effective and ineffective leaders: (a) degree of control exercised within the conversation by the perceived leader (Item 3D), (b) the ability for leaders to predict responses to their actions (Item 3B), (c) the creativity of leaders' messages (Item 3C), and (d) the appropriateness of the leaders' messages (Item 3A). Furthermore, using the Global Ouestionnaire items, a T-test for related samples was computed on the perception of the leader's communication competence (Item 4B) by leadership effectiveness. Third, two step-wise multiple regression equations were computed with the global perception of the leader's communication competence serving as the criterion variable (4B). One equation used the following conversational variables to predict communication competence: (a) the valence of the episode (Global Questionnaire, Item 5A), (b) the mean consequence valence of the messages provided by the leader (Follower Questionnaire, Item 2A), (c) the degree of control exercised by the leader (Leader Questionnaire, Item 3D), and (d) the overall perceived coherence of the leader (Global Questionnaire, Item 8B). A second step-wise multiple regression equation was computed using the five communication strategies as predictors of global perceptions of communication competence.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS IV AND V

The last two research questions probed the interrelationship followers' perceptions among leadership, organizational identification, motivation, and felt compulsion comply with directives. These relationships were analyzed in three sections. First, the relationship between leadership enactment and an

individual's perceived organizational identification was examined. Global measurement items operationalizing: (a) the overall level of organizational identification (Item IJ), (b) the level of role identification at the relational and organizational levels (Items ID and IE), (c) the degree of means identification at the relational and organizational level (Items IG and IH), and (d) the amount of goal identification at the relational and organizational level (Items IA and IB) were used for analysis. Two statistical tests assessed the relationships between leadership and identification: (1) T-tests for related samples were computed comparing types of identifications between effective and ineffective leaders, (2) step-wise multiple regression equations using the specific types of identifications (i.e. role, means, goals) as predictor variables against the overall level of organizational identification were figured.

Second, the level of motivation provided by effective versus ineffective leaders was examined along with predictors of motivation. First, T-tests for related samples using items from the Global Questionnaire were computed comparing the levels of: (a) intrinsic motivation to accomplish work-related goals (Item 3A), (b) intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals (Item 3B), (c) extrinsic motivation to obtain work-related goals (Item 3C), and (d) extrinsic motivation to bring about personal goals (Item 3D). Second, Pearson Product Moment Correlations were computed associating the conversational variables of average prefigurative and practical forces with the four various types of motivation. Third, four step-wise multiple regression equations were computed each with one type of

motivation as the criterion variable. The predictor variables were specific types of identifications and were operationalized as follows:

- (a) role identification at a relational level (Item 1D),
- (b) role identification at an organizational level (Item 1E),
- (c) means identification at a relational level (Item 1G),
- (d) means identification at an organizational level (Item 1H),
- (e) goal identification at a relational level (Item 1A), and
- (f) goal identification at an organizational level (Item 1B).

Third, the relationship between effective leadership and the degree of felt compulsion was explored. First, the four types of follower responses to leadership directives were operationalized using scales from the Global Questionnaire: (a) perceived felt compulsion (Item 2A), (b) perceived level of aggression (Item 7B), (c) perceived level of withdrawal (Item 7A), and (d) perceived level of movement (Item 7C). These items were compared between effective and ineffective leadership performance using T-tests for related samples. Second, two step-wise multiple regression equations were computed using types of identification as predictor variables with the items measuring the degree of felt compulsion and movement with the leader perceived by followers.

The types of analyses and operationalizations of variables presented here were conducted for both organizations. The results from these analyses are detailed in the following two chapters.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS FOR HOSPITAL A

The results from Hospital A are divided into four sections: (1) followers' perceptions of the conversational forms characterizing effective and ineffective leadership, (2) communication strategies and their association with forms of power and domination, (3) the relationship between communication competence and leadership, and (4) the connections among organizational identification, motivation, and the felt compulsion to perform leaders' directives.

LEADERSHIP AND FORMS OF CONVERSATION

The first research question was, "How do the conversational forms characterizing the enactment of effective leadership differ from those constituting the performance of ineffective leadership?" In order to address this general research question, two specific sub-questions were raised: (1) Can effective and ineffective leadership be differentiated by general conversational form? and (2) Do conversational forms of power and domination characterizing effective and ineffective leadership differ?

LEADER-FOLLOWER DIALOGUES

Of the 49 leader-follower dialogues elicited from employees of Hospital A, 26 occurred between followers and individuals perceived as effective leaders with the remaining 23 conversations involving

persons viewed as ineffective leaders (Tables 4 and 5). A structural analysis of the conversations was conducted using Cronen, Pearce, and Snavely's (1979) typology (Figure 6).

General conversational forms of leadership

Seven different conversational forms emerged which characterized leadership enactment within Hospital A (Table 6). Of the seven conversational forms, five were similar to forms previously articulated within Cronen et al.'s typology. The conversational forms contained within the typology are explicated here with a discussion of the two remaining conversations following. First, the largest number of conversations were classified as coordinated management episodes (n=17) in which "each participant perceives a developing pattern and feels s/he can affect its form with each successive statement, and the emerging pattern is under the...control of both persons" (Cronen, Pearce, and Snavely, 1979, p. 255). Such conversations reflect both strong prefigurative and practical forces, a high range of alternative acts, and positive consequent valences for individual messages and the overall conversational episode. It is important to note that a low range of alternative acts does not necessarily preclude coordination as some episodes which are highly institutionalized have a small range of alternative acts and yet can be coordinated quite easily (i.e. a greeting episode).

The second most frequent conversational form present was <u>perfunctory rituals</u> (n=7) which permit little strategic variation from the sequence of events and have little intrinsic value for the participant (Harre and Secord, 1973). An example of a perfunctory

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
•								1	1 5 3		
1	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	High (7.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (7.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Coordinated Management
2	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	High	Enigmatic
	(4.00)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(5.50)	(4.50)	(3.50)	(4.50)	(4.50)	(2.00)	(7.00)	Episode Variation
3	Mod.	Low	High	Mod.	Low	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Pos.	High	Positive
	(5.00)	(1.50)	(6.00)	(2.50)	(1.50	(5.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(6.50)	Spiral
4	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	High (6.00)	Coordinated Management
5	High	H1gh	High	High	High	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(6.33)	(6.67)	(6.67)	(6 33)	(6.33)	(6.67)	(6.67)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Episode Variation
6	Low (1.00)	High (6.00)	High (5.67)	High (6.00)	High (6.67)	High (6.33)	High (6.00)	Pos. (5.67)	Pos. (6.00)	High (7.00)	Coordinated Management
7	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(4.67)	(4.67)	(4.67)	(5.67)	(3.67)	(4.00)	(4.33)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(4.67)	Episode Variation
8	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Coordinated
	(5.00)	(4.67)	(6.00)	(5.33)	(5.00)	(4.33)	(5.67)	(5.33)	(4.00)	(3.00)	Management
9	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Low (2.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Coordinated Management
10	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	High	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Coordinated
	(5.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(5.50)	(4.50)	(5.50)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(3.50)	Management

Table 4 (Continued)

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
11	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Pos.	Pos.	Mod.	Coordinated
	(5.50)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.50)	Management
12	High	High	Mod.	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Pos.	Neutral	Mod.	Coordinated
	(6.50)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(7.00)	(6.50)	(3.00)	(4.50)	(6.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	Management
13	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Neutral	Neg.	High	Enigmatic
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(3.00)	(4.50)	(3.00)	(6.00)	(3.00)	(2.00)	(6.50)	Episode Variation
14	High (6.50)	Neg. (1.00)	Neg. (1.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation						
15	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Pos.	Neutral	Low	Coordinated
	(4.00)	(3.50)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(5.50)	(5.00)	(5.50)	(5.00)	(3.00)	Management
16	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Pos.	Pos.	Mod.	Coordinated
	(5.50)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	Management
17	High (6.25)	High (6.50)	Mod. (3.50)	High (6.50)	High (6.25)	High (6.00)	High (5.50)	Pos. (6.25)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.25)	Coordinated Management
18		High (6.33)	High (6.67)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.33)	High (6.00)	Mod. (4.67)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	High (6.33)	Coordinated Management
19	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory						
	(4.60)	(3.20)	(4.00)	(3.60)	(3.60)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(4.20)	(5.00)	(3.60)	Ritual
20	High	High	Low	High	High	High	High	Pos.	Pos.	High	Coordinated
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	Management

Table 4 (Continued)

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
21	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Pos.	Mod.	Coordinated
	(5.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.50)	(4.50)	(3.00)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(3.50)	Management
22	Mod.	High	Low	Low	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(5.00)	(6.00)	(1.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	Ritual
23	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Pos.	Pos.	Mod.	Coordinated
	(4.67)	(5.00)	(3.25)	(4.00)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.00)	Management
24	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	High	High	Pos.	Pos.	High	Enigmatic
	(2.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	Episode
25		High (5.50)	High (5.50)	Mod. (5.00)	Mod. (4.50)	High (5.50)	High (5.50)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Coordinated Management
26	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	High	Low	High	Pos.	Pos.	High	Coordinated
	(4.33)	(5.67)	(4.00)	(5.33)	(5.67)	(2.33)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.67)	Management

^{*} Where. ANTCOND = Antecedent Conditions EP = Episode REL = Relationship LS = Life Script CA = Cultural Archetype FUNC = Functional Autonomy CONS = Consequent Conditions CONVAL = Valence of Consequent Conditions EPVAL = Valence of Episode RANGE = Range of Perceived Alternative Acts

⁺ Numbers in parentheses are mean scores summed across all messages within a conversation (1 = low, 7 = high).

Table 5

Conversational Forms Characterizing Ineffective
Leadership for Hospital A*+

Conver-	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF
sation	ļ								L	<u> </u>	CONVERSATION
1	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Noa	Noa	Usah	Unwanted Denshatawa
1	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	Neg. (1.00)	Neg. (1.00)	High (6.00)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation
	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(1.00)	(1.00)	(0.00)	racterii variation
2	High	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neg.	Neg.	Low	Unwanted Repetitive
-	(6.33)	(6.00)	(4.67)	(5.67)	(5.33)	(4.33)	(5.00)	(2.00)	(1.00)	(2.33)	Pattern Variation
		<u> </u>				<u> </u>					
3	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	Neg.	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(3.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(1.50)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Pattern Variation
4	High	High	High	High	High	High	Mod.	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.67)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.33)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation
5	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	(1.00)	(1.00)	(7.00)	Pattern Variation
£	High	مام مال	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	lla alb	Mod.	No.	No	111	Havenhad Danatalana
6	(5.50)	High (5.50)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(4.00)	High (6.00)	(5.00)	Neg. (1.50)	Neg. (1.00)	High (7.00)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation
	(3.50)	(3.30)	(3.00)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(0.00)	(5.00)	(1.50)	(1.00)	(7.00)	Pattern variation
7	Mod.	High	Low	Low	Low	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Alienating
,	(5.33)	(7.00)	(2.00)	(2.33)	(1.33)	(7.00)	(2.67)	(2.67)	(1.00)	(3.00)	Sequence
	(3133)	(,	(2100)	(2000)	(2000)	(,	(2307)	(2007)	(2000)	(3.55)	00401100
8	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(4.50)	(4.50)	(4.50)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(4.50)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	Ritual
9	Mod.	High	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(5.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(4.50)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	(3.50)	Ritual
10	Mod.	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation

Table 5 (Continued)

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
11	High	High	Mod.	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(3.00)	Ritual
12	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(3.50)	(4.00)	(5.50)	(6.50)	(2.50)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Episode Variation
13	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(6.33)	(6.33)	(6.00)	(6.33)	(6.33)	(5.67)	(6.33)	(5.33)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Episode Variation
14	Low (2.00)	Low (2.00)	Low (2.00)	Low (2.00)	Low (1.50)	Low (2.00)	Mod. (4.67)	Neg. (2.00)		High (6.00)	Enigmatic Episode Variation
15	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(4.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(4.50)	(3.50)	(3.00)	(2.00)	(4.50)	Episode Variation
16	High	High	High	High	High	High	Mod.	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.00)	(1.00)	(1.00)	(7.00)	Pattern Variation
17		High (6.50)	High (6.50)	High (6.50)	High (6.50)	High (6.50)	Mod. (5.00)	Pos. (7.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.50)	Coordinated Management
18	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mod.	Low	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(3.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	Ritual
19	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mod.	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(5.50)	(4.00)	(2.50)	(2.50)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(4.50)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation
20	High	High	High	High	High	Mod.	High	Neg.	Neg.	Low	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	Pattern Variation

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
21	Low (2.00)	High (6.00)	Low (2.00)	Low (2.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Low (2.00)		Neutral (4.00)	High (6.00)	Enigmatic Episode Variation
22		High (6.00)	Mod. (5.33)	Mod. (5.00)	Mod. (5.33)	Mod. (5.33)	Mod. (5.00)	Neg. (2.00)	Neg. (2.00)	Mod. (3.33)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation
23	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (5.50	High (5.50)	High (6.00)	Mod. (3.50)	Mod. (4.00)	Neg. (2.00)	Neg. (1.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation

^{*} Where ANTCOND = Antecedent Conditions EP = Episode REL = Relationship LS = Life Script CA = Cultural Archetype FUNC = Functional Autonomy CONS = Consequent Conditions CONVAL = Valence of Consequent Conditions EPVAL = Valence of Episode RANGE = Range of Perceived Alternative Acts

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⁺ Numbers in parentheses are mean scores summed across all messages within a conversation (1 = low, 7 = high).

Figure 6

Cronen, Pearce, and Snavely's (1979)
Theory of Rule Structures and Types of Episodes

				Episode Type			
		Value		Unwanted			
Structural Variables	Enigmatic Episode	Expressive Ritual	Perfunctory Ritual	Repetitive Pattern	Positive Spiral	Alienating Sequence	Coordinated Management
Antecedent-speech	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	Moderate-	Moderate-
act linkage	low	high	high	high	high	high	high
Episode-speech act linkage	Very low	Very hıgh	Hıgh	None*	None*	Hıgh	Hıgh
Life-script-speech act linkage	Very low	Very hıgh	Low	Hıgh	Hìgh	Very low	Hıgh
Speech act- consequent linkage	Very low	Very hıgh	Hıgh	Very low	Very low	Hıgh	Hıgh
Range of alternative speech acts	Unknown	Very low	Very low	Low	Low	Moderate	Hıgh
Consequent valence	Negative	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Positive	Positive	Positive
Episode valence	Negative	Very	Neutral	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive

^{*} Actors do not intend the maintenance of episode and may only be aware of the episodic punctuation post hoc as in the gloss "Oh, darn, we did it again."

Table 6
Frequencies of Conversational Forms
for Hospital A

Conversational Form	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (frequency)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (frequency)	Ch1-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance
Coordinated					
Management	17	1			
Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation	1	12			
Enigmatic Episode /ariation	4	3			
Perfunctory Ritual	2	4			
Positive Spiral	1	0			
Alienating Sequence	0	1			
Enigmatic Episode	2	2	26.59	7	0.00

ritual is the routine receipt of a paycheck from a personnel office. Perfunctory rituals are typically characterized by strong prefigurative forces with the exception of the life script which exerts little force upon the message selection. Furthermore, strong practical forces, a narrow range of alternative acts, and neutral consequent valences for the individual messages and episode typify this conversational form. However, the life script or self concept may be moderately engaged in the performance of perfunctory rituals as social actors may feel it is important for their sense of who they are to properly produce the correct sequence of messages.

A third conversational type occurring within Hospital A was alienated sequences (n=4). An alienated sequence transpires when individuals recognize the ongoing sequence of messages and perform acts that are inconsistent with their self concept (Riesman, 1950). An example of an alienating sequence is when subordinates agree to violate a policy for the good of the organization while perceiving themselves as individuals who should "follow the company line." Alienating sequences are typified by having strong prefigurative forces with the exception of the life script, strong practical forces, and a moderate range of alternative acts. Unlike perfunctory rituals, individuals engaging in alienating sequences perceive the consequent valence to their messages as positive but view the valence of the episode negatively.

Fourth, <u>enigmatic episodes</u> were also representative of leadership (n=3). An enigmatic episode occurs when individuals recognize that a pattern is unfolding within the sequence of acts but

are unable to identify the specific pattern. As a result, they are unable to sequence their acts accordingly. For example, this might happen to a new employee at a company meeting aimed at brainstorming various solutions to a problem. Enigmatic episodes are typically characterized by weak prefigurative and practical forces, an unknown range of alternative acts, and negative consequent message and episode valences. However, enigmatic episodes may also have positive consequent and episode valences. For example, new employees within an organization may not recognize the organizational pattern guiding joking episodes among employees. However, they may unknowingly produce messages that fit the pattern and receive positively valenced responses to their messages. Furthermore, they may view this type of episode as beneficial since the process may enable them to cope with similar situations in the future more effectively.

A fifth type of conversational form, positive spirals, also defined leadership within Hospital A (n=1). Wilmot (1975) defines positive spirals as sequences of acts whereby a positive act by one member of a dyad prompts the other individual to provide a very desirable response. A positive spiral may occur at the successful completion of an important work project when a manager and a subordinate praise each other with each trying to exceed the previous compliment given by the other. Positive spirals are distinguished by high prefigurative and practical forces, little influence by the episode upon message selection, a narrow perceived range of alternative acts, and positive message consequent and episode valences.

Two conversational forms emerged within the analysis that did not conform to previously defined conversational patterns by Cronen et al. (1979). Both possessed moderate to high prefigurative forces, practical forces, and perceived range of alternative acts. While resembling coordinated management episodes, one form had a neutral message consequent valence and negative episode valence whereas the second form's message consequent and episode valence were both negatively weighted. Superficially, both forms appeared to be similar with the exception of the valence of the messages provided by the other participant (neutral versus negative). This raised two possibilities for classifying the conversations: (1) they may be classified as two variations of the same general type of conversation, or (2) they represent two distinct conversational forms.

The relative appropriateness of these alternatives for classifying the conversational forms was determined in the following manner. First, the conversations were divided into two groups determined by their consequent valence being either neutrally (X_1) or negatively (X_2) valenced. Second, composite means for each group on every item measuring the perceived prefigurative forces, practical forces, range of alternative acts, consequent valence, and episode valence were computed. Third, three episodes from each group most closely paralleling the group profile generated from the composite means were selected. Fourth, Mann-Whitney U-Tests were conducted comparing the items completed by the follower for each message s/he uttered during the episode by conversational type (Table 7). This helped determine whether any systematic differences within the

Table 7

Differences in Follower's Perceptions by Conversational Type Mann-Whitney U-Test

Follower views antecedent conditions as impacting message selection.

	MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
	3.50 10.00	4.50 6.14	6 7	Conversation 1 Conversation 2
C	U	W	CORRECTEI Z	O FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
	0.00	21.0	-3.19	0.00
Follower views ep as impacting mess selection.				
	MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
	5.14 9.86	4.71 5.86	7 7	Conversation 1 Conversation 2
			CODDECTE	S FOR THES
	U	W	Z	D FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
	U 8.0	W 36.0		
Follower views re as impacting mess selection.	8.0 lationship		Z	2-TAILED PROBABILITY
as impacting mess	8.0 lationship		Z	2-TAILED PROBABILITY
as impacting mess	8.0 lationship age	36.0	Z -2.22	2-TAILED PROBABILITY
as impacting mess	8.0 lationship age MEAN RANK 4.29	36.0 MEAN SCORE 4.28	Z -2.22 CASES 7 7	2-TAILED PROBABILITY 0.03 Conversation 1

Table 7 (Continued)

Follower views cultural archetype as impacting message selection.

	MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES				
	4.00 11.00	4.00 6.14	7 7	Conversation 1 Conversation 2			
	U	W	CORRECTE Z	D FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY			
	0.00	28.0	-3.34	0.00			
Follower views message selection as functionally autonomous.							
	MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES				
	5.43 9.57	4.00 5.43	7 7	Conversation 1 Conversation 2			
	U	W	CORRECTE Z	D FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY			
	U 10.0	W 38.0					
Follower views re to messages as po	10.0 sponses		Z	2-TAILED PROBABILITY			
	10.0 sponses		Z	2-TAILED PROBABILITY			
	10.0 sponses sitive.	38.0	Z -1.95	2-TAILED PROBABILITY			
	10.0 sponses sitive. MEAN RANK 10.64	38.0 MEAN SCORE 3.86	Z -1.95 CASES 7 7	2-TAILED PROBABILITY 0.05 Conversation 1			

Table 7 (Continued)

Follower views episode as desirable.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
4.50 2.50	3.33 1.33		rsation l rsation 2
U	W	CORRECTED FOR T	TIES AILED PROBABILITY
1.5	13.5	-1.58	0.11

prefigurative and practical forces or within the consequent message and episode valence existed between the two conversational types.

The analysis lends support for classifying these conversational types as two distinct unique patterns. First, several structural differences exist between the two conversational patterns for prefigurative and practical forces. Conversation one has lower prefigurative forces than conversation two as indicated by lower mean scores on the following variables impacting message selection:

- antecedent act by leader ($\bar{x} = 4.50$, $\bar{x} = 6.14$,

- (b) episode (\bar{x} = 4.71, \bar{x} = 5.86, p = 0.03), (c) relationship (\bar{x} = 4.28, \bar{x} = 5.86, p = 0.00), and (d) cultural archetype (\bar{x} = 4.00, \bar{x} = 6.14, p = 0.00).

Furthermore, conversation one is lower in practical forces as measured by functional autonomy than conversation two $(\bar{x} = 4.00, \bar{x} = 5.43, p =$ 0.05). Second, conversation one's message consequence valence is neutral whereas conversation two possesses a negative consequence valence ($\bar{x} = 3.86$, $\bar{x} = 1.71$, p = 0.00). Third, no significant differences exist regarding episode valence between conversation one and two as both are negative $(\bar{x} = 3.33, \bar{x} = 1.33, p = NS)$.

The significant differences existing among the prefigurative and practical forces suggest these two conversational types assume separate episodic forms. For example, followers engaging in conversation one may partially recognize the pattern of the unfolding conversation as indicated by the moderate prefigurative and practical forces. This partial pattern recognition may not yield sufficient insight to facilitate sequencing messages to achieve positive responses. Yet, it may allow them sufficient understanding to avoid

negative responses from the other participant. Being unable to bring about positive consequence valences during the conversation, they may view the overall episode negatively. Conversely, in the second conversation, the follower fully recognizes the pattern as indicated by the high prefigurative and practical forces. Despite efforts to sequence their acts to bring about desirable consequences, they only receive negative responses from the other conversational participant and ultimately view the overall episode negatively. This hypothesis is substantiated by an analysis of typical conversations within each group. In conversation one, followers typically made requests of leaders and received limited advice or assistance. However, the tone of the conversation was characteristically nonthreatening with the offered assistance providing an incomplete answer to the request. These two factors may lead to a neutral perception of the message valence and an overall negative impression of the episode since the follower did not receive the desired information to solve the problem. Conversely in conversation two, the acts were presented in either threatening tones of voice or perceived as illegitimate means to achieve ends. Given the presentational style of the leaders, the respective approaches would lead to followers perceiving both the responses to their messages and the episode negatively.

Based on this analysis, it is proposed that two new variants of already existing episodes contained within Cronen et al.'s (1979) typology be added. First, a <u>variation of enigmatic episodes</u> should be included (n=7) which is characterized by: (a) moderate prefigurative and practical forces, (b) a moderate to high range of alternative

acts, (c) a neutral consequent message valence, and (d) a negative episode valence. Unlike the enigmatic episode proposed by Cronen et al. (1979), conversational participants have a partial understanding of the episodic structure but are unable to bring about positive responses to their messages. For example, beginning chess players are able to understand partially the moves required to neutralize and avoid a checkmate, but they do not recognize the needed pattern to checkmate their opponent. Second, a variation of an unwanted repetitive pattern is required to account for the second conversation form (n=13). This variation of an unwanted repetitive pattern emphasizes: (a) high prefigurative and practical forces, (b) a moderate to high range of alternative acts, (c) a negative consequent message valence, and (d) a negative episode valence. Unlike the unwanted repetitive pattern identified by Cronen et al. (1979), this particular pattern acknowledges that individuals may recognize the form of the conversation but remain unable to bring about more desirable consequences. For example, employees may know they are subject to a disciplinary interview for violating company policy and that certain topics and procedures must be discussed during the interview. Though they recognize the pattern, they are unable to bring about positive consequences due to the nature of the situation.

While the classification of these conversations into the respective categories has a high degree of face validity, a more quantitative validity check was desired. To achieve this goal, the average prefigurative and practical forces were correlated within each conversational type. Due to a small number of cases, only two

correlations emerged statistically significant from the seven conversational types. Both the prefigurative and practical forces for coordinated conversations (r = .51, p < 0.05) and the variation of the unwanted repetitive pattern (r = .72, p < 0.05) are correlated. This supports the validity of classifying these episodes as coordinated management episodes since they should be characterized by high prefigurative and practical forces that are moderately correlated. Similarly, this particular variation of an unwanted repetitive pattern emphasizes that the conversational participant recognizes the conversational pattern and unsuccessfully attempts to bring about desirable consequences. Therefore like a coordinated management episode, both the prefigurative and practical forces are high and should be associated.

Conversational forms characterizing effective and ineffective Teadership

The cultural pattern for conversations constituting effective and ineffective leadership practice systematically differed (X^2 = 26.59, p = 0.00, Table 6). Effective leadership within Hospital A is characterized by a cultural pattern emphasizing positively or neutrally valenced forms of conversation. Specifically, positively valenced forms of conversation such as coordinated management episodes and positive spirals constitute a majority of the conversations listed by followers as effective (n=18) with neutrally valenced forms of conversation such as perfunctory rituals comprising a smaller number (n=2). These forms of conversation may be viewed as effective by followers since they allow followers to achieve desirable outcomes or perform needed rituals for the organization to function effectively. Effective leadership is at times

characterized by negatively valenced forms of conversations such as the unwanted repetitive pattern variation, the enigmatic episode variation, and enigmatic episodes. Such forms of conversation are typified by followers being unable to achieve desirable goals or lacking coherency. Intuitively this may be perceived as ineffective leadership. However, Herzberg (1966) observed managers sometimes utilize negative means to motivate employees. In this instance, leaders may use tactics like reprimands or purposely confusing the follower regarding their expectations as means to motivate the follower to perform an action.

The cultural pattern guiding conversational forms constituting ineffective leadership is significantly different from effective leadership (Table 6). Ineffective leadership is characterized by negatively valenced and less coherent forms of conversation.

Specifically, forms of conversation which lead to undesirable outcomes, generate types of alienation, or produce confusion regarding the direction or purpose of the conversation are viewed as ineffective leadership performance (n=18). In fact, ineffective leadership is rarely characterized by conversations that perform standardized organizational practices such as perfunctory rituals (n=4) or allow followers to achieve desired goals like coordinated management episodes (n=1).

This hypothesis is supported by a series of T-tests for related samples comparing the coherency and episode desirability and effectiveness (Table 8). These results indicate followers view conversations with effective versus ineffective leaders as:

Table 8

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of the Coherency,
Desirability, and Effectiveness of Episode by
Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tailed Probability
Leader viewed as speaking coherently.	5.73	3.68	5.15	21	0.00
Conversation viewed as very desirable.	4.73	2.41	4.53	21	0.00
Conversation viewed as very effective for follower to achieve personal goals.	4.81	2.91	4.78	21	0.00
Conversation viewed as very effective for follower to achieve work-related goals.	5.26	2.70	4.78	22	0.00

- (a) more coherent (T = 5.15, \bar{x} Effective = 5.73, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.68, p = 0.00),
- (b) more desirable (T = 4.53, \bar{x} Effective = 4.73, \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.41, p = 0.00),
- (c) more effective in achieving personal goals (T = 4.15, xEffective = 4.81, xIneffective = 2.91, p = 0.00), and
- (d) more effective in accomplishing work-related goals (T = 4.78 \times Effective = 5.26, \times Ineffective = 2.70, p = 0.00).

POWER, DOMINATION, AND LEADERSHIP

The same forty-nine conversations were subsequently analyzed to determine the forms of power and domination emerging during interaction (Tables 9 and 10). The perceived forms of power and domination present within leader-follower dialogues were differentiated using criteria outlined in Figure 2.

Conversational power and domination

Five different types of power and domination emerged in the analysis of conversations from Hospital A (Table 11). Transcripts of conversations representing each type of power and domination are included in Appendix B. The largest number of conversations were classified as <u>institutionalized domination episodes</u> (n=19). Individuals participating in such episodes perceived the messages performed by the other individual as highly appropriate and prefiguratively legitimated. Furthermore, they perceived themselves as having a moderate to high range of alternative messages to respond to the other individual's messages. An example of an institutionalized domination episode occurs when subordinates routinely alert their managers to problems facing them. The subordinates may conceive of the pattern as institutionalized due to the routinized nature of the conversation, they may view the responses to their inquiries as highly appropriate, and they may perceive sufficient latitude for

Table 9

Conversational Forms of Power and Domination
Characterizing Effective Leadership for Hospital A

	2		<u> </u>	I +	T 5 C	T - C -
Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative,	tical	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
1	! ! !!!-	11) -	Tuesta tuesta anala and	M - J	Taskskutsaalaaal
1	High (6.20)	High (6.33)	High (7.00)	Institutionalized (1.00)	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(0.20)	(0.33)	(7.00)	(1.00)	(3.00)	Domination
2	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mixed	High	Mixed Institut./
-	(4.50)	(4.17)	(5.50)	(3.00)	(7.00)	Emergent Domination
	(1000)	(1027)	(0.00)	(0.00)	1,,,,,,	Zimer gene bomination
		,				
3	Mod.	Mod.	Hıgh	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(3.30)	(4.67)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.50)	Domination
	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	· · · · · ·			(33-1-)	
4	High	High	Hıgh	Emergent	High	Emergent
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	Domination
5	High	High 1	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.47)	(5.78)	(3.50)	(4.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
		,				
6	Mod.	High .	High	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(5.07)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(1.00)	(7.00)	Domination
					1	
7	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(4.67)	(4.11)	(5.75)	(1.75)	(4.67)	Domination
					i i	
8	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.20)	(5.11)	(5.25)	(3.25)	(3.00)	Emergent Domination
					1	i t
9	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(4.67)	(4.67)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Domination
					1	
10	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.00)	(4.83)	(5.00)	(3.25)	(3.50)	Emergent Domination
1.	M . 1		11 2		i	-
11	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(5.00)	(5.33)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(3.50)	Domination
12	U. c.L	الدي	II. at	M 4	<u> </u>	4
12	High	Mod.	H1gh (7.00)	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.10)	(4.67)	(7.00)	(3.33)	(4.00)	Emergent Domination
13	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Emangant	U	Γ
10	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.50)	Emergent (6.50)	High (6.50)	Emergent
	(3.00)	(4.00)	(4.30)	(0.50)	(0.50)	Domination

Table 9 (Continued)

Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
Ject	urative Forces	tical Forces	Legiti- mation	Legitimation	Legiti- mation	Or Domination
14	High (6.50)	Mod. (4.67)	Low (1.00)	Emergent (6.50)	Mod. (4.00)	Domination
15	Mod. (4.30)	Mod. (5.33)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (2.33)	Mod. (3.00)	Institutionalized Domination
16	Mod. (4.90)	Mod. (4.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (2.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Institutionalized Domination
17	High (5.80)	High (5.92)	High (5.80)	Institutionalized (1.80)	Mod. (4.25)	Institutionalized Domination
18	High (6.08)	High (5.56)	High (5.50)	<pre>fnstitutionalized</pre>	High (6.33)	Institutionalized Domination
19	Mod. (3.80)	Mod. (4.07)	Mod. (5.40)	Institutionalized (2.00)	Mod. (3.60)	Institutionalized Domination
20	Mod. (5.20)	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	Institutionalized (1.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized Domination
21	Mod. (4.70)	Mod. (4.17)	High (6.00)	Mixed (4.00)	Mod. (3.50)	Mixed Institut./ Emergent Domination
22	Mod. (3.80)	Mod. (4.00)	High (5.67)	Institutionalized (2.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Institutionalized Domination
23	Mod. (4.00)	Mod. (4.67)	Mod. (5.33)	Institutionalized (2.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Institutionalized Domination
24	Low (2.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (2.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized Domination
25	Mod. (5.12)	High (5.67)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (2.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Institutionalized Domination
26	Mod. (5.00)	Mod. (4.78)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (1.50)	High (5.67)	Institutionalized Domination

Table 10

Conversational Forms of Power and Domination
Characterizing Ineffective Leadership for Hospital A

0.1	T D C	T 5	T 5	1 + 6	1 - 2 - 6 1	T C D
Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tical	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mat1on		mation	
1	High	Mod.	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
	(7.00)	(5.00)	(1.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	
•				l		
2	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Low	Mixed Institut./
	(5.60)	(3.78)	(5.33)	(4.33)	(2.33)	Emergent Power
				-		
3	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Emergent	Mod.	Domination
	(4.00)	(4.50)	(1.50)	(6.00)	(4.00)	
				_		
4	High	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	High	Emergent
	(5.93)	(3.78)	(3.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	Domination
_			_			
5	High	Mod.	Low	Mixed	High	Domination
	(6.80)	(4.67)	(1.00)	(4.00)	(7.00)	
6	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mixed	High	Domination
	(4.90)	(4.17)	(2.00)	(5.00)	(7.00)	
7	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(3.60)	(5.56)	(3.75)	(2.50)	(3.00)	Emergent Domination
ļ						
8	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(4.60)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
9	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.40)	(3.67)	(2.00)	(3.00)	(3.50)	Emergent Domination
10	High	Mod.	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
	(5.60)	(5.33)	(1.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	
11	High	Mod.	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.80)	(4.83)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(3.00)	Emergent Domination
12	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	Mod.	Emergent
	(4.80)	(4.83)	(4.00)	(7.00)	(5.00)	Domination
13	Hıgh	High	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.26)	(5.78)	(6.00)	(3.33)	(4.00)	Emergent Domination

Table 10 (Continued)

			'n			
Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tical	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
			1			
14	Low	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	High	Mixed Institut./
	(1.90)	(2.89)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	Emergent Domination
1.5	L _ J	M . J	M - 4	Massad	W - J	Manad Tarkakok /
15	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(4.40)	(3.67)	(4.50)	(3.50)	(4.50)	Emergent Domination
16	High	Mod.	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
10	(6.20)	(3.33)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(7.00)	3011111111111
	(0120)	(60,00)	(2000)	(0100)	1 (1100)	
17	High	High	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.50)	(6.17)	(3.50)	(4.00)	(4.50)	Emergent Domination
18	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized/
	(3.40)	(3.33)	(4.50)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Domination
						_
19	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
	(3.70)	(2.83)	(2.00)	(7.00)	6.00)	
20	High	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	Low	Emergent
20	(5.90)	(4.17)	(3.33)	(6.00)	(2.00)	Power
	(3.90)	(4.17)	(3.33)	(0.00)	(2.00)	Power
21	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(3.60)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Domination
	(3.00)	(4.00)	(3.00)	(2.00)	(0.00)	Dominación
22	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.42)	(4.11)	(2.00)	(4.00)	(3.33)	Emergent Domination
		<u> </u>				
23	High	Mod.	High	Emergent	Mod.	Emergent
	(5.60)	(3.17)	(6.50)	(7.00)	(3.00)	Domination

Table 11

Frequencies of Conversational Forms of Power and Domination for Hospital A

Type of Power or Domination	Conversation Viewed as Instance of Effective Leader- ship (frequency)	Conversation Viewed as Instance of Ineffective Leader- ship (frequency)	Chi- Square	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Institutionalized Domination	17	2			
Mixed Institutionalized/ Emergent Domination	6	10			
Emergent Domination	2	3			
Domination	1	7			
Emergent Power	0	1	18.42	4	0.00

performing a variety of speech such as comments or questions to acquire satisfactory responses to their problems.

The second most frequent conversational form was mixed institutionalized/emergent domination episodes (n=16). Similar to institutionalized domination, these types of conversational episodes were characterized by a high degree of legitimation and a moderate to high perceived alternative range of acts. However, the type of legitimation was a mixture of institutionalized and emergent forms. Individuals engaging in such conversations perceived them as moderately institutionalized but requiring more explanation to legitimate the actions of the other individual. For example, such an episode may occur when followers complain about a fellow employee to a leader for the first time. While they may perceive the leader's messages as legitimate and do not feel as constrained by the leader's messages, they view this type of legitimation as mixed. This results from the leader responding in accordance to the institutionalized pattern for registering complaints but also needing to justify some of his/her comments since this type of complaint does not necessarily fit within the established organizational pattern. While these two types of domination episodes constituted a majority of the conversational episodes (71 percent), three other types of domination and power episodes were also present.

The third most frequent episode type, <u>lowly legitimated</u>

<u>domination</u> (n=8), is characterized by low levels of either

prefigurative or emergent legitimation and a moderate to high range of

perceived alternative actions. For example, when a leader insults a

follower, the follower may perceive the leader's message as highly inappropriate and feels sufficiently competent to respond with a variety of comments (i.e. questions, insults, threats, promises).

A fourth conversational type was <u>emergent domination</u> (n=5). These episodes, characterized by moderate to high levels of emergent legitimation and a moderate to high range of acts, may occur when leaders make a request of a follower. The follower may view the request as legitimate and perceive a number of appropriate responses to give the leader. However, the follower may perceive that the request needs to be legitimated within the conversation or reasons given why the request is being made.

The least occurring conversational form was emergent power (n=1) which is typified by moderate to high levels of emergent legitimation and a narrow range of alternative acts. The first performance appraisal conducted with a new manager may serve as an example of emergent power. The follower may perceive his/her responses to the leader's messages as quite constrained due to the routinized nature of the performance appraisal and view the leader's messages as appropriate given their perception of the situation. However, the follower perceives the leader as needing to justify his/her comments and decisions within the course of the conversation.

Kruskal-Wallis oneway analyses of variance were computed comparing the average prefigurative and practical forces, degree of legitimation, type of legitimation, and range of alternative acts to determine the validity of classifying these conversations to their respective categories (Table 12). Emergent power was omitted from

Table 12

Validity Check for Types of Power and Domination for Hospital A

Follower views prefigurative forces influencing message selection.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
11.25 16.57 20.44 15.81	4.38 4.90 5.35 5.13	8 7 8 8	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SO		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
31	4.	.14	0.25

Follower views practical forces influencing message selection.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
21.44 18.63 17.69 8.25	4.83 4.29 4.50 3.35	8 8 8	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SO		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
32	9.	.00	0.03

Follower views leader's messages as legitimate

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
20.00 17.07 17.57 3.75	6.00 5.57 5.14 1.50	10 7 7 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SC		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
30	17.	.07	0.00

Table 12 (Continued)

Episode is institutionalized (1) or emergently (7) legitimated.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
6.30 14.29 24.64 21.58	2.10 4.00 6.70 6.17	10 7 7 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SO		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
30	22	.63	0.00

Followers' perceived range of alternative acts.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
13.25 15.38 18.31 19.06	4.25 4.62 5.12 5.25	8 8 8	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SC		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
32	2.	.04	0.56

this analysis as only one episode existed.

The assignment of these conversations to their relative categories after comparing the statistical analyses to the standards presented in Figure 1 were considered valid. There were no significant differences between conversational type on the prefigurative forces. All four types of domination episodes had moderate prefigurative forces. Conversely, the practical forces were significantly different for conversational type. Specifically, the trend in the ranks indicate that pure domination episodes have less practical force than the other types of domination. The degree of legitimation also increases with the amount of institutionalization. As predicted by Figure 1, institutionalized domination ($\bar{x} = 6.00$), mixed institutionalized/emergent domination ($\bar{x} = 5.57$), and emergent domination $(\bar{x} = 5.14)$ are viewed as more legitimate than lowly legitimated domination ($\bar{x} = 1.50$). Similarly, the pattern of means for the type of legitimation conforms to the predicted pattern as institutionalized episodes are more prefiguratively legitimated (\bar{x} = 2.10), with mixed episodes being both prefiguratively and emergently legitimated ($\bar{x} = 4.00$), and emergent domination ($\bar{x} = 6.70$) and lowly legitimated domination episodes ($\bar{x} = 6.17$) being emergently legitimated.

Types of power and domination characterizing effective and ineffective leadership

These five conversational forms of power and domination were nonrandomly distributed across dialogues performed by effective and ineffective leaders (Table II). Effective leadership is characterized by more highly institutionalized and legitimated forms of domination.

Specifically, institutionalized and mixed institutionalized/emergent domination episodes comprise 85 percent of the domination episodes representing effective leadership. Emergent domination and domination rarely typify effective leadership. Conversely, ineffective leadership is strongly characterized by forms of power and domination that are either minimally or moderately institutionalized and legitimate such as domination, emergent domination and power, or mixed institutionalized/emergent domination (n=21). Ineffective leadership is typically not institutionalized domination (n=2).

This pattern suggests that forms of power and domination easily recognized and accepted by followers are viewed as more effective. Institutionalized patterns reflect some degree of commonality or regular occurrence within a social organization. As such, organizational members may more readily recognize the pattern being enacted and are able to sequence their acts accordingly. Their ability to participate in the episode to bring about some type of legitimate and appropriate action increases. This observation is demonstrated by the fact that nineteen of twenty neutrally and positively valenced episodes characterizing effective leadership are also either institutionalized or mixed domination. Conversely, for ineffective leadership, only nine of the nineteen neutrally or negatively valenced episodes were either institutionalized or mixed domination. This suggests that ineffective leadership is characterized by forms of domination that require leaders to legitimize their actions. Such legitimizing actions may aid the follower in understanding the purpose and direction of the

conversation, and enable him/her to structure messages to achieve desirable goals.

THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF POWER AND DOMINATION

In order to determine the relationship between specific communication strategies and forms of power and domination, the second research question probed "How are particular types of communicative strategies associated with the social construction of forms of power and domination?" A secondary research question was also raised, "Are effective leaders perceived as employing communication strategies differently than ineffective leaders?"

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES, POWER, AND DOMINATION

It was hypothesized in Chapter II that specific communication strategies such as altercasting, ingratiation, metacommunication, and influence would be related to the social construction of particular forms of conversational power and domination. Figure 2 serves as a set of hypotheses regarding which types of communication strategies would characterize forms of power and domination. The pattern of means in Table 13 generated by conversation from Hospital A were compared to those hypothesized in Figure 2.

The pattern of means by conversational type corresponds well to those hypothesized in Figure 2. According to the proposed relationships in Figure 2, institutionalized domination should be characterized by the leader being perceived as using low levels of altercasting, moderate amounts of ingratiation, and high amounts of

Table 13

Communication Strategies of Forms of Power and Domination for Hospital A

	Communication Strategies					
Type of Power or Domination	Altercasting	Ingratiation	Meta- communication	Threat	Rationale Giving	
Institutionalized Domination	High	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mod.	
	(5.55)	(4.08)	(4.85)	(1.86)	(5.18)	
Mixed	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	
Institutionalized/	(4.85)	(3.43)	(5.21)	(3.47)	(3.85)	
Emergent Domination	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	
	(4.60)	(3.15)	(5.70)	(5.00)	(4.60)	
Domination	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	Low	
	(4.62)	(2.93)	(6.00)	(5.56)	(2.25)	
Emergent Power	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Low	
	(6.00)	(3.33)	(6.00)	(3.33)	(2.00)	

influence. These general relationships held true for institutionalized domination as rationale giving ($\bar{x}=5.18$), and metacommunication ($\bar{x}=4.85$) were more prominent than ingratiation ($\bar{x}=4.08$). However, altercasting was unusually high ($\bar{x}=5.55$). This high level of altercasting may occur because leaders employ implicit altercasts due to the level of institutionalization to alert the follower to the role s/he is to enact. The proposed relationship may only hold for explicit altercasts.

Mixed institutionalized/emergent domination is a conversational type that combines elements of institutionalized and emergent domination. As a result, moderate levels of all communication strategies would be expected since leaders use implicit strategies that reflect a degree of institutionalization (i.e. altercasts) while employing more explicit communication strategies to justify their acts (i.e. metacommunication). This would allow leaders to employ a variety of strategies to aid followers in understanding the purpose of the conversation plus increase their felt compulsion. This conjecture was confirmed as leaders were perceived as using moderate amounts of altercasts ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 4.85), ingratiation ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 3.43), metacommunication ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 5.21), threats ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 3.47), and rationales ($\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ = 3.85).

Leaders enacting emergent domination with followers would be anticipated to use moderate levels of ingratiation plus high levels of metacommunication and influence to increase the felt compulsion of followers. Furthermore, the low level of institutionalization should diminish the use of altercasts. This pattern is generally confirmed with the exception of altercasts. Followers participating in emergent

domination episodes perceived leaders as using a moderate amount of ingratiation ($\bar{x}=3.15$), high amounts of metacommunication ($\bar{x}=5.70$), and moderate amounts of influence (\bar{x} threat = 5.00, \bar{x} rationale = 4.60). The moderate amounts of influence may be considered to be moderately high as they exceed the median value. Unlike the predicted values, followers perceived leaders using a moderately high amount of altercasts ($\bar{x}=4.60$).

In conversations characterizing domination, leaders were anticipated to be viewed as employing moderate levels of altercasting, metacommunication, and influence with high levels of ingratiation to increase the felt compulsion of followers. These relationships were confirmed for altercasting and influence as both were perceived as moderately present within the episodes (\bar{x} altercast = 4.62, \bar{x} threat = 5.56, \bar{x} rationale = 2.25). While the two measures of influence average to a moderate amount, threats seem to be more prevalently used than rationale giving in domination episodes. This may be one factor in generating followers' impressions of low legitimation. Contrary to the predicted directions, ingratiation is perceived as a moderately employed strategy ($\bar{x} = 2.93$) while metacommunication is a highly used strategy ($\bar{x} = 6.00$). This set of relationships may emerge for two reasons. First, ingratiation is moderately used across all conversational types. This may stem from the cultural pattern for effective leadership deemphasizing the use of ingratiation or bargaining as an effective tool for achieving goals. Second, 75 percent of the domination episodes are emergently legitimated. Therefore, leaders within those episodes would tend to use

communication strategies that did not require a high degree of background knowledge on the part of the follower. Metacommunication may be used predominantly in such situations as it is an explicit comment about some element regarding the ongoing episode.

Emergent power in Hospital A was characterized by moderately low amounts of ingratiation ($\bar{x}=3.33$) and influence (\bar{x} threat = 3.33, \bar{x} rationale = 2.00) with high levels of altercasting ($\bar{x}=6.00$) and metacommunication ($\bar{x}=6.00$). Both the means of altercasting and metacommunication conform to the predicted direction. While ingratiation is classified as moderate, its' mean score is much lower than the means for altercasting and ingratiation. As such, it conforms to the predicted direction. The exceptions are the low and oderate scores for influence. It was anticipated that emergent power would be characterized by high levels of influence. Since only one emergent power episode was recorded and it possessed a small number of leader messages, it may be that the predicted amount of influence did not occur due to a small sample size.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES AND LEADERSHIP

Communication strategies may not only characterize types of power and domination, but may also differentiate between effective and ineffective leadership. A secondary question examined whether effective leaders employed different types of communication strategies than ineffective leaders (Table 14). Effective leaders tend to:

⁽a) use more altercasts_(T = 2.78, p = 0.01, xEffective = 5.64, xIneffective = 4.56),

b) employ greater amounts of ingratiation (T = 3.09, p = 0.01, xEffective = 4.19, xIneffective = 2.93),

Table 14

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of Leaders'
Use of Communication Strategies by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tailed Probability
Altercasting	5.64	4.56	2.78	22	0.01
Ingratiation	4.19	2.93	3.09	22	0.01
Metacommunication	5.32	5.28	0.12	22	0.90
Influence Threat	2.55	4.25	-3.54	22	0.00
Influence Rationale Giving	5.24	3.00	4.95	22	0.00

- (c) provide more rationales (T = 4.95, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.24, xIneffective = 3.00), and
- (d) utilize fewer threats (T = 3.54, p = 0.00, xEffective = 2.55, xIneffective = 4.25).

Both effective and ineffective leaders use moderately high amounts of metacommunication (T = 0.12, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 5.32, \bar{x} Ineffective = 5.28).

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE AND LEADERSHIP

An interest in the relationship between leadership and communication competence prompted the research question: "How do the dimensions of communication competence vary across forms of conversation characterizing effective and ineffective leaders? The dimensions are: (1) predictability of the communicative interchange, (2) valence of the episode, (3) degree of appropriateness, and (4) creativity." This general research question was subdivided into three secondary questions:

- (a) Are leadership and communication competence conceptually distinct entities?
- (b) Are effective leaders perceived as more competent communicators than ineffective leaders?
- (c) What is the relationship between specific dimensions of communication competence and the general impression of an individual's communication competence?

CONCEPTUAL AUTHENTICITY OF LEADERSHIP AND COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

Earlier research by Barge (1985a) uncovered a strong correlation between perceived communication competence and leadership (r = .92, p < 0.05). The possibility exists that leadership and communication competence are perceived by followers as synonymous. In the current

study, the follower perceived the other individual's level of communication competence (OCOMP) and the degree to which they were effective leaders (OLEAD) as highly associated (r = .80, p < 0.05). Despite this high correlation, they do remain conceptually distinct concepts. T-tests for related measures indicate that when interacting with effective leaders, followers perceive them to be more competent communicators than ineffective leaders (Table 15, T = 2.55, p = 0.02, \bar{x} 0COMP = 5.00, \bar{x} 0LEAD = 4.32). The same type of relationship remains constant for followers conversing with ineffective leaders (T = 3.92, T = 0.00, T = 0.0

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Followers view effective leaders as more competent communicators than ineffective leaders in terms of global perceptions of communication competence and specific dimensions of communication competence. First, followers view effective leaders as more competent in their communication than ineffective leaders (Table 16, T = 6.33, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.68, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.23). Second, effective leaders are differentiated from ineffective leaders on the basis of specific dimensions of communication competence. Effective leaders are perceived:

- (a) as exercising more control in the conversation $\underline{T} = 2.79$, p = 0.01, \overline{x} Effective = 5.44, \overline{x} Ineffective = 4.40),
- (b) being more able to predict followers' responses
 to their actions (T = 3.73, p = 0.00,
 xEffective = 5.67, xIneffective = 4.43),

Table 15

Differences Between the Perceived Communication
Competence and Leadership Effectiveness of
Other for Hospital A

	Perceived Communication Competence of Other	Perceived Leadership Effectiveness of Other	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower interacts with individual s/he perceives as an effective leader.	5.00	4.32	2.16	24	0.04
Follower interacts with individual s/he perceives as an ineffective leader.	4.68	3.45	3.20	21	0.00

-13

Table 16

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of Communication
Competence of Leader by Leadership Effectiveness
for Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
The other person communicated very competently during this conversation.	5.68	3.23	6.33	21	0.00
Saying this kind of message helps (leader) control the direction this conversation will go.	5.44	4.40	2.79	22	0.01
I think (leader) could predict with a high degree of certainty the kind of response s/he would get by saying this kind of message.	e 5.67	4.43	3.73	22	0.00
(Leader) could have experimented with other types of messages without causing me to be confused.		5.37	-3.95	22	0.00
This kind of message is extremely appropriate for (leader) to say.	5.63	3.38	4.51	22	0.00

- (c) being less creative_(T = 3.95, p = 0.00, xEffective = 3.70, xIneffective = 5.37), and
- (d) producing appropriate messages (T = 4.51, p = 0.02, \times Effective = 5.63, \times Ineffective = 3.38).

This suggests that effective leaders are able to produce appropriate messages that are coherent to the follower and alert the follower to the direction the conversation is taking.

PREDICTION OF COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

The last secondary question asked, "What is the relationship between specific dimensions of communication competence and the general impression of an individual's communication competence?"

Specifically, what types of perceptions regarding the form of the conversation and the types of messages performed by leaders heighten perceptions of communication competence?

Individuals monitor the emerging sequence of messages and knowingly or unknowingly assess the coherence of the conversation, who is controlling the conversation, and the valence of the responses to their messages (Pearce & Cronen, 1980). Implied within the model is the notion that individuals who produce coherent sequences of messages, exercise some degree of control to enhance the predictability of the conversation, and bring about positive consequences for the other person will be viewed as competent communicators. This hypothesis was tested using a step-wise multiple regression equation with the global perception of others' competence as the criterion variable (Table 17). Accounting for 82 percent of the variance, the perceived coherence of the conversation, episode valence, control of the conversation exercised by the leader, and the

Table 17 Prediction of Leaders' Global Communication Competence by Conversational Variables for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

The other person communicated very competently during this conversation. (Communication Competence)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:

The other person spoke absolutely understood			<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	Sig T
wanted me to do. (Coherence of Conversa	ation)		.51019	.08068	.50691	6.323	.0000
This conversation was (Episode Valence)	extremely des	sirable.	.27251	.06841	.32158	3.983	.0003
Saying this kind of me (leader) control the conversation will go. (Conversational Control	direction this	5	.29658	.08121	.22375	3.652	.0007
The response the other to my message was very (Consequent Message Va	y desirable.	me	.17158	.07977	.19485	2.151	.0370
(Constant)			-1.02266	.49646		-2.060	.0454
Multiple R R Square Adjusted R Square Standard Error	.91431 .83596 .82105 .77085						
Analysis of Variance Regression	DF 4		F SQUARES .24229	MEAN SQUARE 33.31057			

26.14547

.59422

F = 56.05810SIGNIF F = .0000

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Regression Residual

consequent valence to the messages produced by the follower predicted communication competence. This suggests that leaders who coproduce coherent and positively valenced forms of conversation (i.e. coordinated management episodes) will be viewed as more competent communicators.

A multiple regression equation using the five types of communication strategies as predictor variables for communication competence was also computed (Table 18). This equation suggests that perceptions of communication competence will be increased when individuals use fewer threats and provide more rationales. This equation accounted for 37 percent of the variance. The use of altercasts, ingratiation tactics, or metacommunication did not emerge as predictors of communication competence.

IDENTIFICATION, SOCIAL MOTIVATION, AND LEADERSHIP

In exploring the interrelationships among identification, the degree to which a follower feels motivated to perform tasks, and effective leadership, two research questions were raised: (1) "How does the level of identification with the definition of the system, with the means to achieve ends, and with goals differ between effective and ineffective leadership?" and (2) "What are the relationships among the enactment of effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform directives, and social motivation?"

Prediction of Leaders' Global Communication Competence by Communication Strategies for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

The other person communicated very competently during this conversation. (Communication Competence)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	D	CL D	BETA	т	SIG T
I view this kind of message as a threat. (Influence-Threat)	B 36554	<u>SE B</u> .11409	39402	<u>-</u> -3.204	.0025
I view this kind of statement as a					
reason for taking (leader's) advice or following the given directive. (Influence-Rationale Giving)	.35134	.11482	.37634	3.060	.0037
(Constant)	4.34126	.72956		5.951	.0000

Multiple	R	.63017
R Square		.39712
Adjusted	R Square	.37032
Standard	Frror	1.36913

ΔΝΔΙ	YSTS	ΩF	VART	ANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	55.56361	27.78181
Residual	45	84.35306	1.87451

F = 14.82082 SIGNIF F = .0000

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IDENTIFICATION AND LEADERSHIP

Identification by leadership type

Followers interacting with effective leaders perceived themselves as more closely identifying with the organization (Table 19, T = 4.03, \bar{x} Effective = 4.47, \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.74). At an organizational level, followers viewed conversations with effective leaders as different from those with ineffective leaders in two ways. First, effective leaders aim to achieve goals that are viewed as appropriate when compared to organizational goals (T = 2.71, p = 0.01, \bar{x} Effective = 5.05, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.86). Second, they construct means to achieve those goals that more closely parallel organizationally accepted means (T = 3.74, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 4.73, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.00). A similar pattern emerged for identifications given the relationship of the leader and follower. As followers perceived the leader as being effective, they more closely identified with:

- the role the leader was enacting (T = 2.13, p = 0.04,
- xEffective = 5.47, xIneffective = 4.61), the means employed by the leader (T = 4.86, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.39, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.00), and
- (c) the desired goals to be achieved (T = 3.72, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.00, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.09).

Regardless of leadership effectiveness, followers identified with the organizational role the leader was enacting and perceived it as legitimate given the organization (T = 1.09, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 5.35, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.83).

This implies conversations characterizing effective leadership are associated with increased levels of various types of identification and organizational identification. This is substantiated by moderate correlations existing between the perceived

Table 19
Differences in Identifications by Leader
Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees Freedom	of	Signifi- cance
Overall Level of Organizational Identification	4.47	2.74		4.03	22	0.00
Role Identification at Organizational Level	5.35	4.83		1.20	22	NS
Means Identification at Organizational Level	4.73	3.00		3.74	21	0.00
Goal Identification at Organizational Level	5.05	3.86		2.71	20	0.01
Role Identification at Relationship Level	5.47	4.61		2.13	22	0.04
Means Identification at Relationship Level	5.39	3.00		5.45	22	0.00
Goal Identification at Relationship Level	5.00	3.09		3.72	22	0.00

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leadership effectiveness of the leader and: (a) means identification at an organizational level (r = .72, p < 0.05), (b) goal identification at an organizational level (r = .51, p < 0.05), (c) means identification at a relational level (r = .76, p < 0.05), and (d) goal identification at a relational level (r = .69, p < 0.05). Furthermore, as followers perceive the leader as being more effective, their level of overall organizational identification also increases (r = .62, p < 0.05).

Predictors of organizational identification

A secondary area of interest was the connection between specific types of identification such as goals or means identification and overall organizational identification. Two step-wise multiple regressions were computed. One equation used only specific types of identification at the organizational level as predictors (Table 20) while the other was based on relational level identifications (Table 21). The former equation suggested that increases in followers' perceptions of the means and goals at an organizational level facilitated increased perceptions of overall organizational identification. The second equation yielded similar results. Increases in followers' identification with the goals and the means constructed during the conversation given their relationship with the leader are associated with higher levels of organizational identification. The two equations accounted for approximately 53 percent and 59 percent of the variance respectively. The absence of role identification in either equation indicates individuals do not premise their perceptions of organizational identification upon the

Table 20

Prediction of Overall Organizational Identification by Specific Identifications at Organizational Level for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

This	kind	of co	nver	·sat	ion	makes	me
feel	like	I be	long	in	this	orgai	ni-
zatio	on.						
(Orga	anizat	tiona]	Ide	enti	ifica	ation)	

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:

Ind	ependent Variable(s) in the Equation:	В	SE B	BETA	Т	SIG T	
ver our (Me	means we used to meet our goals were y similar to the kinds of activities organization would want us to use. ans Identification at Organizational el)	.54275	.13582	.52346	3.996	.0002	
hav sim (Go	goals we were trying to achieve by ing this conversation are very ilar to the goals of the organization. al Identification at Organizational el)	.31374	.14233	.28875	2.204	.0327	
(Co	nstant)	.12600	.52843		.238	.8126	

Multiple	K	./441/
R Square		.55379
Adjusted	R Square	.53396
Standard	Error	1.26864

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	89.88781	44.94390
Residual	45	72.42469	1.60944

F = 27.92522 SIGNIF F = .0000

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Table 21

Prediction of Overall Organizational Identification by Specific Identifications at Relationship Level for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

This kind of conversation makes me feel like I belong in this organization. (Organizational Identification)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	В	SE B	ВЕТА	Т	SIG T
The manner we used to achieve the goals was extremely appropriate given who we were. (Means Identification at	-		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	314 1
Relationship Level)	.54045	.13736	. 53785	3.934	.0003
The other person and I were working towards very similar goals in this conversation. (Goal Identification at Relationship Level)	.33923	.15523	.29874	2.185	.0342
(Constant)	06191	.51052		121	.9040

Multiple R .78236 R Square .61208 Adjusted R Square .59445 Standard Error 1.18547

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	97.56883	48.78442
Residual	44	61.83542	1.40535

F = 34.71335 SIGNIF F = .0000

types of roles leaders assume when interacting with them. In this instance, followers base their orientations towards the overall organization on the degree of identification with the means and goals created during conversation. This contradicts role theory which contends that the proper enactment of a role is critical for generating favorable impressions of organizational members and the social organization as a whole.

SOCIAL MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP

Motivation by leadership type

Followers perceived themselves as more intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to achieve personal and work-related goals when conversing with effective leaders than with ineffective leaders (Table 22). T-tests for related samples demonstrated that when interacting with effective leaders followers feel:

- (a) more intrinsically motivated to achieve personal
 goals (T = 4.29, p = 0.00, xEffective = 4.74,
 xIneffective = 2.74),
- (b) more intrinsically motivated to achieve work-related goals (T = 6.27, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.04, xIneffective = 2.23),
- (c) more extrinsically motivated to achieve personal goals (T = 5.01, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.48, xIneffective = 3.09), and
- (d) more extrinsically motivated to achieve work-related goals (T = 6.11, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.43, xIneffective = 2.78).

Followers perceive they are equally motivated to achieve personal and work goals by intrinsic and extrinsic forces (Tables 23 and 24). Followers view the level of intrinsic motivation towards achieving personal and work-related goals within a conversation as similar when interacting with an effective leader (T = -1.69, p = NS,

Table 22

Differences in Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower is intrinsicall motivated to achieve		0.71			
personal goals.	4.74	2.74	4.29	22	0.00
Follower is intrinsicall motivated to achieve work-related goals.	y 5.04	2.23	6.27	21	0.00
Follower is extrinsicall motivated to achieve personal goals.	y 5.48	3.09	5.01	22	0.00
Follower is extrinsicall motivated to achieve work-related goals.	y 5.43	2.78	6.11	22	0.00

Table 23

Differences Between Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal and Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	4.72	5.04	-1.69	24	NS
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	2.73	2.39	1.70	22	NS

Table 24

Differences Between Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal and Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	5.46	5.42	0.30	25	NS
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	3.08	2.78	0.89	22	NS

 \bar{x} Personal = 4.72, \bar{x} Work = 5.04). This is also true for followers interacting with ineffective leaders (T = 1.70, p = NS, \bar{x} Personal = 2.74, \bar{x} Work = 2.39). A similar pattern emerges in the extrinsic motivation for personal and work-related goals for followers conversing with effective (T = 0.30, p = NS, \bar{x} Personal = 5.46, \bar{x} Work = 5.42) and ineffective leaders (T = 0.89, p = NS, \bar{x} Personal = 3.08 \bar{x} Work = 2.78) leadership conversations.

Followers view themselves as equally motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic forces to achieve personal goals when dealing with ineffective leaders (Table 25, T = 0.75, p = NS, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 3.08, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 2.73). However, followers interacting with effective leaders perceive themselves as more extrinsically motivated to achieve personal goals (T = 2.91, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 4.73, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 5.46). This may occur due to leaders alerting followers to positively valenced outcomes that they may not have known previously. Furthermore, followers are also similarly motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic forces to achieve work-related goals when interacting with effective leaders (Table 26, T = 1.68, p = NS, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 5.04, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 5.44). The same relationship emerges between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation when followers talk with ineffective leaders (T = 0.85, p = NS, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 2.39, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 2.78).

These findings indicate that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should be viewed systemically. This is implied by the correlations occurring between the various forms of motivation. Collapsed across leadership types, intrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals is moderately associated with extrinsic motivation to achieve both

Table 25

Differences Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	4.73	5 . 46	2.91	25	0.01
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	3.08	2.73	0.75	22	NS

Table 26

Differences Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital A

	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance	
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	5.04	5.44	1.68	24	NS
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	2.39	2.78	0.85	22	NS

work-related (r=.61, p<0.05) and personal goals (r=.69, p<0.05). Intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals is also moderately correlated to extrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals (r=.50, p<0.05) and personal goals (r=.58, p<0.05). Furthermore, both types of intrinsic motivation (Work with Personal Goals, r=.83, p<0.05) as well as extrinsic motivation (Work with Personal Goals, r=.83, p<0.05) are highly correlated.

Prediction of social motivation

The degree to which conversational variables and types of identifications serve as predictors of social motivation was tested. First, Pearson Product Moment Correlations were computed associating the conversational variables of average prefigurative and practical forces with the various types of motivation. Prefigurative forces were weakly correlated to types of motivation whereas practical forces were moderately correlated to types of motivation. Prefigurative forces in conversation that prompted followers' messages were not correlated to intrinsic motivation to achieve personal (r = .12, p =NS) or work-related (r = .06, p = NS) goals plus extrinsic motivation to accomplish work-related goals (r = .06, p = NS). Prefigurative forces were very weakly associated with extrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals (r = .26, p < 0.05). Conversely practical forces were moderately correlated to: (a) intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals (r = .45, p < 0.05), (b) intrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals (r = .54, p < 0.05), (c) extrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals (r = .42, p < 0.05), and (d) extrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals (r = .52, p < .52

0.05). These moderate correlations with practical forces suggest that the ability for individuals to bring out desirable goals and consequences during conversation is positively associated with their level of motivation. This also indicates the typical conception of extrinsic motivation as causally oriented may be misleading since individuals perceive the other individual as motivating them only to the degree that they are able to accomplish desirable goals for themselves.

Second, it was hypothesized that the degree to which an individual would be motivated to perform a leader's directives would be contingent upon the level of identification the follower perceives. This hypothesis was tested using step-wise multiple regression equations (Tables 27, 28, 29, & 30) with types of identifications as predictors. The equations suggest that followers who perceive the means provided by the leader as paralleling organizationally accepted means are more motivated. These four equations accounted for roughly 29 percent to 68 percent of the variance. While the degree to which the follower views the means as appropriate given the relationship emerges in the equation for work-related intrinsic motivation, it accounts for only an additional 4 percent of the variance.

FELT COMPULSION AND LEADERSHIP

Follower responses to leadership enactment

Followers feel higher amounts of felt compulsion to follow leadership directives when interacting with effective versus ineffective leaders (Table 31). Effective leaders stimulate followers to:

Table 27

Prediction of Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Identifications for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it brings about an extremely desirable personal goal. (Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	_			_		
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	<u>BETA</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>SIG T</u>	
Level)	.60608	.10544	.64250	5.748	.0000	1
(Constant)	1.29739	.47823		2.713	.0093	152 -

Multiple	R	.64250
R Square		.41280
Adjusted	R Square	.4003
Standard	Error	1.39586

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	64.38035	64.38035
Residual	47	91.57883	1.94849

F = 33.04122 SIGNIF F = .0000

Prediction of Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Identifications for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helps me achieve a very desirable work-related goal. (Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals)

Independent	Variable(s)	in	the	Equation:
-------------	-------------	----	-----	-----------

The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational Level)	<u>B</u> .71462	<u>SE B</u> .10925	.66686	<u>T</u> 6.541	.0000
The manner we used to achieve the goals was extremely appropriate given who we were. (Means Identification at Relationship Level)	.26433	.11315	.23816	2.336	.0239
(Constant)	29297	47514		- 617	5405

Multiple	R	.83037
R Square		.68952
Adjusted	R Square	.67602
Standard	Error	1.16553

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	138.77635	69.38818
Residual	46	62.48895	1.35846

F = 51.07872 SIGNIF F = 0.0

Table 29

Prediction of Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Identifications for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some personal goal. (Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	В	SE B	ВЕТА	Т	SIG T	
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.	<u>-</u>			<u>-</u>	<u> </u>	
(Means Identification at Organizational Level)	.59863	.13050	.55609	4.587	.0000	- 154
(Constant)	1.87913	.59191		3.175	.0026	1

Multiple	R	.55609
R Square		.30924
Adjusted	R Square	.29454
Standard	Error	1.72772

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	62.80686	62.80686
Residual	47	140.29518	2.98500

F = 21.04080 SIGNIF F = .0000

Table 30

Prediction of Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Identifications for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal. (Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals)

Independent Variable(s) 1n	the	Equati	on:
------------------------	------	-----	--------	-----

The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities	<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	SIG T	
our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational Level)	.61563	.13355	.55798	4.610	.0000	- 155
(Constant)	1.64578	.60573		2.717	.0092	i

Multiple	R	.55798
R Square		.3113
Adjusted	R Square	.29669
Standard	Error	1.7680

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	66.42484	66.42484
Residual	47	146.92210	3.12600

F = 21.24913 SIGNIF F = .0000

Table 31

Followers' Responses to Leaders' Directives
by Leadership Effectiveness for
Hospital A

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower feels self as having to follow guidance provided by leader.	4.90	3.50	2.62	21	0.02
Follower feels self as wanting to perform acts to prevent leader from achieving leader's goal.		4.59	-2.83	22	0.01
Follower ignores directive provided by leader.	3.54	4.59	-1.98	21	NS
Follower feels self as working towards common goals provided by leader.	5 . 28	2.43	6.97	20	0.02

- (a) feel more compelled to perform the provided directive $(T = 2.62, p = 0.02, \bar{x}Effective = 4.90,$ xIneffective = 3.50),
- less inclined to prevent the leader from achieving his/her goals by using aggression (T = -2.83, p = 0.01, xEffective = 2.22, xIneffective = 4.59), or equally likely to ignore the directive (T = 1.98, p = NS,
- (c) \bar{x} Effective = 3.54, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.59), and
- more prone to move in the direction the leader desires $(T = 6.97, p = 0.00, \bar{x}Effective = 5.28,$ \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.43).

Predictors of felt compulsion

According to the theory articulated in Chapter II, the degree to which the follower will move in a direction desired by a leader is contingent upon the levels of organizational identification. Follower's felt compulsion was predicted by the degree to which the follower felt the means specified to achieve the goals specified were appropriate given the relationship (Table 32). This equation accounts for only 16 percent of the variance. Conversely, the degree to which followers perceive themselves as wanting to move in a common direction with the leader as a result of the conversation was strongly predicted by: (a) the degree to which the follower perceived the means as legitimate given their relationship, (b) the degree to which the goals were identified with organizationally appropriate goals, and (c) the degree to which the leader has the right to enact this role within the organization (Table 33). It is interesting to note that as the organizational role identification increases the level of movement by the follower decreases (\bar{x} Role = 5.24, \bar{x} Move = 3.86). This suggests that as leaders become more associated with the formal organizational hierarchy, their relationship may become more detached from their subordinates. As a result, followers may feel less inclined to move

Table 32

Prediction of Followers' Felt Compulsion to Perform Leaders' Directives by Types of Identifications for Hospital A

Dependent Variable:

I felt very strongly I had to follow the guidance the other person gave me during the conversation. (Felt Compulsion of Followers)

Independent	Variable((s) าท	the	Equation:
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The manner we used to achieve the goals	<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	SIG T	
were extremely appropriate given who we were. (Means Identification at Relationship Level)	.47052	.14817	.42029	3.175	.0026	- 158
(Constant)	2.14676	. 73784		2.910	.0055	1

Multiple	R	.4202
R Square		.1766
Adjusted	R Square	.15913
Standard	Error	1.8940

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	36.17259	36.17259
Residual	47	168.60292	2.58730

F = 10.08352 SIGNIF F = .0026

Dependent Variable:

This conversation definitely made me feel like working towards some common goals the other person brought up. (Followers' Desire to Move in Direction Provided by Leader)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	В	SE B	ВЕТА	Т	SIG T	
The manner we used to achieve the goals were extremely appropriate given who we were. (Means Identification at Relationship Level)	_ .74608	.12696	.63085	 5.877	.0000	
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational Level)	.37953	.12795	.33237	2.966	.0048	- 159 -
In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person to perform the role of a leader in similar situations. (Role Identification at Organizational Level)	33388	.15493	20409	-2.155	.0365	
(Constant)	.99562	.82135		1.212	.2318	
Multiple R .81581						

R Square .66555
Adjusted R Square .64325
Standard Error 1.30327

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	3	152.09786	50.69929
Residual	45	76.43275	1.69851

F = 29.84935 SIGNIF F - .0000

subordinates. As a result, followers may feel less inclined to move in a common direction provided by the leader as followers may perceive the leader as not really understanding the followers' position.

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

Several interesting findings emerged in the analyses conducted on the data from Hospital A: (1) Effective leadership is characterized by forms of conversations perceived as coherent and effective in allowing followers to achieve desirable work and personal goals. (2) Ineffective leadership is characterized by negative forms of conversation that are perceived as less coherent by followers and prevent followers from achieving desirable goals. (3) Effective leaders typically construct forms of power and domination that are more highly institutionalized and legitimate than ineffective leaders. (4) The pattern of communication strategies characterizing power and domination predicted in Chapter II is empirically confirmed. (5) Effective leaders are perceived as using more altercasts, ingratiation tactics, rationales and fewer threats than ineffective leaders. (6) Communication competence possesses a strong positive relationship with leadership effectiveness. (7) Leaders will be perceived as more competent by followers when the follower perceives the leader as providing desirable consequences for the follower, is coherent, and controls the direction of the conversation. (8) Effective leadership is characterized by followers perceiving a greater identification with the organization, and identifying with the role, means, and goals emergent within the conversation. (9) Intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation are moderately associated and are higher for followers when interacting with effective leaders. (10) Extrinsic motivational appeals by leaders are more effective when the person is intrinsically motivated. (11) Followers feel more compelled to comply with the directive provided and less inclined to prevent the leader from achieving desired goals by using aggression or ignoring the request when the leader is perceived as effective. (12) The degree to which a follower feels compelled to follow the direction provided by the leader is contingent on his/her perception of the means suggested by the leader as matching organizationally accepted means.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS FOR HOSPITAL B

Results generated in Hospital B are segmented into four sections. First, conversational forms characterizing effective and ineffective leadership as perceived by followers are discussed.

Second, the relationships between (a) communication strategies and (b) the social construction of power and domination are probed.

Additionally, communication strategies used by effective and ineffective leaders are differentiated. Third, the correspondence between communication competence and leadership is described. Fourth, the associations among organizational identification, motivation, and felt compulsion to perform leaders' directives are explored. The definition of terms and operationalizations of variables are the same as in Chapter III.

LEADERSHIP AND FORMS OF CONVERSATION

Research question one inquired, "How do the conversational forms characterizing the enactment of effective leadership differ from those constituting the performance of ineffective leadership?" This primary research question was subdivided into two secondary questions: (1) Can effective and ineffective leadership be differentiated by general conversational form? and (2) Do conversational forms of power and domination characterizing effective and ineffective leadership differ?

LEADER-FOLLOWER CONVERSATIONS

Thirty-four conversations of leaders and followers in Hospital B were analyzed using Cronen, Pearce, and Snavely's (1979) conversational typology. Eighteen conversations involved persons perceived as effective leaders with the remaining sixteen occurring between followers and individuals viewed as ineffective leaders (Tables 34 and 35).

General conversational forms of leadership

Five different conversational forms characterized the organizational pattern for leadership enactment in Hospital B (Table 36). First, several of the conversations were classified as coordinated management episodes(n=13). Second, the variation reported in Chapter IV occurred frequently (n=11). A subtype of this variation was typified by high prefigurative and practical forces, a negative episode valence, but with a positive consequent message valence. For example, a leader may promise during a conversation that a subordinate would be promoted for a position but then at the very end of the conversation may renege on the promise. Third, another conversational type that existed within Hospital B were perfunctory rituals (n=6). Fourth, the yariation of enigmatic episodes also characterized the organizational pattern for leadership within Hospital B (n=3).

The least frequently occurring conversational type was <u>value</u>

<u>expressive ritual</u> (n=1). Value expressive rituals are fully scripted sequences of messages having a deep significance for the participant.

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Table 34

Conversational Forms Characterizing Effective
Leadership for Hospital B*+

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
1	Mod.	High	High	High	High	Mod.	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(3.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(5.00)	(5.50)	(2.50)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Pattern Variation
2	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (4.50)	High (6.50)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (5.50)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (7.00)	High (6.00)	Coordinated Management
3	High	High	High	High	High	Low	High	Pos.	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Pattern Variation
4	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mod.	High	Mod.	Pos.	Neutral	High	Perfunctory
	(5.00)	(3.50)	(3.50)	(2.00)	(3.50)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(6.50)	(4.00)	(6.00)	Ritual
5	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory						
	(4.00)	(5.00)	(2.50)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(4.50)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	Ritual
6	Mod. (3.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Mod. (4.50)	High (7.00)	High (6.50)	High (7.00)	High (5.50)	Pos. (6.50)	Pos. (7.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Coordinated Management
7	High	Pos.	Pos.	Mod.	Coordinated						
	(5.50)	(5.50)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.00)	Management
8	Mod. (5.33)	High (6.67)	High (5.67)	High (6.33)	High (6.67)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6.67)	Pos. (7.00)	Mod. (4.67)	Coordinated Management
9	Mod.	High	Mod.	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	High	Perfunctory
	(4.00)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	Ritual
10	Mod. (5.00)	High (5.50)	High (5.50)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Neutral (4.00)	Mod. (5.00)	Coordinated Management

Table 34 (Continued)

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
11	Mod. (5.33)	High (5.67)	Mod. (2.67)	High (5.67)	Mod. (4.33)	Mod. (4.67)	Mod. (2.67)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Coordinated Management
12		High (6.50)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.50)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (3.50)	Coordinated Management
13	High (7.00)	High (7.00)	High (6.50)	High (7.00)	High (6.50)	High (6.50)	High (7.00)	Pos. (7.00)	Pos. (7.00)	Low (2.00)	Value Expressive Ritual
14	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	Mod. (4.00)	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Coordinated Management
15	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (5.00)	Mod. (5.00)	Pos. (6.00)	Neutral (5.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Coordinated Management
16	High (6.00)		Mod. (4.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Low (2.00)	Neutral (4.00)	Pos. (6.00)	High (6.00)	Coordinated Management
17	High (5.50)	Mod. (4.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	High (6.00)	Pos. (6:00)	Pos. (7.00)	High (6.00)	Coordinated Management
18	Mod. (3.50)	Low (2.00)	Mod. (5.00)	High (5.50)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Neutral (5.00)	Neutral (4.00)	High (6.00)	Perfunctory Ritual

^{*} Where ANTCOND = Antecedent Conditions EP = Episode REL = Relationship LS = Life Script CA = Cultural Archetype FUNC = Functional Autonomy CONS = Consequent Conditions CONVAL = Valence of Consequent Conditions EPVAL = Valence of Episode RANGE = Range of Perceived Alternative Acts

⁺ Numbers in parentheses are mean scores summed across all messages within a conversation (1 = low, 7 = high).

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Table 35 Conversational Forms Characterizing Ineffective Leadership for Hospital B*+

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
1	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(4.00)	(5.50)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(3.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Episode Variation
2	High	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.50)	(6.50)	(6.00)	(4.50)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(5.50)	(1.50)	(1.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation
3	High	High	High	High	High	Mod.	High	Neg.	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.50)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(3.50)	Pattern Variation
4	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neg.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(4.50)	(5.00)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(3.00)	(5.00)	(4.50)	(2.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation
5	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	High	Neg.	Neg.	Low	Unwanted Repetitive
	(4.00)	(6.50)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(1.00)	(1.00)	(2.00)	Pattern Variation
6	Mod.	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Pos.	High	Coordinated
	(5.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	Management
7	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Pos.	Neg.	High	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Pattern Variation
8	High (6.00)	High (7.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Mod. (3.00)	High (6.00)	Mod. (3.00)	Mod. (4.00)	Neg. (2.00)	Neg. (2.00)	High (6.00)	Unwanted Repetitive Pattern Variation
9	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	High	Enigmatic
	(4.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Episode Variation
10	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neg.	Neutral	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.67)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.33)	(3.00)	(5.00)	Pattern Variation

Table 35 (Continued)

Conver- sation	ANTCOND	EP	REL	LS	CA	FUNC	CONS	CONVAL	EPVAL	RANGE	FORM OF CONVERSATION
11	High	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neutral	High	Perfunctory
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(7.00)	Ritual
12	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(5.50)	(3.50)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Pattern Variation
13	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	High	Neutral	Neutral	Mod.	Perfunctory
	(6.00)	(6.33)	(5.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(4.33)	(5.67)	(3.00)	(3.00)	(4.33)	Ritual
14	High	High	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Enigmatic
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(3.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(4.00)	(3.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Episode Variation
15	High	High	Mod.	Mod.	High	High	High	Neg.	Pos.	High	Coordinated
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(5.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	Management
16	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Neutral	Neg.	Mod.	Unwanted Repetitive
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(5.00)	(2.00)	(3.00)	Pattern Variation

^{*} Where. ANTCOND = Antecedent Conditions EP = Episode REL = Relationship LS = Life Script CA = Cultural Archetype FUNC = Functional Autonomy CONS = Consequent Conditions CONVAL = Valence of Consequent Conditions EPVAL = Valence of Episode RANGE = Range of Perceived Alternative Acts

⁺ Numbers in parentheses are mean scores summed across all messages within a conversation (1 = low, 7 = high).

Table 36
Frequencies of Conversational Forms
for Hospital B

Conversational Form	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (frequency)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (frequency) Chi-Square		Degrees of Freedom	Significance
Coordinated Management	11	2			
Trainage ment	••	-			
Unwanted Repetitive					
Pattern Variation	2	9			
Perfunctory					
Ritual	4	2			
Enganetro Enganda					
Enigmatic Episode Variation	0	3			
• ui 1 u t 1 u ii	· ·	3			
Value Expressive					
Ritual	1	0	15.29	4	0.00

For example, when subordinates have discussions with their supervisors regarding problems within the organization, they may initially request clarification on the problem and then express their commitment to solving the problem for the good of the organization. When this pattern becomes institutionalized, it becomes a value expressive ritual as it: (a) establishes the general pattern for problem-solving, and (b) allows subordinates to demonstrate that they value commitment to the organization. Value expressive rituals typically have very strong prefigurative and practical forces, a narrow range of alternative acts, and positive consequent message and episode valences.

The differentiation of these conversations into the various categories possesses a high degree of face validity. However, a quantitative validity check for classifying these conversations was desired. This was accomplished by correlating the average prefigurative and practical forces within each conversational type. Due to a small number of conversations within each episode type, only one correlation emerged statistically significant precluding a statistical validity check for all conversational forms. Both the prefigurative and practical forces for the unwanted repetitive pattern variation were moderately correlated (r = .62, p < 0.05). This would be expected since this conversational form is characterized by high prefigurative and practical forces which allow the individual to recognize the ongoing sequence of interaction. Due to high level of both types of forces, one would expect them to be correlated.

Conversational forms characterizing effective and ineffective leadership

The conversational forms typifying effective and ineffective leadership vary systematically (Table 36, X^2 = 15.29, p = 0.00). Effective leadership within Hospital B is characterized by positively or neutrally valenced conversational forms. Specifically, positively valenced forms of conversation such as coordinated management episodes and value expressive rituals constitute a majority of the conversations perceived as effective by followers (n=12). Neutrally valenced forms such as perfunctory rituals comprised a lesser number (n=4). Negative forms of conversation like unwanted repetitive pattern variation rarely define effective leadership practice (n=2). In summary, effective leadership is characterized predominantly by forms of conversation that allow followers to accomplish desirable goals, permit them to express their values, or perform perfunctory duties necessary for successful organizational functioning.

Conversely, ineffective leadership is comprised of negatively valenced conversational types such as the unwanted repetitive pattern and enigmatic episode variations (n=12). It is also characterized to a lesser degree by positively or neutrally valenced interactions such as coordinated management episodes or perfunctory rituals (n=4). Ineffective leadership is dominated by forms of conversation that either deny followers from achieving desirable goals or are sufficiently incoherent that followers are unable to sequence messages to accomplish desirable goals.

These conjectures were confirmed by a series of T-tests for related samples comparing the coherency, episode desirability, and

conversational effectiveness for obtaining goals for effective and ineffective leadership dialogue (Table 37). These analyses discovered that followers view conversations with effective leaders as:

- (a) more coherent (T = 5.77, p = 0.00, xEffective = 6.00, xIneffective = 3.81),
- (b) more desirable (T = 5.22, p = 0.00, $\times Effective = 5.06$, $\times Ineffective = <math>2.69$).
- (c) more effective in fulfilling personal goals (T = 3.29, p = 0.00, xEffective = 4.88, xIneffective = 3.00), and
- (d) more effective in accomplishing desirable work-related goals (T = 4.29, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.68, xIneffective = 3.50).

POWER, DOMINATION, AND LEADERSHIP

Thirty-four conversations were also analyzed to delineate the forms of power and domination characterizing leadership within Hospital B (Tables 38 & 39). The perceived forms of power and domination were distinguished by the criteria presented in Figure 2: (1) perceived prefigurative forces, (2) perceived practical forces,

(3) perceived degree of legitimation, (4) perceived degree of type of legitimation, and (5) perceived level of range of alternative acts.

Conversational power and domination

Six different types of power and domination characterized leadership practice within Hospital B (Table 40). Transcripts of conversations representing each type of power and domination are included in Appendix B. The largest number of conversations were categorized as <u>institutionalized domination</u> episodes (n=12). The second most frequent type of conversations were <u>mixed</u> institutionalized/emergent domination (n=11). A third conversational

Table 37

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of the Coherency,
Desirability, and Effectiveness of Episode by
Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tailed Probability
Leader viewed as speaking coherently.	6.00	3.81	5.77	15	0.00
Conversation viewed as very desirable.	5.06	2.69	5.22	15	0.00
Conversation viewed as very effective for follower to achieve personal goals.	4.88	3.00	3.29	15	0.00
Conversation viewed as very effective for follower to achieve work-related goals.	5.68	3.50	4.29	15	0.00

Table 38

Conversational Forms of Power and Domination
Characterizing Effective Leadership for Hospital B

			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	 		, , , ,
Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tıcal	Legiti-	Legitımatıon	Legitı-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
1	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(5.20)	(4.33)	(4.00)	(2.00)	(4.00)	Domination
_						
2	High	High	High	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(5.80)	(5.50)	(6.67)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Domination
•	IIE	M _ J		T4-4-4114	N - 4	T
3	High	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(6.00)	(4.50)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(5.00)	Domination
4	Mod.	Цэ ab	High	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
4	(3.50)	High (5.67)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Domination
	(3.50)	(3.07)	(0.00)	(2.00)	(0.00)	Domination
5	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
J	(4.00)	(4.17)	(6.00)	(3.00)	(4.50)	Emergent Domination
	(4.00)	(4.17)	(0.00)	(3.00)	(4.30)	Liner gent bominacion
6	Mod.	High	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
	(5.00)	(6.33)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(3.00)	Domination
	(3.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(2.00)	(3.00)	Dominación
7	High	High	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Institutionalized
•	(5.70)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(3.00)	Domination
	(01/0)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(2000)	(3333)	50111111111111
8	High	High	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.13)	(6.22)	(6.50)	(2.50)	(4.67)	Emergent Domination
	(3110)	(3022)	(3133)	(2000)	(,	Ziner gene zenizhaezen
9	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(5.10)	(4.83)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Domination
	(11-1)	,			(/	
10	Mod.	High	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.40)	(5.67)	(6.00)	(3.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
	<u> </u>	`		 	 	
11	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(4.73)	(4.45)	(6.50)	(1.50)	(4.00)	Emergent Domination
12	High	High	High	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(6.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	(4.00)	(3.50)	Emergent Domination
	,				1	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
13	High	High	High	Mixed	Low	Mixed Institut./
	(6.80)	(6.83)	(7.00)	(3.67)	(2.00)	Emergent Domination

Table 38 (Continued)

Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tıcal	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
14	High (6.00)	High (6.33)	High (6.50)	Mixed (2.50)	Mod. (4.00)	Mixed Institut./ Emergent Domination
15	High (5.60)	Mod. (5.33)	High (6.50)	Mixed (2.50)	Mod. (4.00)	Mixed Institut./ Emergent Domination
16	High (5.50)	Mod. (4.00)	High (6.50)	Mixed (4.00)	High (6.00)	Mixed Institut./ Emergent Domination
17	High (5.50)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.50)	Institutionalized (2.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized Domination
18	Mod. (4.20)	Mod. (5.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized (2.00)	High (6.00)	Institutionalized Domination

Table 39

Conversational Forms of Power and Domination
Characterizing Ineffective Leadership for Hospital B

Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tical	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
Jood	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
	101000	101000	illa CTOTI		1 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 1	
1	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
-	(4.50)	(4.17)	(2.50)	(3.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
	(4.50)	(4.17)	(2.30)	(3.00)	(3.00)	Emer gent bomination
2	High	Mod.	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
2	(5.70)	(4.00)	(1.50)	(7.00)	(6.00)	Dominacion
	(3.70)	(4.00)	(1.30)	(7.00)	(0.00)	
3	High	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	Mod.	Emergent
J	(6.00)	(3.50)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(3.50)	Domination
	(0.00)	(3.30)	(4.00)	(0.00)	(3.30)	DOMITITATION
4	Mod.	Mod.	Us ab	Institutionalized	Us ab	 Institutionalized
4	1		High	†	High	
	(3.90)	(3.83)	(6.00)	(2.00)	(6.00)	Domination
_		u 1				D
5	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Emergent	Low	Power
	(5.10)	(4.33)	(1.00)	(7.00)	(2.00)	
6	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	High	Emergent
	(5.00)	(4.33)	(4.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	Domination
7	High	High	Low	Emergent	High	Domination
	(6.20)	(6.67)	(1.00)	(6.00)	(6.00)	
8	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	High	Emergent
	(5.00)	(3.00)	(4.00)	(6.50)	(6.00)	Domination
9	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	High	Mixed Institut./
	(4.60)	(4.33)	(5.00)	(4.00)	(6.00)	Emergent Domination
10	High	Mod.	Mod.	Emergent	Mod.	Emergent
_	(5.93)	(4.78)	(2.67)	(6.00)	(5.00)	Domination
11	Mod.	Mod.	High	Institutionalized	High	Institutionalized
	(5.40)	(4.33)	(7.00)	(2.00)	(7.00)	Domination
12	High	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.50)	(4.83)	(3.00)	(3.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
13	High	Mod.	Low	Mixed	Mod.	Domination
	(5.67)	(4.33)	(2.00)	(4.50)	(4.33)	

Table 39 (Continued)

Sub-	Prefig-	Prac-	Degree of	Type of	Range of	Type of Power
ject	urative	tical	Legiti-	Legitimation	Legiti-	Or Domination
	Forces	Forces	mation		mation	
14	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.	Mixed	Mod.	Mixed Institut./
	(5.00)	(3.67)	(4.67)	(4.00)	(5.00)	Emergent Domination
15	Mod.	Mod.	High	Emergent	High	Emergent
	(5.40)	(4.67)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(6.00)	Domination
16	High	High	High	Mixed	Mod.	Emergent
	(6.00)	(5.67)	(6.00)	(3.33)	(3.00)	Domination

Table 40

Frequencies of Conversational Forms of Power and Domination for Hospital B

Type of Power or Domination	Conversation Viewed as Instance of Effective Leader- ship (frequency)	Conversation Viewed as Instance of Ineffective Leader- ship (frequency)	Chi- Square	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Institutionalized Domination	10	2			
Mixed Institutionalized/ Emergent Domination	7	4			
Emergent Domination	0	6			
Domination	0	3			
Mixed Institutionalized/ Emergent Power	1	0			
Power	0	1	17.13	5	0.00

type present was <u>emergent domination</u> (n=6). <u>Domination</u> was the fourth most frequently occurring conversational type (n=3).

While types of domination episodes constituted a majority of the cultural pattern for leadership (94 percent), two types of power episodes emerged. First, there was a <u>mixed institutionalized/emergent power</u> episode which is characterized by moderate prefigurative and practical forces, a low range of perceived alternative acts, and moderate levels of institutionalized and emergent legitimation. For example, a mixed power episode may develop when a leader presents a new problem to a subordinate and requests a solution but the subordinate perceives a low range of possible replies due to the moderately institutionalized nature for problem-solving conversations within that organization. However, the leader must still legitimate the request because the problem and the leader's need for assistance may be unclear to the follower.

Second, one <u>power</u> episode surfaced from the conversational analysis (n=1). Power episodes are typified by high prefigurative forces, low practical forces, a narrow range of perceived alternative acts, and low levels of either institutionalized or emergent legitimation. For example, followers may perceive that power is being enacted when they make requests for assistance on a highly structured task and are insulted by the leader regarding their level of work proficiency. In such a case, the leader's responses may be viewed as highly inappropriate and requiring legitimation. However, followers are greatly constrained to what they can say or do because they require the information to complete the structured task successfully.

Kruskal-Wallis ANOVAs were computed comparing: (a) the average prefigurative and practical forces, (b) degree of legitimation, (c) type of legitimation, and (d) range of alternative acts in order to determine the validity of assigning these conversations to their respective categories (Table 41). The mixed institutionalized/emergent power and power episodes were excluded from this analysis as only one conversation existed for each type.

The categorizations of these conversations to their respective classes was considered valid after comparing the statistical analyses to the standards presented in Figure 1. First, there was a statistically significant difference in prefigurative forces. Specifically, institutionalized domination ($\bar{x} = 5.67$), emergent domination ($\bar{x} = 5.70$), and domination ($\bar{x} = 5.77$) were moderately high in prefigurative forces while mixed domination was moderate $(\bar{x} =$ 4.67). This concurs with the predicted relationships that domination episodes would tend to have moderate prefigurative forces. Second, as predicted in Figure 1 all four types of domination episodes have moderate practical forces (\bar{x} Institutionalized = 4.78, \bar{x} Mixed = 4.71, \bar{x} Emergent = 4.28, \bar{x} Domination = 4.72). Third, the degree of legitimation also increases with the level of institutionalization. As predicted by Figure 1, institutionalized ($\bar{x} = 5.71$) and mixed ($\bar{x} = 5.71$) 6.17) domination are viewed as more legitimate than less institutionalized forms such as emergent domination ($\bar{x} = 3.33$) and domination ($\bar{x} = 1.50$). Fourth, the pattern of means for the type of legitimation conforms to the predicted pattern as institutionalized episodes are more prefiguratively legitimated ($\bar{x} = 2.00$), with mixed

Table 41

Validity Check for Types of Power and Domination for Hospital B

Follower views prefigurative forces influencing message selection.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
13.17 4.83 13.50 15.17	5.67 4.67 5.70 5.77	6 6 4 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SO		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
22	9.	.18	0.03

Follower views practical forces influencing message selection.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
14.58 13.50 11.42 12.42	4.78 4.71 4.28 4.72	6 7 6 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SO		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
25	0.	.68	0.88

Follower views leader's messages as legitimate

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	
17.86 18.58 10.25 4.50	5.71 6.17 3.33 1.50	7 6 6 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SC		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
25	16.	.62	0.00

Table 41 (Continued)

Episode is institutionalized (1) or emergently (7) legitimated.

MEA	IN RANK ME	AN SCORE	CASES	
	6.00 8.25 19.50 19.42	2.00 2.50 6.00 5.83	7 6 6 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
			CORRECTI	ED FOR TIES
CAS	ES	CHI-SQL	JARE	2-TAILED PROBABILITY
2	25	19.6	64	0.00
ollowers' perc	eived			

Followers' perceived range of alternative acts.

MEAN RANK	MEAN SCORE	CASES	-
13.50 10.43 11.80 14.50	5.00 4.43 4.60 5.17	6 7 5 6	Institutionalized Domination Mixed Domination Emergent Domination Domination
CASES	CHI-SC		TED FOR TIES 2-TAILED PROBABILITY
24	1.	.34	0.72

episodes being both prefiguratively and emergently legitimated (\bar{x} = 2.50), and emergent domination (\bar{x} = 6.00) and domination (\bar{x} = 5.83) being emergently legitimated. Fifth, no significant differences emerged between types of domination episodes and the perceived range of alternative acts.

Types of power and domination differentiating effective and ineffective leadership

Systematic differences existed in the distribution of the conversational forms of power and domination across effective and ineffective leadership (Table 40). Effective leadership is distinguished by more highly institutionalized and legitimated forms of power and domination. In fact, institutionalized domination, mixed domination, and mixed power episodes account for all conversations comprising effective leadership. Conversely, ineffective leadership is strongly represented by forms of power and domination that are either minimally or moderately institutionalized and legitimate. This included domination, emergent domination, and power (n=10). Ineffective leadership is atypically institutionalized or mixed domination (n=6).

This configuration implies that forms of power and domination which are accepted and easily recognized by followers are viewed as more effective. Organizational members may easily recognize institutionalized patterns due to their commonality or regular occurrence within a social organization. This would increase their ability to participate in the episode to bring about some type of legitimate and appropriate action. This speculation is confirmed by the fact that all neutrally and positively valenced episodes typifying

effective leadership are also either institutionalized domination, mixed domination, or mixed power.

Conversely, for ineffective leadership, only six of the thirteen neutrally or negatively valenced episodes were either institutionalized or mixed domination. This suggests that ineffective leadership is characterized by forms of domination that necessitates leaders to legitimate their actions to aid the follower in understanding the purpose and direction of the conversation.

THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF POWER AND DOMINATION

In order to determine the connection between specific communication strategies and forms of power and domination, the second research question was formulated, "How are particular types of communicative strategies associated with the social construction of forms of power and domination?" A subordinating question was also raised, "Are effective leaders perceived as employing communication strategies differently than ineffective leaders?"

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES, POWER, AND DOMINATION

The pattern of means (\bar{x}) for conversational type corresponds reasonably well to those hypothesized in Figure 2 (Table 42). According to the proposed relationships in Figure 2, institutionalized domination should be typified by followers perceiving leaders as using low levels of altercasting, moderate amounts of ingratiation, and high amounts of influence. These general relationships held true for institutionalized domination; both rationale giving $(\bar{x} = 4.40)$ and

Table 42

Communication Strategies of Forms of Power and Domination for Hospital B

	Communication Strategies						
Type of Power or Domination	Altercasting	Ingratiation	Meta- communication	Threat	Rationale Giving		
Institutionalized Domination	High	Mod.	Mod.	Low	Mod.		
	(5.64)	(3.80)	(5.12)	(1.96)	(4.40)		
Mixed Institutionalized/ Emergent Domination	Mod. (5.13)	Mod. (3.82)	Mod. (4.91)	Low (2.17)	Mod. (4.73)		
Emergent Domination	Mod.	Low	Mod.	Mod.	Mod.		
	(4.50)	(2.17)	(5.08)	(5.08)	(3.17)		
Domination	Mod.	Mod.	High	Mod.	Mod.		
	(4.67)	(3.67)	(6.00)	(5.33)	(2.67)		
Mixed Institutionalizd/ Emergent Power	High (6.67)	Low (2.00)	Mod. (5.33)	Low (2.00)	High (6.00)		
Power	Low	Low	High	High	Low		
	(1.00)	(1.00)	(6.00)	(7.00)	(1.00)		

metacommunication ($\bar{x}=5.12$) were more prominent than ingratiation ($\bar{x}=3.80$). However, altercasting was unusually high ($\bar{x}=5.64$). This may occur because followers perceive leaders as employing implicit altercasts to sensitize the follower to the role s/he is to enact. Since nursing positions and medical procedures are highly codified and institutionalized, implicit altercasting may be heavily used to remind followers of the role and procedure s/he is to perform. The proposed relationship may only hold for explicit altercasts.

Mixed domination is a conversational type characterized by moderate levels of all communication strategies. This would be anticipated since leaders would need to use communication strategies that reflect a degree of institutionalization (i.e. altercasts) while still employing more explicit communication strategies to justify their acts (i.e. metacommunication). This results from both types of legitimation being present within the conversation. This was confirmed as leaders were perceived as using moderate amounts of altercasting ($\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 5.13$), ingratiation ($\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 3.82$), and metacommunication ($\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 4.91$). The two influence measures - threatening ($\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 2.17$) and rationale giving ($\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 4.73$) - average to a moderate amount.

Followers participating in emergent domination episodes would perceive leaders as using moderate levels of ingratiation plus high levels of metacommunication and influence. Furthermore, the low level of institutionalization should diminish the use of altercasts. This pattern is confirmed for metacommunication ($\bar{x} = 5.08$) and the influence strategy of threatening ($\bar{x} = 5.08$); both are moderately

high. While one would anticipate rationale giving to be high, it is only moderate ($\bar{x}=3.17$). This may stem from the fact that it is only moderately used ($\bar{x}=3.67$) within Hospital B's cultural pattern. Furthermore, the suggested pattern is not confirmed for altercasts ($\bar{x}=4.50$) or ingratiation ($\bar{x}=2.17$). Both the moderate amount of altercasts and the low level of ingratiation may stem from an organizational pattern that stresses using altercasting ($\bar{x}=4.60$) and moderately low levels of ingratiation ($\bar{x}=2.74$).

In domination episodes, followers view leaders as employing moderate levels of altercasting, metacommunication, and influence with high levels of ingratiation; and these relationships were confirmed for altercasting and influence. Both were viewed as moderately present within the episodes (\bar{x} Altercast = 4.67, \bar{x} Threat = 5.33, \bar{x} Rationale = 2.67). While the two measures of influence average to a moderate amount, threats seem to be more prevalently used than rationale giving in domination episodes. This may facilitate followers' perceptions of low legitimation.

Contrary to predicted directions, however, ingratiation is perceived as a moderately employed strategy ($\bar{x}=3.67$) while metacommunication is a highly employed strategy ($\bar{x}=6.00$). These relationships may emerge for two reasons. First, ingratiation is moderately used across all conversational types. Apparently the cultural pattern for leadership deemphasizes the use of bargaining as an effective means to achieve goals. Second, 75 percent of domination episodes are emergently legitimated. This requires leaders to employ strategies such as metacommunication that did not require a high

degree of background knowledge on the part of the follower.

Only one conversation characterized the enactment of mixed institutionalized/emergent power. It was hypothesized that moderate amounts of altercasting, metacommunication, and influence would be used due to the mixed type of legitimation. This would allow leaders to use both implicit (i.e. altercasts) and explicit (i.e. metacommunication) communication strategies to increase the felt compulsion of followers. Furthermore, all power episodes are typified by low levels of ingratiation. The follower perceived the leaders using moderate amounts of metacommunication ($\bar{x} = 5.33$) and low levels of ingratiation ($\bar{x} = 2.00$). The two influence measures averaged to a moderate amount (\bar{x} Threat = 2.00, \bar{x} Rationale = 6.00). However, as was typical of Hospital B, a high amount of altercasts were perceived as being used by the leader ($\bar{x} = 6.67$).

In power episodes, followers would generally perceive leaders as employing high amounts of altercasts, low amounts of ingratiation and metacommunication, and moderate amounts of influence. This pattern was partially confirmed. Ingratiation ($\bar{x}=1.00$) was low and amounts of influence averaged to a moderate level (\bar{x} Threat = 7.00, \bar{x} Rationale = 1.00). However, contrary to expectations, altercasting was a little used strategy ($\bar{x}=1.00$) whereas metacommunication was more predominantly used ($\bar{x}=6.00$). This may be due to the episode being emergently legitimated since leaders would be unable to use communication strategies that required high amounts of background knowledge on the part of the follower which would minimize the use of altercasts. On the other hand, metacommunication would be a more frequently used strategy.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES AND LEADERSHIP

A secondary question centered on whether effective leaders employed types of communication strategies differently than ineffective leaders (Table 43). The data revealed that effective leaders tend to:

- (a) use more altercasts (T = 3.31, p = 0.01, xEffective = 5.75, xIneffective = 4.41),
- (b) employ more ingratiation tactics (T = 2.54, p = 0.02, xEffective = 3.85, xIneffective = 2.80),
- (c) provide more rationales (T = 5.13, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.05, xIneffective = 2.94), and
- (d) make fewer threats (T = -5.45, p = 0.00, xEffective = 1.88, xIneffective = 4.49).

Both effective and ineffective leaders used moderately high amounts of metacommunication (T = 1.04, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 5.27, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.85).

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE AND LEADERSHIP

In order to investigate the relationship between leadership and communication competence, the following research question was formulated: "How do the dimensions of communication competence vary across forms of conversation characterizing effective and ineffective leaders? The dimensions are: (1) predictability of the communicative interchange, (2) valence of the episode, (3) degree of appropriateness, and (4) creativity." This primary research question was subdivided into three sub-questions:

- a. Are leadership and communication competence conceptually distinct entities?
- b. Are effective leaders perceived as more competent communicators than ineffective leaders?

Table 43

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of Leaders'
Use of Communication Strategies by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tailed Probability
Altercasting	5.75	4.41	3.31	15	0.01
Ingratiation	3.85	2.80	2.54	15	0.02
Metacommunication	5.27	4.85	1.04	15	NS
Influence Threat	1.88	4.49	-5.63	15	0.00
Influence Rationale Giving	5.05	2.94	5.13	15	0.00

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c. What is the relationship between specific dimensions of communication competence and the general impression of an individual's communication competence?

CONCEPTUAL AUTHENTICITY OF LEADERSHIP AND COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

Prior research uncovered a strong correlation between perceived communication competence and leadership (r = .92, p < 0.05; Barge, 1985a). This implies that followers may view leadership and communication competence as synonymous. How followers perceive another person performing the role of an effective leader (OLEAD) and that other person's communication competence (OCOMP) were strongly correlated in the current research (r = .87, p < 0.05). In spite of this high degree of association, however, they do remain conceptually distinct concepts. T-tests for related measures indicate that when followers interact with effective leaders, they perceive them to be similar in levels of communication competence and leadership (Table 44, T = 6.18, p = NS, \bar{x} 0COMP = 6.28, \bar{x} 0LEAD = 5.89). However, the means indicate that followers view the individual as a more competent communicator than effective leader. This relationship is statistically significant when followers converse with ineffective leaders (T = 4.14, p = 0.00, \bar{x} 0COMP = 3.50, \bar{x} 0LEAD = 2.50).

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Followers perceive effective leaders as more competent communicators than ineffective leaders. First, followers globally perceive effective leaders as more competent in their communication than ineffective leaders (Table 45, T = 6.18, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective =

Table 44

Differences Between the Perceived Communication
Competence and Leadership Effectiveness of
Other for Hospital B

	Perceived Communication Competence of Other	Perceived Leadership Effectiveness of Other	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance	
Follower interacts with individual s/he perceives as an effective leader.	6.28	5.89	1.59	17	NS	
Follower interacts with individual s/he perceives as an ineffective leader.	3.50	3.50	4.14	15	0.00	

Table 45

Differences in Followers' Perceptions of Communication
Competence of Leader by Leadership Effectiveness
for Hospital B

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
T1 11					
The other person communicated very					
competently during					
this conversation.	6.19	3.50	6.18	15	0.00
Saying this kind of message helps (leader) control the direction					
this conversation will	E 1/	4.67	0.96	15	NS
go.	5.14	4.07	0.90	15	NS
I think (leader) could predict with a high degree of certainty the kind of response s/he would get by saying this kind of message.	ee 5.64	5.05	1.49	15	NS
(Leader) could have experimented with other types of messages without causing me to be confused		5.27	-3.18	15	0.01
This kind of message is extremely appropriate for (leader) to say.	6.14	3.77	4.94	152	0.00

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6.19, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.50). Second, effective leaders differ from ineffective leaders on the basis of specific dimensions of communication competence. Effective leaders are seen as: (a) being less creative in their conversations (T = -3.78, p = 0.01, \bar{x} Effective = 4.32, \bar{x} Ineffective = 5.27) and (b) producing appropriate messages (T = 4.94, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 6.14, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.77). While not differing significantly, followers perceive effective leaders as being slightly more in control of the conversation (T = .96, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 5.14, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.67) and as being able to predict the follower's responses to their actions (T = 1.49, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 5.64, \bar{x} Ineffective = 5.05). This provides partial support for the idea that effective leaders produce appropriate messages that are coherent to followers and alert the follower to the direction which the conversation is taking.

PREDICTION OF COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

The last secondary question asked, "What is the relationship between specific dimensions of communication competence and the general impression of an individual's communication competence?" Specifically, what types of perceptions regarding the form of the conversation and the types of messages produced by leaders heighten perceptions of communication competence?

Two step-wise multiple regressions were computed using different conversational and message variables as predictors of the others' communication competence. First, the variables of conversational coherence, degree of conversational control, episode valence, and

consequent message valence were used as predictor variables for others' communication competence (Table 46). Accounting for 72 percent of the variance, the perceived coherence of the conversation and consequent valence to the followers' messages predicted communication competence. This suggests that leaders who produce coherent messages and give positively valenced messages to followers will be perceived as more effective.

Second, a multiple regression equation using the five types of communication strategies as predictor variables for communication competence suggests that perceptions of communication competence will be increased when individuals use fewer threats, provide more rationales, and use more altercasts. The equation accounts for 68 percent of the variance (Table 47).

IDENTIFICATION, SOCIAL MOTIVATION, AND LEADERSHIP

Two research questions explored the interrelationships among identification, the degree to which a follower feels motivated to perform tasks, and effective leadership.

- (1) How does the level of identification with the definition of the system, with the means to achieve ends, and with goals differ between effective and ineffective leadership?
- (2) What are the relationships among the enactment of effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform directives, and social motivation?

Table 46

Prediction of Leaders' Global Communication Competence by Conversational Variables for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

The other person communicated very competently during this conversation. (Communication Competence)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:

The other person spoke so well, I absolutely understood what she/he wanted me to do.	<u>B</u>	SE B	<u>BETA</u>	<u>T</u>	Sig T	
(Coherence of Conversation)	.71054	.12855	.61269	5.527	.0000	
The response the other person gave me to my message was very desirable. (Consequent Message Valence)	.36436	.11528	.35035	3.161	.0035	- 195
(Constant)	-,17887	.57320		312	.7571	ı

Multiple	R	.86087
R Square		.74110
Adjusted	R Square	.72440
Standard	Error	.97133

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
2 31	83.72289 29.24770	41.86144 .94347
	DF 2 31	

F = 44.36946 SIGNIF F = .0000

Table 47 Prediction of Leaders' Global Communication $\begin{array}{c} \text{Competence by Communication Strategies} \\ \text{for Hospital B} \end{array}$

Dependent Variable:

The other person communicated very competently during this conversation. (Communication Competence)

•					
Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:		CE D	DCTA	-	0.10 T
T	В	<u>SE B</u>	BETA	<u>l</u>	<u>SIG T</u>
I view this kind of message as a threat. (Influence-Threat)	45413	.11996	46808	-3.786	.0007
I view this kind of statement as a reason for taking (leader's) advice or following the given directive. (Influence-Rationale Giving)	.33224	.14372	.28858	2.312	.0278
This kind of message makes it extremely clear to me what role is appropriate for me to act out during this conversation. (Altercasting)	.33554	.16040	.25323	2.092	.0450
(Constant)	3.30857	1.10269		3.000	.0054
Multiple R .84111 R Square .70747 Adjusted R Square .67822 Standard Error 1.04956					
ANALVOTO OF VARIANCE					

WINNETSTS OF AWKTWING	ANALYSIS	OF VARIA	NCE
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	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	3	79.92322	26.64107
Residual	30	33.04737	1.10158

F = 24.18444 SIGNIF F = .0000

IDENTIFICATION AND LEADERSHIP

Identification by leadership type

When they interact with effective leaders, followers identify more closely with the organization (Table 48, T = 7.91, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.94, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.19). Using the organization as the target of identification, they perceived effective leaders as: (a) constructing goals that were appropriate given the organization (T = 4.05, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.81, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.88), (b) suggesting means appropriate given the organization (T = 5.57, p =0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.25, \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.94), and (c) having the right to be a leader (T = 2.57, p = 0.02, \bar{x} Effective = 6.00, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.94). A similar pattern emerged for identifications given the relationship of the leader and follower. Followers identified more closely with the means the leader constructed (T = 5.55, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.75, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.00) and the goals the leader suggested (T = 6.32, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.56, \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.88). Regardless of leadership effectiveness, however, followers viewed the leader's role as moderately appropriate $(T = 1.92, p = NS, \bar{x}Effective = 5.69, \bar{x}Ineffective = 4.75)$.

The data implies that conversations characterizing effective leadership are associated with increased levels of various types of identification and organizational identification. This is confirmed by moderate to strong correlations existing between the perceived effectiveness of the leader and:

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Overall Level of Organizational Identification	5.94	3.19	7.91	15	0.00
Role Identification at Organizational Level	6.00	4.94	2.57	15	0.02
Means Identification at Organizational Level	5.25	2.94	5.57	15	0.00
Goal Identification at Organizational Level	5.81	3.88	4.05	15	0.00
Role Identification at Relationship Level	5.69	4.75	1.92	15	0.07
Means Identification at Relationship Level	5.75	3.00	5.55	15	0.00
Goal Identification at Relationship Level	5.56	2.88	6.32	15	0.00

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- (a) role identification at an organizational level (r = .49, p <.05),</pre>
- (b) means identification at an organizational level (r = .78, p <.05),</pre>
- (c) goal identification at an organizational level (r = .50, p <.05),</pre>
- (d) role identification at a relational level (r = .42, p <.05).</pre>
- (e) means identification at a relational level level (r = .81, p < .05), and
- (f) goal identification at a relational level (r = .84, p < .05).

Furthermore, followers perceive a strong positive correlation between overall levels of organizational identification and leadership effectiveness (r = .77, p < .05).

Predictors of organizational identification

Two step-wise multiple regressions used specific types of organizational and relational identifications as predictors with the overall level or organizational identification as the criterion variable. In the first equation specific types of identifications at the organizational level were predictors (Table 49). This equation suggests that as followers identify more with the means and goals at an organizational level, they will also identify more with overall organization. The second equation was slightly different (Table 50). Only the followers' identification with the goals constructed during the conversation was associated with higher levels of organizational identification. The equations accounted for approximately 67 percent and 76 percent of the variance respectively. This suggests that the acceptability of the goals determines the degree to which followers view themselves as a member of the organization.

.5418

.617

Table 49

Prediction of Overall Organizational Identification by Specific Identifications at Organizational Level for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

This	kind	of co	nversa [.]	tion	makes	me
feel	like	I bel	ong in	this	organ	ıi-
zatio	on.		_		_	
(Orga	anizat	tional	Ident [.]	ıfıca	tıon)	

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:	D	CE D	DETA	.	CIO T
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational	<u>B</u>	SE B	<u>BETA</u>	<u>1</u>	SIG T
Level)	.60410	.15371	.57138	3.930	.0004
The goals we were trying to achieve by having this conversation are very similar to the goals of the organization. (Goal Identification at Organizational	25000	16273	21704	0.107	0064
Level)	.35802	.16371	.31794	2.187	.0364

.35945

.58269

Multiple	R	.83192
R Square		.69209
Adjusted	R Square	.67222
Standard		1.03304

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

(Constant)

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	74.35895	37.17947
Residual	31	33.08223	1.06717

F = 34.83936 SIGNIF F = .0000

Prediction of Overall Organizational Identification by Specific Identifications at Relationship Level for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

This kind of conversation makes me feel like I belong in this organization. (Organizational Identification)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:

The other person and I were working towards very similar goals in this conversation. (Goal Identification	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	<u>BETA</u>	<u>T</u>	SIG T
at Relationship Level)	.78408	.07674	.87488	10.218	.0000
(Constant)	1.26341	.36707		3.442	.0016

Multiple R .87488 R Square .76541 Adjusted R Square .75808 Standard Error .88750

Standard Error .88

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

DF SUM OF SQUARES MEAN SQUARE

 Regression
 1
 82.23625
 82.23625

 Residual
 32
 25.20493
 .78765

F = 104.40658 SIGNIF F = .0000

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SOCIAL MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP

Motivation by leadership type

Followers perceived themselves as more intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to achieve personal and work-related goals when conversing with effective leaders (Table 51). T-tests for related samples demonstrated that when followers interact with effective leaders versus ineffective leaders, they are:

- (a) more intrinsically motivated to achieve
 personal goals (T = 2.25, p = 0.04, xEffective =
 4.50, xIneffective = 3.12),
- (b) more intrinsically motivated to accomplish work-related goals (T = 3.01, p = 0.01, xEffective = 5.06, xIneffective = 3.38),
- (c) more extrinsically motivated to achieve personal
 goals (T = 5.00, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.38,
 xIneffective = 2.69), and
- (d) more extrinsically motivated to achieve workrelated goals (T = 5.13, p = 0.00, xEffective = 5.81, xIneffective = 2.81).

Followers perceive themselves as more motivated to achieve work-related goals and more extrinsically motivated when interacting with effective leaders. Conversely, followers perceive they are equally motivated to achieve personal and work-related goals; they are also similarly motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic forces. First, followers view themselves as more intrinsically motivated to achieve work-related versus personal goals when they interact with effective leaders (Table 52, T = -2.12, p = 0.05, \bar{x} Personal = 4.39, \bar{x} Work = 5.17). This is also true for extrinsic motivation (Table 53, T = -3.29, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Personal = 5.44, \bar{x} Work = 5.83) levels. Furthermore, they perceive themselves as being primarily extrinsically motivated to achieve either personal (Table 54, T = -2.45, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 4.39, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 5.44) or work-related goals (Table 55, T = -2.06, p

Table 51

Differences in Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower is intrinsically motivated to achieve personal goals.	y 4.50	2.12	2.25	15	0.04
Follower is intrinsically motivated to achieve work-related goals.	y 5.06	3.38	3.01	15	0.01
Follower is extrinsically motivated to achieve personal goals.	y 5.38	2.69	5.00	15	0.00
Follower is extrinsically motivated to achieve work-related goals.	y 5.81	2.81	5.13	15	0.00

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Table 52

Differences Between Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal and Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance	
,						
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	4 . 39	5.17	-2.12	17	0.05	
Follower interacts with an ineffective						1 2 1
leader.	3.12	3.38	-0.51	15	NS	

Table 53

Differences Between Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal and Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance	
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	5.44	5.83	-3.29	17	0.00	
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	2.69	2.81	-0.32	15	NS	- 205 -

Table 54

Differences Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals (mean scores)	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	4.39	5 . 44	-2.45	17	0.02
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	3 . 12	2.69	0.92	15	NS

Table 55

Differences Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

Market 1997	Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals (mean scores)	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance	
Follower interacts with an effective leader.	5.17	5.83	-2.06	17	0.05
Follower interacts with an ineffective leader.	3.38	2.81	0.96	15	NS

= 0.05, \bar{x} Intrinsic = 5.17, \bar{x} Extrinsic = 5.83). This pattern suggests that effective leaders converse in ways which extrinsically motivates followers towards accomplishing work-related goals.

Second, when they interact with ineffective leaders, followers view themselves as (Tables 52-55):

- (a) similarly motivated by intrinsic forces to
 achieve either personal or work-related goals
 (T = -0.51, p = NS, xPersonal = 3.12,
 xWork = 3.38),
- (b) equally motivated by extrinsic forces to accomplish either personal or work-related goals (T = -0.32, p = NS, xPersonal = 2.69, xWork = 2.81),
- (c) similarly motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic forces to achieve personal goals (T = 0.92, p = NS, xIntrinsic = 3.12, xExtrinsic = 2.69), and
- (d) equally motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic forces to obtain work-related goals (T = 0.96, p = NS, xIntrinsic = 3.38, xExtrinsic = 2.81).

2The data suggests that ineffective leaders engender little, if any, intrinsic or extrinsic motivation towards accomplishing personal or work-related goals.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should also be viewed systemically as demonstrated by correlations occurring between the various forms of motivation. Collapsed across leadership types, intrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals is moderately associated with extrinsic motivation to achieve both work-related (r = .53, p < 0.05) and personal goals (r = .54, p < 0.05). Intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals is also moderately correlated to extrinsic motivation to achieve work-related (r = .47, p < 0.05) and personal goals (r = .35, p < 0.05). Furthermore, both types of intrinsic motivation (Work with Personal Goals, r = .54, p < 0.05) as

well as extrinsic motivation (Work with Personal Goals, r = .85, p < 0.05) are moderately to highly correlated.

Predictors of social motivation

The degree to which conversational variables and types of identifications were associated with types of motivation was tested. First, Pearson Product Moment Correlations demonstrated prefigurative forces were not associated with types of motivation while practical forces are moderately correlated to types of motivation. Practical forces were moderately correlated to: (a) intrinsic forces to achieve work-related goals (r = .34, p < 0.05), (b) extrinsic forces to achieve work-related goals (r = .34 p < 0.05), and (c) extrinsic forces to accomplish personal goals (r = .43, p < 0.05). These moderate correlations with practical forces suggest that the ability for individuals to bring about desirable goals during conversation is positively associated with their level of motivation.

Second, it was hypothesized that the degree to which an individual would be motivated to perform a leader's directives would be contingent upon the level of identification the follower perceives. This hypothesis was tested using step-wise multiple regression equations (Tables 56-59) with types of identifications as predictors. Intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals was weakly predicted by the degree to which the follower perceives the leader as having the right to enact his/her role given the organization. The remaining equations suggest that followers who perceive the means provided by the leader as paralleling organizationally accepted means are more

Prediction of Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Identifications for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it brings about an extremely desirable personal goal. (Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals)

Independent Variable(s) in the Equation:

In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person to perform the role of a leader in similar situations. (Role Identification at Organizational Level)

.57018 .24788 .37667 2.300 .0281 .47368 1.47264 .322 .7498 - 210

Multiple R .37667 R Square .14188 Adjusted R Square .11507 Standard Error 1.69833

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

(Constant)

DF SUM OF SQUARES MEAN SQUARE

Regression 1 15.26058 15.26058

Residual 32 92.29825 2.88432

F = 5.29088 SIGNIF F = .0281

Table 57

Prediction of Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Identifications for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helps me achieve a very desirable work-related goal. (Intrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals)

Independent	Variable(s)	in the	e Equation:
-------------	-------------	--------	-------------

The means we used to meet our goals were	<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	SIG T
very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.					
(Means Identification at Organizational Level)	.50367	.16630	.47202	3.029	.0048
(Constant)	2.19033	.75778		2.890	.0069

Multiple R .47202 R Square .22280 Adjusted R Square .19851 Standard Error 1.63035

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

MALISTS OF VINITAROL	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	24.38365	24.38365
Residual	32	85.05753	2.65805

F = 9.17352 SIGNIF F = .0048

Table 58

Prediction of Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals by Identifications for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some personal goal. (Extrinsic ^ Motivation to Achieve Personal Goals)

Independent	Variable(s)	in	the	Equation:
-------------	-------------	----	-----	-----------

The means we used to meet our goals were	<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	SIG T	
very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational						- 212
Level)	.88250	.14130	.74118	6.246	.0000	1
(Constant)	.40942	.64387		.636	.5294	

Multiple	R	.74118
R Square		.54935
Adjusted	R Square	.53526
Standard	Error	1.38528

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	74.85651	74.85651
Residual	32	61.40820	1.91901

F = 39.00795 SIGNIF F = .0000

Table 59

Prediction of Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals by Identifications for Hospital B

Dependent Variable:

The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal. (Extrinsic Motivation to Achieve Work-Related Goals)

Independent '	Variable(s)	in	the	Equation:
---------------	-------------	----	-----	-----------

	<u>B</u>	SE B	BETA	<u>T</u>	SIG T
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities	,				
our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational					213
Level)	1.11016	.10785	.87638	10.294	.0000 '
(Constant)	29009	.49144		590	.5592

Multiple	R	.87638
R Square		.76805
Adjusted	R Square	.76080
Standard	Error	1.05734

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	1	118.46051	118.46051
Residual	32	35.77479	1.11796

F = 105.96112 SIGNIF F = .0000

motivated. These equations accounted for roughly 12 percent to 76 percent of the variance.

FELT COMPULSION AND LEADERSHIP

Followers feel more inclined to move in a similar direction provided by the leader when the individual is viewed as effective (Table 60). T-tests for related samples revealed: (a) followers feel more prone to move in the direction suggested by the leader (T = 5.92, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 5.56, \bar{x} Ineffective = 2.88), and (b) less inclined to prevent the leader from accomplishing his/her goals by using aggression (T = -5.66, p = 0.00, \bar{x} Effective = 1.88, \bar{x} Ineffective = 3.88). Followers perceive themselves as equally likely to feel compelled to comply with the follower's directive (T = -0.11, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 4.19, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.25) and ignore the advice of the leader (T = -1.49, p = NS, \bar{x} Effective = 3.06, \bar{x} Ineffective = 4.06). The nonsignificant difference in felt compulsion may stem from the highly structured work procedures present in hospitals. Nursing procedures are highly codified with clearly stated standards for proper performance. Regardless of whether the leader was perceived as effective, followers must perform the specified directive as there is only one appropriate action that fulfills the directive.

Predictors of felt compulsion

Two step-wise multiple regression equations were computed using the follower's felt compulsion to perform a directive and the degree to which s/he perceives himself/herself moving in a common direction with the leader as criterion variable with types of identification as predictors. First, no types of identification predicted felt

Table 60

Followers' Responses to Leaders' Directives by Leadership Effectiveness for Hospital B

	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Effective Leadership (mean scores)	Conversation Viewed as an Instance of Ineffective Leadership (mean scores)	.T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	Signifi- cance
Follower feels self as having to follow guidance provided by leader.	4.19	4.25	-0.11	15	NS
Follower feels self as wanting to perform acts to prevent leader from achieving leader's goal.		3.88	-5.55	15	0.00
Follower ignores directive provided by leader.	3.06	4.06	-1.49	15	NS
Follower feels self as working towards common goals provided by leader.	5 . 56	2.88	5.92	15	0.00

compulsion. Second, the degree to which followers feel inclined to move in a common direction provided by the leader is strongly predicted by the degree to which they view the means constructed during conversation as congruent with organizationally acceptable means and relationally appropriate goals (Table 61). This equation accounts for 77 percent of the variance.

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

Eleven major observations emerged from the data analysis in Hospital B. (1) Effective leadership is characterized by coherent conversations which allow followers to accomplish desirable work-related and personal goals whereas ineffective leadership conversations prevent followers from achieving desirable goals and are perceived as less coherent. (2) Effective leadership is characterized by forms of power and domination that are highly institutionalized and legitimated. These forms also help followers achieve desirable goals. (3) The pattern of communication strategies characterizing power and domination predicted in Figure 2 is partially confirmed. (4) Effective leaders are perceived as using more altercasts, ingratiation strategies, rationales, and fewer threats than ineffective leaders. (5) Communication competence possesses a strong relationship with leadership effectiveness. (6) Leaders' communication competence is strongly predicted by the coherency of the messages they produce plus their propensity to provide desirable responses to followers' messages. (7) Effective leadership is characterized by followers perceiving a greater identification with the organization, and

Dependent Variable:

This conversation definitely made me feel like working towards some common goals the other person brought up. (Followers' Desire to Move in Direction Provided by Leader)

Independent	Variable(s)	ın	the	Equation:
-------------	-------------	----	-----	-----------

The other person and I were working towards very similar goals in this	<u>D</u>	SE D	DETA	1	310 1
conversation. (Goal Identification at Relationship Level)	.43790	.11586	.47484	3.780	.0007
The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use. (Means Identification at Organizational	53007	1000	471.60	0.754	5007
Level)	.51307	.13668	.47160	3.754	.0007
(Constant)	.27376	.42390		.646	.5232

SE B

RFTA T

SIG T

R	.88338
	.78036
R Square	.76619
Error	.89779
	R R Square Error

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
Regression	2	88.77790	44.38895
Residual	31	24.98680	.80603

F = 55.07138 SIGNIF F = 0.0

identifying with the role, means, and goals emergent within the conversation. (8) Intrinsic and extrinsic forces are moderately associated and are higher for followers when interacting with effective leaders. (9) Extrinsic motivation appeals are more effective when the follower is intrinsically motivated. (10) Followers feel more inclined to move in a common direction provided by the leader and less inclined to prevent leaders from accomplishing their goals when leadership effectiveness increases. (11) The degree to which a follower feels inclined to move in a common direction provided by the leader is contingent upon the appropriateness of the goals given the relationship and the degree to which the means constructed during the conversation are congruent with organizationally accepted means.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

A new approach to leadership and social motivation from a communication perspective was articulated and tested. Based on the premises of CMM, this study examined how leaders and followers within two organizations construct forms of conversation to motivate others to achieve desirable goals. The research method was field description. Followers reconstructed conversations with effective and ineffective leaders and indicated: (a) their impressions of the conversation, (b) how the conversation influenced their level of organizational identification, (c) the degree to which the conversation motivated them to achieve goals, and (d) whether they perceived themselves as complying with the leaders' directives.

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. First, several general conclusions from this research project are presented with methodological strengths and limitations noted. Furthermore, theoretical, methodological, and practical implications for the study of leadership are discussed. Second, suggestions for future research based on the findings of the present study are offered.

CONCLUSIONS

The study of leadership from a communication perspective permits an analysis of the forms of conversation that characterize leadership, the types of message strategies effective leaders employ, and the impact of communication upon followers' perceptions.

Six major conclusions were drawn. They are listed here and discussed in more detail below.

- Effective leaders communicate differently than ineffective leaders by: (a) constructing different forms of conversation, (b) using a variety of forms of domination, and (c) being competent communicators.
- (2) Followers use different types of identifications and perceived levels of leadership effectiveness when assessing their overall level of organizational identification.
- (3) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should be viewed as interdependent phenomena that increase with leadership effectiveness.
- (4) Followers assess different identifications when evaluating their level of motivation to accomplish goals.
- (5) The enactment of effective leadership increases the possibility that followers will move in directions desired by leaders.
- (6) A descriptive methodology is an appropriate vehicle to examine the social construction of leadership, power, and domination.

It is important to note that these conclusions are derived from what followers perceive as instances of effective leadership. This highlights two issues concerning reading the conclusions. First, the standard for effectiveness is based solely on what followers perceive as being effective. No objective standard used by the organization or provided by the researcher was applied. Second, the unit of analysis employed within this study was transpersonal. The focus is upon what differentiates effective and ineffective leadership versus effective and ineffective leader behavior. Any reference to leaders should be interpreted as meaning individuals performing leadership roles within

a leader-follower system with the consent of the follower. This shifts the focus from a personal unit of analysis (i.e. what leaders do) to a transpersonal unit (i.e. what leaders and followers accomplish).

COMMUNICATION AND LEADERSHIP

1. Followers perceive effective and ineffective leaders as communicating differently. Effective leaders are distinguished from ineffective leaders in the communication patterns they construct with followers in three ways.

First, from their followers' views, effective leaders produce different conversational forms than do ineffective leaders.

Specifically, followers perceive effective leadership as characterized by forms of conversation that: (a) are positively or neutrally valenced, (b) are coherent to followers, and (c) permit followers to accomplish work-related and personal goals.

Of the 44 conversations reconstructed by followers defining effective leadership in Hospitals A and B, 82 percent were positively or neutrally valenced. These conversations either allowed followers to achieve desirable goals (i.e. coordinated management episodes) or discharge regular duties critical for organizational functioning (i.e. perfunctory rituals). Followers perceive such conversations as coherent wholes which allow them to sequence their messages in a manner that brings about desirable goals. Conversely, 69 percent of ineffective leader-follower dialogues (n=39) were negatively valenced conversations such as variations of the enigmatic episodes or unwanted repetitive patterns. These are less coherent conversational forms

which preclude followers from fully participating in the dialogue to bring about desirable goals.

Second, leadership effectiveness is not associated with the enactment of a specific type of conversational power or domination. While a variety of conversational types of power and domination typify effective leadership, they are commonly forms where followers recognize the pattern being performed and do not preclude followers from achieving desirable goals. Specifically, effective leadership is characterized by forms that are generally: (a) moderately to highly legitimated, (b) moderately to highly institutionalized, and (c) positively or neutrally valenced.

Effective leadership practice within both hospitals was strongly constituted by institutionalized and mixed institutionalized/emergent forms of power or domination. These forms of conversation accounted for 91 percent of all conversations characterizing effective leadership. As such, these forms of conversation tended to be viewed as more appropriate and requiring less legitimizing actions during the conversations. This finding may stem from the fact that a majority of these episodes were also positively or neutrally valenced coherent forms of conversation which facilitated accomplishing desirable goals. Followers may view the actions of leaders as more appropriate and requiring less justification since followers comprehend the episode and find it desirable.

Finally, effective leaders are perceived as more competent communicators. While communication competence and leadership effectiveness possess a strong positive relationship, they remain

distinct concepts. This relationship is consistent with previous research (Barge, 1985a).

There are several reasons why effective leaders may be perceived as more competent communicators. First, in both organizations, effective leaders tend to use more altercasts, ingratiation tactics, and rationales, but fewer threats than do ineffective leaders. The increased use of the first three strategies may allow the follower to understand the direction and purpose of the conversation more clearly. Such an understanding would permit the follower to sequence his/her own messages with the messages of the leader. Second, effective leaders are perceived as producing patterns of messages that are both appropriate and predictable. This may also engender increased perceptions of communication competence as most models stress that competent communicators produce messages that are appropriate for the situation and provide cues which allow the other participant to engage in the conversation (Cushman & Craig, 1976).

This conjecture was confirmed in both organizations by the multiple regression equation using coherence, episode valence, consequent message valence, and control as predictor variables for communication competence. When individuals engage in dialogue, it is hypothesized that they monitor the ongoing sequence of acts and evaluate the coherence of the conversation, who controls the direction of the conversation, and the valence of the episode and the responses to the messages they produce (Pearce & Cronen, 1980). This implies that individuals who produce appropriate sequences of messages which facilitate accomplishing desirable goals will be viewed as more

competent communicators. Within Hospitals A and B, competent communicators are viewed as producing forms of conversation that are coherent and provide positive responses to the other participant's messages. Therefore, competent communicators employ a variety of message strategies in a coherent stream of messages that allow followers to obtain desirable consequences.

These findings have several theoretical and practical implications for organizational researchers. First, at a theoretical level, these results demonstrate the need to view leadership as a systemic phenomenon. Several theories only acknowledge the impact of the leader's messages upon the subordinate and do not consider the influence of the follower's messages upon the leader. Followers cannot be conceptualized as passive receptors to leader's messages. This is particularly evident as forms of conversation characterizing effective leadership are positively and neutrally valenced forms of conversation which require the active participation of followers in order to obtain desirable consequences. Researchers must recognize the impact of followers upon the actions of leaders.

Second, the study of the relationship between leadership effectiveness and communication competence is warranted. Most theories of leadership assume that individuals performing leadership functions are able to select styles appropriate to a situation and properly produce messages that represent the given style. However, this research intimates that this may be an invalid assumption. Leaders may select an appropriate style for a given situation, and yet, may be unable to enact it properly during conversation. This

emphasizes the need for current theory to expand its analytical frameworks to include the communication competence of leaders and other factors such as conversational coherency when assessing leadership effectiveness.

Finally, at a pragmatic level, it points to the need for organizational consultants to stress the importance of coherency within leader-follower conversation. This is important in regards to training as most normative approaches assume that if leaders possess certain dispositional styles, they enact them in a clear manner with their followers. However, it may be that leaders do not clearly perform these styles and cause followers to become confused and unclear of job expectations. As such, organizational consultants must not only alert leaders to appropriate behaviors and styles given a particular situation or organization, but must also stress the importance of employing communication strategies that allow the follower to understand the expectations of the leader.

LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

2. Followers assess their degree of identification with the organization on the basis of specific types of identifications and perceptions of leadership effectiveness. First, followers' assessments regarding specific types of identifications impact their feelings of overall organizational identification. As suggested in Chapter II, different types of identification would variously combine to increase perceptions of organizational identification. In both organizations, followers' identification with the means and goals constructed within the dialogue is positively associated with

organizational identification. Similarly, the degree with which followers perceive the goals as appropriate given their relationships with leaders predicts organizational identification. This finding suggests that followers closely monitor the appropriateness of the means created to accomplish goals. If the means are not congruent with relationally and organizationally acceptable goals, they may identify less with the organization. This in turn may lead to lower levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to perform job-related tasks.

Second, effective leaders engender heightened perceptions of organizational identification. The correlational analyses and T-tests conducted on the data from both hospitals indicate that a moderate to strong relationship exists between leadership effectiveness and organizational identification. This is consistent with the theory proposed in Chapter II. Stated simply the degree to which leaders are perceived as being more effective is associated with higher levels of: (a) organizational identification, (b) means and goal identification at the organizational level, and (c) means and goal identification at the relational level between leaders and followers.

The findings on role identification differed between the two organizations. In Hospital A, followers identified with the leaders' role in relation to their formal position within the organization regardless of leadership effectiveness. Yet, they identified more with the effective leader given their relationship with that individual than the ineffective leader. In Hospital B the exact opposite occurred. This finding suggests that multiple targets of

identifications exist within organizations. In Hospital A, more emphasis is placed upon the appropriateness of the role an individual plays in relationship to the other person; in Hospital B, greater stress is placed upon the appropriateness of the role an individual enacts in relation to the organizational position. This may result from the sample from Hospital B consisting of the nursing staff. This organization has highly codified job descriptions and medical procedures which deemphasize the personal relationship that may be constructed between staff members. Conversely, in Hospital A, procedures are less structured and individuals develop unique variations to procedures. Since a number of valid variations exist for a given procedure, followers may place greater value in listening to leaders with whom they have developed a personal relationship based upon the level of the leaders' expertise.

These findings suggest that effective leaders construct desirable means and goals during conversations that followers identify with organizationally acceptable practices. These identifications, in turn, lead to increased levels of motivation to achieve goals and increases the likelihood of moving in a desired direction by followers. An implication of these findings is the renewed emphasis on a type of participative management that constitutes effective leadership practice. Effective leadership is characterized by conversations that allow followers to construct means and achieve goals in accordance with organizationally accepted practices. This suggests that leaders must ascertain what followers perceive as organizationally appropriate means and goals when attempting to obtain

the felt compulsion of followers. If the leader provided means and goals followers perceive as incongruent with the organization, the leader may have to engage in a type of participative management to construct new means and goals. In order for the leader to be perceived as effective and increase the felt compulsion of the follower, leaders may have to engage in structuring appropriate means and goals with the follower to accomplish the leaders' desired goals.

LEADERSHIP AND SOCIAL MOTIVATION

3. Followers view intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as interdependent phenomena that increase with leadership effectiveness.

First, effective leadership is positively associated with followers' motivation. Specifically, effective leaders increase their followers' levels of: (a) intrinsic motivation to achieve personal and work-related goals, and (b) extrinsic motivation to accomplish personal and work-related goals. This finding emerged for both Hospital A and B. This is consistent with most management theories which make the implicit or explicit assumption that effective leadership will lead to more motivated and productive employees (Likert, 1967; Blake & Mouton, 1982).

Second, intrinsic and extrinsic motivating forces are highly related. An interesting finding was the high intercorrelation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was moderately to strongly correlated to extrinsic motivation in both organizations. This suggests that effective leaders will be constrained in their attempts to motivate their employees extrinsically via conversation unless the follower is equally

intrinsically motivated to have this conversation. This conclusion is partially reflected in the moderate relationship between the followers' practical forces within the conversation and their subsequent level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The more followers perceive the conversation as being beneficial, the more they will be motivated to accomplish goals.

This finding regarding motivation implies that leaders must construct motivation attempts that simultaneously appeal to follower's extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Several communication theorists such as Cummings et al. (1983) emphasize that leaders should be flexible in motivating their subordinates and select approaches that are either extrinsically or intrinsically oriented contingent upon the disposition of the individual with whom they are interacting. However, this research indicates that intrinsic and extrinsic motivating forces are closely tied to one another. This suggests the need for leaders to construct balanced approaches when motivating followers that appeal to both the personal goals and desires of followers plus more extrinsic factors such as organizational objectives.

EVALUATION OF MOTIVATING FORCES

4. Followers evaluate their identification with a motivation attempt when assessing the level of motivation. The data suggest as followers increasingly perceive the means constructed in conversation as paralleling organizationally approved means, they become more motivated. In both Hospitals A and B, means identification at an organizational level was highly associated with followers': (a)

Intrinsic motivation to accomplish work-related goals, (b) extrinsic motivation to achieve work-related goals, and (c) extrinsic motivation to obtain personal goals. In Hospital A, means identification was also associated with increases in followers' intrinsic motivation to achieve personal goals. However, in Hospital B this was predicted by the degree of role identification at an organizational level.

This conclusion implies that task structure may determine what intrinsically motivates followers to accomplish personal goals. For example, in highly structured work environments, if people wish to achieve personal goals, it may be necessary for them to approach those in formal positions who have the ability to facilitate or prevent them from achieving their goals. In this instance, people occupying formal positions are more likely to provide assistance to an individual to achieve personal goals. Conversely, individuals within less structured work environments, such as Hospital A, may simply use means identification as a criterion for determining their level of intrinsic motivation towards a personal goal. A less structured work environment allows formal and informal leaders to aid followers who are intrinsically motivated to obtain goals. As a result, followers may center on whether the means provided versus the role the individual assumes within the organization facilitates accomplishing personal goals.

LEADERSHIP AND FELT COMPULSION

5. Effective leadership increases the probability that
followers will work to accomplish common goals provided by leaders.
Furthermore, the performance of effective leadership diminishes

followers desiring to prevent leaders from achieving goals through aggression tactics. This may stem from effective leaders constructing positive or neutrally valenced forms of conversation that allow followers to achieve desirable goals.

However, the organizations differed from one another regarding other outcomes of effective leadership. The results imply that task structure influences the followers' felt level of compulsion to perform leaders' directives. First, followers in Hospital B felt they had to comply with the leaders' directive regardless of whether they perceived the individual as effective or ineffective. In Hospital A, followers felt they must comply with directives provided by effective leaders more than those presented by ineffective leaders. Again, this difference may be due to the highly structured tasks and procedures in Hospital B. Regardless of whether leaders made requests or commands in an appropriate manner, followers must comply as there is only one manner with which to properly perform the procedure. Second, followers in Hospital A tend to ignore the advice of ineffective leaders while followers in Hospital B listen closely to the advice provided by ineffective leaders. This may occur because ineffective leaders in Hospital B still present necessary information for followers to perform their job successfully.

VALIDITY OF METHODOLOGY

6. A methodology based upon CMM appears to be a valid means of examining the conversational enactment of leadership, power, and domination. While several benefits accrue from such an approach,

several limitations also emerge from the research.

Strengths of methodology

A rules-based perspective had two major advantages for investigating the social construction of leadership, power, and domination. First, a rules-based approach incorporates actors' meanings of leadership. It facilitates the construction of organizational definitions for the enactment of effective leadership and the specific message characteristics that constitute effective leadership. For example, most theories of leadership are premised upon the two dimensions of initiation and consideration structure. However, the specific communicative behaviors associated with these general modes of interacting are not detailed. This methodology allows researchers to operationalize these general "styles" into concrete behaviors that are unique to the particular organization. Furthermore, using the subjective meanings of individuals prevent researchers from imposing inappropriate definitions upon the actors' behaviors. For example, Folger and Sillars (1979) have demonstrated that objective content analytic schemas assessing the relative power of an individual within conversation do not necessarily correspond with the perceptions of others in a language community regarding who is perceived as more powerful. The use of actors' meanings allows researchers to check their theoretical view towards the data with the subjects' perceptions.

A second major benefit gained from the use of this methodology is that it facilitated viewing the social construction of leadership, power, and domination. This allows an analysis at two levels. First,

at a content level, researchers can articulate rules which quide effective leadership and subordinacy unique to a particular organization. This allows them to explain the process by which leaders and followers come to be viewed as effective. For example, a rule operating within an organization regarding leadership may be, "When giving directives, an effective leader states a directive or suggestion initially within the conversation and subsequently explicates the rationale behind the directive." Investigators can assist individuals within organizations by alerting individuals wishing to enact the role of a leader to the rules operating within that specific organization. Second, at a structural level, researchers can ascertain the emergence of various forms of conversation and determine whether any systematic patterns emerge within the enactment of effective leadership. This allows researchers to generalize across topics of conversation that characterize effective leadership, and directly explicate how leaders and followers talk about various topics. For example, effective leadership may be characterized by coordinated management episodes that emerge within performance appraisals, directive giving episodes, or disciplinary reviews.

Limitations of methodology

While this study was able to address weaknesses in previous research and while it has pragmatic utility for the organization, it suffered from three major weaknesses. First, there was no objective measure to gauge what impact leadership has upon the effectiveness and performance of the organization or work group as a whole.

Effectiveness for this study was defined as what followers perceive their leaders as doing that is effective. Since the focus of the study was to examine what impact leadership and identification has upon followers' perceptions of felt compulsion, this was not problematic. Since actors will base their behavior upon what they perceive as being effective rather than what "actually is," this definition was sufficient. However, an analysis of how "effective" leadership episodes contribute to the effectiveness of the organization or work unit was not included.

Second, the study solely used followers' perceptions of the interaction. Since leadership and power is a systemic phenomenon that must involve two or more individuals, only using the perceptions of followers does not permit a systemic analysis. However, this limitation must be present within the research study in order to examine the conversational patterns of ineffective leaders. Previous research that has reconstructed the conversations between leaders and followers has necessitated involving the leader cited by the follower to validate the conversation (Barge, 1985a). The anonymity of the follower is breached and the leader becomes aware of how the follower perceives him/her. This method cannot be used to articulate the conversational patterns of ineffective leadership since the leader will recognize that the follower viewed him/her as particularly ineffective and may subsequently penalize the follower. Therefore, only the subordinate's perceptions of the interaction were used.

A third problem facing the current methodology is that the time required for interviewing and appropriate analysis of results was

intensive. This makes the method inappropriate for quick organizational audits and immediate planning of intervention strategies. Further, a great deal of time and commitment is demanded from the organization and the subjects. Over forty hours within each hospital was spent on interviewing subjects. This required the company to arrange the work schedules of all subjects so they would be able to participate during company hours. For some organizations, this may not be feasible. A great deal of time was also required by the participants. At least thirty minutes was required of all subjects with some subjects potentially devoting one to two hours completing scales. This may decrease the sample size and lead to nonrepresentativeness if individuals within the company are unwilling to devote that amount of time to the research project. Additionally, subject fatigue may occur due to the large amount of scales and decrease the validity of the results.

While this study contains limitations, it has also enhanced the methodology for analyzing conversations between leaders and followers. First, it provided a useful framework from which to examine power and domination as it occurred within conversation. It has transcended problems within objective frameworks such as Millar and Rogers (1976) and incorporates institutionalization as a key variable for differentiating types of power and domination. Second, it analyzed the social construction of forms of power and domination by examining the communication strategies employed by leaders and followers during conversation. By identifying types of power and domination that are construed as instances of effective leadership, researchers can

determine what communication strategies produce these forms and increase the felt compulsion of followers. Third, methods have been developed that allow researchers to examine the relationship between message variables such as practical forces and global perceptual variables such as motivation. Such methods have not been employed in the past and facilitate a more comprehensive analysis of the impact of conversational variables upon global outcomes.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

On the basis of the results of this study, three important areas need to be researched. First, there needs to be an examination of the linkage between effective leadership, felt compulsion to perform a task, and task structure. In Hospital A, effective leadership stimulated increases in the felt compulsion of a follower to perform a task. In Hospital B, no differences in felt compulsion emerged due to leadership effectiveness. One explanation for these results may be due to the structure of the task. In highly structured tasks, leadership effectiveness may not be a factor in the felt compulsion of followers. This relationship is partially included in some leadership theories such as Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, but it needs further clarification.

Second, it would be useful to examine the relationship between perceived leadership effectiveness and organizational effectiveness or productivity. Effectiveness in this study referred to what followers perceived as being effective within conversations. However, there is no proof that conversational effectiveness leads to increased

productivity or organizational effectiveness. If organizations are to continue to allow academic researchers and private consultants to study communication within their organizations, they must be able to demonstrate that effective leadership communication produces tangible results.

Finally, comparing the CMM methodology with a traditional research methodology would be useful. For example, comparing the information generated by Vroom and Yetton's (1973) leadership decision-making style with that of a rules-based methodology could yield insights into the appropriate use of each. This would provide information for organizational researchers on what type of information can be generated by each and when particular methods are best employed.

SUMMARY

The investigation of leadership has been a central focus in the study of human social action for several years. Similarly, the enactment of power and domination to achieve goals has merited similar interest. In recent years, theories of leadership have incorporated components of organizational identification and motivation as outcomes from the effective performance of leadership. Despite this heavy interest, leadership study has been the subject of numerous criticisms questioning the scope of extant theory. This dissertation has been one attempt to address these criticisms and expand the scope of leadership theory stressing the principles of structural explanation. The shift to view communication as a central organizing principle for

effective leadership has been one method that has successfully transcended several of the limitations of current theory and research. While this approach appears to have promise, only continued testing and refinement can adequately demonstrate the utility and benefits of a rules-based perspective in the study of leadership.

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APPENDIX A

Interview Schedule and Questionnaires

Interview Schedule

RESEARCHER INTRODUCTION: Hello. My name is and I am from the Communication Research Center at the University of Kansas. (Name of Company) has allowed me to come here and investigate the role of communication in your organization. I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for participating in this study and am sure the information you provide will be very useful. I want to assure you that all the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and your individual comments will not be revealed to any individuals within this organization.

- 1. How long have you been employed by (Name of Company)?
- What is your current position with this company?
- 3. What type of activities are associated with your job? What type of activities are you responsible for in your position?
- 4. I would like you to think about an individual who you work with that usually sets work goals for you or where you both decide what work goals you are to meet. This individual could be a co-worker, a supervisor, or a friend you seek out. Further, this should be a person you feel has been very effective in assisting or directing you towards some goal of the work group. What is the individual's first name?

Would you	view this	person as	a leader,	whether	formal	or
informal,	in your w	ork group?	Yes	3	No	

- A. I would like you to think of times when this individual tried to motivate you to maintain or change your current behavior or attitude. For example, this individual may have tried to motivate you to work harder at your job or improve your attitude. In what kind of situations does this person try to motivate you?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

RESEARCHER PROMPT: I would like you to recall a particular situation in which you talked to that person when s/he was trying to motivate you to change your behaviors or attitude.

- B. How would you describe this situation? When did it occur? What was the conversation about? Who wanted to have the conversation?
- C. Who started the conversation?
- D. What did (s/he-you) then say?

E. What was said next?

(Continue this questioning until the subject has completed the reconstruction of the entire episode.)

- F. Did you feel you had to follow the methods s/he provided when s/he was trying to motivate you? Yes No
- G. Why did you (not) feel you had to follow this individual's suggestions or guidance?

RESEARCHER PROMPT: Some people have said that by not following the suggestion the other person offered, they might get a bad report, lose a friend, or get fired. Others have mentioned that the individual who was motivating you had been employed by the company longer and had more expertise than they did.

- H. Were there other things you could have said or done in this situation that would have been appropriate?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
- I. What could you not have said or done in this situation? What might you have said in this situation that would have been appropriate?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
- J. What could you not have said or done (State Course of Action)?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3
- K. Do you feel I have enough information to understand the conversation you have just described to me? If not, what else should I be aware of?
- I would like for you to think of an individual who you usually work with that may set some work goals for you or where you both set what work goals you are to meet. This individual could be a co-worker, a supervisor, or a friend. This should be an individual whom you thought was very ineffective in directing and guiding the work group towards achieving a work-related goal. What is the individual's first name?

Would you view this person as a leader in your work group?
Yes No

- A. I would like you to think of times when this individual tried to motivate you to maintain or change your behavior or attitudes. For example, this individual may have tried to motivate you to work harder or urge you to "shape up" your attitude. In what kind of situations does this person try to motivate you?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

RESEARCHER PROMPT: I would like you to recall a particular situation in which you talked to that person when s/he was trying to motivate you to change your behavior or attitude. Remember, this should be an instance where this individual was very ineffective at motivating you.

- B. How would you describe the situation? When did it occur? What was the conversation about? Who wanted to have the conversation?
- C. Who started the conversation?
- D. What did (s/he-you) then say?
- E. What was said next?

(Continue this questioning until the subject has completed the reconstruction of the entire episode.)

- F. Did you feel you had to follow the methods s/he provided when s/he was trying to motivate you? Yes No
- G. Why did you (not) feel you had to follow this individual's suggestions or quidance?

RESEARCHER PROMPT: Some people have said that by not following the suggestion the other person offered, they might get a bad report, lose a friend, or get fired. Others have mentioned that the individual who was motivating you had been employed by the company longer and had more expertise than they did.

- H. Were there other things you could have said or done in this situation that would have been appropriate?
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

Ι.	What could you not have said or done in this situation? What might you have said in this situation that would have been inappropriate?
	1. 2. 3.
J.	Why could you not have said or done (State Course of Action)?
	1. 2. 3.
К.	Do you feel I have enough information to understand the conversation you have just described to me? If not, what else should I be aware of?
viewe	ng at the ineffective leader, what does the person you d as highly ineffective actually do or say to be ective?
Α.	What did s/he say that you view as highly inappropriate?
	1. 2.
В.	What should an ideally effective leader do or say in this situation?
	1. 2.
С.	What else could this person have said or done in this situation that would have been appropriate?
	1.

6.

RESEARCHER CLOSING: Thank you very much for your participation in this portion of the study. I will be sending you some materials in the next two days that I would like you to complete. Thank you for your cooperation.

Informed Consent Statement

The Communication Research Center at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

The focus of this study is to examine communication within organizations. You will be asked to record your reactions to three hypothetical conversations that may occur within the hospital. The information you give me will not be used in any job evaluation. Also, the specific information that you will give me will be kept strictly confidential and will not be given to other individuals within the hospital. I will be the only one who reads your answers. If information is given to the organization, it will be given in a form so that you will not be identified.

Your participation is solicited, but strictly voluntary. Do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study. Be assured that your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. I appreciate your cooperation very much.

Sincerely,

Kevin Barge Assistant Director Communication Research Center University of Kansas Lawrence, KS 66045

Signature

Directions for Completing Questionnaires

Enclosed are copies of two conversations in which you participated. Attached to each conversation are some questionnaires to be completed for that conversation. I would now like you to fill out a questionnaire for each message that was said. This means you will complete scales for both you and your partner's messages. Afer you have completed these items, you will please respond to the questions regarding your global reactions to the particular conversation.

At the beginning of the questionnaire for each message is the number and the actual message you sent or received. For each item on the questionnaire, place an "X" above one of the blanks that most closely represents your level of agreement or disagreement with the item. Remember, you will use a separate questionnaire for each of your messages in the conversation. Please answer all items on each questionnaire. Do not leave any items blank.

A. The conversation was reconstructed by Pat and Chris. Each message is numbered left of the names.

Message No.

1. Pat: Have you seen the latest memo?

2. Chris: No, I haven't.

3. Pat: You really ought to. I think

there's some very helpful information

in it.

4. Chris: I'll check it out.

B. In filling out the questionnaire, Chris begins with message numberl. Chris turns the page to the questionnaire for message numberl. It should look like this:

Other Message No. 1 Pat: Have you seen the latest memo?

- C. In filling out the first scale, Chris reads the statement and places an "X" above the space indicating agreement.
 - 1. This type of message was very appropriate for Pat to say.

X				
strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree	 disagree	strongly disagree

D. Chris completes all the items for message number 1 and then moves on to the next message. Chris turns the page to the questionnaire for message number 2. It should look like this:

Your Message No. 2 Chris: No, I haven't.

Chris reads the statement and completes all the scales for that message. Chris repeats this process until all the scales for each message are completed.

- E. At the very end of this packet is a questionnaire to measure Chris' general impressions of the conversation. Chris then completes this questionnaire keeping in mind the particular conversation that has just been discussed.
- F. After you have completed the questionnaires for each conversation, please complete the sheet labeled "Demographics."

Follower Questionnaire

•	•						
A person like me in this organization would feel it is very important that I say this kind of message.							
strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither sli agree nor dis disagree		agree strongly disagree		
The situa	tion see	med to req	uire me to say	this type	of message.		
strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither sli agree nor dis disagree	ghtly dis agree	agree strongly disagree		
The respondesirable		other pers	on gave me to	my message	was very		
strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither sli agree nor dis disagree		agree strongly disagree		
I said the			in order to a	chieve a v	ery desirable		
strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither sli agree nor dis disagree		agree strongly disagree		
There are		her types	of messages I	could have	said in this		
strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither sli agree nor dis disagree		agree strongly disagree		
If so, wh	at other	messages	could you have	said or d	one?		

Your	Message No.	(continue	d)				
6.	The preceding message seemed to require me to respond with this type of message.						
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		
7.	Saying this messa me must do.	ge closely	reflects who I am and	d what a	person like		
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		
8.	I said this type response.	of message	in order to bring ab	out a par	ticular		
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		
9.	I wanted to say t do next would not		f message and what the need to do it.	e other p	erson would		
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		
10.	The type of relat message.	ionship we	have requires me to	say this	type of		
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		
11.	I said this kind goal.	of message	to bring about a ver	y desirab	le personal		
	strongly agree agree	slightly agree	neither slightly agree nor disagree disagree	disagree	strongly disagree		

Leader Questionnaire

Other	Message N	0.	in the state of th				
1.	This kind	of mess	age was ex	tremely app	propriate	for	to say.
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
2.				it extreme ut during			role ıs
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
3.			age tells in return	me if I do •	what is s	uggested I	will
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
4.	Saying th conversat			helps	contro	l the dire	ction this
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
5.	I view th	is kınd	of message	as a thre	at.		
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
6.	de of messag	•	needs to	explaın to	me why s/	he said th	is kınd
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

0ther	Message No	•	(cont	tinued)			
7.	I view thi or followi				ason for ta	aking	advice
	strongly agree	agree		neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
8.	I think kind of re						
	strongly agree	agree		neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
9.	cou causing me			ted with ot	ther types	of message	es without
	strongly agree	agree		neither agree nor disagree		disagree	strongly disagree
10.	This kind between us				me about wl	hat is goi	ng on
	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree			disagree	strongly disagree

Global Questionnaire

1. This conversation was highly effective in my achieving a personal goal.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree agree nor disagree disagree disagree

2. I communicated very competently during this conversation.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree nor disagree disagree disagree

3. In our organization, it is very acceptable for individuals like the other person in the conversation to act like a leader in similar kinds of situations.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree agree nor disagree disagree disagree

4. At the end of this conversation, I would definitely like to perform some act to prevent the other person from achieving his/her goal.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree agree nor disagree disagree disagree

5. The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree agree nor disagree disagree disagree

6. The other person in the conversation and I were working towards very similar goals in this conversation.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree agree nor disagree disagree disagree

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7. The goals we were trying to achieve by having this conversation are very similar with the goals of the organization.

8. I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it brings about an extremely desirable personal goal.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

9. This conversation was very ineffective in moving us towards some work-related goals.

strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
			uisagree		

10. This kind of conversation definitely makes me feel like I belong in this organization.

11. The manner we used to achieve the goals was extremely appropriate given who we were.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

12. The way the other person talked to me during this conversation highly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree	•	agree	agree nor	disagree		dısagree
			disagree			

13. The other person spoke so badly, I could not understand what s/he wanted me to do.

strongly	agree		neither		disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

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14.	Given our	relationship,	it	was	very	acceptable	for	the other
	person to	perform the ro	o1e	of a	a leac	ler during	our	conversation.

	agree	•	neither	•	•	, •
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

15. The other person acted like a very effective leader.

strongly	agree		neither		•	
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			-

16. This conversation was extremely desirable.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

17. During this conversation, I listened very closely to what the other person had to say, but will probably do what I want regardless of the other person's advice or directions.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

18. The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation are very similar to the goals of the organization.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	dısagree		disagree
			disagree			

19. This conversation definitely made me feel like working towards some common goals the other person brought up.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

20. I acted like a very effective leader during this conversation.

P	ag	e	4
•	~ >	_	•

21.	The ways we used	to	achieve	the	goals	were	highly	acceptable
	given who we were	· ·						

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

22. The other person spoke so well, I absolutely understood what s/he wanted me to do.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

23. The other person communicated very competently during this conversation.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

24. In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person in this conversation to perform the role of a leader in similar kinds of situations.

25. I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helped me achieve a very desirable work-related goal.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

26. The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.

strongly	agree	slightly	neither	slightly	disagree	strongly
agree		agree	agree nor	disagree		disagree
			disagree			

27. This conversation definitely helped me achieve a personal goal.

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28. I felt very strongly I did not have to follow the guidance the other person gave me during the conversation.

strongly agree slightly neither slightly disagree strongly agree nor disagree disagree

APPENDIX B

Transcripts of Leader-Follower Dialogues

Institutionalized Domination

Message	No.	Person	
1		F:	I'm not quite sure how you've got this information stored.
2		L:	Well, I'm not real happy with it either. There's a better way to do it.
3		F:	Well, I'll work on 1t.
4		L:	Fine, go ahead. Just make sure you have a storage disk and a back-up and make sure you store it in sequence.
5		F:	Okay.

Mixed Institutionalized/Emergent Domination

1	F:	Could we talk about this person at a staff meeting about some general problems he has?
2	L:	If you start it, I'll stop the meeting right then and there.
3	F:	I'd probably walk out.
4	L:	We could look at the problem, but I'd rather help the employee correct the problem. I'd rather help him work at it than get him fired and dismissed.
5	F:	I can see your point. It wouldn't do any good to do what I planned.

Domination*

Message	No.	Person	
1		L:	Hey, I've heard you failed the test and I'm sory to hear about it. You can try it again next time. But I'm going to be honest with you. You're going to have to pass it before you do anything else.
2		F:	Yes, I know. I've thought about that quite often.
3		L:	I just thought I'd remind you of that.

* where: F = FollowerL = Leader

Emergent Domination

Message No.	Person	
1	L:	Is it done?
2	F:	Basically.
3	L:	I'll tell you this. It needs to get done as quickly as possible, or I will be extremely upset.
4	F:	Okay. There's not a whole lot I can do. I'll do it when I can.

Emergent Power

Message No.	Person	
1	L:	I'm rating you below average on quantity and quality of work and average on attendance. You're not getting your work done. You can do more work.
2	F:	Where do you want me to get more work? I do everything you and the doctors give me and then some.
3	L:	Well, I don't know. I don't have an answer. I think you can do better.
4	F:	I'm not going to sign the performance appraisal. I think it's incorrect and if it goes into my personnel file, it goes in unsigned by me.
5	L:	I'll give you another raise if you sign the performance appraisal.
6	F: ,	No, I want a performance appraisal that fits my work and not a raise.
7	L:	(Laughs)
8	F:	You let me know what you're going to do.

Mixed Institutionalized/Emergent Power

Message	No.	Person	
1		L:	We have a problem. This child went home with the father and they're separated. She said we gave the husband her phone number and address.
2		F:	I can't think of who you're talking about. Can I look at the chart?
3		L:	Okay, here you are.
			(F. looks at chart)
4		F:	This same person did not want any publicity given out to the public. I've talked to the person myself. She gave the information to him.
5		L:	Okay. I'll get hold of her myself.

Power

Message No.	Person	
1	F:	Can you help me set the Ganz?
2	L:	(Angrily) I can't believe you don't know how to do this.
3	F:	Well, I don't. I need help.