

Perspectives on Effective Leadership Behaviour

Learning Outcomes:

- Understand the findings in the early research on leadership behavior.
- Understand why task and relations behavior are important for leadership effectiveness.
- Understand how specific types of task and relations behavior can be used effectively.

This section reviews research using methods such as behavior description questionnaires, laboratory and field experiments, and critical incidents to discover how effective leaders differ in behavior from ineffective leaders. We begin by examining some of the early research on leader behavior conducted by psychologists in the 1950s and 1960s. Much of the research on leadership behavior during the past five decades has followed the pattern set by the pioneering research programs at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. These programs and subsequent research are described briefly. Some aspects of task- and relationship-oriented behavior that are important for effective leadership are described at the end.

THE OHIO STATE LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Questionnaire research on effective leadership behavior has been dominated by the influence of the early research at Ohio State University. During the 1950s, the initial task of the researchers was to identify categories of relevant leadership behavior and develop questionnaires describing this behavior. The researchers compiled a list of about 1,800 examples of leadership behavior, and then reduced the list to 150 items that appeared to be good examples of important leadership functions. A preliminary questionnaire composed of these items was used by samples of military and civilian personnel to describe the behavior of their supervisors (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957).

Leader Behavior Categories

Factor analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that subordinates perceived their supervisor's behavior primarily in terms of two broadly defined categories, one concerned with task objectives and the other concerned with interpersonal relations.

Consideration. The leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, and looks out for their welfare. Examples include doing personal favors for subordinates, finding time to listen to subordinates' problems, backing up or going to bat for a subordinate, consulting with subordinates on important matters, being willing to accept subordinate suggestions, and treating a subordinate as an equal,

Initiating Structure. The leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals. Examples include criticizing poor work, emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to tasks, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard procedures, offering new approaches to problems, and coordinating the activities of different subordinates.

Consideration and initiating structure were found to be relatively independent behavior categories. This means that some leaders are rated high on consideration and low on

initiating structure; some leaders are rated low on consideration and high on initiating structure; some leaders are rated high on both; and some leaders are rated low on both. Most leaders probably fall along a continuum between the extreme high and low scores.

Results from the Survey Research

The Ohio State leadership questionnaires and modified versions of them have been used in hundreds of survey studies by many different researchers. The results have been weak and inconsistent for most criteria of leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Fisher & Edwards, 1988). In some studies subordinates were more satisfied and performed better with a structuring leader, whereas other studies found the opposite relationship or no significant relationship at all. The findings were also inconsistent for the relationship between consideration and subordinate performance. The only mostly consistent finding was a positive relationship between consideration and subordinate satisfaction. As suggested by the Fleishman and Harris study, subordinates are usually more satisfied with a leader who is at least moderately considerate. However, unlike Fleishman and Harris, most researchers neglected to test for the possibility of curvilinear relationships or an interaction between consideration and initiating structure.

THE MICHIGAN LEADERSHIP STUDIES

A second major program of research on leadership behavior was carried out by researchers at the University of Michigan at approximately the same time as the Ohio State leadership studies. The focus of the Michigan research was the identification of relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance. The initial research was a series of field studies with a variety of leaders, including section managers in an insurance company (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950), supervisors in a large manufacturing company (Katz & Kahn, 1952), and supervisors of railroad section gangs (Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951). Information about managerial behavior was collected with interviews and questionnaires. Objective measures of group productivity were used to classify managers as relatively effective or ineffective. A comparison of effective and ineffective managers revealed some interesting differences in managerial behavior, which were summarized by Likert (1961,1967).

Effective Leadership Behaviors

The research found that three types of leadership behavior differentiated between effective and ineffective managers. Each type of behavior is described briefly.

1. **Task-Oriented Behavior.** Effective managers did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, the more effective managers concentrated on task-oriented functions such as planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities, and providing necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance. Moreover, effective managers guided subordinates in setting performance goals that were high but realistic. The task oriented behaviors identified in the Michigan studies appear similar to the behaviors labeled "initiating structure" in the Ohio State leadership studies.

2. **Relations-Oriented Behavior.** For the effective managers, task-oriented behavior did not occur at the expense of concern for human relations. The effective managers were also more supportive and helpful with subordinates. Supportive behaviors that were correlated with effective leadership included showing trust and confidence, acting friendly and

considerate, trying to understand subordinate problems, helping to develop subordinates and further their careers, keeping subordinates informed, showing appreciation for subordinates' ideas, and providing recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments. These behaviors are similar to the behaviors labeled "consideration" in the Ohio State leadership studies. The Michigan studies also found that effective managers tended to use general supervision rather than close supervision. That is, the managers established goals and general guidelines for subordinates, but allowed them some autonomy in deciding how to do the work and how to pace themselves; Likert proposed that a manager should treat each subordinate in a supportive way that will build and maintain the person's sense of personal worth and importance.

3. Participative Leadership. Effective managers used more group supervision instead of supervising each subordinate separately. Group meetings facilitate subordinate participation in decision making, improve communication, promote cooperation, and facilitate conflict resolution. The role of the manager in group meetings should be primarily to guide the discussion and keep it supportive, constructive, and oriented toward problem solving. The use of participation does not imply abdication of responsibilities, and the manager remains responsible for all decisions and their results.

Definitions of Managerial Practices

Planning and Organizing: Determining long-term objectives and strategies, allocating resources according to priorities, determining how to use personnel and resources to accomplish a task efficiently, and determining how to improve coordination, productivity, and the effectiveness of the organizational unit.

Problem Solving Identifying work-related problems, analyzing problems in a timely but systematic manner to identify causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions to resolve important problems or crises.

Clarifying Roles and Objectives: Assigning tasks, providing direction in how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations.

Informing: Disseminating relevant information to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, and answering requests for technical information.

Monitoring: Gathering information about work activities and external conditions affecting the work, checking on the progress and quality of the work, evaluating the performance of individuals and the organizational unit, analyzing trends, and forecasting external events.

Motivating and Inspiring: Using influence techniques that appeal to emotion or logic to generate enthusiasm for the work, commitment to task objectives, and compliance with requests for cooperation, assistance, support, or resources; and setting an example of appropriate behavior.

Consulting: Checking with people before making changes that affect them, encouraging suggestions for improvement, inviting participation in decision making, and incorporating the ideas and suggestions of others in decisions.

Delegating: Allowing subordinates to have substantial responsibility and discretion in carrying out work activities, handling problems, and making important decisions.

Supporting: Acting friendly and considerate, being patient and helpful, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset or anxious, listening to complaints and problems, and looking out for someone's interests.

Developing and Mentoring: Providing coaching and helpful career advice, and doing things to facilitate a person's skill acquisition, professional development, and career advancement.

Managing Conflict and Team Building: Facilitating the constructive resolution of conflict, and encouraging cooperation, teamwork, and identification with the work unit.

Networking: Socializing informally, developing contacts with people who are a source of information and support, and maintaining contacts through periodic interaction, including visits, telephone calls,

correspondence, and attendance at meetings and social events.

Recognizing: Providing praise and recognition for effective performance, significant achievements, and special contributions; and expressing appreciation for someone's contributions and special efforts.

Rewarding: Providing or recommending tangible rewards such as a pay increase or promotion for effective performance, significant achievements, and demonstrated competence.

An Integrating Framework for Classifying Behavior

Some recent research suggests that a three-dimensional taxonomy provides the most useful and parsimonious way to group specific behaviors into general categories (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991; Yukl, 1999a). The taxonomy is an extension of the two-factor approach that dominated much of the early theory and research on effective leadership behavior. However, as in Blake and Mouton's managerial grid, the underlying model emphasizes the relation between behavior and leader concerns, not just the content of the behavior. The difference in the two types of models is illustrated in Figure 3-4. Concern for task efficiency, human relations, and adaptive change are conceptualized as three independent dimensions rather than three mutually exclusive categories of specific behaviors. A specific leadership behavior will involve a mix of the following three concerns or objectives:

1. Task Oriented. This type of behavior is primarily concerned with accomplishing the task, utilizing personnel and resources efficiently, and maintaining orderly, reliable operations.

2. Relations Oriented. This type of behavior is primarily concerned with improving relationships and helping people, increasing cooperation and teamwork, increasing subordinate job satisfaction, and building identification with the organization.

3. Change Oriented. This type of behavior is primarily concerned with improving strategic decisions; adapting to change in the environment; increasing flexibility and innovation; making major changes in processes, products, or services; and gaining commitment to the changes.

The three types of behavior interact to jointly determine work unit performance. Their relative importance depends on the nature of the task and the work unit environment. Effective leaders determine which specific task-, relations-, and change oriented behaviors are appropriate and mutually compatible for the given situation. Table 1.1 shows specific types of behaviors that can be classified as higher on one objective than the others. Some specific behaviors reflect a high concern for more than one objective, but trade-offs among the objectives make it difficult to find examples of specific behaviors that are high on all three dimensions simultaneously.

Table: 1.1 Examples of Task-, Relations-, and Change-Oriented Behaviours

Task-oriented behaviors:

- Organize work activities to improve efficiency.
- Plan short-term operations.
- Assign work to groups or individuals.
- Clarify role expectations and task objectives.
- Explain rules, policies, and standard operating procedures.

- Direct and coordinate the activities of the unit.
- Monitor operations and performance.
- Resolve immediate problems that would disrupt the work.
- Emphasize the importance of efficiency, productivity, and quality.
- Set high standards for unit performance.

Relations-oriented behaviors:

- Provide support and encouragement.
- Express confidence that people can attain challenging objectives.
- Socialize with people to build relationships.
- Recognize contributions and accomplishments.
- Provide coaching and mentoring.
- Consult with people on decisions affecting them.
- Keep people informed about actions affecting them.
- Help resolve conflicts.
- Use symbols, ceremonies, rituals, and stories to build team identity.
- Lead by example and model exemplary behavior.

Change-oriented behaviors:

- Interpret events to explain the urgent need for change.
- Study competitors and outsiders to get ideas for improvements.
- Envision exciting new possibilities for the organization.
- Encourage people to view problems or opportunities in a different way.
- Develop innovative new strategies linked to core competencies.
- Encourage and facilitate innovation and entrepreneurship by others.
- Encourage and facilitate learning by individuals and teams.
- Experiment with new approaches.
- Build a coalition of key people to get change approved.
- Form task forces to guide implementation of change.
- Make symbolic changes that are consistent with a new vision or strategy.
- Empower people to implement new strategies.
- Announce and celebrate progress in implementing change.

Over time, the optimal pattern of leader behavior is likely to change as conditions change. For example, the leader must use more task-oriented behaviors when it is essential to maintain low cost and reliable quality. However, when it is necessary to make a major change in the unit's processes or products, the emphasis must shift to change-oriented behaviors. Effective leaders are likely to make extensive use of relations-oriented behaviors during both time periods, but the mix of specific relations behaviors may change. In general, effective leaders must be flexible and adaptive in their behavior as conditions change.

The next two sections will describe some specific types of leadership behavior that are primarily task oriented or relations oriented. Change-oriented behaviors are described later. Just as it is important for leaders to find a way to balance task and relations concerns, it is also important to balance these concerns against change-oriented concerns.

SPECIFIC TASK BEHAVIORS

This section of the chapter describes three specific types of task-oriented behaviors that are especially relevant for effective leadership. The behaviors include: (1) planning, (2) clarifying, and (3) monitoring. The behaviors are explained and research on each type of behavior is briefly reviewed.

Planning Work Activities

Planning means deciding what to do, how to do it, who will do it, and when it will be done. The purpose of planning is to ensure efficient organization of the work unit, coordination of activities, and effective utilization of resources. Planning is a broadly defined behavior that includes making decisions about objectives, priorities, strategies, organization of the work, assignment of responsibilities, scheduling of activities, and allocation of resources among different activities according to their relative importance. Special names are sometimes used for subvarieties of planning. For example, “operational planning” is the scheduling of routine work and determination of task assignments for the next day or week. “Action planning” is the development of detailed action steps and schedules for implementing a new policy or carrying out a project (see guidelines in Table 1.2). “Contingency planning” is the development of procedures for avoiding or coping with potential problems or disasters. Finally, planning also includes determining how to allocate time to different responsibilities and activities (“time management”).

Planning is largely a cognitive activity involving processing of information, analyzing, and deciding. Planning seldom occurs in a single behavior episode; rather it tends to be a prolonged process that occurs over a period of weeks or months. Most planning involves formulation of informal and implicit agendas, rather than formal, written documents and agreements. Since planning is a cognitive activity that seldom occurs as a single discrete episode, it is difficult to observe (Snyder & Glueck, 1980). Nevertheless, there are some observable aspects such as writing plans, preparing written budgets, developing written schedules, and meeting with others to formulate objectives and strategies. Planning is most observable when a manager takes action to implement plans by communicating them to others and making specific task assignments.

Table: 1.2 Guidelines for Action Planning

- Identify necessary action steps.
- Identify the optimal sequence of action steps.
- Estimate the time needed to carry out each action step.
- Determine starting times and deadlines for each action step.
- Estimate the cost of each action step.
- Determine who will be accountable for each action step.
- Develop procedures for monitoring progress.

The importance of planning and organizing has long been recognized in the management literature (Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Drucker, 1974; Fayol, 1949; Quinn, 1980; Urwick, 1952). Evidence of a relationship between planning and managerial effectiveness is provided by a variety of different types of studies (e.g., Boyatzis, 1982; Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Kotter, 1982; Morse & Wagner, 1978; Shipper & Wilson, 1992; Yukl et al., 1990).

Clarifying Roles and Objectives

Clarifying is the communication of plans, policies, and role expectations. Major subcategories of clarifying include: (1) defining job responsibilities and requirements, (2) setting performance goals, and (3) assigning specific tasks. Guidelines for each type of clarifying are shown in Table 1.3. The purpose of this clarifying behavior is to guide and coordinate work activity and make sure people know what to do and how to do it. It is essential for each subordinate to understand what duties, functions, and activities are

required in the job and what results are expected. Even a subordinate who is highly competent and motivated may fail to achieve a high level of performance if confused about responsibilities and priorities. Such confusion results in misdirected effort and neglect of important responsibilities in favor of less important ones. The more complex and multifaceted a job is, the more difficult it is to determine what needs to be done.

Clarifying behavior is likely to be more important when there is substantial role ambiguity or role conflict for members of the work unit. Less clarifying is necessary if the organization has elaborate rules and regulations dictating how the work should be done (and subordinates are familiar with them), or if subordinates are highly trained professionals who have the expertise to do their jobs without much direction from superiors. Clarifying is a core component of initiating structure. The research on broadly defined measures of task-oriented behavior was mostly inconclusive. However, research on specific aspects of clarifying behavior has found stronger results.

Table: 1.3 Guidelines for Clarifying Roles and Objectives

Defining job responsibilities

- Explain the important job responsibilities.
- Clarify the person's scope of authority.
- Explain how the job relates to the mission of the unit.
- Explain important policies, rules, and requirements.

Assigning work:

- Clearly explain the assignment.
- Explain the reasons for an assignment.
- Clarify priorities and deadlines.
- Check for comprehension.

Setting performance goals:

- Set goals for relevant aspects of performance.
- Set goals that are clear and specific.
- Set goals that are challenging but realistic.
- Set a target date for attainment of each goal.

A number of different types of studies have found a positive relationship between clarifying and managerial effectiveness (Alexander, 1985; Bauer & Green, 1998; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986b; Wilson, O'Hare, & Shipper, 1990; Yukl et al., 1990). There is strong evidence from many studies (including some field experiments) that setting specific, challenging goals results in higher performance (see Locke & Latham, 1990).

Monitoring Operations

Monitoring involves gathering information about the operations of the manager's organizational unit, including the progress of the work, the performance of individual subordinates, the quality of products or services, and the success of projects or programs. Monitoring behavior can take many forms, including observation of work operations, reading written reports, watching computer screen displays of performance data, inspecting the quality of samples of the work, and holding progress review meetings with an individual or group. Some guidelines for monitoring work by subordinates are provided in Table 1.4.

Monitoring provides much of the information needed for planning and problem solving, which is why it is so important for managerial effectiveness (Meredith & Mantel, 1985). Information gathered from monitoring is used to identify problems and opportunities, as well as to formulate and modify objectives, strategies, plans, policies, and procedures. Monitoring provides the information needed to evaluate subordinate performance, recognize achievements, identify performance deficiencies, assess training needs, provide assistance, and allocate rewards such as a pay increase or promotion. When monitoring is insufficient, a manager will be unable to detect problems before they become serious (problems such as declining quality, low productivity, cost overruns, behind-schedule projects, employee dissatisfaction, and conflicts among employees).

The appropriate degree of monitoring will depend on the competence of the subordinate and the nature of the work. More frequent monitoring is desirable when subordinates are inexperienced and insecure, when mistakes have very detrimental consequences, when the tasks of subordinates are highly interdependent and require close coordination, and when disruptions in the workflow are likely, due to equipment breakdowns, accidents, materials shortages, personnel shortages, and so forth. Monitoring of performance is most difficult when the work involves unstructured, unique tasks for which results can be determined only after a long time interval. For example, it is more difficult to evaluate the performance of a research scientist or human resource manager than the performance of a sales representative or production manager.

Table: 1.4 Guidelines for Monitoring

- Identify and measure key performance indicators.
- Monitor key process variables as well as outcomes.
- Measure progress against plans and budgets.
- Develop independent sources of information about performance.
- Observe operations directly when it is feasible.
- Ask specific questions about the work.
- Encourage reporting of problems and mistakes.
- Conduct periodic progress review meetings.

As noted above, monitoring indirectly affects a manager's performance by facilitating the effective use of other behaviors. There is also some evidence that monitoring affects performance directly. In a laboratory experiment, Larson and Callahan found that performance increased on a task that was monitored closely but not on a task for which there was little monitoring. The effect on performance was greater when monitoring was followed by praise or criticism, but it occurred even when there were associated consequences for the workers. The amount of research on the effects of monitoring by leaders is still limited. Some evidence for a relationship between monitoring and managerial effectiveness is provided by observational and survey studies (e.g., Jensen, 1987; Komaki, 1986; Komaki, Desselles, & Bowman, 1989; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl et al., 1990), but the results have not been strong or consistent.

SPECIFIC RELATIONS BEHAVIORS

This section of the chapter describes three specific types of relations-oriented behaviors that are especially relevant for effective leadership. The behaviors include: (1) supporting, (2) developing, and (3) recognizing.

Supporting

Supporting includes a wide variety of behaviors that show consideration, acceptance, and concern for the needs and feelings of other people. Supporting is the core component of consideration, as defined by Fleishman (1953) and Stogdill (1974), and is also the core component of supportive leadership, as defined by Bowers and Seashore (1966) and House and Mitchell (1974). Table 1.5 shows guidelines for supporting.

Table: 1.5 Guidelines for Supporting

- Show acceptance and positive regard.
- Be polite and considerate, not arrogant and rude.
- Treat each subordinate as an individual.
- Remember important details about the person.
- Be patient and helpful when giving instructions or explanations.
- Provide sympathy and support when the person is anxious or upset.
- Express confidence in the person when there is a difficult task.
- Provide assistance with the work when it is needed.
- Be willing to help with personal problems.

Supportive leadership helps build and maintain effective interpersonal relationships. A manager who is considerate and friendly toward people is more likely to win their friendship and loyalty. The emotional ties that are formed make it easier to gain cooperation and support from people on whom the manager must rely to get the work done. It is more satisfying to work with someone who is friendly, cooperative, and supportive than with someone who is cold and impersonal, or worse, hostile and uncooperative. Some forms of supporting behavior reduce the amount of stress in the job, and other forms help a person cope with stress. Higher job satisfaction and stress tolerance are likely to result in less absenteeism, less turnover, less alcoholism, and less drug abuse (Brief, Schuler, & Van Sell, 1981; Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986; Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985).

The effects of supportive leadership have been studied extensively with a variety of research methods. The studies show that subordinates of supportive leaders are usually more satisfied with their leader and with their job. The findings regarding the effects of supporting behavior on subordinate performance are less consistent, especially when controlling for the effects of other person-oriented behaviors such as developing and recognizing. Although no firm conclusions can be drawn, supportive leadership probably has a weak positive effect on subordinate performance. Unfortunately, few studies have measured the mediating processes that could explain the reasons for this effect or when it is most likely to occur. Supportive leadership may increase a subordinate's self-confidence, stress resistance, acceptance of the leader, trust of the leader, and willingness to do extra things for the leader.

Developing

Developing includes several managerial practices that are used to increase a person's skills and facilitate job adjustment and career advancement. Component behaviours include coaching, mentoring, and career counseling. Guidelines for coaching are shown in Table 3-9, and guidelines for mentoring are shown in Table 1.6.

Developing is usually done with a subordinate, but it may also be done with a peer, a colleague, or even with a new, inexperienced boss. Responsibility for developing subordinates can be shared with other members of the work unit who are competent and experienced. For example, some leaders assign an experienced subordinate to serve as a mentor and coach for a new employee.

Developing offers a variety of potential benefits for the manager, the subordinate, and the organization. One benefit is to foster mutually cooperative relationships. Potential benefits for subordinates include better job adjustment, more skill learning, greater self-confidence, and faster career advancement. The leader can gain a sense of satisfaction from helping others grow and develop. Potential benefits for the organization include higher employee commitment, higher performance, and better preparation of people to fill positions of greater responsibility in the organization as openings occur.

Table: 1.6 Guidelines for Coaching

- Help the person analyze his or her performance by asking questions or suggesting aspects to examine more closely.
- Provide constructive feedback about effective and ineffective behaviours exhibited by the person.
- Suggest specific things that could help to improve the person's performance.
- Demonstrate a better way to do a complex task or procedure.
- Express confidence that the person can learn a difficult task or procedure.
- Show the person how to solve a problem rather than just providing the answer.
- Provide opportunities to practice difficult procedures before they

There has been extensive research on the effects of training in organizations (see reviews by Goldstein,1992), and this literature suggests that skill development usually increases the satisfaction and performance. Managers play an important role in the development of subordinates. Empirical research on the effects of coaching and mentoring (see Table 1.7) by managers is still very limited. A few survey studies have examined the correlation between developing behavior and an independent criterion of leadership effectiveness, but the results were not consistent across samples (Javidan,1992; Kim Yuk1,1995; Wilson et al.,1990; Yukl et al.,1990). Descriptive research involving effective managers suggests that they take a more active role in developing the skills and confidence of subordinates (Bradford & Cohen, 1984; McCauley, 1986).

Recognizing

Recognizing involves giving praise and showing appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements, and important contributions to the organization. Although it is most common to think of recognition as being given by manager to subordinates, this managerial practice can also be used with peers, superiors, and people outside the work unit. The primary purpose of recognizing, especially when used with subordinates, is to strengthen desirable behavior and task commitment. Some guidelines for recognizing are presented in Table 1.8.

Three major forms of recognizing are praise, awards, and recognition ceremonies. Praise consists of oral comments, expressions, or gestures that acknowledge a person's accomplishments and contributions. It is the easiest form of recognition to use. Most praise is given privately, but it can be used in a public ritual or ceremony as well. Awards include things such as a certificate of achievement, a letter of commendation, a plaque, a trophy, a medal, or a ribbon. Awards can be announced in many different ways, including an article in the company newsletter, a notice posted on the bulletin board, a picture of the person (e.g., "employee of the month") hung in a prominent place, in a short speech made over a public address system, in regular meetings, and at special ceremonies or rituals. Giving formal awards is a symbolic act that communicates a manager's values and priorities to people in the organization. Thus, it is important for

awards to be based on meaningful criteria rather than favoritism or arbitrary judgments. An award that is highly visible allows others to share in the process of commending the recipient and showing appreciation for his or her contributions to the success of the organization. The basis for making the award is more important than the form of the award. Some managers are very creative about using awards, and they look for new and unusual awards to use with “planned spontaneity.” Examples include donuts, home-baked bread, flowers, and a bottle of champagne, a new chair, and a picture of the employee shaking hands with the CEO.

Table: 1.7 Guidelines for Mentoring

- Show concern for each individual's development.
- Help the person identify skill deficiencies
- Help the person find ways to acquire necessary skills.
- Encourage attendance at relevant training courses.
- Provide opportunities for skill development on the job.
- Provide helpful career advice.
- Promote the person's reputation.
- Serve as a role model.

Table: 1.8 Guidelines for Recognizing

- Recognize a variety of contributions and achievements.
- Actively search for contributions to recognize.
- Recognize specific contributions and achievements.
- Recognize improvements in performance.
- Recognize commendable efforts that failed.
- Provide recognition that is sincere.
- Provide recognition that is timely.
- Use a form of recognition appropriate for the person and situation.

A recognition ceremony ensures that an individual's achievements are acknowledged not only by the manager but also by other members of the organization. Recognition ceremonies can be used to celebrate the achievements of a team or work unit as well as those of an individual. Special rituals or ceremonies to honor particular employees or teams can have strong symbolic value when attended by top management, because they demonstrate their concern for the aspects of behavior or performance being recognized. A rather unique recognition ceremony is used by Milliken and Company (Peters & Austin, 1985).

Once each quarter a “Corporate Sharing Rally” is held to allow work teams to brag about their achievements and contributions. Each of the “fabulous bragging sessions” has a particular theme such as improved productivity, better product quality, or reduced costs. Attendance is voluntary, but hundreds of employees show up to hear teams make short five-minute presentations describing how they have made improvements relevant to the theme. Every participant receives a framed certificate, and the best presentations (determined by peer evaluation) get special awards. In addition to celebrating accomplishments and emphasizing key values (represented by the themes), these ceremonies increase the diffusion of innovative ideas within the company.

Praise is often given along with tangible rewards, and it is difficult to separate their effects on subordinate effort and satisfaction in much of the research literature. Most

studies that measure contingent reward behavior with leader behavior questionnaires find a positive correlation with subordinate satisfaction, but results for performance are not consistent (e.g., Kim & Yukl, 1995; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996; Podsakoff & Todor, 1985; Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984; Yukl et al., 1990). A meta-analysis of laboratory and field studies on praise as a form of feedback found little support for its effectiveness; praise was more likely to have a negative effect on performance than a positive effect (Kiuger & DeNisi, 1996). In contrast, descriptive studies in organizations (Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Peters & Austin, 1985) suggest that effective leaders provide extensive recognition to subordinates for their achievements and contributions. A rare field experiment by Wikoff et al. (1983) found that praise by the supervisor increased subordinate performance. In summary, the results of empirical research on the effects of praise are inconsistent, but they suggest that it can be beneficial when used in a skillful way under favourable conditions.