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**Determinants of delegation of authority among hospital senior  
executive officers**

**Saccardi, Thomas Anthony, Ph.D.**

**City University of New York, 1991**

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Determinants of Delegation of Authority  
Among Hospital Senior Executive Officers

by

Thomas Anthony Saccardi

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty  
in Business in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy, The City University of New York

1991

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Thomas Anthony Saccardi

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This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Business in satisfaction of the dissertation requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

1-22-91 \_\_\_\_\_  
Date Chair of Examining Committee

1-29-91 \_\_\_\_\_  
Date Executive Officer

\_\_\_\_\_  
Moshe Banai, Ph.D.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Linda Friedman, Ph.D.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Cynthia Thompson, Ph.D.

Supervisory Committee

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This dissertation surveyed 37 busy Senior Executives and 96 of their senior staff members. With their hands full running their hospitals, these healthcare executives still found time to assist in this research.

Finally, a dissertation is a labor of love -- the love of Marianne, the author's wife, and their children, Christopher and Daniel, without whom this effort would not have been possible.

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## Chapter 1

### Nature of the Investigation

#### 1.1. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to find out under what circumstances senior managers delegated, and under what circumstances they did not delegate to their subordinates.

In this study, delegation was defined as the specific administrative technique whereby a manager gave his or her immediate subordinate the authority to make decisions regarding the accomplishment of assigned tasks (Jennergren, 1981). By delegating, managers implicitly shared power with their subordinates.

The literature reviewed has revealed that the area of delegation has been largely overlooked (Cosier & Aplin, 1980; Leana, 1987). Furthermore, the existing research on delegation found that delegation did not occur frequently (Heller, 1971; Leana, 1987). These findings stood in sharp contrast to the typical management maxims and the voluminous normative literature that said managers achieved excellence and were productive because they delegated (Allen, 1964; Distacio, 1985; Montana, 1981).

Hence, the issue of delegation and why managers delegate was an area that had been, for the most part, overlooked in the scientific literature, but assumed as a given in the normative literature.

Research on delegation pointed to unanswered questions and areas that required further study.

The first question was: When did managers delegate? Research findings gave contradictory answers to this question. Several researchers (Heller, 1971 and 1973; Heller & Wilpert, 1981; and Leana, 1987) found that managers delegated only those matters that were organizationally less important and that they delegated when they had too great a work load. Indeed, Heller (1971) found that a sample of 260 American senior managers indicated that they delegated organizationally important decisions to their immediate subordinates less than 7% of the time. Most of the time, they made the decision themselves, with or without consultation with the subordinate. From a larger sample of 800 international senior managers, Heller and Wilpert (1981) arrived at the same conclusion: in looking at the same twelve management decisions, managers reported delegating typical managerial tasks only 10% of the time. In contrast, the research of George Graen and his associates, which they later called the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) studies, found that managers consistently delegated even critical matters to as many as half of their subordinates. Specifically, Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975), and Cashman, Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1976) found that managers delegated to almost 50% of their subordinates, and Liden and Graen (1980) found almost 44% of the subordinates were delegated even critical matters.

These markedly contrasting research findings could be traced to several discrepancies among the research studies. Specifically, within these studies there were variations in the definitions of delegation, in the definition of important or critical tasks, and in the instruments used to measure delegated tasks. The definition of delegation in Scandura, Graen and Novak (1986), a LMX study, was different from that

of Heller (1971) or Leana (1987) or, for that matter, different from the implied definition in another LMX study by Graen and Scandura (1987). The differences in definitions led to the measurement of different variables. For example, even comparing related LMX research investigations, there were variations in measurement: Dansereau et al. (1975) specifically measured the amount of time and energy members invested in 22 job activities those members actually reported they performed; Liden and Graen (1980) purported to measure the same thing, but asked members to report on their time allocation across a set of 23 pre-established work activities. Furthermore, these same researchers drew conclusions that went well beyond their research findings. While never defining or measuring "critical functions", Dansereau et al. (1975) concluded that the in-group members "usually can perform the majority of critical functions of the unit" (p.72). Similarly, Liden and Graen (1980) described the in-group as those members to whom they found more critical tasks were delegated, yet "critical tasks" were neither defined nor measured in their research design; furthermore, they made no effort to study whether "in-group" members, themselves, perceived that such critical tasks were delegated.

Instead of making inferences about whether or not delegation occurred or whether critical tasks were involved, the current study specifically defined delegation at the onset and used an instrument that specifically measured delegation. It asked the senior managers to indicate how important they felt each delegable task was.

The second important question that arose in the research was: What was necessary in order for delegation to occur, in those instances where

there was delegation? The literature was consistent in saying that, in order for delegation to occur, the leader must trust the subordinates and the subordinates must have appropriate skills (Dansereau et al., 1975; Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Heller, 1971; Leana, 1987). However, with the same consistency, research showed that it was not the subordinates' skills, per se, but the manager's perceptions of those skills that were more germane to how the manager would act toward the subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Heller, 1971; Heller & Wilpert, 1981; Kipnis, 1976). Indeed, Heller and Wilpert (1981) specifically compared objective and subjective measures of subordinates' skills and found that senior managers' subjective judgments were more reliable predictors of their assessment of subordinates' skills and of their delegating behavior than were the objective assessments. Consequently, while some researchers did not study the subjective perspective (Leana, 1987; Vroom & Jago, 1974), it was clear that managers' perceptions were important. Hence, the manager's trust and the manager's perception of subordinates' skills were important variables that had to be considered.

The third research question asked: Did research studies exclude personality variables that might have had significant effects on the managers' trust in their subordinates and the managers' perception of their subordinates' skills? Repeatedly, researchers had focused on situational factors such as time constraints, need for subordinates' commitment, need for a quality decision, span of control, job constraints, kinds of decisions made, or line/staff functions (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Heller, 1971; Heller & Wilpert, 1981; Liden & Graen, 1980; Vroom and Jago, 1974). In contrast, Kipnis

and his associates found that autocratic managers significantly differed from democratic managers in their perceptions of the situation and in what kind of motives and behaviors they attributed to others (Kipnis, 1976 & 1987; Kipnis, Schmidt, Price & Stitt, 1981). Zand (1972) points in the same direction. Interestingly, some proponents of situational factors suggested that the manager's perceptions and characteristic behavior were more significant than situational variables. For example, Graen and Scandura (1987) maintained that, from the outset, managers imposed a self-fulfilling prophecy on newcomers, effectively predetermining who would grow in the job and who would not.

That research has failed to place appropriate emphasis on the manager's personality traits had been further suggested in the surprisingly similar independent variables that were chosen in the conflicting studies. The Leader-Member Exchange literature (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Schiemann, 1978) focused on the leader's "negotiating latitude," which, by definition, seemed to stem from the leader's personality, insofar as it was defined "as the extent to which a superior is willing to consider requests from a member concerning role development" (Dansereau et al., 1975, p. 51). The research on autocratic/democratic leaders (Kipnis, 1976 & 1987; Kipnis et al, 1981) also focused on the leaders' personality traits, namely: the extent to which the leaders respected their subordinates or sought to control them. In both cases, the managers' personality was pivotal.

At the heart of these contradictory findings were the explicit or implicit assumptions researchers made about personality traits, even though they all claimed to be bedrocked in the same theoretical model.

The Attribution Theory models that were detailed, for example, in Dienesch and Liden (1986), Green and Mitchell (1979), and Kipnis (1976) were the bases for many of the conflicting studies cited above. Diensch and Liden (1986), Graen and Scandura (1987), Heller (1971), Heller and Wilpert (1981), and Kipnis (1976, 1987), for example, all began by talking about leaders' and members' characteristics and behavior and how those characteristics affected the leader-member interaction; they all considered the importance of individuals' perceptions and their attributions of causality and motivation. But then there was a strong divorce in terms of what role researchers saw personality traits playing. Kipnis (1976, 1987) found that the autocratic or democratic leaders differed in their perception of their subordinates' capabilities. Heller (1971) suggested that "in the future, more complex research designs will no doubt wish to include a range of personality measures" (p.109). However, later Heller and Wilpert (1981) stated that "personality does not overrule the dictate of the situation" (p.46). Perhaps on middle ground were Diensch and Liden (1986) and Graen and Scandura (1987) who presented as a theoretical problem and a future research challenge the question of how leader-member exchanges developed.

Thus it appeared that situational factors have been emphasized to the neglect of the personality variable. To remedy this gap, this study focused on managers' personality traits as a possible determinant of delegation. In particular, it looked at the dominance and nurturance personality traits of the senior managers. It also studied the managers' perception of the subordinates' skills, the managers' assessment of their trust in their subordinates, and their assessment of

the importance of delegable tasks. As so much of the above research implied, the managers' personality and perceptions were very important variables in the study of delegation.

Finally, the fourth research question was: Did senior managers relate, in a relatively uniform way, to all subordinates or did they relate differently to different staff members? Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Schiemann, 1978) maintained that, rather than measuring the leader's general or average behavior towards the subordinates, examining each leader-member dyad was a much better predictor of whether a leader exercised leadership (defined as influence not based on formal authority) or supervision (defined as influence based only on formal authority). On the other hand, Kipnis (1976 & 1987) found that certain kinds of managers, for the most part, treated their subordinates rather consistently, convinced that the subordinates were incapable and had to be told what to do. Looking carefully at these divergent findings suggested a possible reconciliation of the two in a way that may suggest an answer to this fourth research question. Both Graen and his colleagues and Kipnis described autocratic and democratic managers. The work of Rogers (1951, 1963), Gordon (1955, 1977) and Gibb (1961) suggested that some managers tended to behave in the same way towards all members and other managers tended to relate toward their subordinates in a very individualized manner. Consequently, the personality traits of dominance and nurturance which described the autocratic and democratic managers were studied. Specifically, it was argued that high dominant managers and low nurturant managers had a more generalized approach to all subordinates, while high nurturant managers

and low dominant managers differentiated more in their treatment of their subordinates.

To summarize, this study sought to clarify the answers to the four research questions that surfaced here. Specifically, it investigated:

- (1) whether or not senior managers delegated important matters to their subordinate managers;
- (2) whether delegation was dependent on the senior manager's trust in the subordinates, and on the manager's perception of subordinates' levels of skills;
- (3) whether nurturant senior managers differed from dominant managers in their trust in subordinates and their perception of subordinates' levels of skills; and
- (4) whether those same personality traits explained why some managers established more varied patterns of leader-member exchanges and why other managers tended to treat individual subordinates more uniformly.

## 1.2. Significance of the Research

The study had both theoretical and practical significance.

First, this study would shed light on the contradictory findings in the delegation literature insofar as some research found that managers delegated important matters while other research found that they seldom did.

Second, the study assessed the role that the managers' personality traits played in the managers' perceptions of subordinates' skills. It focused on an aspect of attribution models that has been ignored.

Furthermore, if managers with different personality traits significantly differed in their perceptions and resultant attributions, herein might lie the reason for the contradiction in the literature between those who maintained that there was a general or overall management style and those who maintained that each and every individual manager interacted differently with his/her subordinates according to circumstances. The emphasis on the managers' personality could offer refinements to those who would dichotomize between generalized leadership style and individualized leader-member relationships. The personality traits of the managers might play a much more important role than was generally considered in much of the contingency model research.

On the practical side, an understanding of why senior managers did or did not delegate could offer balancing insight to the normative literature which postulated managers' need to delegate. When managers did not delegate in important matters, Cosier and Aplin (1980) suggested that they might have been better off not delegating at all, since subordinates often resented being given "choices" that were inconsequential or of no practical importance.

Senior management has been concerned about a lack of delegation or has wished to achieve still further delegation -- there has been much talk nowadays about the need to maximize scarce human resources (Graen & Scandura, 1987). In this vein, this study's findings could help management and management consultants better approach the delegation

aspects of organizational development by showing that managers' personality traits affect their perceptions of subordinates' attributes and behavior.

## Chapter 2

### The Research Model

#### 2.1. Variables to be Studied

The four research questions focused on five variables: delegation, the importance of the delegable tasks, the senior managers' trust in their subordinate managers, their perception of the levels of skills of their subordinate managers, and their personality traits as these affected their perceptions.

Research suggested separate focus on both (1) delegation and the perceptions of trust, skills and importance, and (2) personality traits as they could affect the senior managers' perceptions of skills and trust. Consequently, the variables of skill and trust were treated, in separate segments, first as independent and then as dependent variables.

On the one hand, delegation was treated as the dependent variable and there were three independent variables. These were the senior managers' trust in their individual subordinate managers, the senior managers' perceptions of their subordinate managers' skills, and the senior managers' perception of the importance of the tasks delegable to each of their three subordinate managers. On the other hand, the personality traits were considered the independent variables and the senior managers' perceptions of skills and their trust in their individual subordinate managers were the dependent variables. Here, personality traits were the independent variable. This was suggested by their role in the Attribution Theory models (Dienesch and Liden, 1986).

Furthermore, the enduring nature of the personality traits gave additional support to making these the independent variable.

The literature did not indicate with any clarity what the relationship might have been between delegation and these personality traits. Nor did the current research directly study this relationship. However, this study was aware of the possibility that the subordinates' reported delegation and the senior managers' self-reported personality traits could have represented objective and subjective dimensions of the same reality. Consequently, this study proceeded cautiously in regard to these two variables, and divided the research into two separate segments.

#### 2.1.1. Delegation

As opposed to the global or macro-perspective, in which the centralization or decentralization of decision-making was considered as a structural characteristic of the organization (Pugh, Hickson & Hinnings, 1969), the focus of the current study was on the micro-level, where delegation was seen as an individual administrative technique. Delegation was defined as a specific administrative technique whereby a superior gave a subordinate the authority to make decisions concerning the accomplishment of assigned tasks (Jennergren, 1981).

Throughout the literature, delegation has been repeatedly defined in similar, but not identical, ways: subordinate took initiative and made decisions (Maier, 1968); subordinate made decision regarding a particular subject (Heller, 1971); subordinate solved the problem alone (Vroom & Jago, 1974); subordinate was free to make own decisions (Bass,

1980); tasks were assigned to subordinates (Cuba & Milbourn, 1982); and decision making was transferred to the subordinate (Leana, 1987). While such definitions seemed to refer to subtle differences within a spectrum ranging from "taking initiative", through "making or being free to make decisions", on to "being given the authority", the above studies did not seem to intend to make such subtle differences. Rather, they took different routes to say essentially the same thing. The common element was that the subordinate was the one whom the superior expected to do the job or perform the task; the subordinate made the decision or solved the problem.

However, there was a debate among researchers as to whether delegation was considered part of a spectrum of participative decision making or whether it was conceptually distinct from participation (Heller, 1971; Leana, 1987; Miller & Monge, 1986). Typically, Heller placed delegation within a continuum of influence that he defined in terms of decisions that were made by the decision-maker alone, or consultatively or participatively with others, or which were actually delegated. Many others spoke of such a spectrum of leadership styles: from autocratic, to consultative, to participative, to delegative (Bass, Valenzi, Farrow, & Solomon, 1975; Heller, 1971; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Vroom & Jago, 1974; and Vroom & Yetton, 1973). But Leana (1987), for example, maintained that delegation was conceptually distinct from participation.

While it was not the purpose of this research to enter into this debate, the debate did give additional emphasis to that definition of delegation wherein the subordinate had the power to act, and was the one

who made the decision about the assigned task(s). Furthermore, the debate showed that delegation included the sharing of power.

In considering the above studies, the definition of delegation was made more explicit in terms of its intent and its extent (Bunge, 1967):

- a. its intent: delegation was, strictly speaking, the superior's giving over to the subordinate the authority to make decisions about an assigned task.
- b. its extent: implicit to the discussions above and to the definition just presented was the question of how extensive the delegation was. Did it extend only to routine tasks or to important and even critical decisions as well?

Again, without trying to enter into the debate about whether delegation was "participation" or specifically distinct from participation, it did seem valuable to examine delegation against the broad spectrum of the Influence/Power Continuum, to use Heller's phrase (1971). This was so because, by definition, delegation was the superior giving over authority to the subordinate. Consequently, the superior was implicitly sharing power with the subordinate. Indeed, the findings of Cosier and Aplin (1980) that members did not want delegation of unimportant matters could be seen as confirmation that unimportant delegation was not power sharing.

#### 2.1.2. Dominance and Nurturance,

##### Two Personality Traits of the Senior Managers

The Leader-Member Exchange literature (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Schiemann, 1978) and the research on the

use of power (Kipnis, 1976 & 1987; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1980; Kipnis et al., 1981) delineated similar descriptions of the supervisory person. On the one hand, in fleshing out what the manager did in offering negotiating latitude to the in-group members, the Leader-Member Exchange researchers spoke about the leader communicating openly and honestly, allowing the subordinate to exercise influence in decision making, giving support to the member, and showing respect and trust. Similarly, the research on the use of power spoke about a respectful use of influence or power, where the powerholder used influence tactics that respected the autonomy of the target persons and allowed them the freedom to decide for themselves. On the other hand, the LMX researchers described the manager's characteristic behavior toward the out-group members as a unidirectional downward exercise of authority in a formalized and socially distant manner. In a parallel description, research on the use of power focused on the controlling powerholder, who devalued the target persons and created social distance from them. While these descriptions emerged from consistent correlations in research studies, researchers in general and Kipnis and his associates, in particular, cautiously affirmed that they could not ascertain any causal direction in regard to these correlations.

In light of the descriptions that emerged from the above studies, it seemed appropriate to turn to the personality research of Murray (1938), Jackson (1984) and Retslaff and his associates (1986). At first glance, their personality trait of "Dominance" seemed to be the one that pivotally captured the controlling-versus-respectful tendencies. The Dominant personality was described as one who attempted to control one's environment, to influence or direct others, to express one's opinions

forcefully, and to enjoy the role of leader and even assume it spontaneously. Hence, a person scoring high on Dominance would be more controlling than one scoring low on Dominance. However, the factor analyses of Retslaff, Gibertini, Scolatti, Laughna and Sommers (1986) pointed to possibly two kinds of Dominance: Dominance associated with Achievement and Endurance, and Dominance associated with Exhibition.

Furthermore, the factor analyses of Retslaff et al. (1986) identify another set of traits that described a person who assisted others, accepted people readily, and confided in others. This factor consisted of the following traits: Nurturance, Play, Affiliation, Succorance and Social Recognition. In their tables of scale intercorrelations, Play and Social Recognition also correlated strongly with Exhibition; hence, they might factor into both Dominance and Nurturance.

Consequently, Dominance and the associated traits of Achievement, Endurance and Exhibition, along with Nurturance and its associated traits of Play, Affiliation, Succorance and Social Recognition, were investigated in this study. Jackson's (1984) definitions of the personality traits, along with the corresponding items from the Personality Adjective Inventory of Retslaff et al. (1986) follow:

- A. The nurturant manager was defined as one primarily characterized as possessing Nurturance, as well as those traits that clustered around Nurturance. The factor analyses and scale intercorrelations will be discussed in detail in the measurement section of Chapter 3.

## 1) Nurturance

One gives sympathy and comfort; assists others whenever possible, interested in caring for children, the disabled, or the infirm; offers a 'helping hand' to those in need; readily performs favors for others.

The Nurturance Scale was measured by these five adjectives: Supporting, Helpful, Sympathetic, Caring, and Assisting.

## 2) Play

One does many things 'just for fun'; spends a good deal of time participating in games, sports, social activities, and other amusements; enjoys jokes and funny stories; maintains a light-hearted, easy-going attitude towards life.

This scale's five items were: Jolly, Merry, Gleeful, Laughter-loving, and Joking.

## 3) Affiliation

One enjoys being with friends and people in general; accepts people readily; makes efforts to win friendships and maintain associations with people.

The five items were: Friendly, Warm, Good-natured, Hospitable, and Sociable.

## 4) Succorance

One frequently seeks the sympathy, protection, love, advice, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support; confides difficulties readily to a receptive person.

This scale used these five items: Appealing-for-help, Help-seeking, Needs-protection, Craves affection, and Confiding.

#### 5) Social Recognition

One desires to be held in high esteem by acquaintances; concerned about reputation and what other people think, works for the approval and recognition of others.

The five adjectives to measure this scale were: Well-behaved, Seeks-recognition, Makes-good-impression, Courteous, and Seeks-respectability.

B. The dominant manager was defined as one primarily characterized as possessing Dominance, as well as those traits that clustered around Dominance.

#### 1) Dominance

One attempts to control environment, and to influence or direct other people; expresses opinions forcefully; enjoys the role of leader and may assume it spontaneously.

The Dominance Scale had five adjectives: Leading, Powerful, Supervising, Controlling, and Dominant.

#### 2) Exhibition

One wants to be the center of attention; enjoys having an audience; engages in behavior which wins the notice of others; may enjoy being dramatic or witty.

The five items were: Entertaining, Exhibitionistic, Colorful, Conspicuous, and Showy.

### 3) Endurance

One is willing to work long hours; doesn't give up quickly on a problem; persevering, even in face of great difficulty; patient and unrelenting in work habits.

This scale used these five items: Has-stamina, Sturdy, Energetic, Persistent, and Cautious.

### 4) Achievement

One aspires to accomplish difficult tasks; maintains high standards and is willing to work toward distant goals; responds positively to competition; willing to put forth effort to attain excellence.

Achievement was measured by these five adjectives: Accomplishing, Achieving, Productive, Striving, and Attaining.

#### 2.1.3. Manager's Trust

Trust was defined by using the central features of trust that Golembiewski and McConkie (1975) isolated. The researchers, in their extensive review of the literature on interpersonal trust in group processes, analyzed in detail the vast conceptual diversity in thought and research on trust. Their conceptualization facilitated a review of the pertinent studies of trust and laid the groundwork for the selection of an appropriate measure of Leader's Trust.

That conceptualization is as follows:

"Trust implies reliance on, or confidence in, some event, process or person.  
Trust reflects an expectation about outcomes based on perceptions and life experiences.

Expectations or decisions about trusting and trustworthiness seem an interface between two realities, one internal and the other external to the person choosing. To illustrate, trust is a function of the congruence between actual and perceived intentions....

Trust implies that something is being risked in the expectation of some gain....

Trust implies some degree of uncertainty as to outcome.

Trust implies hopefulness or optimism as to outcome." (p.133)

Golembiewski and McConkie clarified the Trust concept by noting how common usages implied both overlapping and mutually distinct conceptualizations:

"a person may be said to 'trust', which can imply a state of confidence about a limited range of outcomes, or it may refer to a person's general predisposition or style of relating. Alternatively, an individual may be said to be 'trusting', by which is sometimes meant a broad preposition but which can also refer to some specified behaviours in a specific situation. Or an individual may be called 'trustworthy', as one worthy of the trust of others.... In other usages, to be 'trustworthy' carries the additional implication that one also trusts or is trusting." (p.150)

Golembiewski and McConkie (1975) described the processes associated with trust as a cycle with the following components: initial sufficient trust led to undistorted or descriptive communication with others; this, in turn, led to high feelings of ability to influence others; which led to feelings of being in control, of being committed. They found that trust had a profound effect on learning and development in interpersonal relations, in groups and in large organizations.

Within this context of trust in general, this study focused on specific interpersonal trust, i.e., on the senior managers' trust of their individual subordinate managers. Johnson-George and Swap (1982) noted the importance of focusing, not on generic trust, but rather on an accurate determination of an individual's trust in a specific other person. Among other things, they noted that an individual could be a

very trusting person in general and still, for good and appropriate reasons, not trust certain specific persons.

#### 2.1.4. Manager's Perception of the Subordinates' Skills

Skills were defined as a mixture of abilities, personal characteristics and qualifications, with the common denominator being that these elements embraced a range of items frequently used to describe job requirements (Heller, 1971).

Research studies measured this variable, all very differently, but the findings seemed to converge. Bass and Valenzi (1980), Bass et al. (1975), and Vroom and Jago (1974) focused only on whether or not the managers or subordinates had sufficient information to make a good or effective decision. In the first of two studies in Leana's research (1987), she defined the subordinate's job capability via Vroom and Jago's attribute, i.e., "the extent to which the subordinate had all of the information necessary to make a good decision"; in the second study, she defined job capability as a global evaluation of the overall congruence between the supervisor and the subordinate work objectives. LMX studies spoke of the contribution of the members, especially of the in-group members. That contribution included greater than required expenditure of time and energy on assignments, assumption of greater responsibility, a higher level of performance and a commitment to the unit or organization (Cashman et al., 1976; Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980). Graen and Scandura (1987) spoke generically about growth potential ability.

Consistent with these research findings, the subordinates' level of skills was assessed by measuring perceptions of their technical skills, general ability and personal characteristics. Specifically, it was measured by Heller's (1971) twelve items: knowledge of technical material, contact with people; knowledge of human nature, imagination, self-confidence, responsibility, decisiveness, tact, adaptability, forcefulness, intelligence, and initiative (Heller, 1971; Heller & Wilpert, 1981).

#### 2.1.5. Manager's Perception of the Importance of the Delegable Tasks

Critical to determining how extensively managers delegated was the need to establish explicitly the importance of delegable tasks.

The research has been consistent in stressing the effect of this situational variable (Heller, 1971 & 1973; Heller & Wilpert, 1981; Leana, 1987; Vroom & Jago, 1974), but it was quite divergent in defining the variable. Vroom and Jago (1974) spoke of the "quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another" (p. 784). Leana (1987) used the definition of Vroom and Jago (1974) in both studies she presented. Heller (1971) defined importance in terms of whether the decision was a "matter of concern" to the company, to the subordinate, to both or to neither. Dansereau et al. (1975) did not define "critical tasks" nor "delegation", but, at the same time, concluded that critical tasks were delegated.

This study would establish explicitly the importance of each delegable task. It specifically asked the senior managers to indicate

how important they perceived each delegable task was in regard to each of three named subordinates.

## 2.2. The Research Model

The variables that were studied and the relationship among these variables are presented in Figure 1.

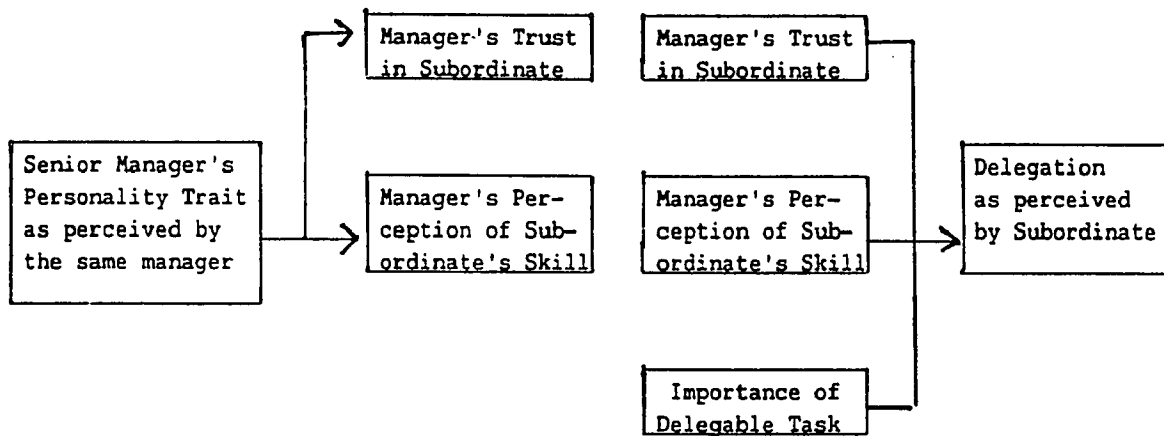


Figure 1: The Research Model

As indicated in this Figure 1, the Research Model had two segments.

On the one hand, as visualized above at the right hand segment of the model, the dependent variable was delegation, which was defined as the senior manager giving the subordinate manager(s) the decision making authority in regard to assigned task(s).

Researchers found that where there was a high level of leader's trust (Bass, 1980) and/or perception of a member having a high level of skills, the manager delegated (Gabarro, 1979; Heller, 1971; Leana,

1987). Therefore, these two variables were considered independent variables. However, some managers never seemed to delegate certain tasks and other managers seemed to delegate only the non-important matters, regardless of the level of trust or perception of the level of skills (Cosier & Aplin, 1980; Heller, 1971; Leana, 1987; Vroom & Jago, 1974). Therefore, the importance of the issue was seen as the third independent variable.

On the other hand, as visualized above on the left hand segment of the research model, the senior managers' perceptions of trust and skill levels in each of their three subordinate managers were considered the dependent variables. Researchers suggested that the senior managers' personality traits of nurturance and dominance correlated with managers' perception of subordinates' capabilities and managers' trust in their subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Kipnis, 1976 & 1987). However, researchers could not ascertain any causal direction in regard to this correlation. Furthermore, the current study was cautiously aware of the possibility that the subordinates' reported delegation and the senior managers' self-reported personality traits could represent objective and subjective dimensions of the same reality. Therefore, this model was separated into two independent segments.

### 2.3. Hypotheses

The literature described in this study presented consistent findings, both implicitly and explicitly, about the positive correlation between manager's trust and manager's perception of subordinates' level of skills and delegation.

Research in the area of trust found that trust covaried with factors that fostered delegation. Trust was found to covary positively with increased acceptance of the influence of others; increased communication; positive liking for parties of the interaction; decreased likelihood to seek to impose control on others and of misinterpreting their behaviors and attitudes; and greater openness to problem-solving (Gibb, 1961; Giffin, 1967; Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975; Zand, 1972)

While the LMX research did not explicitly measure trust, it measured the same host of variables which the literature on trust found to covary with trust. The LMX studies found that trust, competence and delegation correlated positively with each other as long as the members of the in-group were given negotiating latitude, received more accurate information and ongoing manager feedback, received managers' attention to their feelings and managers' assurance of their confidence in the members; and, correspondingly, members gave more time and energy, assumed more responsibilities, were loyal and committed (Cashman et al., 1976; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Liden & Graen, 1980).

More directly and specifically, trust and perceived competence were found to correlate with delegation (Bass, 1980; Leana, 1987). Heller (1971) and Heller and Wilpert (1981) also found that delegation correlated significantly with the senior manager's perception of their subordinate manager's skills.

Consequently, the first and second Hypotheses were formulated as follows:

### Hypothesis I

There is a positive correlation between senior managers' perception of the subordinate's skills and delegation.

### Hypothesis II

There is a positive correlation between senior managers' trust of the subordinate and delegation.

However, little was known about the relationship between trust without skills, or skills without trust, and delegation.

On the one hand, the research on trust implied that there would be little delegation where there was little trust. The lack of trust correlated with factors that militated against delegation -- factors that were descriptive of the out-group in the LMX studies. Those factors included: fearfulness that disclosures would be abused; suspicion of the influence of others; unwillingness to provide accurate and timely information; misinterpretation of the behaviors and attitudes of others. This atmosphere would suggest little delegation.

On the other hand, studies found that the subordinates who had a very high level of skills had leverage to exert significant upward influence and that such skills led the superiors to reassess their preferences and attitudes (Kipnis, 1976; Mowday, 1978; Patchen, 1974; Scandura et al., 1986)

Hence, the following two hypotheses were formulated:

### Hypothesis III

The senior managers' perception of a high level of skills results in less delegation in the low trust situation than in the high trust situation.

### Hypothesis IV

The senior managers' combined perception of high trust and of a low level of skills results in very little delegation.

The importance of the delegable tasks now had to be considered. Cosier and Aplin (1980) suggested that managers might well do better not delegating unimportant matters. In striking contrast, however, Heller (1971), Heller and Wilpert (1981) and Leana (1987) found that managers delegated only when matters were organizationally less important.

Following these findings, it was hypothesized that:

### Hypothesis V

There is a negative correlation between the importance that senior managers' assign to the delegable tasks and the senior managers' delegation of those tasks.

There was a relationship between senior manager's personality traits and both the manager's trust and the extent to which the manager perceived strengths in others. The research of Kipnis (1976, & 1987) and Kipnis et al. (1981) studied the metamorphic effects of power on the

powerholder. They presented a confluence of effects which they called the metamorphic effects of power. On the one hand, successful powerholders often felt that they controlled the persons who were the target of their influence; on the other hand, where powerholders used influence that was more persuasive and respectful of the freedom and autonomy of the target, they were more likely to see the target persons as acting of their own accord.

Kipnis (1976, 1987) and Kipnis et al. (1981) argued that the use of autocratic power -- and even the repeatedly successful use of power -- might change the powerholders' view of themselves and of others. The powerholders believed that they controlled the target persons. When managers attributed the cause for the subordinate's action to be their own control, relations deteriorated. In contrast, when the powerholders' influence was democratic and allowed the target person the autonomy and the freedom to decide, then the manager saw the subordinates as being in charge of their own actions; hence, the relations were positive.

Paralleling Kipnis's model, the research on Leader-Member Exchange also presented variables that seemed to be well encompassed by the dominant/nurturant personality traits. The LMX model presented, at its extremes, two groups (the high and low). In the high LMX group or the in-group, the leader exercised influence without authority; the relationship was categorized by reciprocal influence, mutual respect and trust, shared goals and extracontractual behavior exchange where both leader and member contributed beyond the strict requirements of their defined roles. In contrast, towards the low LMX group or the out-group,

the leader exercised influence based only on authority; here the members experienced only downward influence from the leader, only role defined or contractual behavior exchanges, and social distance from the leader.

Similarly, stemming from the work of Rogers (1951, 1963), Gordon (1955, 1977) drew upon extensive group interviews and group dynamics to outline two kinds of authority: authority stemming from the use of power, which thereby restricted the freedom of the target; and authority stemming from a use of knowledge, ability or expertise in a way that respected the freedom of the other. Associated with this latter use were such reciprocal covariants as managers' trusting subordinates to solve their own problems, managers' acceptance of subordinates' feelings, and managers' insistence that their problems be resolved, but in a manner acceptable to all parties. Not unlike Gibb's (1961) list of perceived trust-generating intentions, the power use that respected freedom was described as non-evaluative, problem oriented, tentative and among equals. In contrast, Gordon described the dominating person as one who created communication roadblocks by ordering, directing, threatening, moralizing, criticizing and questioning.

Perrow's (1977) suggestion implicitly took on a new twist. Perrow spoke about the three levels of control that organizational leaders possessed: (1) direct orders and surveillance, rules and regulations; (2) standardization and specialization; and perhaps most powerfully, (3) control over the premises of behavior and decision making. Perrow, then, suggested that managers would be less fearful of delegation if they became truly aware of the extent of the power they have. The above research, however, suggested that certain managers were indeed aware of,

and used, their powers. These managers did employ the full range of "Behavioral Technology" available to them (to use the phrase of Kipnis, 1987). But where these managers saw themselves as the effective agents, they denegated the members and, in fact, delegated less.

Consequently, more dominant managers differed from less dominant managers in their trust of subordinates and in their perception of subordinate managers' skills. Similarly, more nurturant managers differed from less nurturant managers in their trust of subordinates and in their perception of skills.

#### Hypothesis VI

There is a positive correlation between the senior managers' nurturance and their perception of the subordinate managers' levels of skills.

#### Hypothesis VII

There is a positive correlation between the senior managers' nurturance and their trust of subordinates.

#### Hypothesis VIII

There is a negative correlation between the senior managers' dominance and their perception of the subordinate managers' levels of skills.

### Hypothesis IX

There is a negative correlation between the senior managers' dominance and their trust of subordinates.

The nurturant managers, as opposed to the dominant ones, were more perceptive of events around them, and, hence, more discriminating. To illustrate the point, Bass and Valenzi (1980) found that "the directive manager may be described as the 'happy autocrat' whose style is unrelated to the situations in which he must manage" (p.475). The findings that have been presented concerning the nurturant versus dominant managers suggested that the more nurturant managers and the less dominant managers would differentiate among their members to a much greater degree than would more dominant managers and the less nurturant managers.

Consequently, the contradiction that was found in the literature concerning whether the average leadership style or specific LMXs better described leader behavior might well be resolved by revisiting the importance of personality in Attribution Theory. Hence, the following hypotheses were tested.

### Hypothesis X

The high nurturant senior manager differentiates in hers or his perception of subordinate managers' levels of skills more than the low nurturant senior manager.

Hypothesis XI

The high dominant senior manager differentiates in hers or his perception of subordinate managers' levels of skills less than the low dominant senior manager.

## Chapter 3

### Methods

#### 3.1. The Industry

The study was conducted within the healthcare field -- specifically in the acute care or hospital setting. The hospital setting was appropriate insofar as many research studies in management and organizational behavior had demonstrated the theoretical appropriateness of this setting and had achieved results that were consistent with findings in other areas of business (Flood & Scott, 1978; Georgopoulos & Mann, 1967; JCAH, 1982; Kovner, 1988; Moore & Wood, 1979; Morlock & Nathanson, 1983; Perrow, 1965; Saccardi, 1980 and 1985; Saltman & Young, 1983).

The specific settings for the research were acute care hospitals or medical centers that had at least 200 licensed beds. These hospitals were selected because their size suggested that senior management's delegation of significant tasks was appropriate, but not inevitable (Mintzberg, 1973). This was in contrast to small facilities of less than 200 beds; here a CEO conceivably did not have to delegate since he/she could know and personally manage most hospital matters.

The hypotheses formulated in this study were tested in a field study. This realism increased the strength of the measure of the variables to be studied and made generalizations to other situations more likely than in an experimental study (Kerlinger, 1973).

### 3.2. The Subjects

Some 50 hospital senior managers were surveyed. These senior executives were CEOs or key senior staff members such as COOs and CFOs. These senior officers were exclusive of Director of Personnel and the Director of Public Relations because the questionnaire measuring delegation was more appropriate for hospital line managers rather than such staff positions as Personnel and Public Relations Directors.

In addition, these senior managers who were surveyed were asked to name three of their subordinate managers, whom they considered to be the most important members of their management group. These subordinate managers were also exclusive of Director of Personnel and the Director of Public Relations for the reasons just indicated.

On the one hand, the choice of three subordinate managers was dictated by practical reality. The questionnaire was originally piloted in five hospitals. Once the results were obtained, individual participants were interviewed. It became clear that obtaining results from more than three subordinates would make the senior manager's questionnaire appear too complicated and would make it extremely difficult to obtain complete sets of responses.

On the other hand, the selection by the senior managers of their 3 most important staff members is a self-selection process. Consequently, this study will have to be particularly sensitive to this control weakness (Kerlinger, 1973).

Both senior executives and their subordinates were assured of the total confidentiality of their responses.

### 3.3. Methods and Measurements

A questionnaire distributed to the senior managers obtained demographic information and a self-rated measurement of nurturant and dominant traits. In addition, the senior managers were asked to respond to the following segments of the questionnaire for the three chosen subordinate managers individually: the senior manager's trust in each subordinate, manager's perception of each subordinate's skills, and the senior manager's assessment of the importance of tasks delegable to each subordinate.

Then, the three subordinate managers were asked to complete another questionnaire package. That package contained a questionnaire with demographic items and items that measured each subordinate's perceptions of how her or his boss delegated.

#### 3.3.1. Delegation Questionnaire

Delegation was measured by the Specific Decisions Questionnaire used by Heller (1971) and Heller and Wilpert (1981). Their delegation instrument possessed established reliability and validity and seemed to possess theoretical and practical advantages over other scales -- as is evident from the following review of these other scales.

One of the oldest measures of delegation and one that is still used currently was found in the RAD Scales. Stogdill and Shartle (1948) developed these scales, which they and others (Brown, 1981; Cappello, 1981; Seversky, 1982) had used extensively to measure responsibility (R), authority (A) and delegation (D).

The RAD Scales consisted of six eight-item scales that measured degrees of perceived responsibility, authority and delegation, with each of these three factors being measured by two scales. Stogdill and Shartle (1948) and Stogdill (1957) reported high reliabilities on self-administered responses from individual job occupants in ten public and private organizations. Criterion validity was assessed by Stogdill (1957) by comparing the self-administered responses with descriptions by others; he reported correlations of .70 for Responsibility, .27 for Authority and .33 for Delegation. Stogdill also reported a study correlating manufacturing plant executive salaries with R.A.D. that lent some weight to construct validity, insofar as Stogdill felt it reasonable to presume that senior better-paid management would have more responsibility, authority, and would delegate more. Six military samples also showed positive correlation with levels in the organization.

In their evaluation of the RAD Scales, Lake, Miles and Earle (1973) registered several critical concerns, namely: that there were meager information on the scale's reliability, uncertain validity, and the suspicion that it was based on incomplete theory. In regard to the original development of the scales, they noted that there were both significant positive and negative correlations between subordinates' Authority scores, and superiors' Authority and Delegation scores, depending on the sample:

"Significant relationships ( $p < .05$  or better) between subordinates' and superior's Responsibility scores were obtained only for air stations ( $r = .63$ ) and research command personnel ( $r = .28$ ). Also significant were those between Authority scores for both roles in naval district staff ( $r = -.72$ ) and research staff members ( $r = .48$ ). For the latter, subordinates' Responsibility and Delegation scores correlated with those of superiors' at .38

and  $-.47$ , respectively. Finally, Authority scores of subordinates in the research staff correlated at  $.33$  with Delegation scores of superiors.

The authors' interpretation was that when superiors rate themselves high in Responsibility, their subordinates also evaluate themselves high on Authority and Responsibility. However, they thought that when superiors' self-ratings on Authority are high, subordinates are less able to clearly perceive their own Responsibility and Authority. ...." (Lake, et al., p.288-289).

Notwithstanding Stogdill's and Shartle's interpretations of these results, Lake et al. (1973) noted that the small study group size and the substantial variation in relationship obtained from group to group, could not preclude other ambiguous interpretations. They noted that both the reliability coefficients between equivalent forms of the RAD scales and the test-retest reliabilities reported were not sufficiently high to permit accurate measurement of individual behavior; and that evidence of validity was found to be weak and inconsistent from organization to organization. The authors questioned whether the theory might not be incomplete, given the relatively high and unaccounted for intercorrelations obtained among the R.A.D. variables. They suggested that norms were needed to clarify the validity and applicability of the scales.

In light of these reservations, it was interesting to note that Seversky (1982) used Comrey's (1970) generic Trust scale and the Expressed Control Behavior Scales of FIRO-B along with the RAD Scales to measure delegation among school supervisors. However, the RAD Scales' scores were unable to differentiate high from low delegation situations; most of the supervisors were perceived to be "medium" range delegators. In contrast, the delegation questionnaire that this study proposed to use had been found to differentiate significantly; hence, the delegation findings should be more promising.

In an approach departing from the R.A.D. scales' generic measurement of delegation, researchers seemed to have more success with questionnaires measuring delegation via specific job or task items (Cuba & Milbourn, 1982; Heller, 1971; Heller & Wilpert, 1981; Reimann, 1973; Reimann & Negandhi, 1974; Vroom & Jago, 1974). Heller (1971), for example, measured the amount of power sharing found in twelve specific decision situations about which most senior managers in any kind of business would be likely to make decisions. For each situation, managers indicated which of five alternative decision making methods they used.

Reimann (1973) took a similar approach insofar as he sought to assess the delegation of authority also by using a list of 23 specific management decisions. But he measured delegation in terms of a dichotomous self-report. Likewise, Cuba and Milbourn (1982), in their study of delegation in small businesses, used nine specific job tasks commonplace to the small business, and asked small business owners to indicate whether the task was done by the owners themselves, by a certain employee or an outside expert, or done by everyone from time to time.

Vroom and Jago (1974; 1978) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) devised and used 48 standardized problems or cases, 24 for group and 24 for individual problems. These cases incorporated several combinations of seven dichotomous situational attributes that they hypothesized would influence which decision process would be used. They also used a spectrum of leadership styles not unlike Heller's Influence-Power Continuum, ranging from autocratic, to consultative, to group or

participative, to delegative (although several of their studies exclude the delegation situation). Field (1979), however, raised several serious methodological and theoretical questions in his critique of the Vroom-Yetton Model. The principal methodological threat to the model's internal validity was the fact that it depended on self-reported data from managers who could very well have reported the use of rational decision processes regardless of actual behavior. Experimenter effects could not be ruled out especially because the authors first exposed the subjects to various aspects of the very same problem solving model during their management development program and then administered the questionnaire to those subjects. The standardization from the 128 case total population to the 48 cases actually used eliminated the possibility of testing all the theoretical relationships. Finally, Field found as a theoretical alternative a more parsimonious use of the Vroom-Yetton model whereby only four situational attributes and two decision processes were necessary.

The following conclusions stemmed from the above analysis of the principal instruments used for the measurement of delegation:

- a. The generic RAD Scales might possess reliability, validity and construct problems. These flaws might have contributed to the inability of several recent studies using the scales to sustain proposed hypotheses (Brown, 1981; Cappello, 1981; Seversky, 1982).
- b. Field's criticism of the Vroom-Yetton questionnaire raised several methodological and theoretical questions, which cautioned the researcher about the use of the questionnaire in a study such as this one.

c. What seemed to enjoy face validity and what seemed to be more successfully employed as a measure of delegation was the listing of specific tasks. While these tasks had been rated according to the specific yes-delegation/no-delegation designation, it seemed more explanatory to measure them along an influence/power continuum as Heller (1971) did.

Based on the above review of existing instruments, delegation was measured in this study by the Specific Decisions Questionnaire developed by Heller (1971). Heller (1971) reported pretesting the questionnaire on a variety of Americans. Test-retest reliability with a seven week interval was .82 ( $N = 32$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Reasonable construct validity was obtained on the assumption that there would be predictably different results among 4 groups (student leaders; senior managers; first line and second line supervisors) and, indeed, the profile scores were significantly different. Construct validation was assessed via cluster analysis. Since his study did not require imputations of causality, the computerized BC TRY system of cluster analysis was used.

The Specific Decision Questionnaire, which was filled out by the 3 subordinate managers, contained twelve items. Each item was scored along a Methods of Making Decisions scale from 1 to 5 categories, plus a Not Applicable category. Two examples illustrate the questionnaire.

A copy of this Delegation Scale is found in the Delegation Questionnaire section of Appendix B, Questionnaire for Subordinate Managers.

OWN DECISION NOT EXPLAINED	OWN DECISION EXPLAINED	PRIOR CON- SULTATION	JOINT DECISION	DELE- GATION	NOT APPLI- CABLE
-------------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------	-----------------	---------------------

1. The decision to increase your salary.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a\_\_\_\_\_
2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for you.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a\_\_\_\_\_

### 3.3.2. Perception of the Subordinates' Skills

Senior manager's perception of subordinate managers' skills was measured by the twelve item Job Performance Requirements Form. This questionnaire was used extensively by Heller (1971) and Heller and Wilpert (1981).

Heller (1971) reported pretesting this questionnaire form with students, academic staff and two groups of eight senior managers. He reported high face validity via feedback discussion. Construct validation was assessed via cluster analysis. Since his study did not seek to impute causality, the computerized BC TRY system of cluster analysis was used.

Heller and Wilpert (1981) report alpha-coefficients of internal reliability ( $r = 0.87$ ) that indicated high internal homogeneity for this form.

The Job Performance Requirements Form had twelve items, which are scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The following are examples of the form:

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOUR JOB REQUIREMENTS DIFFER FROM THIS FIRST SUBORDINATE'S JOB REQUIREMENTS? (Differences in pay, status, etc., do not form part of this enquiry.) For each item, please use the following response scale.

1	2	3	4	5
<u>very much more</u>	<u>more</u>	<u>about the same</u>	<u>somewhat less</u>	<u>much less</u>

---

DOES YOUR JOB REQUIRE MORE OR LESS (THAN YOUR SUBORDINATE'S JOB):

1. detailed knowledge of technical matters?  
     2. close contact with people?

As might have been noted in a careful reading of these sample items, the senior manager was asked to focus on the nature of the jobs, rather than on the qualities of the persons. However, Heller (1971) found that this questionnaire form spoke to the overall nature of skill perception between senior manager and subordinate. He found that the senior managers' "skill differentials between themselves and their immediate subordinates" affected their sharing of decision making (1971, p. 76).

Two additional "competence" items were added to this form in order to expand on the single "KNOWLEDGE OF TECHNICAL MATTERS" item. These additions were made because of the heavy emphasis research findings place on the effect of competence on delegation (Bass, 1980; Kipnis, 1976; Leana, 1987; Mowday, 1978; Patchen, 1974). The added items were MANAGEMENT ABILITY and MANAGERIAL EXPERTISE. With the addition of these two items, the alpha-coefficients of internal reliability, based on the averaged skill scores for the 111 cases in this study, remained high ( $r = 0.84$ ), which is indicative of the same high internal homogeneity for this form as for the original form.

This questionnaire (from Heller & Wilpert, 1981), along with the two additional competence items, is reproduced in the Skills section of Appendix A, Questionnaire for CEO/Senior Manager.

### 3.3.3. Importance of Delegated Task

The importance of the delegation items was measured via a Likert-type scoring of the degree of importance of the same twelve specific decision items that made up the Delegation questionnaire (Heller, 1971). This scoring was done by hospital senior managers. A sampling of two of these items follows:

PLEASE INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT YOU FEEL EACH ITEM IS by ranking it on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 meaning "not important at all" and 10 meaning "extremely important".

- |   | -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |                     |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|---------------------|
| Not important at all  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10              |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Extremely important |
| ___ 1. The decision to increase the salary of this subordinate.                       |                                   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |                     |
| ___ 2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for your subordinate. |                                   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |                     |

These questionnaire items were the same as the delegation items (Heller, 1971). They can be found in the Importance of Delegated Items section of Appendix A, Questionnaire for CEO/Manager.

### 3.3.4. Nurturant and Dominant Personality Traits

The Personality Traits were measured by 5 adjective items for each trait in the Personality Adjective Inventory (PAI) of Retzlaff et al. (1986).

Retzlaff et al. (1986) sought to develop a psychometrically sound adjective inventory that followed the lead of the Personality Research Form (PRF) of Douglas Jackson (1984) and shared PRF's links to the strong, single personality theory of John Murray (1938). However, in developing PAI, they looked for a shorter and quicker, but, reportedly, no less reliable measure of personality. This overcame what was a major problem with the PRF under certain circumstances, namely, that, even in its shortest PRF-E form, it had 352 items and took from 40 to 60 minutes to complete. In this research study, for example, the length of the PRF and the time required to complete it made it totally impractical.

PAI contained five adjectives for each of the 20 Murray need-press traits for a total of 100 nonoverlapping items and was scored on a 7-point Likert scale.

Retzlaff et al. (1986) reported excellent internal consistency, with reliability coefficients that ranged from .58 to .89. They reported very good results in the four-week test-retest analysis, with stability coefficients that ranged from .63 to .91. They assessed convergent validity by correlating congruent PAI and PRF scales and reported moderate-to-impressive correlations between the PAI scores and PRF's. Validities ranged from .24 to .73. They noted importantly that the six PAI scales (including one trait used in this study, Play) that had low correlations with their PRF counterparts were the same traits that proved most difficult to measure reliably across several PRF validation studies.

This study used 45 of the PAI's 100 items to measure 9 traits, on the basis of the data provided by Retzlaff et al. (1986) and additional

relevant, unpublished data related to their study and provided to this researcher by Dr. Paul Retzlaff. Scale interrelation tables and factor analyses identified the four traits that clustered around Nurturance and the three that clustered around Dominance. Overall, these 9 trait scales scored particularly well on the reliability, stability and convergent validity with corresponding PRF scales.

Sample items follow:

---

Please rate the following adjectives as they describe you currently.

Rate them on a 1 to 7 scale, with 1 meaning "Not at all" and 7 meaning "Very much".

Enter your rating directly in front of each adjective.

|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Not at all    1   2   3   4   5   6   7    Very much

---

\_\_\_ Accomplishing  
 \_\_\_ Friendly  
 \_\_\_ Leading

\_\_\_ Merry  
 \_\_\_ Seek recognition  
 \_\_\_ Help seeking

\_\_\_ Persistent  
 \_\_\_ Conspicuous  
 \_\_\_ Caring

---

Please rate the following adjectives as you would desire to be described (the way that you would like to be).

Rate them on a 1 to 7 scale, with 1 meaning "Not at all" and 7 meaning "Very much".

Enter your rating directly in front of each adjective.

|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Not at all    1   2   3   4   5   6   7    Very much

---

\_\_\_ Accomplishing  
 \_\_\_ Friendly  
 \_\_\_ Leading

\_\_\_ Merry  
 \_\_\_ Seek recognition  
 \_\_\_ Help seeking

\_\_\_ Persistent  
 \_\_\_ Conspicuous  
 \_\_\_ Caring

All these personality adjective trait scales are reproduced in the Dominance and Nurturance Scales section of Appendix A, Questionnaire for CEO/Senior Manager.

### 3.3.5. Senior Manager's Trust in His/Her Subordinate Manager

The Leader's Trust was measured by the predictability and dependability items in the Trust Scale of Rempel, Holmes and Zanna (1985).

Their Trust Scale initially contained seven predictability items and nine dependability items. Two item analyses, corrected item-total correlations and factor analysis, were used as guidelines to refine the scales. Items were eliminated that did not correlate at a level of .30 or greater with any subscale (which items also had factor loadings of less than .40), or that failed to discriminate adequately between subscales. The resultant scales included six predictability and five dependability items. This study used ten of those 11 items, since one item was inapplicable to the business setting.

The authors reported an overall Cronbach alpha for the Trust Scale of .81, with subscale reliabilities of .72 and .70 for dependability and predictability, respectively. There was an expected, moderate correlation between subscales, with  $r = .28$ ,  $p < .05$  for dependability and predictability.

The Trust Scale items were scored on a Likert-type 7-point scale as is seen from the following two examples:

For each statement below, please use the following scale to describe your feelings about this staff member:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

---

- \_\_\_ 1. I am never certain that my subordinate won't do something that will embarrass me.
- \_\_\_ 2. My subordinate is very unpredictable. I never know how he/she is going to act from one day to the next.

This Trust scale is presented in Manager's Trust section of Appendix A, Questionnaire for CEO/Senior Manager.

#### 3.4. Data Collection

Forty-eight questionnaire sets, which consisted of 1 segment for the senior manager and 3 segments for each of three subordinates, were personally delivered or mailed to CEOs or Senior Hospital Managers who said they would consider participating in this study. Follow-up phone calls and/or letters were sent to those who did not respond after a period of several weeks. The CEO or senior manager who participated in the study had been asked to give the subordinate questionnaire segments to their three most important staff members. Either the return receipt of the CEO's completed questionnaire or the receipt of one or two subordinate managers' completed questionnaires indicated that some or all subordinate managers were slow in completing the questionnaire. At that point, phone calls and/or letters went to those subordinate managers who had not responded after a period of several weeks. Sample copies of these letters are provided in Appendix C.

A total of 48 questionnaire sets were distributed. 39 sets of results were finally received, establishing a rate of return of 81%. However, two sets were seriously incomplete and could not be used at all. Five others had improperly completed subordinate sections, but did have complete Senior Manager sections. Hence, 37 sets of responses (77%) could be used when the data to be analyzed consisted solely of the Senior Managers' self-reported responses. However, only 32 sets (67%) could be used for cross-level comparisons between Senior Managers' and subordinate managers' responses.

Consequently, the data analysis was based on 32 sets of responses when superior and subordinate responses were compared; this yielded 96 cases when the superior's perceptions of each of three subordinates were matched with the delegation scores from each of those three subordinates. Similarly, there were 37 cases when only the data from the senior managers was analyzed, and this yielded 111 cases when the three individual subordinate scores on trust, skill and importance were examined.

Table 1 summarizes the background information on the 37 senior executives who were the subjects of the current study. The table presents the number of senior executives by job title, by sex and location. In addition, the detailed Appendix D lists, for each executive, the sex, whether the executive worked at a private or public hospital, the position or job title, the location of the hospital, the numbers of years of healthcare experience the executive had, the number of months in the present job and the number of staff members reporting to the executive.

The sample consisted of 23 CEOs, 10 COOs or CFOs, and 4 senior executives with other titles. There were four female senior executives, including 3 CEOs and 1 COO. Seventeen of these senior hospital executives were from New York City. Nine were from other areas of New York State, from Long Island to Buffalo. The remaining 11 were from California, Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, New Jersey (2 CEOs), Ohio, Texas and Washington.

Table 1: Summary of Background Information  
on the Subjects (N = 37)

Job Title / Sex / Place:	New York City	N.Y. State	Other	Total
CEO Male	6	7	7	20
CEO Female	2	1	-	3
COO/CFO Male	5	-	4	9
COO/CFO Female	1	-	-	1
Other Titles Male	3	1	-	4
Other Titles Female				
Totals	17	9	11	37

### 3.5. Summary of the Research Tools

Table 2 provides a data matrix, showing each of the instruments used, their respective respondents, the number of items in each segment and the method of scoring each item or segment. The full questionnaire can be found in the appendix.

The Delegation score was the specific percentage of time the Delegation Style was used. For each item, reported delegation ranged

from 0% to 100%. The Delegation Scores were an Average Delegation Score over the 12 Items, an item-by-item Delegation percentage and subsequent Delegation Factor Scores.

The perceived importance of each of the twelve delegable tasks was measured by a ten point scale. Analysis focused on both the importance of each of the twelve items as well as on an overall average importance score.

The nine personality traits were each measured by five items, hence 45 items from the PAI were used. Each item was scored on a five point Likert-type scale. Each trait score was the summed score of the five specific items. In turn, certain trait scores were averaged for personality clusters.

Each of the 14 Skill items was scored on a five point scale. Since a score of "3" indicated skills equal to the senior manager, the skill score was the Average Skill Score minus 3 ( $\text{Skill Score} = x - 3$ ). A negative score indicated the subordinate's tasks needed less skill than the manager's; a positive score indicated the subordinate's tasks needed more skill than the manager's.

Table 2 presents a summary of the research tools.

In addition to the specified scales used, several demographic items were collected. These items included: age in years, length of time in healthcare administration, length of time in the company, time in this position, length of time the respective senior manager and subordinate manager have worked together, and span of control (the number of

immediate subordinates) for both managers. Much of this demographic data is included in the background information presented in Appendix D.

Table 2 : Summary of the Research Tools

Instrument	Respondent	Items	Score
Demographics	Senior Manager	6	
Demographics	Subordinate Manager	5	
Demographic	Senior Manager	1 for each of 3 subordinates	
Personality Trait	Senior Manager	90 items: 45 actual and 45 desired	18 Trait Scores: 9 actual and 9 desired
Trust	Senior Manager	30 items: 10 for each of 3 subordinates	average score for each subordinate
Skills Perception	Senior Manager	42 items: 14 for each subordinate	average score for each subordinate
Delegation	Subordinate Manager	36 Items: 12 for each subordinate	item scores; average; and 3 factors
Importance of Delegable tasks	Senior Manager	Same 36 Delega- tion Items: 12 for each subor- dinate	item scores; average; and 3 factors

### 3.6. Summary of the Data Analyses Performed

The SPSS-X Data Analysis System was used to analyze all data. Files were created and analytic commands were performed by reference to the SPSS-X User's Guide, 3rd Edition (1988). The following information

summarizes the commands that were used. In the next chapter, Research Findings, additional specific data analysis information is noted.

Initially, data was proofed and reviewed, using the LIST command. COMPUTE commands were used to sum the score from each of the five specific adjectives that made up each personality trait. For skill, trust, overall delegation and overall importance scores, COMPUTE was also used to average the score obtained from all the items in the respective scales. Later, when factor analysis identified separate factors for both delegation and the personality traits, COMPUTE was again used to calculate an average factor score, for each factor, based on the average obtained from all the scale items that loaded on that particular factor.

DESCRIPTIVES command (with subcommands of: Statistics = Mean STDDEV Variance Range) was used to summarize and describe the variables that were studied. With this command, the mean, standard deviation, variance and range were computed for all the variables listed in Table 2 as well as for the individual scale items in the case of delegation and importance.

FACTOR Analyses were performed on both the delegation items and the personality traits. The SPSS-X's default settings were employed. The factor analysis was deemed appropriate because the descriptive statistics on these variables suggested such analysis and because the original scale authors used either a priori or statistically derived factors in their data analysis.

The relationship between independent and dependent variables was examined via Pearson-r Correlation Analysis. CORRELATIONS were performed, with the subcommands of Statistic = All, Print = Twotail. The results of two-tail test of significance of Pearson Correlation Coefficients were reported in Chapter 5. The following relationships were examined: skill and trust with delegation, importance with delegation, delegation with personality trait factors, and personality trait factors with skill and trust.

T-Test was used as the most parsimonious means to test the difference in the standard deviations among skill scores between high and low personality groups. Specifically, T-TEST commands were executed, with the subcommand of Groups = Traits. The two groups or traits that were compared were the high and low personality trait factor groups. The IF command was employed to sort the sample into high and low groups, specifying greater than (GT), or less than (LT), the mean score obtained for each personality trait factor.

Chapter 4  
Research Findings

This chapter summarizes the research findings.

Hypothesis I

There is a positive correlation between senior managers' perception of the subordinate's skills and delegation.

The results of the analyses of this first hypothesis are presented in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

Table 3 presented the means and standard deviations of the delegation scores for the 12 delegable tasks. It showed that Task 1 was never delegated and Task 11 was virtually never delegated. Tasks 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, and 10 had mean delegation scores that varied from 52.9 to 75.8; Tasks 2, 5, 8 and 12 had mean scores ranging from 7.9 to 26.2. These scores suggested that the delegable tasks might have been better analyzed in terms of factors as opposed to an overall Delegation Score.

Factor Analysis was performed on the delegation scores for the 10 delegable tasks, excluding the two tasks virtually never delegated. The factor extraction technique used was principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The following criteria were set, by default, for extraction and rotation: FACTORS, the number of factors to be extracted, were the number of eigenvalues greater than 1; ITERATE = 25 iterations for the factor solution; ECONVERGE = 0.001; RCONVERGE = 0.0001.

As Table 4 evidenced, the Delegation Tasks did fall into three factors, once the two items that were never or virtually never delegated were eliminated.

Table 3  
Means and Standard Deviation of the Delegation Scores  
for the Twelve Delegable Tasks (N=96)

Item or Task	Means	s.d.
1. Your salary	0.00	0.00
2. No. of your employees	7.917	25.128
3. Hire your employee	62.708	46.803
4. Style of your letter	75.781	42.373
5. Purchase of equipment	26.229	41.112
6. Promote your employee	52.865	47.377
7. Merit pay to your employee	53.490	48.052
8. Reallocate money to your departments	19.375	36.823
9. Fire your employees	58.438	47.308
10. Change your operating procedure	56.51	44.81
11. Assign you to different job, same salary, same boss	3.125	17.491
12. Setting your goals/standards	14.844	33.383

Table 4  
Factor Analysis of the Delegation Scores  
for the Ten Delegable Tasks (N = 96)

Item or Task	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2. No. of your employees	.18374	.68711	-.06422
3. Hire your employee	.70999	.04944	.05730
4. Style of your letter	.68224	.02681	.14310
5. Purchase of equipment	.13479	.50679	.55490
6. Promote your employee	.81313	.05170	.23801
7. Merit pay to your employee	.73765	.14814	-.12426
8. Reallocate money to your departments	.00135	.77070	.05339
9. Fire your employees	.84949	.10791	.09173
10. Change your operating procedure	.65447	.21815	.10100
12. Setting your goals/standards	.13374	-.08260	.89687
Eigenvalue	3.7053	1.2796	1.0602
Percent of Variance	37.1	12.8	10.6
Cumulative Percentage	37.1	49.8	60.5

Varimax Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

There were three definite Delegation Factors. Factor 1 included Tasks 3, 4, 6, 7, 9 and 10. Since this factor included tasks that represent supervisory responsibilities of the subordinate, it was called the Delegation of Supervisory Tasks, or simply Supervisory Delegation. Factor 2 included Tasks 2, 5, and 8. These tasks could impact other departments; hence, this factor was called the Delegation of Lateral Tasks, or Lateral Delegation. The Third Factor included Task 12 and, at times, Task 5. Task 12 could be considered as a "joint" Senior Manager/Subordinate task. Similarly, Task 5 could be, at times, a joint undertaking of superior and subordinate. Hence, this third factor, comprised of these two tasks, was called the Delegation of Bilevel Tasks, or simply Bilevel Delegation. Subsequent analyses tested variables against the percentage of delegation for each task (which was

usually labeled Item by Item Delegation), the Overall Score for all twelve items, and the scores for each of the three factors, as appropriate.

Table 5  
Correlation (Pearson r) of Skill with  
Delegation Scores (N = 96)

Variable / Del:	Overall	Supervisory	Lateral	Bilevel
Skill	.2638 **	.2329 *	.1671	.1226

\*\* =  $p < .01$  ; \* =  $p < .05$  . Both are two-tail tests.

The results of a two-tail test of significance of Pearson Correlation Coefficients, presented in Table 5, yielded two significant correlations. Skill correlated with the Overall Delegation Score ( $r = .26$ ;  $p < .01$ ) ; skill also correlated with Supervisory Delegation ( $r = .23$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Consequently, Hypothesis I was partially confirmed insofar as there was a significant correlation between skill and the two Delegation Scores (Overall and Supervisory). However, there was no significant correlation between skill and either Lateral or Bilevel Delegation. Where the correlations were significant, the coefficients of determinations were very small, being .07 for the correlation of skill with overall delegation and .054 for the correlation of skill with Supervisory Delegation. Consequently, only a small portion of the variation between the independent variable and the dependent variable was accounted for.

Hypothesis II

There is a positive correlation between senior managers' trust of the subordinate and delegation.

The results of the analysis of this second hypothesis are presented in Table 6.

Table 6  
Correlation (Pearson r) of Trust with  
Delegation Scores (N = 96)

Variable / Del:	Overall	Supervisory	Lateral	Bilevel
Trust	-.0268	-.0558	.0440	-.0191

No correlation reached significance of at least  $p < .05$ .

As presented in Table 6, the results of a two-tail test of significance of Pearson Correlation Coefficients yielded no significant correlations. Consequently, Hypothesis II was rejected because trust did not correlate with either Overall Delegation Scores or with any of the three Delegation Factors.

### Hypothesis III

The senior managers' perception of a high level of skills results in less delegation in the low trust situation than in the high trust situation.

The mean trust score was 6.29 out of a maximum score of 7. The range of scores was limited to 2.8 out of a total possible range of 7, and the variance of 0.44 was very small. Consequently, Hypothesis III could not be tested because it was not possible to separate trust scores into high trust and low trust scores. All trust scores were skewed to the upper, or high, trust score range.

### Hypothesis IV

The senior managers' combined perception of high trust and of a low level of skills results in very little delegation.

Since all trust scores were high, the findings of this hypothesis centered on the perception of high or low skills in the subordinate. In this regard, as is evident from Table 5, skill correlated positively and significantly with the Overall Delegation Score ( $r = .26$ ;  $p < .01$ ) and the Supervisory Delegation Score ( $r = .23$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Consequently, Hypothesis IV was supported insofar as positive and significant correlations were found between skill and delegation. Where there was little skill among highly trusted subordinates, there was little delegation.

### Hypothesis V

There is a negative correlation between the importance that senior managers' assign to the delegable tasks and the senior managers' delegation of those tasks.

The results of the analyses of this fifth hypothesis are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

Tables 7 and 8 present the correlations between importance of task and delegation of task. There were no significant correlations between the importance of the delegable tasks and the delegation of those tasks. This was true on an item by item correlation as in Table 7. It was also true on both an overall score basis and an analysis of the three factors that made up the delegable tasks, as evident from Table 8.

Consequently, there was no correlation between importance and delegation. Hypothesis V was rejected.

Table 7  
Correlations (Pearson r) of Importance of Each of 12 Tasks  
with the Corresponding Delegation of Each Task (N = 96)

Importance of Task	Correlation with Corresponding Delegation of Task
1. Your salary	.0000
2. No. of your employees	-.0365
3. Hire your employee	-.1270
4. Style of your letter	.0440
5. Purchase of equipment	.0052
6. Promote your employee	.0875
7. Merit pay to your employee	-.1078
8. Reallocate money to your departments	-.0659
9. Fire your employees	-.0930
10. Change your operating procedure	-.1080
11. Assign you to different job, same salary, same boss	-.0766
12. Setting your goals/standards	-.0165

No correlation reached significance of at least  $p < .05$ .

Table 8  
Correlations (Pearson r) of Importance Scores with  
Delegation Scores (N =96)

Importance / Delegation:	Overall	Supervisory	Lateral	Bilevel
Overall Score	-.0499	-.0581	-.0405	-.0152
Imp. Supervisory	-.0802	-.0947	-.0455	-.0148
Imp. Lateral Tasks	.0559	.0622	-.0078	-.0125
Imp. Bilevel Tasks	.0613	.0609	.0721	-.0147

No correlation reached significance of at least  $p < .05$ .

Hypothesis VI

There is a positive correlation between the senior managers' nurturance and their perception of the subordinate managers' levels of skills.

Hypothesis VII

There is a positive correlation between the senior managers' nurturance and their trust of subordinates.

The results of the analyses of the sixth and seventh hypotheses are presented in Tables 9, 10 and 11.

Table 9  
Descriptive Statistics for Personality Trait Scores (N = 37)

Variable	Mean	s.d.	Variance	Range
Achievement	29.081	3.320	11.021	14.000
Affiliation	28.324	3.979	15.836	16.000
Dominance	26.162	3.540	12.592	14.000
Endurance	29.892	3.239	10.488	14.000
Exhibition	17.432	6.318	39.919	30.000
Nurturance	29.000	3.018	9.111	12.000
Play	19.297	8.010	64.159	34.000
Social Recognition	26.459	4.052	16.422	20.000
Succorance	18.189	5.887	34.658	25.000

As is evident from Table 9, Achievement, Affiliation, Endurance and Nurturance were the strongest traits with mean scores ranging from 28.3 to 29.9 and with a narrow standard deviation ranging from 3.01 to 3.98. Dominance and Social Recognition scores followed thereafter with average

scores of 26.2 and 26.5, respectively, and with similarly close standard deviations of 3.5 and 4.1. The remaining three traits, Exhibition, Play and Succorance, had lower average scores and larger standard deviations. This data pointed to the analysis of these personality traits in terms of personality factors.

Factor Analysis was performed on the personality trait scores. The factor extraction technique used was principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The following criteria were set by default and, hence, used for extraction and rotation: FACTORS, the number of factors to be extracted, were the number of eigenvalues greater than 1; ITERATE = 25 iterations for the factor solution; ECONVERGE = 0.001; RCONVERGE = 0.0001.

Table 10 presents the results of the factor analysis of the 9 personality traits.

Three groupings emerged from the factor analysis of the 9 personality traits. The first factor included the four personality traits of Affiliation, Nurturance, Play and Succorance. This factor, called the Nurturance Factor, included four of the five traits originally expected to define the Nurturance trait. In contrast, the second and third factors were very revealing insofar as they confirmed the two different Dominance Factors that Retzlaff et al. (1986) found in their factor analysis of two different samplings. The second factor included five traits: Dominance, Exhibition, Play, Social Recognition and Succorance. Because of the large weights of Exhibition and Social Recognition in this factor, it was called Person Dominance. The third

factor consisted of three traits: Achievement, Dominance and Endurance. This factor was labeled Goal Dominance.

Table 10  
Factor Analysis of the Nine Personality Traits (N = 37)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Achievement	.2791	.0906	.8524
Affiliation	.9294	-.0102	.0666
Dominance	-.3098	.5677	.6543
Endurance	.0856	.0801	.9343
Exhibition	.0755	.9135	.1359
Nurturance	.7654	.2264	.2635
Play	.6663	.6083	-.0982
Social Recognition	.4024	.6688	.2827
Succorance	.5887	.5712	.0452
Eigenvalue	4.0544	1.9062	1.2060
Percent of Variance	45.0	21.2	13.4
Cumulative Percentage	45.0	66.2	79.6

Varimax Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

Table 11  
Correlations (Pearson r) of Nurturance  
with Skill and Trust (N = 111)

	Skill	Trust	
Nurturance	.0955	-.1845	8

No correlation reached significance of at least  $p < .05$ .

Table 11 presents the correlations of Nurturance with skill and trust. Hypothesis VI was not supported. There was no significant correlation between Nurturance and skill. Hypothesis VII was also not

supported. There was no significant correlation between Nurturance and trust.

#### Hypothesis VIII

There is a negative correlation between the senior managers' dominance and their perception of the subordinate managers' levels of skills.

#### Hypothesis IX

There is a negative correlation between the senior managers' dominance and their trust of subordinates.

The results of the analyses of the eighth hypothesis and the ninth hypothesis are presented in Table 12.

Table 12  
Correlations (Pearson r) of Both Person Dominance and  
Goal Dominance with Skill and Trust (N = 111)

	Skill	Trust
Person Dominance	.1153	-.2439 **
Goal Dominance	-.1630	.1018

\*\* =  $p < .01$

Table 12 presents the correlations of Dominance with both skill and trust. Insofar as Dominance consisted of two factors, Person Dominance and Goal Dominance, each factor was correlated with the two dependent

variables. Hypothesis VIII was not supported. There were no significant correlations between either Dominance factors and skill scores. Hypothesis IX was partially supported. There was a significant and negative correlation between Person Dominance and trust ( $r = -.24$ ;  $p < .01$ ). The more person-dominant the manager was, the less that manager perceived trust in the subordinates. However, there was no significant correlation between Goal Dominance and trust. Furthermore, while the correlation between Person Dominance and trust was significantly negative, as predicted, its coefficient of determination was only .058.

#### Hypothesis X

The high nurturant senior manager differentiates in her or his perception of subordinate managers' levels of skills more than the low nurturant senior manager.

The results of the analysis of this tenth hypothesis are presented in Table 13.

In this table as in Table 14, the standard deviations were used. For each of the 37 senior managers, the standard deviation among the skill scores from each of that manager's three subordinates was computed. Each of the three trait factors was then divided into a high and low factor, using the mean for that trait factor as the dividing point. A T-Test was used to test the difference in the standard deviations between the high and low groups.

Table 13  
T-Test Between the High and Low Nurturance Grouping for the  
Standard Deviations Among Subordinates' Skill Scores (N = 37)

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean Std Dev.	T Value	Degrees of Freedom	Two-Tail Prob.
Standard Deviations Among the 3 Subordinates' Skill Scores:					
Group 1					
High Nurturance	20	0.2743	0.20	34.11	0.84
Group 2					
Low Nurturance	17	0.2611			

The tenth hypothesis was not corroborated. There was no significant differentiation between the high Nurturant managers and the low Nurturant managers in regard to their perception of their three subordinates' skill scores.

#### Hypothesis XI

The high dominant senior manager differentiates in her or his perception of subordinate managers' levels of skills less than the low dominant senior manager.

The results of the analyses of this eleventh hypothesis are presented in Tables 14.

Table 14  
T-Test Between the High and Low Dominance Grouping for the  
Standard Deviations Among Subordinates' Skill Scores (N = 37)

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean Std Dev.	T Value	Degrees of Freedom	Two-Tail Prob.
Standard Deviations Among the 3 Subordinates' Skill Scores:					
Group 1					
High Person Dominance	18	0.2498	-0.56	32.59	0.581
Group 2					
Low Person Dominance	19	0.2857			
Standard Deviations Among the 3 Subordinates' Skill Scores:					
Group 1					
High Goal Dominance	20	0.1984	-2.43	26.27	0.022 *
Group 2					
Low Goal Dominance	17	0.3504			

\* =  $p < .05$ .

Insofar as Dominance consisted of two factors, Person Dominance and Goal Dominance, T-Tests were done for the high and low Goal Dominance groups as well as for the high and low Person Dominance groups. This eleventh hypothesis was partially supported. There was no significant differentiation between the high Person Dominant managers and the low Person Dominant managers in regard to their perception of their three subordinates' skill scores. However, the high Goal Dominant managers demonstrated significantly less differentiation among their subordinates' skill scores than the low Goal Dominant managers ( $t = -2.43$ ;  $p < .05$ ).

## Chapter 5

### Discussion

#### 5.1. Summary

This research studied delegation and explored why managers delegated. In suggesting some of the determinants of delegation, the research literature also implied that the subjective perceptions of senior managers might be even more important than objective measurements. Furthermore, research suggested that personality traits could significantly influence those subjective perceptions.

Consequently, from a review of the literature, four research questions emerged. First was the question as to whether or not senior managers delegated important matters. The second question asked whether delegation was dependent on senior managers' trust in their subordinates and on their perception of the subordinates' level of skills. The third question was whether nurturant senior managers differed from dominant managers in their trust of their subordinates and their perceptions of the subordinates' level of skills. Fourth and finally, it was asked whether those personality traits of dominance and nurturance might be the variables that explained why some managers established more varied patterns of leader-member exchanges and why other managers tended to treat individual subordinates more uniformly.

Twelve managerial tasks were considered. Of these twelve, two were virtually never delegated. In fact, the first task, the decision to increase the subordinate's salary, was never delegated. The second task

was the decision to assign the subordinate to a different job at the same salary. This task was virtually never delegated.

Six managerial tasks, however, were delegated more than 50% of the time, on the average. These tasks consisted of the following:

- Task 3: the decision to hire one of several applicants to work for the subordinate
- Task 4: the decision regarding the style and lay-out of a typed letter in the subordinate's office
- Task 6: the decision to promote one of the subordinate's employees
- Task 7: the decision to give a merit pay increase to one of the subordinate's employees
- Task 9: the decision to discharge one of the subordinate's employees
- Task 10: the decision to change one of the operating procedures of the subordinate.

The following four tasks were delegated, but no more than 26% of the time, on the average:

- Task 2: the decision to increase the number of employees working for the subordinate
- Task 5: the decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for the facility at a cost within the superior's budgetary discretion
- Task 8: the decision to change the money allocation for the subordinate's departments during the preparation of the facility's budget

Task 12: the decision regarding the goals and standards of performance that should be set for the subordinate's work.

These twelve delegable tasks fell statistically into three groupings or factors: the Delegation of Supervisory Tasks (tasks 3, 4, 6, 7, 9 and 10), Lateral Delegation (tasks 2, 5 and 8), and the Delegation of Bilevel Tasks (task 12 and, at times, task 5).

Four of the six tasks that fell within the Supervisory Delegation Factor related to specific personnel tasks of the subordinate manager and focused on the subordinate manager as the supervisor of those employees reporting directly to that supervisor. These 4 tasks consisted of: hiring the employee, being able to promote an employee, being able to give merit pay increases to an employee, and deciding to discharge an employee. The fifth task related to the supervision of job responsibilities, rather than personnel oversight: namely, the decision to change one of the operating procedures of an employee.

Interestingly, the task of promoting the employee was the Supervisory task that was delegated least (only 53% of the time). Such an employee at this level of senior management in the hospital setting was at the department head or vice president level. When a senior manager decides to promote an employee with such visibility, the manager realizes that such a promotion often has implications for other senior managers and their departmental staff. Especially in the recent atmosphere of nationwide hospital cost containment (Fottler, Phillips, Blair & Duran, 1990), such a promotion could send a message all the way up and down the organization. In a parallel fashion, the decision that was delegated more than 75% of the time was one with little overall

impact. This was the decision regarding the style and layout of a typed letter.

Three tasks fell into the Delegation of Lateral Tasks Factor. These tasks consisted of: increasing the number of employees working for the subordinate manager; purchasing a piece of equipment for the facility, reallocating money for the subordinate manager's departments. Hospitals are labor intensive and dependent on expensive, high technology equipment. Consequently, personnel (the number of employees), equipment and the reallocation of money to one senior manager's area have implications for that senior manager's colleagues. These matters were delegated no more than some 25% of the time. It may well be that they were delegated to those senior managers who were particularly adept in lateral negotiations or who worked with their fellow senior managers in a close team management setting.

The third factor, Bilevel Delegation, consisted of 2 tasks. One task, the setting of goals and standards of performance for the subordinate manager, was one that could call for input and decisions from both boss and subordinate. Similarly the task of purchasing equipment, which was also grouped with the Lateral Delegation Factor, could cross levels of the organization hierarchy. For example, physicians are often very concerned about the purchase of equipment, both large and small, and both costly and not so costly, and compete with each other for capital budget allocations. In such a case, the superior can very well become involved in the equipment decision.

Having established what percentage of the time there was delegation and which tasks were delegated, the study examined the cross-level

correlations between Senior Managers' perceptions and the perceptions of their subordinates. Senior Managers reported their perceptions in regard to each of their three most important subordinate managers; specifically, they reported their trust in each of their subordinates, their perceptions of each one's skills and how important the delegable tasks were to each subordinate. For each of the senior managers, the three selected subordinate managers reported the percentage of time they felt their boss delegated to them the delegable tasks.

Analysis of the data revealed no significant correlation between the superiors' ratings of importance of the tasks and the subordinates' perception of the delegation of those same tasks. This was true on an item by item basis, on an overall score basis and when the three task groupings were considered. Where tasks were highly visible, or impacted others laterally or hierarchically, the importance of the task might have taken on a very different dimension that might well have affected delegation.

There were significant correlations between the senior managers' perception of subordinates' skill and both the Overall Delegation Score and Supervisory Delegation. However, only a small percent of the variance in delegation was accounted for by the skill variable.

In general, senior managers indicated a high level of trust for each of their subordinates. Since all trust scores were high and there was little variation here, it was not possible to study any relationship between low trust and delegation.

The uniform high trust scores, at first, seemed surprising. However, on the one hand, the selection process, itself, might have accounted for such high trust scores. When the senior managers were asked to select their three most important subordinate managers, they might have implicitly selected the three most trusted subordinates. On the other hand, the high trust scores might have been the product of the senior management team relationship, itself, in this hospital setting. This study focused on relationships at the senior management level: i.e., between CEOs and their three most important staff members; or between one of those senior managers and that manager's three most important subordinate managers. At this level in the hospital organization, job security does not come from tenure on the job or membership in a union; rather, managers work at the pleasure of the Board or the boss. Consequently, those who are on the management team are trusted members. Where that trust would be absent or erode away, the lack of trust would be the early indication of the collapse of this relationship. A Staff member who is not trusted would not be a staff member for long. The high trust scores between senior managers and their three most important subordinates were consistent within this context. Indeed, the Trust instrument was a particularly appropriate confirmation of this relationship insofar as it measured, not generic trust, but the individual person-to-person trust relationship; specifically in this study, it measured the individual superior-subordinate relationships.

The study also examined the relationship between the Senior Managers' dominance and nurturance personality traits and their reported perceptions of their subordinates. While research findings suggested

that the area of personality traits represented murky and uncharted waters, those same research studies pointed to personality traits as significant determinants that affected what senior managers perceived and how they might have differentiated in their perceptions of trust and skills.

Since the study of the personality traits represented uncharted waters, the current study was cautiously aware of the possibility that the delegation scores and the personality traits could have represented objective and subjective measurements of the same variable. In fact, such was not the case. As is evident from Appendix D, entitled "Correlations (Pearson  $r$ ) of Delegation and the Three Delegation Factors with Nurturance, Person Dominance and Goal Dominance ( $N = 96$ )," there were no significant correlations of delegation and the three delegation factors with Nurturance, Person Dominance and Goal Dominance. Consequently, these two variables were not the same. Quite the contrary, delegation as reported by the subordinates and the personality traits as reported by the bosses were different elements that could be used as independent variables in future studies. If the measurements of both variables had come from only the senior executives, such a single, self-reporting measurement could have had confounding results.

There were 9 personality traits that were selected. They were chosen because they appropriately defined the nurturant and dominant personality focus that emerged from the study of the literature. These nine traits fell into three factors. These factor analysis findings clarified the differences found in the original factor analyses of several student groups (Retzlaff et al., 1986) which listed Dominance in

a number of factors among different student groups. The factor analysis of the current study revealed a Nurturance factor completely consistent with the Nurturance factor of Retzlaff and his associates. But the current factor analysis also revealed two aspects of Dominance: Goal Dominance and Person Dominance. Senior managers scoring high on these personality trait factors achieved different results: they significantly differentiated skills among subordinate managers. This may be very important because, as Mintzberg (1973) noted, managers play many different roles. In the hospital setting many different demands are made upon the CEO and senior management. There is always an emphasis on strong management cooperation and coordination for quality patient care (JCAHO, 1982). The present financial climate calls for cost containment and even aggressive competition (Fottler et al., 1990). Yet the hospital is a community oriented institution that must effectively relate to such constituencies as its Board, the community, and local and area political and legislative influences. Perhaps, different personalities would be called upon to spearhead different goals and objectives at such times as they are seen to be more critical to the survival and growth of the facility.

The hypotheses concerning personality traits and the perceptions of trust and skills were only partially corroborated. The high nurturant manager did not perceive greater trust or skills than the low nurturant manager, nor did the high nurturant manager differentiate in his or her perception of subordinate managers' skills more than did the low nurturant manager. To look at the Dominant manager, it was necessary to distinguish between the Goal Dominant managers and the Person Dominant managers. There was a significant and negative correlation between

Trust scores and Person Dominance, although only a slight amount of the variation in trust scores was accounted for by the Dominance factor. Additionally, the high Goal Dominant managers demonstrated significantly less differentiation among their subordinates' skill scores than did the low Goal Dominant managers.

These personality traits of the CEOs/senior managers might be better understood if they were compared to another population. Available data exists regarding the student population originally studied by Retzlaff et al. (1986). The profile of the senior managers differed from that of the student population. The strongest and most consistent difference in scores between the two samplings was found in each of the three personality traits that made up the Goal Dominance; Dominance, Achievement and Endurance were all considerably higher for the senior managers. In contrast, the senior managers' scores of Exhibition, Play and Succorance, all of which were included in Person Dominance, were lower and displayed a broader variance than the students' scores. The Nurturance, Affiliation and Social Recognition scores of the senior managers and the students were very much in parallel to each other.

In this comparison of the CEOs/senior managers with the student population, it was evident that the senior managers were stronger in terms of Goal Dominance, with especially high scores in Achievement and Endurance. Three traits that made up the Person Dominance, Exhibition, Play and Succorance, were lower than the student sample. These personality trait differences might explain the lack of hypothesized correlations between the personality factors and the perceptions of

skills and trust. The fact that particular personality traits are stronger or weaker in senior managers than in other possible populations might have bearings, too, on some of the implications to be made in the subsequent section.

## 5.2. Implications of the Findings

### 5.2.1. Theoretical Implications

At the most fundamental level, this study was based on Attribution Theory. Reference was made to Attribution Theory models that were elaborated on in, for example, Diensch and Liden (1986) and Green and Mitchel (1979). Such models remain a fruitful basis upon which to lay the theoretical framework for studies such as the current one. These models emphasized the role of both situational and personality factors in attribution theory.

The findings of this study confirmed the importance of the situational factors. The grouping of the Delegable Tasks into Supervisory, Lateral and Bilevel Tasks pointed to the role of situational factors. Situational factors such as organizational visibility might explain why one of the Supervisory Tasks was the one least delegated. Greater delegation of Lateral Tasks might depend on the adroit assessment of interdepartmental situations. Bilevel Delegation might be influenced by situations such as cost containment pressures.

At the same time, this study's call for a reexamination of the personality factors seemed very germane. Senior managers' attribution

of skills or trust of the subordinate was indeed influenced by personality traits. Such findings demonstrated the need for the researcher to give more than lip service to the role of personality in attribution theory and in research based on attribution theory. It is not sufficient to acknowledge that personality factors may influence attributions and perceptions and then proceed to study situational variables exclusively as has been done in the past. Investigators must place under inspection the personality of the managers they are studying.

The high interpersonal trust scores between senior managers and their subordinates raised the question as to how the Leader-Member Exchange model was applicable to the senior management setting. Indeed, the research of Cashman et al. (1976), Dansereau et al. (1975), Graen & Schiemann (1978) and Liden & Graen (1980) selected managerial or supervisory subjects who were more typically middle management. This current study looked at the CEOs and their senior managers. On the one hand, if the selection process used by the senior managers in this study implicitly identified the highly trusted "in-group" members, these trust scores confirmed the LMX findings and extended them to the senior management level. On the other hand, these high trust scores might be indicative of the high interpersonal trust scores one would find between the boss and all the immediate subordinate managers who make up the top management positions. At this level, there may be no room for the "out-group". The "in-group" or mentor-protege relationship with its high quality of trust and loyalty may be a necessary condition to function at the top.

Finally, there were theoretical implications in this study's findings of the significant and negative correlations of Dominance with trust and skill. It was not surprising that CEOs and senior managers should have been high achievers and score high on endurance. In this context, logic and the normative literature might have suggested that such high achievers would have been particularly discerning about staff members' skill and trustworthiness so as to best utilize human resources to realize still greater achievements. However, the research of Kipnis and his associates (Kipnis, 1976 & 1987; Kipnis et al., 1981) starkly maintained that the successful and continuous exercise of power correlated with the denigration of others. They spoke about a confluence of effects which they called the metamorphic effects of power. Under such metamorphic situations, successful powerholders felt they controlled the persons who were the target of their influence. When managers attributed the cause for subordinates' actions to be their own control, they devalued their subordinates and created social distance from them. The current findings seemed to echo that thesis. Goal Dominant managers saw less differentiation among the skills of their subordinates. The more Person Dominant the managers were, the less they trusted their subordinate staff. The metamorphic effects of power that Kipnis and his associates spoke of must be taken into consideration wherever researchers focus on people and power. Certainly, power and empowerment are at the heart of organizational structures. They are fundamental to the notion of delegation. The effect of power on the powerholders is a very significant issue in studies on leadership and on the leadership effectiveness.

These same personality traits might be the variables that could explain why some managers established more varied patterns of leader-member exchanges and why other managers tended to treat individual subordinates more uniformly. Among dominant managers, there was less trust in the subordinates and less differentiation of skills. Such managers, then, might treat their subordinates more uniformly. Conversely, less dominant managers, trusting more and differentiating more, were implicitly treating their subordinates on an individual basis.

#### 5.2.2. Implications for Empirical Research

The theoretical observations and questions that have just surfaced have specific implications for empirical research.

The study of delegation as defined on the micro-level is a fruitful area of research as the findings in this current study evidenced. While this study found significant delegation, there was no correlation of delegation with the importance of the delegable tasks. It seemed, however, that situational factors might have influenced whether important matters were delegated or not delegated.

While this study found no correlation of delegation with the importance of the delegable task, the specific effort to measure the subjects' perception of importance was effective. In the past, researchers have assumed that certain organizational tasks were critical or important, or established a priori which tasks were important to whom. This study asked senior managers to indicate how important each

delegable task was. The objective results far outweighed assumptions and a priori classifications.

The findings of high trust levels between senior managers and each of their three most important subordinates raised some questions about Leader-Member Exchange research. On the one hand, it was possible that the three most important subordinate managers who were selected were chosen because, in the parlance of the Leader-Member Exchange literature, they were all seen as part of the "in-group" and, as such, were all greater contributors to the team effort. On the other hand, it was also possible that the senior management team, with its high pressure and high achievement atmosphere, had no room for the "out-group" and that there was a more accelerated selectivity of senior staff who were all members of, and only members of, the "in-group".

Certainly, it was important to consider the personality variable in this study of senior management. The personality trait profiles of senior managers differed from those of the student populations. More importantly, personality traits affected the way subordinates were perceived and the qualities that were attributed to those subordinates. Consequently, when perceptions are to be measured or attribution studied, personality traits must be considered. The current study's findings in this regard were significant and in the predicted directions, however the coefficients of determination were small. Hence, the importance of personality traits in leadership research is pointed out, albeit cautiously.

The premise that the exercise of power could at times negatively affect the way the powerholder perceived the target persons has vast

implications for empirical research. In this study, the relationship between trust and the perception of skill was influenced by the senior manager's personality trait of strong Dominance. When studies focus on persons in the office of CEO and in the positions in senior management who possess power, researchers must consider the amount of freedom given to, and the amounts of control exercised over, the subordinates. Studies on leadership effectiveness must also consider the exercise of power. In studying these areas, researchers must consider that personality traits may well influence leaders' perceptions and the attributions they make. One specific area has already been tentatively explored in the current study and warrants more explicit research, namely, how personality traits affect leadership styles.

### 5.2.3. Practical Implications of the Study

While the focus of this study was primarily research oriented, practical implications emerged from the findings of the study and merited mention.

In the practical sphere, it is not inconceivable that situational factors could be designed to facilitate, rather than militate against, delegation. Situational factors such as centrality, high visibility, novelty and the impact of decision-making on other departments affect delegation. In a conscious effort towards a greater utilization of the costly personnel resource that senior management represent, policies and procedures could be in place so that a senior manager could delegate even those tasks that this study found were not often delegated. Under favorable situations, a senior manager could delegate such tasks and still be sure that appropriate parties are involved, that

interdepartmental concerns are considered, and that political implications of decisions are carefully reviewed.

Within this context, it may well be possible for a great deal of Lateral Delegation and even more Bilevel Delegation. The delegable tasks that were included in these two Delegation factors were tasks that fell within the job descriptions of the subordinate managers and could have been delegated. Those decisions consisted of the decisions to increase the number of employees working for the subordinate; the decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for the facility at a cost within the superior's budgetary discretion; the decision to change the money allocation for the subordinate's departments during the preparation of the facility's budget; and the decision regarding the goals and standards of performance that should be set for the subordinate's work.

Thus, scarce resources could be maximized. Senior managers represent scarce and costly personnel resources. Reordering of their job responsibilities and increasing the delegation of tasks to them would maximize these resources.

However, for this to take place, personality factors as well as situational factors must be looked at carefully. Powerholders must step back from their accomplishments and realize that they can be effective without controlling their trusted subordinates. More importantly, as they exercise their power, they must exercise care so that they do not underestimate or devalue the abilities and motivations of subordinates. Goal Dominant senior managers must realize they can achieve even more if they let others make decisions and perform tasks.

### 5.3. Limitations of the Study

This research was a field study. It was a scientific inquiry that systematically pursued relations and tested hypotheses; it was done *ex post facto* and was carried out in the real life situation (Kerlinger, 1973).

Among the strengths of the field study, Kerlinger noted that it was "strong in realism, significance, strength of variables, theory orientation, and heuristic quality" (1973, p.406). This study went into the field and obtained from senior hospital executives very private and sensitive information concerning their perceptions. This real life report of perceptions and attitudes added validity to the variables under study. Consequently, as Kerlinger noted, the more realistic the study, the more the findings should be generalizable to other situations. Of course, this was not an "unalloyed blessing", as Kerlinger put it. It is not easy for a researcher to separate the effects of variables that are strong and have great variance.

Kerlinger (1973) noted that the most serious weakness of the field study was its *ex post facto* nature. It was weaker than experimental research because it could not manipulate independent variables. Hence, it was complicated by a plethora of variables and variance and had to face the plausibility of complex events having many explanations. To guard against this inherent weakness, Kerlinger stressed the need to be cautious and to establish rigorous procedures so that one is guided by carefully defined hypotheses. Such rigor was seen in this study's cautiousness, the perusal of existing research studies to define areas of study, and the careful statement and testing of its hypotheses.

Kerlinger also noted the host of practical problems associated with the field study. Among them were issues of feasibility, cost, sampling and time. As this researcher labored under and sought to work within these practical problems, Kerlinger's remarks were very much appreciated: "The field researcher needs to be a salesman, administrator and entrepreneur, as well as investigator" (1973, p. 408). Limitations on the sample size were imposed by the practical realities of both the time and resources of the researcher. More significantly, the reasonable amount of time one could expect the CEOs to make available was limited.

The size and distribution of this study's sample and the setting for this study affected its generalizability. Of necessity, the field study obtained a limited possible response: 37 CEOs/senior managers and 96 subordinate managers. The sample distribution represented a good sampling of hospitals, both public and private, with a good geographic dispersion that included senior hospital executives from the New York Metropolitan area, from New York State and from the Midwest, the South and Western U.S.A. Nonetheless, it was not a strictly random sampling. Hence, the generalizability of the study findings, while strong given the realism of a field study, had to be made cautiously, especially in terms of extrapolating these results to the entire hospital industry and to other business sectors as well.

By design, this study presented a single time-frame, cross-sectional analysis, or a snapshot, as it were, of the superior-subordinate relationship. The knowledge obtained from such a snapshot has been invaluable. But it would be affected by the history

and the maturation of the superior-subordinate relationship. Hence, it represented a beginning. Studies that employ longitudinal time design must be employed to explore the trend in these relationships over time.

This study employed Likert-type attitudinal scales. These scales were either summed, as in the case of the personality traits, or summed and averaged, as in the case of the trust, skill and importance scores. Kerlinger (1973) showed how useful such scales were and how adaptable to the needs of behavioral researchers. However, he cautioned that they be used with care and with an awareness of their weaknesses. Their greatest weakness that he mentioned was that they could contain response-set variance.

Considering the sensitive nature of the question of senior management's skills, this study chose a measure of skill differentials that focused explicitly on the nature of the job and only implicitly on the qualities of the person. Such a choice had its limitations, principally among those was the possibility that a true measure of the individual's skills was not obtained.

Notwithstanding all the limitations that have just been highlighted, this field study achieved significant results. It accessed top management in the hospital industry. It studied confidential and sensitive issues. Its significant results could lead to further subsequent studies in delegation.

#### 5.4. Recommendations for Future Research

This study's results and the implications from its results suggested several areas that could be the focus of future studies.

Both experimental studies and field studies could research delegation under the different situational settings that emerged in this study. It would be of value to conduct experiments that would structure the work situation in ways that would be expected to foster more delegation. Similarly, explicit studies of Lateral and Bilevel Delegation could explore why these areas are the least delegated and when and where they could be delegated. Further study is warranted in regard to such situational factors as centrality, novelty and high visibility of the tasks and the impact of the decision on other departments. Further understanding of such situational variables may explain how and when more of the Lateral tasks and Bilevel tasks are delegated.

The generalizability of this study across the hospital industry and across other business sectors was cautiously suggested. Studies that replicated this research design in the healthcare sector or in other industries could confirm the generalizability of these results. Furthermore, insofar as boss-subordinate relationships could change over the passage of time or due to maturing influences, longitudinal time designs for the study of these relationships could be undertaken.

Research studies might examine alternative ways to ask senior management directly about the skills of their subordinate managers and assess the results of such direct approaches as compared to the measurement approach employed in the current study.

The finding of high trust levels between senior managers and each of their three most important subordinates requires further investigation. The question that arose was whether the senior

management Leader-Member Exchange was either accelerated or short-circuited in the high achievement, high pressure environment of top management.

Personality traits must be factored into the study of managers and their relationship with their subordinates. The explicit study of the difference between Goal Dominance and Person Dominance and the effect these two personality traits have on the senior managers' perceptions and attributions would clarify these two factors and further expand our knowledge of personality traits in the context of attribution theory. Studies on how and when Dominant managers exercise control over, and give freedom to, their subordinates would contribute to our understanding of the metamorphic effects of power and to our understanding of leadership effectiveness. Finally, in forthcoming studies of delegation, researchers could use personality traits and delegation as separate, independent variables, knowing that the two are different variables and not different measurements of the same variable.

## 5.5 Conclusions

This study focused on delegation, on the micro level. It found that, of the twelve delegable tasks studied, six Supervisory Tasks were delegated more than 50% of the time, but four Lateral or Bilevel Tasks were delegated no more than 26% of the time. Two tasks were virtually never delegated.

There were significant correlations between delegation and the perceived skills of the subordinate. However, there was no significant correlation between delegation and the perceived trust in the

subordinates. This might have been due to the high trust score results obtained and might be indicative of the nature of the relationship between boss and subordinates in the top management level of the hospital.

There was no significant correlation between the importance of the delegable task as perceived by the boss and the delegation of those tasks as perceived by the subordinate. Other situational factors might have been of more significance, including such factors as visibility of the task, its centrality or novelty, and its interdepartmental impact.

There was a significant and negative correlation between trust and the Person Dominance personality factor. Furthermore, high Goal Dominant managers demonstrated significantly less differentiation among their subordinates' skills than the low Goal Dominant managers.

As a result of these findings, this study confirmed the importance of situational factors in delegation, and also highlighted the need for researchers to reexamine the role personality traits play in managerial perceptions and attributions.

Based on these findings and the implications of these results, several recommendations for future research emerge. Both experimental studies and field studies should research delegation under the different situational settings suggested in this study. The replication of this study could confirm its generalizability within different management and supervisory levels, across the healthcare setting and in other business settings. Much more research could take place that would focus on the role of personality traits in attribution theory and in research based

on attribution theory. Finally, the premise that the exercise of power could at times negatively affect the way powerholders perceive the target persons has vast implications for future research.

Appendix A.

## Questionnaire Items for CEOs/Senior Manager

	Cover Sheet with General Instructions	93
Part 1.	Demographic information	94
	Nurturance and Dominance Scales: Personality Adjective Inventory (Retzlaff et al., 1986).	94
Part 2.	Information Regarding Staff Members	95
Part 3	In regard to each of the senior manager's immediate subordinate:	
	a. Manager's Perception of Subordinate Managers' Skills: Job Performance Requirements Scale from Heller and Wilpert (1981) with two additional "competence" items.	
	b. Importance of Delegated Items: Adapted from the twelve item Delegation Questionnaire of Heller (1971).	
	c. Manager's Trust of this subordinate (Rempel et al., 1985).	
	There three segments are repeated for:	
	Sec. A: Staff Member Listed First	96
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A Study of  
The Determinants of Senior Managers'  
Delegation

This survey is designed to broaden our understanding of the extent to which senior management delegates or does not delegate to its subordinates, and to broaden our understanding of what factors are the determinants of senior management's decisions in this regard.

Please answer all the questions. If you wish to comment on any question or qualify your answer, feel free to use the space in the margins or on the blank last page.

Thank you for your help.

General Instructions

Specific instructions are given at the beginning of each section. Note that the numbers in parentheses and usually in the left margin are for computer coding purposes and can be ignored.

Along with this survey, there are 3 two-page questionnaires that I ask you to pass on to three of your subordinate managers, as is indicated in detail later on in this survey.

Please keep in mind that your answers are completely confidential.

Thanks again for your participation in this study.

Return this survey in a sealed envelope to:

Thomas Saccardi  
22 Connecticut Avenue  
Greenwich, CT 06830

## Part I: Demographic Information

1. Name \_\_\_\_\_
2. Male \_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_
3. Number of years of experience as a Healthcare Executive  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. How long have you been with this hospital? \_\_\_\_ (months) or  
\_\_\_\_ (years)
5. How long have you been in this position? \_\_\_\_ (months) or  
\_\_\_\_ (years)
6. Are you a member of the hospital's Board? yes \_\_\_\_ no  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. How many subordinates report directly to you? \_\_\_\_\_

Please rate the following adjectives as they describe you currently.

Rate them on a 1 to 7 scale, with 1 meaning "Not at all" and 7 meaning "Very much".

Enter your rating directly in front of each adjective.

|---|---|---|---|---|---|  
Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

- |                   |                      |                          |
|-------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| ___ Accomplishing | ___ Merry            | ___ Persistent           |
| ___ Friendly      | ___ Seek recognition | ___ Conspicuous          |
| ___ Leading       | ___ Help seeking     | ___ Caring               |
| ___ Have stamina  | ___ Productive       | ___ Laughter loving      |
| ___ Entertaining  | ___ Good-natured     | ___ Make good impression |
| ___ Supporting    | ___ Supervising      | ___ Appealing for help   |
| ___ Jolly         | ___ Energetic        | ___ Attaining            |
| ___ Well-behaved  | ___ Colorful         | ___ Sociable             |
| ___ Confiding     | ___ Sympathetic      | ___ Dominant             |
| ___ Achieving     | ___ Gleeful          | ___ Determined           |
| ___ Warm          | ___ Courteous        | ___ Exhibitionistic      |
| ___ Powerful      | ___ Crave affection  | ___ Assisting            |
| ___ Sturdy        | ___ Striving         | ___ Joking               |
| ___ Showy         | ___ Hospitable       | ___ Seek respectability  |
| ___ Helpful       | ___ Controlling      | ___ Need protection      |

Please rate the following adjectives as you would desire to described (the way that you would like to be).

Rate them on a 1 to 7 scale, with 1 meaning "Not at all" and 7 meaning "Very much".

Enter your rating directly in front of each adjective.

|---|---|---|---|---|---|  
 Not at all    1   2   3   4   5   6   7    Very much

- |  |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Accomplishing | <input type="checkbox"/> Merry            | <input type="checkbox"/> Persistent           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Friendly      | <input type="checkbox"/> Seek recognition | <input type="checkbox"/> Conspicuous          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Leading       | <input type="checkbox"/> Help seeking     | <input type="checkbox"/> Caring               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Have stamina  | <input type="checkbox"/> Productive       | <input type="checkbox"/> Laughter loving      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Entertaining  | <input type="checkbox"/> Good-natured     | <input type="checkbox"/> Make good impression |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Supporting    | <input type="checkbox"/> Supervising      | <input type="checkbox"/> Appealing for help   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Jolly         | <input type="checkbox"/> Energetic        | <input type="checkbox"/> Attaining            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Well-behaved  | <input type="checkbox"/> Colorful         | <input type="checkbox"/> Sociable             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Confiding     | <input type="checkbox"/> Sympathetic      | <input type="checkbox"/> Dominant             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Achieving     | <input type="checkbox"/> Gleeful          | <input type="checkbox"/> Determined           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Warm          | <input type="checkbox"/> Courteous        | <input type="checkbox"/> Exhibitionistic      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Powerful      | <input type="checkbox"/> Crave affection  | <input type="checkbox"/> Assisting            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sturdy        | <input type="checkbox"/> Striving         | <input type="checkbox"/> Joking               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Showy         | <input type="checkbox"/> Hospitable       | <input type="checkbox"/> Seek respectability  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Helpful       | <input type="checkbox"/> Controlling      | <input type="checkbox"/> Need protection      |

Part II: Your Senior Staff

Please list in the three underlined spaces below the titles of the 3 most important members of your senior staff, excluding the Director of Public Relations and the Director of Personnel. Enter their names in order of importance on lines 1 to 3:

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_

The 3 sets of questions that follow are meant to be answered in regard to each of the 3 administrators whom you listed. Please answer first the set of questions for the senior person ranked 1, then the second set for the person ranked 2 and the third for the person ranked 3.

In addition, the 3 two-page questionnaires that are enclosed are intended to be answered by each of the three subordinate managers you have just listed above.

Part III: Describing Your Senior Staff  
 Sec. A: Staff Member Listed First

How long have you worked with him/her? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOUR JOB REQUIREMENTS DIFFER FROM THIS FIRST SUBORDINATE'S JOB REQUIREMENTS? (Differences in pay, status, etc., do not form part of this enquiry.) For each item, please use the following response scale.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5  
very much more    more            about the same    somewhat less    much less

DOES YOUR JOB REQUIRE MORE OR LESS (THAN YOUR SUBORDINATE'S JOB):

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| _____ 1. detailed knowledge of technical matters? | _____ 8. imagination?     |
| _____ 2. close contact with people?               | _____ 9. self-confidence? |
| _____ 3. knowledge of human nature?               | _____ 10. initiative?     |
| _____ 4. management ability?                      | _____ 11. tact?           |
| _____ 5. forcefulness?                            | _____ 12. decisiveness?   |
| _____ 6. responsibility?                          | _____ 13. adaptability?   |
| _____ 7. managerial expertise?                    | _____ 14. intelligence?   |

Look at the twelve specific decisions that follow in terms of this first subordinate. Whether or not your subordinate manager has been directly involved in these decisions, PLEASE INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT YOU FEEL EACH ITEM IS by ranking it on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 meaning "not important at all" and 10 meaning "extremely important".

| - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |  
 Not important at all    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10    Extremely important

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. The decision to increase the salary of this subordinate.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for your subordinate.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3. The decision to hire one of several applicants to work for your subordinate.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 4. The decision on the style and lay-out of typed letters in your subordinate's office.

- 
- |                      |                      |                     |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
|                      | _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _    |                     |
| Not important at all | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 | Extremely important |
- 
- \_\_\_ 5. The decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for your facility at a cost within your budgetary discretion.
- \_\_\_ 6. The decision to promote one of the employees working for your subordinate.
- \_\_\_ 7. The decision to give a merit pay increase to one of your subordinate's employees.
- \_\_\_ 8. The decision to change the money allocation for your subordinate's departments during the preparation of the facility's budget.
- \_\_\_ 9. The decision to discharge one of your subordinate's staff.
- \_\_\_ 10. The decision to change an operating procedure followed by your subordinate.
- \_\_\_ 11. The decision to assign your subordinate to a different job (on same salary) under your jurisdiction.
- \_\_\_ 12. The decision regarding what goals or standards of performance should be set for your subordinate.

---

For each statement below, please use the following scale to describe your feelings about this staff member:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

- 
- \_\_\_ 1. I am never certain that my subordinate won't do something that will embarrass me.
- \_\_\_ 2. My subordinate is very unpredictable. I never know how he/she is going to act from one day to the next.
- \_\_\_ 3. I feel very uncomfortable when my subordinate has to make decisions which will affect me personally.
- \_\_\_ 4. I have found my subordinate unusually dependable, especially when it comes to things which are important to me.
- \_\_\_ 5. My subordinate behaves in a very consistent manner.
- \_\_\_ 6. I am certain that my subordinate would not betray me, even if the opportunity arose and there was no chance that he/she would get caught.
- \_\_\_ 7. I can rely on my subordinate to keep the promises he/she makes to me.
- \_\_\_ 8. Even when my subordinate makes excuses which sound rather unlikely, I am confident that he/she is telling the truth.
- \_\_\_ 9. My subordinate has proven to be trustworthy and I am willing to let him/her engage in activities which other subordinates find too threatening.
- \_\_\_ 10. I sometimes avoid this subordinate because he/she is unpredictable and I fear saying or doing something which might create conflict.

Part III: Describing Your Senior Staff  
 Sec. B: Staff Member Listed Second

How long have you worked with him/her? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOUR JOB REQUIREMENTS DIFFER FROM THIS SECOND SUBORDINATE'S JOB REQUIREMENTS? (Differences in pay, status, etc., do not form part of this enquiry.) For each item, please use the following response scale.

1                    2                    3                    4                    5  
 very much more    more    about the same    somewhat less    much less

DOES YOUR JOB REQUIRE MORE OR LESS (THAN YOUR SUBORDINATE'S JOB):

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| _____ 1. detailed knowledge of technical matters? | _____ 8. imagination?     |
| _____ 2. close contact with people?               | _____ 9. self-confidence? |
| _____ 3. knowledge of human nature?               | _____ 10. initiative?     |
| _____ 4. management ability?                      | _____ 11. tact?           |
| _____ 5. forcefulness?                            | _____ 12. decisiveness?   |
| _____ 6. responsibility?                          | _____ 13. adaptability?   |
| _____ 7. managerial expertise?                    | _____ 14. intelligence?   |

Look at the twelve specific decisions that follow in terms of this second subordinate. Whether or not your subordinate manager has been directly involved in these decisions, PLEASE INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT YOU FEEL EACH ITEM IS by ranking it on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 meaning "not important at all" and 10 meaning "extremely important".

Not important at all    | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |    Extremely important  
                                  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

- 
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. The decision to increase the salary of this subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. The decision to hire one of several applicants to work for your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. The decision on the style and lay-out of typed letters in your subordinate's office.

---

|-|-|-|-|-|-|-|-|-|

Not important at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Extremely important

- \_\_\_ 5. The decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for your facility at a cost within your budgetary discretion.
- \_\_\_ 6. The decision to promote one of the employees working for your subordinate.
- \_\_\_ 7. The decision to give a merit pay increase to one of your subordinate's employees.
- \_\_\_ 8. The decision to change the money allocation for your subordinate's departments during the preparation of the facility's budget.
- \_\_\_ 9. The decision to discharge one of your subordinate's staff.
- \_\_\_ 10. The decision to change an operating procedure followed by your subordinate.
- \_\_\_ 11. The decision to assign your subordinate to a different job (on same salary) under your jurisdiction.
- \_\_\_ 12. The decision regarding what goals or standards of performance should be set for your subordinate.

---

For each statement below, please use the following scale to describe your feelings about this staff member:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

- 
- \_\_\_ 1. I am never certain that my subordinate won't do something that will embarrass me.
  - \_\_\_ 2. My subordinate is very unpredictable. I never know how he/she is going to act from one day to the next.
  - \_\_\_ 3. I feel very uncomfortable when my subordinate has to make decisions which will affect me personally.
  - \_\_\_ 4. I have found my subordinate unusually dependable, especially when it comes to things which are important to me.
  - \_\_\_ 5. My subordinate behaves in a very consistent manner.
  - \_\_\_ 6. I am certain that my subordinate would not betray me, even if the opportunity arose and there was no chance that he/she would get caught.
  - \_\_\_ 7. I can rely on my subordinate to keep the promises he/she makes to me.
  - \_\_\_ 8. Even when my subordinate makes excuses which sound rather unlikely, I am confident that he/she is telling the truth.
  - \_\_\_ 9. My subordinate has proven to be trustworthy and I am willing to let him/her engage in activities which other subordinates find too threatening.
  - \_\_\_ 10. I sometimes avoid this subordinate because he/she is unpredictable and I fear saying or doing something which might create conflict.

Part III: Describing Your Senior Staff  
 Sec. C: Staff Member Listed Third

How long have you worked with him/her? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOUR JOB REQUIREMENTS DIFFER FROM THIS THIRD SUBORDINATE'S JOB REQUIREMENTS? (Differences in pay, status, etc., do not form part of this enquiry.) For each item, please use the following response scale.

1                    2                    3                    4                    5  
very much more   more   about the same   somewhat less   much less

DOES YOUR JOB REQUIRE MORE OR LESS (THAN YOUR SUBORDINATE'S JOB):

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| _____ 1. detailed knowledge of technical matters? | _____ 8. imagination?     |
| _____ 2. close contact with people?               | _____ 9. self-confidence? |
| _____ 3. knowledge of human nature?               | _____ 10. initiative?     |
| _____ 4. management ability?                      | _____ 11. tact?           |
| _____ 5. forcefulness?                            | _____ 12. decisiveness?   |
| _____ 6. responsibility?                          | _____ 13. adaptability?   |
| _____ 7. managerial expertise?                    | _____ 14. intelligence?   |

Look at the twelve specific decisions that follow in terms of this third subordinate. Whether or not your subordinate manager has been directly involved in these decisions, PLEASE INDICATE HOW IMPORTANT YOU FEEL EACH ITEM IS by ranking it on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 meaning "not important at all" and 10 meaning "extremely important".

Not important at all    | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |    Extremely important  
                                   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

- 
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. The decision to increase the salary of this subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. The decision to hire one of several applicants to work for your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. The decision on the style and lay-out of typed letters in your subordinate's office.

- 
- | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
- Not important at all    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10    Extremely important
- \_\_\_ 5. The decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for your facility at a cost within your budgetary discretion.
  - \_\_\_ 6. The decision to promote one of the employees working for your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_ 7. The decision to give a merit pay increase to one of your subordinate's employees.
  - \_\_\_ 8. The decision to change the money allocation for your subordinate's departments during the preparation of the facility's budget.
  - \_\_\_ 9. The decision to discharge one of your subordinate's staff.
  - \_\_\_ 10. The decision to change an operating procedure followed by your subordinate.
  - \_\_\_ 11. The decision to assign your subordinate to a different job (on same salary) under your jurisdiction.
  - \_\_\_ 12. The decision regarding what goals or standards of performance should be set for your subordinate

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For each statement below, please use the following scale to describe your feelings about this staff member:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

- 
- \_\_\_ 1. I am never certain that my subordinate won't do something that will embarrass me.
  - \_\_\_ 2. My subordinate is very unpredictable. I never know how he/she is going to act from one day to the next.
  - \_\_\_ 3. I feel very uncomfortable when my subordinate has to make decisions which will affect me personally.
  - \_\_\_ 4. I have found my subordinate unusually dependable, especially when it comes to things which are important to me.
  - \_\_\_ 5. My subordinate behaves in a very consistent manner.
  - \_\_\_ 6. I am certain that my subordinate would not betray me, even if the opportunity arose and there was no chance that he/she would get caught.
  - \_\_\_ 7. I can rely on my subordinate to keep the promises he/she makes to me.
  - \_\_\_ 8. Even when my subordinate makes excuses which sound rather unlikely, I am confident that he/she is telling the truth.
  - \_\_\_ 9. My subordinate has proven to be trustworthy and I am willing to let him/her engage in activities which other subordinates find too threatening.
  - \_\_\_ 10. I sometimes avoid this subordinate because he/she is unpredictable and I fear saying or doing something which might create conflict.

Appendix B.

Questionnaire Items for Subordinate Manager

	Cover Sheet with General Instructions	103
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Part 2.	Delegation Questionnaire: Specific Decision Questionnaire from Heller and Wilpert (1981).	104

A Study of  
The Determinants of Senior Managers'  
Delegation

This survey is designed to broaden our understanding of the extent to which senior management delegates or does not delegate to its subordinates, and to broaden our understanding of what factors are the determinants of senior management's decisions in this regard.

Please answer all the questions. If you wish to comment on any question or qualify your answer, feel free to use the space in the margins or on the blank last page.

Thank you for your help.

General Instructions

Specific instructions are given within the survey. Note that the numbers in parentheses and in the left margin are for computer coding purposes and can be ignored.

Please keep in mind that your answers are completely confidential.

Thanks again for your participation in this study.

Return this survey, sealed, in the stamped, self-addressed envelope to:

Thomas Saccardi  
22 Connecticut Avenue  
Greenwich, CT 06830

## Demographic Information

Title \_\_\_\_\_

Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_

Number of years of experience as a Healthcare Executive \_\_\_\_\_

How long have you been with this hospital? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

How long have you been in this position? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

How long have you worked for your boss? \_\_\_\_\_ (months) or \_\_\_\_\_ (years).

## Decision Making Questionnaire

This questionnaire measures the management skill of "decision-making". This term includes the process leading up to the final decision. (Advice or recommendations that are usually accepted count as decisions for the purpose of this research.)

Many alternative methods exist, among them the following. All have been shown to be widely used and to be effective.

This questionnaire is concerned with decisions made by your immediate superior in relation to you. The words "him/her" and "his/hers" always refer to your superior.

Methods of Making Decisions

1. Your boss makes HIS/HER DECISION without detailed explanation.  
These are decisions made by him/her without previous discussion or consultation with you and no special meeting or memorandum is used to explain the decision.  
This method includes decisions made after consulting with peers or board members.
2. Your boss makes HIS/HER DECISION and gives you a detailed explanation.  
The same as above, but afterwards he/she explains the problem and the reasons for his/her choice in a memo or in a special meeting.
3. PRIOR CONSULTATION: your boss consults with you beforehand.  
Before the decision is taken, he/she explains the problem to you and asks for your advice and help. He/she then makes the decision by himself/herself. His/her final choice may or may not reflect your influence.
4. There is JOINT DECISION-MAKING with you and your boss.  
Your superior and you analyse the problem together and come to a decision. You usually have as much influence over the final choice as he/she. Where there are more than two in the discussion, the decision of the majority is accepted more often than not.

5. Your boss DELEGATES the decision to you.

He/she asks you to make the decision regarding a particular subject. He/she may or may not request you to report that decision to him/her. He/she seldom vetos your decisions.

Below is a set of decisions. If your immediate superior does not have the authority to make the final decision, or at least to make a formal recommendation that will be accepted, then check "Not applicable".

However, if the decision is applicable, then indicate which of the various decision procedures he/she uses to arrive at the decision or recommendation. If he/she uses more than one procedure, split up the percentages accordingly. Most usually, however, you will put 100 next to one of the five alternatives.

OWN DECISION NOT EXPLAINED	OWN DECISION EXPLAINED	PRIOR CONSUL- TATION	JOINT DELEGATION DECISION	NOT APPLI- CABLE
-------------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	------------------------------	---------------------

1. The decision to increase your salary.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
2. The decision to increase the number of employees working for you.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
3. The decision to hire one of several applicants to work for you.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
4. The decision on the style and lay-out of typed letters in your office.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
5. The decision relating to the purchase of a piece of equipment for your facility at a cost within your superior's budgetary discretion.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
6. The decision to promote one of the employees working for you.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
7. The decision to give a merit pay increase to one of your own subordinates.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
8. The decision to change the money allocation for your departments during the preparation of the facility's budget.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
9. The decision to discharge one of your own staff members.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_
10. The decision to change one of your operating procedures.  
 \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : \_\_\_\_\_% : n/a \_\_\_\_\_

11. The decision to assign you to a different job on same salary and still working for your superior.

\_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : n/a \_\_\_\_\_

12. The decision regarding what goals or standards of performance should be set for your work.

\_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : \_\_\_\_\_ % : n/a \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix C.

Sample of Letters Used in Questionnaire  
Distribution and Follow-up

1.	Initial Letter to CEO	108
2.	Follow-up Letter to CEO	109
3.	Follow-up Letter to Subordinate Manager	110

Thomas A. Saccardi, FACHE  
22 Connecticut Avenue  
Greenwich, CT 06830

(date)

(Inside Address)

Dear (Mr./MS CEO):

A long time colleague of mine, (Mr./Ms hospital administrator), suggested that you might be willing to help me.

As a Ph.D. candidate at C.U.N.Y., I am studying delegation in the hospital setting. I am canvassing a few senior healthcare managers like yourself and would appreciate your participating in my research study via the enclosed survey questionnaire.

The survey consists of two parts. The first and longer part you would fill out; it takes about 20 minutes. The second segment is three two-page questionnaires that I would ask you to pass along to three of your staff members, according to the instructions in the first part of the survey.

As a former hospital administrator and as a Fellow in the ACHE, I know the demands that are made on your time. Hence, I value all the more your participation in this survey.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Thomas A. Saccardi, FACHE  
22 Connecticut Avenue  
Greenwich, CT 06830

(date)

(Inside Address)

Dear (Mr./MS CEO):

My best wishes to all of you at (Hospital Name) for a very happy New Year.

I appreciate your willingness to participate in my research questionnaire. I know how difficult it is to find time -- the spirit is willing, but meetings eat away all your time.

I appreciate, too, your staff's response to my research questionnaire. Your (Manager's Title), your (second Manager's title) and your (third manager's title) were the respondents.

I thought I would just send a little reminder along with another questionnaire in the event that you don't have the first one handy.

Thank you, again.

Sincerely,

Thomas A. Saccardi, FACHE  
22 Connecticut Avenue  
Greenwich, CT 06830

(date)

(Inside Address)

Dear (Mr./Ms Subordinate):

(Your CEO) kindly volunteered to participate in a research survey I am conducting. This study also involved three of (his/her) staff members' answering a two-page questionnaire concerning delegation.

I believe (your CEO) gave you one of those questionnaires. As a former hospital administrator, I know the demands that are made on your time. I would especially appreciate your willingness to participate in this survey.

I am inclosing another copy of the survey along with a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Your response to this survey is appreciated, and, of course, is completely confidential.

Sincerely,

Appendix D.

## Background Information on the Subjects (N = 37)

Ss.	Sex	Hospital Affiliation	Location of Hospital	Total(yrs) Experience	Present Title	Months in Job	No. of Staff
1.	Male	private	Florida	25	CEO	66	--
2.	Male	private	Louisiana	17	CFO	84	6
3.	Male	private	NY State	18	CEO	120	9
4.	Male	private	NY City (NYC)	22	CEO	17	9
5.	Male	private	NY: Suffolk	39	CEO	23	7
6.	Female	private	NY: Westchester	28	CEO	240	6
7.	Male	private	NYC: S.I.	16	COO	10	5
8.	Female	public	NYC	35	CEO	96	6
9.	Male	private	NYC: S.I.	18	COO	108	14
10.	Female	private	NYC	15	COO	48	5
11.	Male	private	New Jersey	17	CEO	37	7
12.	Male	private	NYC	18	COO	11	8
13.	Male	private	Connecticut	5	COO	48	8
14.	Male	public	NY: Buffalo	20	CEO	40	-
15.	Male	private	New Jersey	16	CEO	9	6
16.	Male	private	NYC	16	COO	36	9
17.	Male	private	NY: Westchester	17	CEO	17	9
18.	Male	public	NYC	25	CEO	96	8
19.	Male	public	NYC	18	CEO	120	11
20.	Male	private	NYC	20	CEO	48	8
21.	Male	private	Ohio	16	CEO	24	6
22.	Male	public	Missouri	29	COO	120	4
23.	Male	private	NYC	16	CEO	84	6
24.	Male	public	Texas	12	CEO	98	12
25.	Female	public	NYC	9	CEO	12	11
26.	Male	public	NYC	20	CEO	6	11
27.	Male	private	NY: Suffolk	23	CEO	12	10
28.	Male	public	California	30	CEO	108	6
29.	Male	private	Kentucky	22	COO	6	12
30.	Male	private	NY: Westchester	28	CEO	120	6
31.	Male	public	Washinton	17	CEO	60	3
32.	Male	private	NYC	19	VP	18	5
33.	Male	public	NYC	17	VP	6	9
34.	Male	private	NY: Buffalo	10	VP	18	7
35.	Male	private	NYC	24	Sr.VP	120	2
36.	Male	private	NYC: S.I.	14	COO	12	5
37.	Male	private	NY: Westchester	17	CEO	24	5

Appendix E.

Correlation (Pearson r) of Delegation and the Three  
Delegation Factors with Nurturance, Person Dominance  
and Goal Dominance (N = 96)

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Delegation / Personality			
Traits:	Nurturance	Person Dominance	Goal Dominance
Overall	-.0858	-.0807	-.0597
Supervisory	-.0641	-.0316	-.0267
Lateral	-.1051	-.1427	-.0380
Bilevel	-.0685	-.1457	-.1375

---

No correlation reached significance of at least  $p < .05$ .

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