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**Perception of ideal and actual leader behavior in a downsizing
environment with knowledge of leader and predecessor
performance**

Kelly, Dennis Robert, Ph.D.
City University of New York, 1994

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PERCEPTIONS OF IDEAL AND ACTUAL
LEADER BEHAVIOR IN A DOWNSIZING ENVIRONMENT
WITH KNOWLEDGE OF LEADER AND PREDECESSOR PERFORMANCE

by

DENNIS R. KELLY

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Abstract

PERCEPTIONS OF IDEAL AND ACTUAL
LEADER BEHAVIOR IN A DOWNSIZING ENVIRONMENT
WITH KNOWLEDGE OF LEADER AND PREDECESSOR PERFORMANCE

by

Dennis R. Kelly

Advisor: Professor Edwin P. Hollander

This study examined the influence of followers' perceptions of the relative importance of ideal leader behaviors on ratings of a leader in the context of several situational factors which included: (a) organizational downsizing (or not), (b) leader performance, and (c) predecessor performance.

Hypothetical situations were utilized which manipulated the presence or absence of organizational downsizing, and the quality of the leader's and predecessor's performance. Dependent measures included ratings of the frequency and importance of relational and managerial-task, actual and ideal leader behaviors, and behavioral intentions of followers in the context of the situation. Additional pretest measures included respondent's ratings of the importance of the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors for their conception of the ideal leader.

Subjects were 211 MBA students (104 men and 107 women) enrolled at an urban university. It was hypothesized that: (a) ratings of relational behaviors would be higher than managerial-task behaviors for an ideal leader in both the downsizing and no downsizing situations, (b) ratings of the frequency with which leader behaviors were perceived to have occurred would be correlated with the importance with which those same leader behaviors were rated for an ideal leader, and (c) both leader and predecessor information would result in inaccurate ratings of the frequency of leader behavior and performance.

Results indicated that the perceived importance of ideal leader behaviors was related to ratings of an actual leader's behavior. It was also found that information about the leader's and predecessor's effectiveness, and organizational downsizing (or not), influenced ratings of the leader's behavior and performance.

These results help to reveal the influence that followers' perceptions of ideal leader behavior have on ratings, particularly in the context of downsizing. The findings also offer information about further sources of inaccuracy in leader behavior performance ratings. This information could be applied to programs aimed at reducing the negative effects of these biases.

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Perceptions of Actual and Ideal
Leader Behavior in a Downsizing Environment
with Knowledge of Leader and Predecessor Performance

Followers maintain a unique role as the observers and recipients of leader behavior. In this capacity, they generate evaluations of the desirability of leader behavior for effectiveness in a variety of situations. While the influence of the situation on follower's perceptions of the leader has become an accepted tenet in leadership research (Hollander & Offermann, 1990), continued research is required to expand our understanding of contextual evaluations of leader behavior and performance.

The present study is interested in the influence of three unique situational variables on ratings of leader performance and what have been identified as relational and managerial-task dimensions of leader behavior. The first variable, downsizing, is a contemporary situational phenomenon that has occurred with unprecedented frequency (Hendricks, 1992). Despite its prevalence, little is known about the effects of downsizing on followers' perceptions of leader behavior (Brockner, Grover, Reed, Dewitt, & O'Malley, 1987). The unique leader behaviors required to adapt to a changing environment and achieve organizational goals while attending to the surviving followers' needs, remains unclear. Perhaps followers have developed a mistrust for their leader(s), blame the downsizing on poor

management, and want demonstrated competence and increased managerial-task skills from their leader(s)? Or, followers may expect more interpersonal skills from their leader to help them cope with the uncertainty? Followers may also desire leaders to be high on the two dimensions of behavior considered to encompass effectiveness, i.e., consideration and initiating structure (Fleishman, 1973; Schriesheim, 1982).

The second situational phenomenon of interest in the present study is the influence of information regarding a leader's performance (good versus bad) on followers' perceptions of the frequency with which the relational and managerial-task behaviors were demonstrated by that leader. Several researchers (e.g., Staw, 1975; Mitchell, Larson, & Green, 1977) have found that followers are prone to interject their beliefs about what a leader's behavior ought to be (their implicit leadership theory; ILT) to influence ratings of the frequency of actual leader behavior when they are provided with knowledge of the leader's performance. Thus, knowledge of the leader's performance can operate as a marker against which ratings of leader behaviors are partially inferred. These associations may subsequently introduce bias into the ratings assigned to the leader by followers.

The third situational variable of interest in the present study, which may also function to introduce bias in

ratings of the leader's behavior, is knowledge of the prior leader's (predecessor's) performance. Research examining this influence process has focused on performance appraisal situations, where present performance is often evaluated in the context of knowledge or observation of past performance or in selection interview research, where the interviewer often rates a sequence of candidates with diverging levels of ability (Murphy, Balzer, Lockhart, & Eisenman, 1985). The research focus is on the contrast effects that may occur when ratings are made in the context of contrasting performance. For example, an interviewer may interview and rate an average performer after interviewing and rating an excellent performer. If contrast effects are operating, the rater will provide the average performer with a below average rating due to the influence of the previous interview of an excellent performer.

Prior research has not considered the possibility of a contrast effect in utilizing followers' evaluations of their leader's performance. Further, no research has been found which investigated contrast effects in the context of followers' evaluations of their current leader's performance in contrast with knowledge of the prior leader's performance.

Before being presented with scenarios which manipulate these variables, baseline measures will be taken of the respondents' perceptions of the relative importance of the

relational and managerial-task behaviors for their (the respondents') notion of an ideal leader. These ratings will then be examined in terms of their correspondence with the respondents' other ratings of: (1) the frequency with which the leader in the scenario demonstrated and (2) an ideal leader should have demonstrated those same behaviors. These ratings will be made in the context of the three situational variables noted above. The present study will also examine respondents' ratings of their leader's performance and respondents' reported intentions with respect to the leader and organization.

Results from the present study will aid in understanding the influence that preconceived notions of what an ideal leader should be like have on evaluations of the frequency with which those behaviors are and should be demonstrated. Perceptions of the importance of leader behaviors have been associated with the notion of an internal conception of an ideal leader by Lord and his associates (see e.g., Mitchell, Larson, & Green, 1977; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Lord, Foti, & Devader, 1984). They have provided evidence that individuals possess a cognitive representation of what constitutes a leader, labeled an implicit leadership theory (ILT). This research has provided evidence that ILTs can operate to create expectations of what a leader's behavior should be. Furthermore, their research suggests that in addition to

the situation and the leader's behavior, follower's perceptions of what a leader's characteristics should be in that situation can influence ratings of the leader. Their relationship will be examined in the present study.

Other results will shed light on the relative desire for relational or managerial-task leader behaviors under varying situational conditions. Previous research (Hollander & Kelly, 1992) found that the relational features of leader behavior were most effective in differentiating good from bad leadership across a variety of organization settings. The current study is interested in exploring if effectiveness in a downsizing situation is associated more with relational than managerial-task leader behaviors.

In summary, the present study is interested in experimentally examining the effects of the presence or absence of downsizing, and information about the performances (good/bad) of the leader and prior leader on respondents' ratings of relational and managerial-task leader behaviors for an actual and ideal leader in the situation. The present study will also examine the influence of a respondent's ratings of the importance of those relational and managerial-task leader behaviors to his/her ideal leader and the effect of their importance on the ratings noted above.

Independent Variables

Downsizing

The issue of downsizing has gained heightened importance over the past decade as, among other things, a more competitive economic climate has led to an increase in organizational streamlining or "rightsizing". The severity and distinctiveness of the layoffs associated with the downsizing phenomenon is indicated by the fact that for the first time on record, white collar workers have surpassed blue collar workers in the nation's unemployment lines. In 1990 alone, nearly a million U. S. managers with salaries of more than \$40,000 lost their jobs (Hendricks, 1992). This situation is likely to continue into the immediate future as the American Management Association reported that 1 in 4 employers planned layoffs in 1993 (Hage, Grant, & Impoco, 1993).

Downsizing has been defined as "the systematic reduction of a workforce by an employer in a variety of ways, usually as a result of such developments as financial losses, cashflow difficulties, and technological changes. Techniques used to downsize an organization include hiring freezes, early retirement, transfers, and terminations" (Appelbaum, Simpson, & Shapiro, 1987, p. 436).

The term downsizing was coined in reference to the scaling down of cars by automobile manufacturers. Downsizing was first applied by the government and

businesses as a response to the recession of the late 1970's and early 1980's. Among the many factors that can lead to downsizing are: (1) acquisitions and mergers, leading to reduced personnel needs, (2) technological innovations resulting in productivity improvements that reduce the number of workers involved, (3) international competition, causing product and employee redundancy, and (4) slow economic growth and a rapidly changing marketplace that leads to increased competitiveness (Appelbaum, et al., 1987).

According to Appelbaum, et al. (1987) downsizing can have both macro and micro effects. The macro effects include strains on the unemployment and welfare programs (as the number of unemployed grows). At the individual level, depression and hardship have been reported. The impact on "survivors" has also been traumatic. Increases in their levels of stress, conflict, role ambiguity, job dissatisfaction and increased dissatisfaction with co-workers and supervisors can all contribute to decreased organizational effectiveness.

Downsizing can have an impact on a range of organizational elements, including: employee motivation, perceived security, and job performance (Appelbaum, Simpson & Shapiro, 1987). The intangible costs of the drastic staff layoffs associated with downsizing are reflected in decreases in loyalty to the organization. In one poll of

middle managers, 60% indicated they felt less loyal to their employers than they did 5 years ago (Fisher, 1988).

The effects of downsizing on the organization are not necessarily negative. Downsizing is usually done of necessity to make the organization a more viable entity. Among the positive effects, organizations may experience increased flexibility, speed in decision making, and job satisfaction (Appelbaum, Simpson & Shapiro, 1987). However, despite its pervasiveness and impact on organizational functioning and human lives, researchers in the field have noted that downsizing has received scant attention (Appelbaum, Simpson, & Shapiro, 1987; Brockner, Grover, & Blonder, 1988).

Frequently the downsizing or reorganization literature has viewed the process as a managerial task of reshaping the organization. Tomasko (1993) advocates viewing the downsizing organizational change process from an architectural perspective. He suggests, "to look at the task of organizational overhaul the way an architect might approach the design of a building" (Tomasko, 1993, p. 2). A consideration of the structural changes associated with reorganization is not irrelevant. However, little attention has been directed toward the effects of downsizing on the perceptions, attitudes and performance of the individuals who will be working in the newly shaped structures.

Other writers on the topic have focused more on the effects of downsizing on the manager. Hendrick's (1992) devoted an entire volume to exploring how managers can respond to the effects of downsizing. Again, however, there was not any discussion of how managers might manage subordinates or what follower's expect from their leaders during the downsizing process. Rather, the emphasis was on how managers should manage their careers in the face of organizational downsizings.

Tichy and Ulrich (1987) advocate the need for transformational leadership to revitalize organizations. This view holds that leaders must create a vision, mobilize commitment, and institutionalize the change. As proponents of the transformational view of leadership, Tichy and Ulrich (1987) focus on the leader as the visionary who will bring about change in the organization. This view fails to acknowledge the distrust of leadership that survivors may maintain in a downsizing environment. As a leader dominant view, it suggests that managers in a transition process can control or properly handle followers until trust and commitment are restored to the organization. This perspective also ignores the downsizing situation from the perspective of the follower. Its task orientation suggests that managers need only to be better managers. What is lacking in this and most of the literature on downsizing is an examination of the relational element of how followers

perceive and react to leaders during the downsizing process.

In a more clinical examination of how managers can help people through organizational change, Woodward, Buchholz, & Hess (1987) elucidated that transitions are a time for weaning people from the old to the new. These authors indicate that transitions are also the time when managers "will probably need more support from your friends and colleagues and when, in turn, you will need to provide more support for the members of your work unit" (p. 55). They suggest that there are three basic things that will help people through change: empathy, information, and ideas. However, in changing environments, people are often pushed prematurely into taking action. As a result, people in change usually get autocratic behavior, avoidance, and "rah rah" (ignore the problems, full-steam ahead). While managers might want to attend to the needs of their subordinates, the organizational pressures for action force them to resort to the more reactive behaviors noted.

Other researchers have also recognized the importance of the human side of organizational restructuring. In commenting on the downsizing process, Kimberly and Quinn (1984) indicated that, "Transitions are generally undermanaged. What tends to be undermanaged is the behavioral rather than the technical side of the process"

(p. 4). Two reasons are suggested for this imbalance. First, technical issues have a right and wrong way associated with them. Errors may be identified and remedies found. Second, behavioral issues are less concrete and easier to dismiss. Managers become dominated by problems which have the illusion of concrete solutions. The behavioral sides of transitions are often handled with common sense, intuition, or management by default.

Despite Kimberly and Quinn's (1984) identification of the technical and behavioral dimensions to downsizing, they also have concentrated on a managerial solution to the issue. Lacking in their examination of the phenomenon, however, is a treatment of how downsizing has impacted follower perceptions of their jobs, organization, or leaders. In short, managerial issues and solutions have taken precedence over interpersonal issues and solutions. The behavioral expectations that followers have of leaders has been given less attention.

Recent research conducted by Brockner and his associates has begun to examine the effects of layoffs associated with downsizing on those who remain in the organization, so called survivors (e.g. Brockner, Grover, Reed, & Dewitt, 1992; Brockner, DeWitt, Grover, & Reed, 1990; Brockner, Grover, & Blonder, 1988; Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt, & O'Malley, 1987). Survivors include both leaders and followers, who continue to function in a new

environment, possibly characterized by uncertainty and elevated stress. Researchers report varying degrees of guilt, uneasiness, lethargy and/or anger by survivors (Appelbaum, Simpson, & Shapiro, 1987) as they adjust to the sometimes draconian organizational streamlining.

The impact that downsizing has on workers can be mitigated by how the process was conducted (Brockner et al. 1992). It can be carried out in a fair and open fashion with the least damaging options given first priority. It can also be implemented with little regard for its effects on either those employees who leave the organization or those who remain. Utilizing a justice theory framework, Brockner et al. (1987) conducted a lab and field study in which they found that survivors exhibited the most negative reaction (from an organizational perspective) when they perceived that those laid off had been dismissed with little or no compensation and they felt some prior sense of psychological kinship with the laid off parties.

Brockner et al. (1988) indicated that depending upon conditions, there exists great variation in survivors' reactions to layoffs. Given that there is variation in survivors' reactions, the major conceptual and empirical tasks were proposed to be the delineation of factors that moderate the impact of layoffs on those who stay. Brockner et al. (1988) suggested that following layoffs, workers worry and experience stress regarding their own job

security, even when management claims that no additional layoffs are planned. As a consequence of this stress, survivors may be uncertain about whether they possess the resources and skills required to cope with the demands of the post-layoff work environment.

In another field study, Brockner et al. (1990) examined the factors affecting the relationship between managers' explanations of a layoff and survivors' reactions to the layoff. They hypothesized that when subordinates need for information was high, i.e., when they are relatively uncertain about why the resources were allocated in a particular way, and when they attach greater importance to the resource allocation decisions -- they would be greatly influenced by the presence or absence of clear managerial accounts of the layoffs. Survivors indicated how clearly the reasons for the layoff had been explained to them by management. They also reported how much organizational commitment, work effort, and turnover intention had changed, relative to the prelayoff period. The researchers found a positive relationship between the clarity of the managers' explanations and the favorability of survivor reactions, which was especially pronounced under conditions of high uncertainty and high importance.

More recently, Brockner, et al. (1992) examined the effect of job layoffs and job insecurity on work effort. They hypothesized that work effort would be greater at

moderate, rather than low or high levels of job insecurity. Their rationale was that if job insecurity is low, survivors are unlikely to be motivated because they feel complacent (perceived control is high). If job insecurity is high, survivors are likely to be unmotivated because additional layoffs are likely (perceived threat is high) and there is little that they or the organization can do to help counter the negative consequences of job loss (perceived control is low). Moderate levels of job insecurity would be high enough to overcome the complacency associated with low job insecurity, but not so high as to lead to helplessness (associated with high job insecurity) and be associated with the greatest level of work effort. The results supported their predictions. They also found that the survivors economic need to work moderated these effects, with those high in this need translating these feelings of job insecurity into their level of work effort in the predicted inverted-U fashion.

Brockner's work has advanced the level of understanding on the effects of downsizing from the survivors' perspective. It has also shown that perceptions of downsizing are rooted in the context in which it occurs. Yet, its effects on perceptions of the specific leader behaviors that followers desire remains under-researched.

The review of research above has indicated that downsizing has been met with managers showing concern with

their own survival and careers, an over emphasis on the technical side, autocratic behavior, and avoidance. However, other behaviors such as information and empathy may be considered as more important from the follower's perspective (Woodward, Buchholz, & Hess, 1987). This view is supported by more recent research (Hollander & Kelly, 1992) which found that relational leader behaviors such as involvement and perceptiveness were more effective in differentiating good from bad leadership than the traditionally defined managerial-task leader behaviors such as decisiveness and delegation.

The importance that followers ascribe to relational and managerial-task leader behaviors in the presence or absence of a downsizing environment remains a meaningful consideration. This issue will be addressed by examining followers' perceptions of the importance of both relational and managerial-task leader behaviors within a downsizing (no downsizing) context. It is again expected that in the presence or absence of downsizing, followers will rate relational leader behaviors to be the most effective.

Leader Performance Information

Some leadership theorists have emphasized the importance of performance outcomes of leaders in evaluating leader effectiveness (e.g. Drucker, 1988). However, while level of performance might be the bottom line on

effectiveness, recent research (e.g. Staw, 1975; Mitchell Larson, & Green, 1977; Larson, Lingle & Scerbo, 1984) has indicated that contextual cues, notably, exposure to information about a leader's performance, may have a biasing effect on ratings of the frequency with which leader behaviors occur and on the quality of the group's functioning. Hence, knowledge of performance information can act as a perceptual filter, in the performance appraisal process. Rather than providing accurate indications of the degree to which the leader behaviors were demonstrated, evaluators interject their personal standards for appropriate levels of leader behaviors associated with levels of performance. In addition to the demonstrated levels of leader behavior, the ratings may reflect the rater's idea(s) of appropriate levels of particular behaviors for a given level of performance.

This hypothesis is based upon attribution theory (Kelley, 1973). According to this approach, people have a need to explain the events around them. To do so, individuals develop what Heider (1958) labeled a "naive" psychology for explaining behavior. Staw (1975) argued that the organizational participant develops a lay psychology of individual, group, and organizational functioning in order to understand and control his/her environment. The organizational member possesses a theory of the relationships between organizational characteristics

and subsequent functioning. Hence, it is posited that individuals utilize knowledge of performance as a cue by which they ascribe characteristics to the individual, group, or organizational unit. The attributional hypothesis posits that performance is a potent independent variable, and that many of the correlations between performance and self-report data may be accounted for by the performance data causing individuals to assign an entire set of characteristics in the form of a stereotype (or an implicit leadership theory, ILT) to individuals, groups, and organizations. Furthermore, this attributed set of characteristics may underlie many of the correlations derived from cross-sectional studies of organizational processes (Staw, 1975).

Staw (1975) provided evidence of the existence of this contextually related error. He experimentally manipulated perceived knowledge of group performance level by providing randomly selected groups with postinteraction cues concerning their relative performance (positive versus negative) on a financial puzzle task. The subjects then rated their group on a number of intragroup processes. The high performance group subjects rated their ability to solve financial puzzles, teammates' ability, cohesiveness, communication, and satisfaction with working on the task, as significantly greater than the low performance group. In actuality, the groups assigned to the high performance

condition did no better than the groups assigned to the low performance condition. These findings were replicated in an interpersonal simulation in which different subjects were asked to respond to the same questionnaire (used in the first study) as though they were members of a high or low performing group. In essence, they were asked to provide a profile of how a high or low performing group would be rated along the same intragroup processes rated in the first study.

An important element lacking in the Staw (1975) research was the inclusion of a leader in the group. This prohibited an evaluation of the leader's effectiveness based upon the group's performance. This feature was included in a study conducted by Mitchell, Larson and Green (1977). These authors expressed concern about the large percentage of leadership studies which collect behavioral measures of the leader or group concurrently with measures of performance. Hence, leadership research may be especially prone to raters providing evaluations of the leader or group based upon their personal belief about how a leader or group should behave, given the reported level of performance. As previously noted here, perceptions of how a leader should behave in a given situation have been called implicit leadership theories (ILTs; e.g., Lord, Binning, Rush and Thomas, 1978).

Mitchell et al. (1977) conducted three studies

similar to Staw's (1975) study but included leadership ratings. In all three studies the researchers employed scripts that contained equal numbers of both structuring and consideration behaviors from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ; Stogdill, 1963). In the first two studies, subjects listened to a tape recording (study 1) or a videotape (study 2) of a problem solving group in which the leader was identified. Before exposure to the stimulus materials, subjects were told that the group had performed well (best) or that it had performed poorly (worst). Study 3 included the subjects as participants in a 3 member group discussion that included a confederate leader. In the third study, subjects were provided with the performance information after the groups had conducted their exercise. The group members then made ratings of the leader's behavior using items from the LBDQ, and ratings of situational characteristics of their group.

The results supported the hypothesis that perceptions of good performance would result in higher ratings on both leader behavior and situational characteristics than in the condition where poor performance perceptions existed. All three experiments showed significant differences in the predicted direction for at least one of these variables, and in one case all three variables (group atmosphere, position power, and task structure) were significant. The leader behavior results were more mixed. Studies 1 and 2

showed significant findings in the predicted direction. Consideration in study 1, and both consideration and initiating of structure in study 2 were found to have significantly different ratings under the two performance conditions. While the third study found no significant differences.

The findings of the third study raised the question of whether having the results of the group's performance before or after the group functioned had an effect on perceptions of the leader's behavior. The authors suggest that the lack of findings in the third study could also be due to the actor-observer distinction of the subjects. In study 3 the subjects were active participants in their group's functioning. In this role (as actor) there is reason to believe that subjects would attribute less of the outcome to a dispositional feature of the leader and more of the outcome to a situational feature.

Rush, Thomas, & Lord (1977) also employed the LBDQ in a limited information condition in which subjects were instructed to rate a supervisor of a fictitious company. The only information provided to the subjects was a brief description of the supervisor with slight alterations regarding performance, sex, and level of education. They found that supervisors of high performance groups were rated significantly higher than supervisors of low performance groups on each of the 12 LBDQ scales. They

also found that performance cues accounted for nearly 40% of the variance on the consideration and initiating structure scales of the LBDQ. Cues regarding a leader's sex and educational level had nonsignificant effects on the LBDQ ratings. The lack of significance associated with the leader's sex is consistent with the findings of Butterfield and Powell (1981), who found no effect of leader sex on evaluations of leader style.

While the preceding studies clearly demonstrated that experimentally manipulated performance information significantly affected a variety of behavioral ratings, the interpretation of these findings was problematic. Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas (1978) noted that because no previous studies had systematically varied stimulus behavior, it was not possible to determine whether behavioral information was salient enough to be detected by subjects. This question is important, since the effect of performance cues may have affected behavioral ratings only where the level of behavioral information was lacking or unclear. In addition, the size of effects due to performance cues relative to the size of effect due to demonstrated leader behaviors was unknown.

Lord et al. (1978) experimentally manipulated both stimulus behavior and performance cues to examine their joint effect on leadership ratings. Subjects viewed a videotape of a problem-solving group in which the leader

exhibited many or few initiating structure behaviors. Subjects were also randomly assigned to either a high, low or no (a control group) performance cue group. After viewing the tape, performance cues were provided and subjects rated the leader's behavior. The results showed highly significant main effects for both the performance cue and the stimulus behavior manipulations, but a nonsignificant interaction. The high performance condition mean was found to be greater than the control mean, which in turn, was greater than the low performance condition mean.

This study also found that 53% of the explained variance in the LBDQ scales was accounted for by the behavioral factor, while 7% was accounted for by the performance cues. Interestingly, in the first two studies by Mitchell et al. (1977), which did not manipulate leader behavior, performance cues explained 15% of the variance in LBDQ ratings, while in the Rush et al. (1977) study, which involved no leader behavior, performance cues explained about 40% of the variance in ratings of the LBDQ. This suggests that as the level of ambiguity increases about the leader's behavior, raters will increasingly use the performance cue information in their assessments of leader behavior.

The consistency between the Lord et al. (1978) study, which used post-behavior performance cues, and those from

the Mitchell et al. (1977) studies, which used pre-behavior cues, indicates that the discrepancies between their first two studies with their third study was probably not due to the timing of the performance cue presentation.

In a similar videotape problem-solving group exercise, Larson (1982) provided feedback information before or after seeing the tape, and found that the timing of the performance cue presentation had no impact on leader behavior ratings. These results were interpreted as evidence that this bias has its impact on conventional leader behavior ratings primarily through mechanisms operating at the time the raters fill out the leader behavior questionnaires.

Performance information is closely related to the perceived competence of a leader. If a leader or his/her group is said to have had success (failure) or is evaluated as excellent (poor) then that person or group is afforded a certain degree of credibility or competence, unless of course, they are perceived to have arrived at their position through luck. Hollander's (1958; 1978) idiosyncrasy credit model of leadership pays special attention to the social exchange or transactional nature of a leaders' competence as perceived by followers. It is the followers who provide a leader with a level of credit related to the leader's competency. The level of credit available to a leader offers corresponding degrees of

latitude for innovation in decision making and action. The perceived competence of the leader was found to be the single most important variable in defining the leaders influence on a group (Hollander & Julian, 1970).

Phillips and Lord (1982) examined how leadership prototypes are related to memory for leadership behaviors. Similar to prior studies, subjects viewed a videotape interaction of a four-person problem-solving group and then received written information indicating that the group had performed either second best or second worst out of twenty groups that performed the task. The subjects then completed a questionnaire containing ten items of each type referring to: (a) behaviors that were highly characteristic of an effective leadership prototype, (b) behaviors that were highly characteristic of an ineffective leadership prototype, and (c) behaviors that were equally characteristic of an effective and ineffective leadership prototype (nonprototypic behavior). The leader in the tape had actually exhibited a subset of five behaviors from each class of behavior. The behaviors were abstracted from the LBDQ.

The results indicated that for the nonprototypic items, subjects were relatively capable of accurately distinguishing observed and unobserved behaviors. However, for prototypic items, subjects were less able to make this distinction. In addition, the bogus performance

information significantly affected ratings for prototypic items but had little effect on nonprototypic items. Finally, the magnitude of the performance information effect was constant for behavior that had actually occurred and for behavior that had not occurred. These results were consistent with the assumption that when subjects were completing the descriptive questionnaire they relied on their ILT. Furthermore, subjects systematically distorted their leadership descriptions to be consistent with the prototype of the category implied by the bogus performance feedback.

More recently, Larson, Lingle, and Scerbo (1984) investigated the cognitive mechanisms mediating the performance cues influence on leader behavior ratings. Using analytic procedures borrowed from signal detection theory, they found evidence suggesting that preobservation performance cue effects were mediated by selective encoding of leader behavior information, while the postobservation effects were mediated by probabilistic response biases. Probabilistic response biases do not assume selective availability of leader behavior information. Rather, it posits that leader-behavior ratings reflect the rater's implicit beliefs about the relationship between leader behavior and group performance. Finally, selective memory retrieval was not found to play a role.

Researchers (e.g., Butterfield & Powell (1981) have

suggested that future research include new settings and designs, and use more realistic leadership situations and alternative measures of leader performance. Some researchers have explored alternative measures of leader performance. Puffer (1990), for example, found that leaders who had successful outcomes were credited with greater expertise, charisma, and overall charismatic leadership.

The "knowledge of leader performance" literature has also been examined from an attributions perspective. The primary focus of this approach has been on the analysis of causality for the leader's success or failure. Empirical research has indicated that observers will assign credit when an actor exceeds some performance standard in a positive direction and blame when an actor exceeds some performance standard in a negative direction (Hamilton, Blumenfeld, & Kushler, 1988).

In summary, this line of research has shown that when followers are exposed to performance information, they will match the reported level of performance against their internal standards of appropriate or expected levels of leader behavior (their ILTs). This information is then utilized with estimates of the observed levels of leader behavior to produce a rating of the actual level of demonstrated leader behavior. The research findings indicated biases in the performance ratings in the

direction of the performance information. These studies did not determine the relative changes in respondent ratings because no pretest measures of the importance of the leader behaviors were collected. Pretest measures of the importance of the leader behaviors could be compared with the actual ratings of leaders in the good/bad performance information conditions. This information would provide support for a hypothesis that the perceived importance of particular leader behaviors have a correspondence with ratings of actual leader behavior on those same behaviors.

In examining the effects of knowledge of performance information on ratings of leader behavior, most of the studies reviewed have relied heavily on the same measures of leader behavior (the LBDQ) and performance (financial puzzles and videotaped problem solving groups). While the LBDQ is one of the most researched leadership measures available, the use of other measures of leader behavior would broaden the validity of the research findings in this area. The overuse of video-taped problem solving groups has also limited the generalizability of these findings. More relevant leadership situations with controlled levels of the dimensions of leader behaviors would add another dimension to these research findings.

The present study also will extend prior research by using an alternative set of leader behaviors to those in

the LBDQ. The measures to be employed are behaviorally based and were generated from followers' reports of critical incidents of actual good and bad leadership situations across a variety of organizational settings. The eight behaviors selected for the present study form two dimensions of behavior, labeled relational and managerial-task. Premeasures of the importance to respondents of these behaviors for an ideal leader will be compared with the respondent's ratings of the frequency of those same behaviors in a scenario where the information on the leader's performance has been manipulated (good or bad). It is expected that respondents will impose their conception of the relative importance and frequency of leader behaviors onto their ratings of the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors.

In prior research, subjects were told that the performance of the group was good or bad in very simple terms and were provided performance information in an indirect manner (i.e., told by the researcher that the group's performance was good or bad). The present study will employ scenarios with a leadership situation presented in an organizational setting, as against the problem-solving videotapes previously used.

Predecessor Performance Information

While the literature review above concentrated on the effects of leader performance information on evaluations of the leader, the following sections will focus on the effect of comparative performance information on evaluation of the leader's performance. Specifically, this review will examine research conducted on the biasing effect of a prior leader's (predecessor's) performance on ratings of a present leader's (successor's) performance, particularly when the performances of the two leaders vary. There are two areas where the issue of the effects of previous performance on evaluations of present performance are clearly relevant, leader succession and contrast effects.

Leader Succession

Since the present research is interested in the effects of a prior leader's performance on evaluations of the present leader, it is also interested in the succession process through which changes in leadership occur. As indicated above, an individual's performance is often evaluated in the context of another person's performance. The process of leader succession involves a transition from a prior leader to a current leader. Hence, although not traditionally conceptualized as such, it contains the elements through which a comparison of performance can be made. In this instance, an evaluation of the succeeding

leader's performance may potentially be influenced by the preceding leader's performance. This comparison is also unique in that it involves an appraisal from followers, those most affected by the succession and leadership process.

Some of the most notable early research in the succession area was conducted by Grusky (1960), who identified two categories of circumstances under which succession occurs. The first set of circumstances are classified as those in which the organization has control. This occurs in situations such as promotions, transfers, demotions, dismissals, or reorganizations. The second set of circumstances that can lead to succession are those that are "environmentally controlled." These situations would include succession resulting from a worker's illness or death or voluntary succession due to an organizational member taking a new position elsewhere.

Gordon and Rosen (1981) suggested that there are a set of identifiable events that are a part of the succession process regardless of the particular situational events. These include four prearrival factors, the first being the successor's age, education, sex, race, prior work history, knowledge, skills and abilities, motivations for assuming the new position, values, organizational reputation, and how the group perceives his/her insider/outsider status.

The second set of features associated with the

succession process are the group's prior experience with succession, including: (1) the frequency, desirability, outcomes, etc.; (2) cause for the succession, for example, fixed terms of office or poor selection/classification; and (3) the positive or negative perception of the succession for the group. The third prearrival feature represents the screening procedure used, including: (1) group involvement in the selection process, (2) the effect the selection will have on others in the group, (3) the location of the former leader in the organization following the succession.

A fourth element concerns the new leader's mandate. This represents the expectations that are imposed on the new leader by higher level administrators in the organization.

Postarrival factors represent those aspects of the succession process that occur after the new leader has assumed the new position and is physically located in the new job. The first aspect of this process is the mutual observation process in which the successor and the group check each other out in terms of accuracy of perceived or expected characteristics. As Hollander (1978) has noted, a new leader may bring derivative credit to the new group based upon his/her reputation.

This aspect of the process was reflected earlier in Gouldner's (1954) work at a factory in which the so-called

"Rebecca Myth" was operating. Apparently, the plant's prior manager was idealized by some of the workers who did not particularly like him while he was there. The idealization has the effect of elevating the expectations that are placed upon the succeeding manager.

A second category of the postarrival process is the successor's actions and reactions, including, for example, the coping skills adopted by the successor in response to the demands placed upon him/her by the new role, how information is gathered, and the degree to which the successor isolates.

The final component of the postarrival process is labeled the power and influence source. The successor will automatically receive a certain amount of power and consequently influence as a by-product of the position itself. An additional consideration has to do with the influence that a leader develops that goes beyond the influence derived from the formal authority vested in the position. This type of influence may take an extended period of time and experience with the group to develop.

Gordon and Rosen (1981) have indicated that there has been very little research in the social science literature, including the areas of leadership and organizational psychology, dealing with leader succession, its processes, and especially its effects on subordinates. In addressing the paucity of research in this area, they pointed out,

"nor is much mention made of the various aspects of the succession process itself, e.g., where the new leader comes from, how the leader is selected; whether there is a mandate for change or a need to maintain the status quo, what happened to the former leader, and so on.

Moreover, . . . the amount of impact a leader can have would seem to lead naturally to the succession area for study, but it has not" (p. 162).

The majority of organizational studies and reviews examining leader succession have focused almost exclusively on upper-level executives, particularly the CEO (e.g., House & Singh, 1987). In examining the consequences of CEO succession, this research area has concentrated on economic performance outcomes. Despite indications of the importance of member reactions to CEO succession events (e.g., Day & Lord, 1988), empirical research continues to neglect examining the effects of leadership succession on organizational member reactions (Friedman & Saul, 1991).

Although few in number, some studies have examined leadership succession from a process perspective. However, as Heller (1989) has indicated, even these studies have failed to focus on how followers cope with the transition process. When leader succession has been studied as a change process for followers, the focus has been on organization members adjusting to changes in leader styles (Kotin & Sharif, 1967) or to work rules and procedures

(Gouldner, 1954).

When succession occurs below the CEO or executive level it is more likely to be considered in the realm of turnover (see e.g., Staw, 1980). Hence, the turnover research literature has some connections to the succession literature. However, a major criticism of turnover research by Rosin and Korabik (1991) was for its tendency to not distinguish between occupational levels.

The following sections will review the empirical literature on leadership succession. It will be divided into case and actuarial studies, organizational correlates, and some lab and field experiments related to some specific elements of the process.

Case studies

The effects of the predecessor's personality and style can have an effect on the incumbent's future success. This was noted in Gouldner's (1954) gypsum plant study in which the new manager tried a rules and regulations approach in an attempt to counteract his predecessor's policy of leniency and improve productivity. This approach had the unintended effect of increasing the level of stress and tension in the plant. Salaman (1977) reported a similar effect in a manufacturing plant that was controlled by an authoritarian leader who was considered to be charismatic. Even after his retirement, his effect on the organization continued.

Heller (1989) outlined the transition in leadership as a psychodynamic process of loss and substitution. In some cases nostalgia for the predecessor interferes with the transfer of allegiance to the successor. In other cases, the outgoing leader is viewed negatively and the incoming leader idealized as a savior of the organization. Her research reported a case study in which the departing leader was viewed as a scapegoat and the new leader quickly won the allegiance of the followers. This occurred through the conversion process mechanisms of segregation, repudiation, annihilation, and rewriting history.

Heller's (1989) case study of the succession process focused on how followers are affected by it. She indicated that the earliest phase of the succession process may be akin to a crisis with followers experiencing emotional upheaval due to disruption of what has been familiar in the work group. This stage is characterized by both hope and fear in facing an unknown future that may offer renewal or chaos. The second stage is characterized by adaptation to the new regime and changes in new policies, rules and procedures, administrative styles, and strategies the successor employs to establish the new regime.

Spanning this process, followers transfer their allegiance from the predecessor to the successor. When the change in leadership is viewed as important and there are significant differences between the outgoing and incoming

leaders, followers may go through a conversion process in which they negatively assess the old leader and idealize, or at least accept, the new one. Sometimes the status degradation begins before the new leader officially takes charge, as when a failing organization makes the failing leader a scapegoat for its failure. In other cases the degradation appears after the succession (Heller, 1989).

Organizational Correlates

Thirty years ago Grusky (1963) indicated that poor performance following CEO succession resulted from the attendant disruptiveness that diminished employee productivity. This work followed Grusky's (1961) earlier research which examined the relationship between organizational size and rate of succession. He indicated succession rates increased as the organizational system got larger. This finding has been supported by others including, Kriesberg (1962) and Gordon and Becker (1964).

Actuarial Studies

Grusky (1963) conducted research which examined succession rates among baseball teams. This research included factors such as the source of the manager (inside or outside of the organization), win-loss records, team popularity, and the amount of managerial role strain. He concluded that the managers had an impact on win-loss records and that the teams with the poorest win-loss records had the highest rates of succession.

Helmich (1974) used 140 manufacturing companies to examine the relationship between predecessor turnover rates of presidents and promotion origins and leadership behavior. Using Fiedler's LPC as one measure of leader style, he found that increases in the frequency of succession were associated with the presence of a task-oriented leadership style during the successor's early period in office.

There are many limitations associated with actuarial studies. For the most part, they are based on historical records without benefit of observation and interviews. This research does not take into account the intentions and perceptions of the parties when each change is made. In this particular research, for example, all of the manager replacements were treated equally. Error is introduced by virtue of the fact that managing changes were made for different reasons at different times. These studies did not differentiate between interim and permanent appointments and their differing motivational implications. Finally, the effects of managing changes may take extended periods of time to be demonstrable.

Laboratory Studies

Some research has attempted to overcome the deficiencies of field studies by conducting succession studies using simulated business firms. In an early lab succession study, Hamblin (1958) found that leaders will

have more influence during experimentally induced crises than during noncrisis periods. It was also found that groups tend to replace their existing leader if that person does not have a solution to the crisis problem. In this study, the leader was replaced by a subordinate. Hence, their replacement can be seen as a form of followers taking on the leadership role and a leader emerging who can offer a solution to the problem at hand. Hamblin's (1958) results help to bolster the notion that succession can be used for the purposes of scapegoating.

The importance of followers' perceptions of the leader was reported in a study by Hollander and Julian (1970). Their research found that followers' placed different expectations upon the leader depending upon whether a leader came into the leadership position through election or appointment. An elected leader had higher expectations placed upon him or her by followers than did an appointed leader. These differing expectations reflect the fact that leaders are evaluated by members of the group who function as "validators" (Hollander & Julian, 1970).

Experimental field Studies

Jackson (1953) conducted a limited field study with long-established telephone company work crews. The company indicated to the study participants (under the guise of the experiment) that they were interested in broadening and developing the experience of the

supervisors. Toward this end, supervisors were transferred to different work groups based upon attitude ratings they had received from group members. New supervisory pairings were made with one supervisor being rated above and one below the mean attitude score. Reflecting the impact of the new leader on group process, the posttest measures indicated attitude changes toward the direction of the mean.

This study had some methodological problems including the possibility of regression to the mean effects and a small sample size. However, one interesting observation from the research by Jackson (1953, p. 40) was about a group whose men appeared to become,

"emotionally disturbed by the transfer of foremen. This seemed to affect the men's ability to make objective evaluations. Not only was their resentment directed toward top management (in a section of the attitude survey), but it was reflected in an exaggeratedly low score in response to its new foreman, who thus became a scapegoat."

This quote points out the importance of the context in which succession takes place. At this organization, succession was a phenomenon that occurred with some rarity. As Grusky (1964) has noted, the perceived legitimacy of the succession becomes a primary factor in the group member's sanctioning of legitimacy to the new leader.

Lieberman (1956) conducted a longitudinal study examining whether or not attitudes change concomitantly with new, unfamiliar roles. He found that production

workers who were selected for foreman roles developed more favorable attitudes toward management. Attitudes shifted in another direction, as those individuals chosen as shop stewards developed more positive attitudes toward unions. This work, as well as that of Hollander and Julian (1970), implies that while leaders have influence over subordinates through such activities as providing a vision of the values and goals of the group, newly positioned (and established) leaders do not operate independently of the formative counterinfluence of their followers' attitudes and expectations.

Rosen (1969, 1970) has conducted some of the most extensive research in the succession area. In this research the impact of short notice supervisory changes on the attitudes and performance of an entire department of furniture factory work groups was examined. The basis for the work group assignments was the supervisor's work group preferences. Despite the fact that there were new supervisors in each of the seven positions in the department, the initial performance levels increased for each of the groups. While this increase may reflect the presence of the Hawthorne effect, the author explains this change as a function of the increased importance of the perceived technological-administrative skills of the supervisors. This suggests that the foremen were being evaluated by their subordinates, at least in part, based

upon the supervisor's ability to reestablish equilibrium after the reassignments.

Gordon and Rosen (1981) have noted that while pleasantness-unpleasantness was a critical element in the process to reestablish equilibrium in the group, the importance of technical-administrative skills highlights the importance of task-competence in subordinates perception of supervisory competence in the situation in this experiment. They also point out that the leadership succession problem, at least at lower organizational levels, cannot be avoided by simply developing and replacing "leaders" as interchangeable parts who can be effective in every situation.

The Hamblin (1958), Hollander and Julian (1978), and Rosen (1969) studies all focused on the follower's reactions to leadership succession, and indicated that leaders are not accepted by their group unless their behavior is instrumental to the group.

Succession was examined by Louis (1980) in terms of what newcomers to the organization experience. They can expect to experience change, contrast, and surprise in entering a new organization. The newcomer copes with or "makes sense" of these new experiences through interpreting events in the new setting. This research focused on a consideration of what the newcomer experiences when entering a new organization. Like most of the

research in this realm, it focuses on the individual who is entering the organization, while providing little attention to the effects of personnel change on the incumbents or "survivors".

Succession of course does not imply that the newcomer to a position is new to the organization. The succession process can be the result of promotions, lateral transfers, or even demotions within the organizations. Many companies exercise a hire from within policy that increases the probability that successors will be recruited from within the ranks of the organization.

Related Research

In a comprehensive review of the consequences of turnover, Staw (1980) concluded that research in organizational psychology and consequently within the turnover literature has tended to focus on the behavior of lower-level workers with relatively few studies conducted with managerial or professional personnel. Staw (1980) also accurately concluded that there has been almost no interface between the succession and turnover literatures.

One of the consequences of turnover that has particular relevance, is the effect that it has on those who remain. Staw (1980) maintains that those remaining in the organization may see their own fates as less desirable (being left behind) and they may question their own motive for staying. Steers and Mowday (1980) have indicated that

the reason for leaving is a key moderator of the effect that turnover has on demoralization. Brockner et al. (1990) found that the fashion in which layoffs are conducted (layoffs can be considered a form of turnover) can have an effect on the attitudes of the surviving organizational members.

An issue that has received scant attention in the management succession literature is the predecessor-successor comparisons that followers make and how these affect followers' expectations and performance evaluations. Koch (1978) utilized clinical observations and longitudinal survey data to examine the effects of a shift from a high-consideration manager to a manager high on initiating structure on subordinate behavior. He found that the change in leadership style had a disruptive effect on the immediate subordinates, in this case, shop floor supervisors. The task-oriented leadership style was found to be prone to upsetting the status quo. However, the shift in leadership style did not have a significant effect on overall levels of satisfaction or effectiveness. This effect may have been contingent upon the manufacturing context in which the research was undertaken. There also existed a high degree of leader position power, tasks were routinized and structured; but leader-member relations were poor and strained. According to Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership, given these conditions, a

task-oriented leadership should have been most effective.

Friedman and Saul (1991) examined the infrequently researched area of organization member reactions to succession. In their study, succession was operationalized at only the upper echelons of the organization (in this case, CEOs). Their research presented a model of factors that affect organization members' reactions to CEO successions. Among the contextual/content factors proposed to be influential in member reactions to successions and included in the model were presuccession performance, predecessor tenure, and successor origin.

As noted above in reference to downsizing, the literature on interpersonal and organizational justice has provided a relevant framework for understanding the effects of layoffs on survivors (Brockner et al., 1987). It has also provided a bearing for understanding followers' perceptions of inequities in the quality of managerial succession. Perceived inequity (i.e., as manifested by the perception of being provided with a less than competent leader) has been labeled as a source of stress (see Brockner, et al., 1988).

Finally, as noted above, the succession research has almost completely ignored the effects of succession at the middle management level, focusing on CEO succession. One of the drawbacks of studying succession at the CEO level is that it is difficult to determine what effects the

transition will have on the organization's functioning, including a determination of the criterion that will reflect changes associated with the CEO's succession.

Contrast Effects.

Research which has examined what are known as contrast effects has contributed significantly to our understanding of the effects of previous performance on evaluations of present performance. Contrast effects have been researched in the organizational realms of performance appraisal and employment interviewing (Kravitz and Balzer, 1992) where evaluations are often made in the context of either earlier performance of the same individual or the performances of two distinct individuals (Murphy, Balzer, Lockhart, & Eisenman, 1985). A contrast effect may have been said to occur when evaluations of present performance are biased in a direction opposite to that of the previous evaluation. For example, an average interviewee may get a poor rating if he or she is interviewed after a good interviewee (Murphy et al., 1985).

Early research in this area was conducted by Hovland, Harvey, and Sherif (1957), who examined reactions to communication and on attitude change by individuals whose initial opinions on a controversial social issue were different from positions advocated in communication. Assimilation and contrast effects refer to position shifts

toward or away from the stand advocated in communication. The basic findings of this research were that communication which was near the subject's own stand on the issue was judged to be closer (assimilation effect) to their own stand than was the actual case. Communication which diverged widely from the stand advocated by the subject was judged to be further removed (contrast effect) from the subject's stand than was actually the case.

One of the first important studies to examine the effects of previous performance on present job performance was conducted by Murphy, Balzer, Lockhart, & Eisenman (1985). In this study, subjects viewed and rated 3 videotapes of lectures presented by the same instructor. In the positive context condition, the first two videotapes described good lectures; in the negative context condition the first two videotapes described poor lectures. In both conditions, the third (target) videotape depicted average lectures. Each of the three videotapes was evaluated on a 13-item behavior frequency scale and on a 9-item evaluation scale. Results supported the existence of a contrast effect in the ratings on the target videotape. Subjects who evaluated the poor instructor videotapes provided more favorable behavior ratings and higher performance evaluation ratings to the target lecture than did subjects in the good lecture condition.

In a follow-up, second study, Murphy et al. (1985)

were interested in exploring the hypothesis that memory biases were responsible for the contrast effects. They delayed the time in which subjects evaluated the third tape until a day after it was viewed. The weak, nonsignificant contrast effects in this study suggested that memory biases were not sufficient to explain the results of study one.

In a study conducted by Buda (1984), subjects read a written summary of the ratee's prior performance before they viewed a videotape of their present performance. This information was similar to the type of information that a rater might receive as part of a ratee's employment history. Buda found that raters provided with positive prior performance evaluation information gave more favorable ratings of performance on the target videotape than did the raters with negative prior performance evaluation information. These findings were in opposition to the Murphy et al. (1985) study. Buda explained this effect as a consequence of increased rater expectations created by the prior information, which affected the categorization of subsequent information. In other words, ratings and recall of the target behavior were consistent with the initial categorization (or expectation).

Smither, Reilly, & Buda (1988) suggested that the assimilation results obtained by Buda (1984) could also be explained by the form of the prior information. Written summaries versus a videotaped sample of behavior were

therefore compared to determine what effect the form of prior information may have on an evaluation of target behavior. This was accomplished by having subjects directly observe the behavior on videotape or by having subjects review written performance evaluations made by the direct observation group. The results found a contrast effect occurred when the prior performance information was provided through the direct observation of behavior in the videotape, and an assimilation effect when the prior performance information was provided by a review of the written performance evaluations. When the time interval between observation of the videotapes and evaluations was extended to three weeks (in study 2), the contrast effects were not found. Results from study three found that subjects who reviewed extremely good (or poor) prior performance ratings provided more extreme ratings of target performance than those subjects who received less extreme prior performance.

Recent research by Hanges, Braverman and Rentsch, (1991) investigated the pattern of response participants had when they received performance appraisal information that was inconsistent with the initial appraisal they received. The initial appraisal was from the former supervisor of a subordinate who had just transferred to the new department. Participants then read and rated a series of 9 vignettes that provided performance information that

was inconsistent with the initial rating. Raters' evaluations were found to be affected by prior information. Participants produced ratings that were initially consistent with the favorability of initial employee information. However, as time passed (after the second vignette), participants' ratings reflected the employee's subsequent behavior rather than the prior information.

Most recent research investigating contrast effects has focused on methodological issues and determining the cognitive bases and strategies for reducing this rating bias. Maurer & Alexander (1991) examined contrast effects from an information processing perspective. Their results supported the conclusions of the Murphy et al. (1985) study, namely, that the contrast effect may have its origins in the early phases of attention and encoding of behavioral information during observation.

Maurer, Palmer, & Ashe (1993) found that the use of diaries and checklists will not necessarily control between-ratee contrast effects. Their research also lent support to the traditional conception of contrast effects: upward in a poor context and downward in a good context.

The organizational research on contrast effects has typically focused on its occurrence in either personnel selection or in performance appraisal situations. The performance appraisal research usually operates under a paradigm where raters evaluate someone in the context of

that same person's prior performance. The Murphy et al. (1985) and Smither et al. (1988) studies, for example, had subjects view the performances of the same lecturer on three occasions. Eight of the 11 previous articles included in Kravitz and Balzer's (1993) methodological critique on contrast effects in performance appraisals used a single person as the context and target stimuli. However, as the presence of context effects in the employment interview situation indicates, an individual's performance is often evaluated in the context of another person's performance. Moreover, the "other person's performance" might be the perceived performance of a predecessor. The target performance would be the evaluations of the successor's performance in the context of the predecessor's. No research has been found which has examined this relationship in terms of contrast effects. Hence, evaluations of a successor in the context of his or her predecessor is an area that could be investigated for the occurrence of contrast effects.

The issues of leader succession and potential contrast effects can be expected to increase in importance because of two contemporary organizational issues: (1) The increase in new lines of authority created by the restructuring of work and work groups, and layoffs associated with downsizing, indicate that there will be an accompanying increase in successions, particularly at the middle

management level (Appelbaum et al., 1987). Thus, organizations that are experiencing downsizing, can expect to have an increase in the number of instances where followers will be experiencing succession in leadership.

(2) An increase in including the input of subordinates (as well as peers and superiors) in evaluating supervisory performance, or so called 360 degree evaluations.

Taken as a whole, the research reviewed provides substantial support for the existence and importance of contrast effects. This body of research has indicated that this effect can be reproduced with reliability. However, the methodology used in studies of this effect have often been the same. For example, many have relied on video-taped performances of a classroom instructor. In fact, several studies used the video-tapes constructed by Murphy et al. (1985). These video-tapes do not have an organizational context, and were not calibrated properly, resulting in the manipulated levels of poor performance not being perceived by respondents to be poor performance. Despite this methodological flaw, the research has had a progressive line of inquiry in its development.

The present research will extend the research in contrast effects in performance ratings by examining if it can be elicited by respondents when they rate a leader's performance in the context of knowledge about the prior leader's performance. It is assumed that the same

contextual rating bias that may occur when individuals rate varying levels of performance of the same instructor or when individuals rate candidates of varying levels of qualifications for a job will be elicited when followers rate their leader's performance in the context of knowledge of a predecessor's performance.

Rating Biases

Pertinent to an examination of contextually related biases is the issue of whether they can be controlled or minimized. There has been a traditional body of research in the field of Industrial/Organizational psychology which has addressed issues related to biases in performance ratings. This research will be briefly reviewed to elucidate biases in ratings and remedies for their correction.

Landy and Farr (1980) have noted that the rater brings to the rating task "sets" or biases that may be related to, among other things, leadership style. The ratee (leader) also possesses certain characteristics, in addition to the level of performance on the dimension under consideration that may influence the rater's judgement.

Regardless of the cause of rater errors and inaccuracy in performance ratings, research in the performance appraisal area has confirmed their existence. Rater errors such as leniency, halo, and inaccuracy have been identified and shown to occur in performance ratings (Saal, Downey, & Lahey, 1980; Smith, 1986; Thorndike, 1920).

Rater errors. The error of leniency occurs when raters inflate ratings above what the ratee actually deserves. The opposite of leniency, known as severity, occurs when the rater provides ratings that are below what the ratee actually deserves. The halo error occurs when raters

provide favorable ratings on all dimensions of performance for a particular ratee. This occurs despite the fact that the ratee does not actually excel in all of the areas being rated.

Additional rater errors may occur, including: central tendency, length of service, logical biases and proximity. Research has principally focused on the rating errors of leniency, severity, halo, and central tendency (Alliger & Williams, 1989; Bernardin & Walter, 1977; Borman, 1975; 1979). While there is agreement on the conceptual definition of these biases (Saal, Downey, & Lahey, 1980), their operationalizations have been debated.

Rater accuracy. Rater accuracy is broadly defined as the extent to which a rater approximates the true score estimate for each performance dimension (Roach and Gupta, 1990). The relationship between rater errors and accuracy has not always been in the predicted direction of fewer rating errors producing more accuracy. It has even been found that decreases in leniency or halo can occur with corresponding decreases in accuracy (Bernardin and Pence, 1980; Borman, 1975; McIntyre, Smith, & Hassett, 1984) or reliability (Borman, 1975). In short, raters may learn what the psychometric rules are, but then apply them inappropriately. They are merely replacing one response set with another.

True scores. Rater errors and accuracy are difficult

to measure in actual performance reviews because there are no objective true scores with which to compare rater responses. However, target scores can be developed for research purposes. Generally, either a small number of subject matter experts or a larger number of raters view videotaped performances on the dimensions used for a study. Mean ratings are generated for those dimensions that have sufficient convergent validity to justify their inclusion.

The present study will be sensitive to the issue of having "true scores" by equating pretest ratings of the relational and managerial-task dimensions in the scenarios. This will allow for an examination of the greater importance ascribed to either the relational or managerial-task leader behaviors.

Over the past 15 years a considerable amount of research attention has focused on the issue of improving performance ratings through performance rater training (PRT) programs. Smith (1986) proposed three types of PRT programs: (a) Rater Error Training (RET) presents raters with definitions and examples of the types of rating errors most frequently committed, (b) Performance Dimension Training (PDT) familiarizes the rater with the dimensions of job performance by reviewing descriptions of job qualifications, job performance dimensions and the rating scales used for evaluations, and (c) Performance Standards Training (PST) is accomplished by providing raters with a

common standard against which to rate the ratee's performance. A frame of reference is developed through the presentation of samples of job performance along with accurate performance ratings.

PST has been the most successful type of training to reduce leniency and halo (Ivancevich, 1979; Pulakos, 1984). When combined with PDT, PST has been the most effective means of increasing rater accuracy (McIntyre, et al., 1984).

Inaccuracies or biases in ratings that may intuitively appear to stem from differences in the standards being applied could also stem from differences in attention and encoding. Wexley, Sanders, & Yukl (1973) were only able to eliminate contrast effects when they included information on job qualifications needed to perform job duties, use of an evaluation guide while observing performance, and discussion of reasons why a certain rating was appropriate. The authors asserted that they did not know which elements of the workshop were responsible for eliminating the effect. These results indicate that additional research is necessary to identify the cognitive processes responsible for the occurrence of contrast effects. Training programs aimed at reducing or eliminating rater errors such as a contrast effect can then be tailored toward the cognitive process(es) most responsible for its occurrence.

Dependent Variables

Leader Behaviors

The present study is generally interested in examining the effects of three independent variables: downsizing (no downsizing), knowledge of the leader's performance, and knowledge of the prior leader's performance, on ratings of relational and managerial-task leader behaviors. The ratings will include the frequency with which those behaviors occurred in the scenario provided and how often an ideal leader should have demonstrated them in the situation. Also of interest, is the correspondence between the rater's own conceptualization of the importance of these same behaviors for their notion of an ideal leader with the ratings just noted. Hence the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors will be measured as independent variables, i.e., ratings of the ideal leader, and as dependent variables, i.e., ratings of the frequency with which the actual leader in the situation demonstrated them and as ratings with which the ideal leader in the situation should have demonstrated them.

The following review of literature will focus on literature pertinent to leader behavior in general, other theoretical conceptualizations of dimensions or classifications of leader behavior, and the importance of followers and the situation to an understanding of

leadership.

Trait Approaches

The early "great man" leadership studies attempted to elicit the characteristics associated with being perceived as and/or actually performing as a leader. One of the primary deficits of these studies was their failure to consider the utility of particular leader traits when pertinent features of the situation varied. Another weakness of these studies was their focus on who became the leader, with a lack of emphasis on the performance of the leader.

From this preliminary leadership research there evolved a view that features of the situation have an effect on the behaviors required of the leader. Stogdill's (1948) review of the literature on leader traits concluded that leadership is a relation that exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not be leaders in another situation (p. 64).

Leader Behavior

Following the early trait studies came a considerable volume of research which has attempted to delineate the most basic components of leader behavior. The Ohio State Leadership Studies examined patterns of leader behavior

within and across different positions in terms of the frequency with which particular leader behaviors were demonstrated. From this, Stogdill and Shartle (1948), and Stogdill (1948), studied relationships of leader's behavior to group's productivity.

One of the most enduring classifications of leader behavior came out of the Ohio State research program and the work of Fleishman and his colleagues (Fleishman, Harris, & Burt, 1962; Fleishman, 1973). Their factor analysis of responses to an extensive questionnaire of leader behaviors resulted in two major categories: initiating structure, that is, the degree to which the leader provides structure through organizing and defining the relationship between him/herself and followers, and consideration, or the degree to which the leader provides a measure of interpersonal effectiveness through behaviors indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth. Using grievance rate as the criterion for measuring the supervisor's level of consideration, they found increasing consideration to be highly correlated with a lower grievance rate. Higher levels of initiating structure were found to be associated with higher grievance rates. These researchers concluded that while leadership style is important to organizations, the difference in effectiveness may not be so much what the leader does, as how it is interpreted by its members.

In subsequent studies, consideration and structure were confirmed as primary dimensions of leader behavior in a variety of situations, and a high consideration, high structure style was found to lead to high subordinate satisfaction and performance. Later, however, Schriesheim (1982) reported that the increment in predictive power (of satisfaction with supervisor human relations and technical ability) obtained by structure was minimal over that which was already obtained by consideration.

One might argue, however, that there is a difference between technical ability and structure. Technical ability suggests a skill or knowledge base that the leader possess. Being technically proficient does not mean that one will be able to "organize and define the relationship" between oneself and followers. Hence, the results found here may not have established that a high consideration leader is sufficient for satisfaction among followers. Although the superiority of the high-high leadership style was challenged by several researchers, most notably by Schriesheim (1982), this classification remains a useful and general classification of leader behavior.

These distinctions reflect two of the major early efforts in leadership research which emphasized efficiency and the science of management (Fayol, 1916/1987), and later, the human relations school (Argyris, 1964). As an early advocate of the human relations approach, Argyris

(1964) studied the conflict between organizational demands and the needs of its workers. Yet, Blake and Mouton (1964) found that more effective leaders were rated high on both the person and task-oriented dimensions of leader behavior.

The Situational Approach

Following these early approaches to the study of leadership came two important departures. One effort was concerned primarily with the study of leaders when there was variation in the tasks and context of the situation. The situational approach included factors that could vary in a leadership situation and examined which leader behaviors were best suited for the condition or task (e.g., Hemphill, 1949).

Some early leadership studies investigated the cross-situational stability of leader emergence (e.g., Bell & French, 1950; Borgatta, Bales & Couch, 1954; Carter & Nixon, 1949). Individuals were rotated through several different group situations. The leader choices were then correlated across sessions. While these studies have generally concluded that there was cross-situational consistency in leader emergence, they assessed only the degree to which the same individuals were perceived as leaders across various situations. Hence, they did not research what the specific leader characteristics were that the individuals possessed.

The importance of diversity in the leader-follower relations of a situation remains an important consideration. Hershey and Blanchard's (1977) situational approach proposes that leadership effectiveness is a function of the emphasis given to task and relationship behavior as this relates to different types of situations. Task behavior is the degree to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what each subordinate is to do, as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. Relationship behavior is defined as the degree to which the leader engages in two-way communication by providing social support, psychological strokes and facilitating behaviors. They proposed four styles: (1) telling, high task, low relationship, (2) selling, high task, high relationship, (3) participating, low task, high relationship, and (4) delegating, low task, low relationship. Hershey and Blanchard (1977) found that leadership effectiveness is facilitated by the ability to use any of the four styles as it fits with the situation.

Leadership Style

A second emphasis of the leadership research which developed around the same time as the situational perspective was on leader style. McGregor (1960), for example, classified managers according to two basic leadership styles: an authoritarian "Theory X" manager who

assumes that people are basically lazy, dislike work, lack self-direction and prefer to respond to direct orders rather than accept responsibility. In contrast, the egalitarian "Theory Y" manager assumes that people are internally motivated and want to do a good job, can assume self-control, and are responsible for the outcome of their efforts.

Contingency Approaches

Contingency approaches to the study of leadership emphasize the interaction that exists between a leader's behavior and the context of the situation. A body of research evidence linking the utility of particular leader behaviors to contingencies of the situation has been firmly established (e.g., Fiedler, 1967; House & Mitchell, 1974; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). These models have helped to determine which leadership style leads to improving the quality of decision making for leaders.

Fiedler's (1967) classic contingency theory postulates three situational factors that need to be considered in determining whether a task- or relationship-oriented style will be more effective: leader-member relations, task structure, and the leader's position power. Fiedler (1967) indicated that a task-oriented style works best when the situational factors are either all favorable or all unfavorable. When the factors are mixed, the leader should

adopt a more relationship-oriented style.

Another relevant contingency theory proposed by Vroom and Yetton (1978) relates to how much input the leader should receive from followers in the decision making process. The contingencies that the leader has to factor into his or her decision making include: the importance of the quality of the decision, the locus of information relevant to the decision (either with the leader or followers), and the degree of the need of follower acceptance of the decision for its successful implementation. This model is important because it points out that a leader's decision making process (irrespective of the outcome) can have an effect on subordinate perceptions of leadership ability, fairness, trust competence, etc.

A Behavioristic Approach

A behavioristic approach to determining what behaviors are associated with leader effectiveness is concerned with those leader behaviors that can be observed. While operant conditioning theory does not contain an explicit model of an ideal manager, Komaki, Zlotnick, & Jensen (1986) extrapolated from the theory and "inferred that an effective manager would make appropriate behaviors clear, accurately and fairly appraise performance, and regularly

provide consequences contingent on performance" (1986, p. 260).

Komaki et al. (1986) outlined several categories of supervisory behavior which were derived from the operant model and considered related to manager effectiveness: (a) antecedents: instructions for performance, (b) monitors: collecting performance information, and (c) consequences: indicating knowledge of performance.

Komaki, Desselles, and Bowman (1989) found that prior research has neglected what lies at the heart of leadership, notably, what leaders should do and say during their managerial activities. They designed a field study to investigate what leaders ought to do to orchestrate optimal team performance. They used 19 skippers in a sailboat regatta and correlated shorter finishing times (racing success) with the degree to which the skippers provided consequences and monitors. As hypothesized, they found that success in the sailboat regatta (lowered finishing times) was correlated ($p < .05$) with the degree to which the skippers used monitors ($-.51$) and consequences ($-.47$) during the actual race.

The Leader-Follower Relationship and Perceptions of Leader Behavior

Other researchers have recognized the importance of examining leader behavior through the eyes of the follower.

Hollander and Julian (1969), for example, called for research exploring followers' perceptions of leaders. Campbell (1977, p. 234) called for "more descriptive studies that provided reasonable taxonomies of what leaders and followers actually do when they interact". Kouzes and Posner (1986) asked a sample of 2600 top level managers what qualities they admired in their leaders. Among the most frequently chosen qualities were being honest and inspiring, in addition to being competent and forward looking.

The transactional (TA) approach to viewing leadership gives special recognition to followers' perceptions of the leader. Hollander (1978) specified three features of a TA approach: (a) recognition that leadership and the leader-follower relationship are not static; (b) followers' perceptions of the leader's actions and motives are important; and (c) the leader influences followers and is influenced by them.

Although the influence of personality or intelligence on the leadership process may be important, the role of the leader is a more dominant feature of the exchange process. The perceptions of the leader are often a more important consideration than the actual leader him or herself. The role is developed through the feedback loop of the leader and followers and is shaped by the needs and expectations of the followers and the demands of the situation

(Hollander, 1978).

Bass and his colleagues (see Bass & Avolio, 1990) have provided their view of a distinction between transactional (TA) and transformational (TF) leadership styles. In generalizing the original theory developed by Burns (1978) for the political realm, Bass (1985) has characterized TA leadership as limited to an exchange process in which leaders reward subordinates for the contracted services they render (Bass, 1985). According to Bass (1985), TF leadership occurs when a leader broadens the interests of his or her subordinates, generates awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when subordinates are moved to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group.

Bass (1985) empirically derived two TA and three TF factors of leadership and developed an instrument called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which measures these five factors. The MLQ is currently the only available measure which has been designed and used that produces both TA and TF leadership scores. The TA factors include: (a) contingent reinforcement-rewards: the leader will provide rewards contingent upon the follower's effort expended and performance level achieved and (b) management by exception: the leader will only intervene with the group when the standards for task accomplishment are not being met.

The TF factors include: (a) charisma; (b) individual consideration: the attention that the leader pays to the individual needs of followers; and (c) intellectual stimulation: the leader arouses the subordinate's imagination, awareness of problems, and new ways of approaching and solving problems that accomplish the organization's mission (Bass, 1985).

This theory has merit in describing the potential leaders have in arousing follower's willingness to be active followers. However, it oversimplifies the transactional nature of the leader-follower relationship. Transformational leadership can be better understood as an upper-reach of transactional leadership, where leaders provide charisma, consideration, etc., and followers provide the leader with a heightened commitment, loyalty, performance, etc. Since all leadership is transactional, the issue is really about what level of commitment the leader is able to generate and what elements are being exchanged in the process.

Lord and his colleagues (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984; Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Lord & Maher, 1990) have also recognized the importance of the perceiver in interpreting the effectiveness and categorization of the leader. Based upon prior work in social-cognition and leadership, they argue that individuals develop and maintain systems of cognitive

categories that include people who share common attributes with other members of the category (prototypes). Further, we maintain cognitive categories of what constitutes a leader called implicit leadership theories (ILTs). Our ILTs reflect widely shared beliefs about leader behaviors and traits (Lord et al., 1986).

In an attempt to clarify the conclusions of Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959), Lord et al. (1986) pointed out that while traits may or may not have an effect on leader effectiveness, traits do have a relationship with perceptions of leadership. Using meta-analysis to correct prior correlations for unreliability, they found that, contrary to previous literature reviews, leader traits of intelligence, masculinity-femininity, and dominance were significantly ($p > .05$) correlated with leadership perceptions (.50, .34, .13, respectively). These results refer to perceptions of leaders, not to leader effectiveness or group performance. Nevertheless, the results suggest that people have defined ideas as to who they want to have leading them and that certain traits of potential leaders should affect the extent to which they are perceived as leaders by others.

Rush and Russell (1988) reported a significant tendency for individuals with similar prototypes of leadership (for both good and poor leadership) to describe the leader behavior of their supervisors in a similar

fashion, even though none of the respondents interacted with the same supervisor. Cluster analysis was used to reveal the similar patterns of response (prototypes) in describing a fictitious good and bad leader. Consensual agreement in leader behavior descriptions appeared only when prototypes were similar.

These results indicate that there is not one prototype of what an effective or ineffective leader is like. Rather, there are several prototypes or common patterns of perception of leadership. Not coincidentally, these patterns appear to be consistent with prior theoretical leader models.

In summarizing the numerous studies conducted in the ILT literature, Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991) concluded that there are a core set of characteristics (i.e., prototypes) perceived to be related to leadership (Lord et al., 1984) including: intelligence, determination and decisiveness. They indicated that personality characteristics are important perceptual constructs that should predict leadership perceptions and therefore, leadership emergence.

The recent studies noted above by Rush and Russell (1988), Zaccaro et al. (1991), and Lord et al. (1984) have reported the importance of unique prototypes of leaders. Yet, these same studies have lacked any systematic examination of the influence of the relative importance of

ideal leader behaviors on how the performance of actual leaders are evaluated.

A study conducted by Kraus and Gemmill (1990) did, however, investigate the importance of the leadership dimensions of consideration and initiating structure as components of implicit theories of leadership. It was predicted that the importance of these two dimensions to an individual would have an effect on the evaluations that were made of a leader's effectiveness along the same dimensions. They found that a leader whose written description emphasized consideration was judged to be more effective and more responsible for an alleged group success in proportion to the importance respondents placed on consideration behavior in their implicit theories of leadership.

The leader who emphasized consideration behavior was also judged less effective in proportion to the importance respondents placed on initiating structure behavior in their implicit theories of leadership. Finally, a leader who emphasized initiating structure behavior was attributed responsibility for an alleged group success in proportion to the extent to which respondents considered initiating structure behavior to be of major importance in their implicit theories of leadership.

The Kraus and Gemmill (1990) study did not include measures of the leader's behavior. Hence, an examination

of the linkage between the importance respondent's placed on leader behaviors and reports of its frequency was not possible. The study provided some evidence supporting the presence of a cognitive bias that operates to project our unique perceptions of the importance of leader behaviors onto an attribution of a leader's successful performance.

Related Recent Research

Research has been conducted to support the idea that individuals maintain perceptions of ideal leader behavior. There has been less research examining the link between the importance of ideal leader behaviors and evaluations of an actual leader's behavior. A question central to this issue is to what degree do followers' perceptions of ideal leader behavior correspond with evaluations of actual leader behavior?

This question was addressed in a study by Hollander and Kelly (1992) which followed earlier studies examining the use of critical incidents and rating scales to differentiate good and bad leaders (Hollander & Neider, 1978; Neider & Hollander, 1980; Hollander & Kelly, 1990; Kelly, Julien, & Hollander, 1992). Hollander and Kelly (1992) used both critical incidents and ratings of leaders from a sample of 240 subjects (one-half male and one-half female) to examine, among other things, what followers perceived good versus bad actual leader behavior to be.

Subjects were also asked to describe how an ideal leader would have behaved in the situation described and to provide ratings of the relative importance of leader behaviors for an ideal leader in the situation.

As the earlier studies had indicated, good and bad leaders differed significantly ($p < .01$) on a cluster of four relational characteristics: involvement, perceptiveness, rewardingness, and trustworthiness but not on the other three characteristics of compliance, directiveness, and time orientation. These four relational characteristics were also ranked as most important for the ideal leader.

A content analysis of the question inquiring about an actual event and the leader's behavior there indicated that in good leadership, leaders were seen to have good communication skills, i.e., provided clarity and/or were good listeners. They also were seen to be supportive, pleasant/enthusiastic, and fair, action/results oriented, and to delegate to and/or empower subordinates. In bad leadership, leaders showed a lack of communication skills, were unsupportive, angry, harsh and/or unfair, uninvolving and sometimes poor time managers.

When respondents who had previously described a bad leader were asked what an ideal leader would have done, communication was most frequently mentioned. Respondents frequently stated that the ideal leader would have utilized

followers more often in seeking input, information and ideas, would also provide feedback and rewards, support, the mission or goals, and guidance. In a more general vein, respondents viewed an ideal leader as someone who would take action and achieve results. Finally, respondents mentioned two personal qualities that an ideal leader would possess: honesty/trust and a confidence/competency that generates respect by followers.

Thus, the categories of communication, support, delegation (utilizing followers) and action/results oriented were independently mentioned as behaviors that both the actual leader (from the good leader situation/questionnaire) and the ideal leader (from the bad leader situation/questionnaire) possess. The only category that was not mentioned directly by both groups was fairness. However, this category might be considered to be part of the wider category of honesty. In sum, a high degree of overlap was found between what respondents reported good leaders actually do and what would be expected from an ideal leader.

More quantitative data suggested that there was a strong relationship between ratings of the frequency that good leaders actually showed a variety of important leader characteristics and rankings of the importance of those same characteristics for the ideal leader. Those characteristics that were rated high or low when

describing the actual leader were also ranked by other respondents as correspondingly high or low in reference to the ideal leader.

One interpretation of this finding is that actual leaders more frequently demonstrated those characteristics that were ranked higher. The current study will address more a plausible explanation, that the actual leader was being evaluated in part by the perceived importance of the particular characteristic, rather than by the demonstrated performance level.

Perhaps the most important information from this study was the identification of those categories of leader behavior used to describe an actual and ideal leader. The greatest degree of overlap was found for: communication, supportiveness, and action/results oriented. Other variables which displayed a smaller degree of overlap but which were descriptive of both actual and ideal leaders include: rewardingness, honesty, delegation/utilizing followers, and fairness.

Taken as a whole, these findings provide good support for a conclusion that across a variety of leadership situations, leaders as viewed by followers can and often do display behavior that is perceived to be that of an ideal leader.

In summary, research has explored actual and ideal leader behavior from several perspectives. Early leadership research activities were concerned with identifying and classifying leader behaviors. This form of research progressed to more sophisticated taxonomies of actual leader behavior which cut across situations. Other researchers have focused attention on the importance of followers perceptions of leader behavior.

Other research emphasizing cognitive categories called ILTs (Lord et al., 1982) has suggested that an ideal leader type is maintained by people and used for classifying and evaluating effective leader behavior. Hence, people observe actual leader behavior and evaluate it against an ideal leader prototype.

Much of prior leadership research has undervalued and excluded those who are the validators of a leader and the evaluators of leader effectiveness, followers. The overemphasis on the leader as the controlling element in what is an exchange process has fostered the notion that the leader is someone who effectively controls subordinates, across any situation. Hence, the more recent focus on the follower as definer of the reality of the leader's status can be seen as an advancement in leadership research over prior emphases.

The vast majority of leadership research has focused exclusively on quantifying the leader's actual behavior,

neglecting to consider the reality of those who perceive the leader, and the influence of situational contingencies, and rating biases, including the influence of ILTs. Thus, there exists a need for increased understanding of perceptual influences on evaluations of leader behavior, and how evaluations are modified or influenced by situational factors.

The Hollander and Kelly (1990, 1992) research was in part, an examination of perceptions and ratings of good and bad actual leader behaviors and their convergence with notions of ideal leader behavior. A unique feature of this research was that the participants were not constrained in their reports of an actual leader's behavior, beyond having to describe either a good or bad leader in a situation. Their descriptors of leader behaviors were across a variety of situations. However, this research was not designed to examine the relative importance and stability of particular leader behaviors for an ideal leader when situational features were controlled for.

The present study will extend this research and examine how followers' perceptions of the importance of relational or managerial-task leader behaviors for their ideal leader affect ratings of those same behaviors for an actual and ideal leader within varying situational contexts. The variables that will define the context of the situation include: downsizing (no downsizing), and

information (no information) about the performance of the leader and prior leader. Ratings will be made of the frequency with which the actual leader in the situation demonstrated, and an ideal leader in the situation should demonstrate, the relational and managerial-task behaviors.

Problem/Hypotheses

Some of the earliest leadership research categorized leader behavior into two general modes of leader behaviors. As previously noted, Fleishman et al. (1962) empirically differentiated consideration and initiating structure. Consideration and structure were confirmed as primary dimensions of leader behavior in a variety of situations. However, a high consideration, high structure style, thought to lead to high subordinate satisfaction and performance (e.g. Blake & Mouton, 1964), was challenged by Schriesheim (1982). He reported that consideration yielded the majority of predictive power. Other theorists have also emphasized a duality in the categorization of leader behavior (e.g., Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hershey & Blanchard, 1978).

Contingency models of leader behavior were developed to provide the optimal leader behavior, given particular influential factors in the situation (e.g., Fiedler, 1967). Despite the theoretical import of contingency models, researchers have continued to explore the influence of particular leader behaviors across a variety of situations. Recent studies have shed some light on the qualities that followers perceive to be most influential in leader effectiveness (e.g., Kouzes and Posner, 1988). Hollander and Kelly (1992) found that certain behaviors best distinguished good from bad leadership. Across a variety

of organizational settings, effective leaders were most differentiated from ineffective leaders, not by their managerial skills, but by demonstrating the relational characteristics of being supportive, involved, perceptive of subordinates' issues, trustworthy and continuing to provide feedback to subordinates.

Research associated with the contemporary organizational process of downsizing has highlighted the need to continue to examine the particular leader behaviors perceived by followers as most helpful. In prior related research, Helmich (1974) found that with increases in the frequency of succession, successors used a task-oriented leadership style. Koch (1978) indicated that a change in leadership style had a disruptive effect on subordinates. The task-oriented leadership style was found to be prone to upsetting the status quo. Gordon and Rosen (1981) noted that pleasantness-unpleasantness and task-competence were both important elements in the process to reestablish equilibrium in a group. These mixed findings point to the need for additional research that will examine the qualities of leaders that followers find most effective in a situation that contains turbulence in leadership.

Recently, Brockner et al. (1988) suggested that as a consequence of the stress from downsizing, followers may be uncertain about whether they possess the resources and skills required to cope with the demands of the post-layoff

work environment. This emphasizes that followers look to their leaders to assist them. However, there has been little research which has suggested what leader behaviors will be perceived to be most effective in a downsizing versus no downsizing situation.

In the present study, it is expected that with the uncertainty created by a decline in business orders, increased work-load, and layoffs (characteristics of a downsizing situation), followers will perceive an ideal leader in terms of those leadership characteristics that bring a sense of what Woodward et al. (1987) indicated help people through change: empathy, information, and ideas; as opposed to autocratic behavior. The desired behaviors reflect the same essential core of leader behaviors that have been found to be most effective across a variety of organizational settings (Hollander, & Kelly, 1992), namely relational leader behaviors.

It is also expected that when an organization is not experiencing downsizing the relational leader behaviors will again be perceived by followers to be more strongly associated with an ideal leader. A confirmation of this hypothesis will add support to the findings of Hollander and Kelly (1992), that across a variety of situations, relational leader behaviors are more effective discriminators of good and bad leaders. This proposition is also in line with the majority of contingency related

research which suggests that when an organization is running smoothly, the leader is not required to be as task-oriented.

In short, whether there is organizational downsizing or not, relational ideal leader behavior will be perceived as more important than managerial-task ideal leader behavior.

Hypothesis 1. Ratings of relational ideal leader behavior will be higher than managerial-task ideal leader behavior in both the downsizing and no downsizing situations.

The research of Lord et al. (1978; 1982) has suggested that followers maintain ILTs, or theories of the combination and level of behaviors for leader prototypes. Other researchers (e.g., Mitchell, Larson, & Green, 1977; and Larson, Lingle, and Scerbo, 1984) have provided evidence that under conditions where a bogus good/bad performance information cue is provided, followers impute to leaders correspondingly higher/lower levels of providing both consideration and initiating structure. These "weighted" levels of leader behavior suggest that rater's personal standards substitute for accurate perceptions of leader performance. There are many reasons why raters substitute their personal beliefs of the levels of leader behavior associated with given levels of performance for accurate judgment of the leader's demonstrated behavior,

including: not having observed an adequate sample of the leader's behavior, a lack of understanding of the standards of rating leader behavior, or memory deficits.

This research line leads to a consideration of how followers, in the absence of an accurate assessment of leader behavior, assign ratings of behaviors to a leader. In other words, given that ratings are at least partially influenced by their ILTs or internal standards, what internal criteria are used to designate which leader behaviors will be unknowingly inflated/deflated? Are the behaviors that are consistent with what a follower personally regards as important, the behaviors to which he/she will assign higher ratings to the leader?

These questions were partially answered in research by Hollander & Kelly, (1992). The results found that categories of leader behavior (e.g., communication, support, and delegation) were independently mentioned as behaviors that both the actual leader (from a good leader situation/questionnaire) and the ideal leader (from a bad leader situation/questionnaire) possess. Other data indicated a strong relationship between ratings of the frequency that good leaders actually (reportedly) showed a variety of important leader characteristics and rankings (by other respondents) of the importance of those same characteristics for the ideal leader.

These data suggest that the actual leader may be

evaluated in part by the perceived importance of the particular characteristic, in addition to the demonstrated level of behavior. The validity of this relationship will be further examined in the present study by focusing on how the relative importance given to relational and managerial-task leader behaviors translates into ratings of actual leader behavior. Ratings will be collected of the importance of the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors to respondent's idea of the ideal leader and ratings (from the same respondent) of how much an actual leader showed these qualities in a scenario depicting an organizational problem requiring leader activity. It is expected that in a situation where the respondent is very likely to employ their personal beliefs about the level of behavior associated with performance, as when they are provided with performance information about the leader, those behaviors that were rated as more important for their ideal leader will be rated as occurring more frequently and those behaviors that were rated as less important for their ideal leader will be rated as occurring less frequently.

Hypothesis 2. There will be a correlation between ratings of the importance of ideal leader behaviors and ratings of the frequency with which those leader behaviors occurred for an actual leader.

Often, an evaluation of a leader's performance is

inaccurately weighted by knowledge of the outcome achieved. The effect of knowledge of performance information on ratings of leader behavior was reviewed in several research studies (e.g., Staw (1975); Mitchell et al. (1975); Larson et al. (1984). These studies relied on unrealistic problem-solving groups as the setting in which performance was manipulated. They also generally provided limited performance information to respondents, in the form of a short sentence or announcement that the group's performance was good or poor. Thus, respondents were not encouraged to arrive at their own conclusion about the performance of the leader. Finally, prior studies overused the same dependent variable, the Leader Behavior Descriptive Index (LBDQ).

Butterfield & Powell (1981), among others, have called for new designs, settings and leadership styles in research conducted in this area. The present study will examine the effect of knowledge of performance on ratings of leader behavior, amending the deficiencies discussed above.

The scenario in which the leadership situation will be presented will have more of an organizational storyline than the problem-solving videotapes used in prior research. The performance information in the present study will be conveyed as a more realistic outcome to the leader's

behavior. Respondents will be able to directly observe the outcome of the situation and subsequently will have to arrive at their own conclusion about the outcome of the leader's performance. The leader's behavior will be the same in the good and bad performance scenarios. Finally, the present study will employ a behaviorally based measure of leader behavior which has evolved from prior research (Hollander & Kelly, 1992). This measure will be an alternative to the overused LBDQ.

Hypothesis 3. Ratings of the relational and of the managerial-task actual leader behaviors will be higher in the good leader performance information situation than in the bad leader performance information situation.

The effect of knowledge of previous job performance on evaluations of present job performance has been a recent research interest in the field of Industrial/Organizational Psychology (e.g., Murphy, Balzer, Lockhart, & Eisenman, 1985). The studies conducted have typically examined a contrast effect in ratings of the performance of: (1) one person on several occasions, doing the same job, or (2) two or more people, applying for a job or currently performing the same job. Research has not considered a third possibility, (3) two individuals; one who left the job and one who replaced that person. In other words, a contrast effect could occur when ratings of the leader's performance

are influenced by the prior leader's performance.

The prevalence of this phenomena has undoubtedly increased in recent years as a consequence of: (1) the vast number of middle management layoffs (Hendricks, 1992) leading to greater numbers of changes in the lines of authority, and, (2) an increase in the incorporation of subordinates' ratings in the evaluations of supervisory performance evaluations. The essence of a contrast effect in the ratings remains the same, performance ratings of the leader are influenced by the prior leader's performance and biased in the opposite direction. For example, when followers have had a good performing prior leader and are then led by a bad performing leader, they will assess the succeeding leader with lower ratings of performance than would be provided had the prior leader's performance been bad.

The present research is interested in ascertaining if this unique bias in rating can be displayed in a controlled situation when raters are provided with brief descriptions of the leader's and prior leader's behavior and corresponding indications of their performance.

Hypothesis 4. When the leader's performance is good, it will be rated higher when the prior leader's performance was bad than when the prior leader's performance was good. Conversely, when the leader's performance is bad, it will

be rated higher when the prior leader's performance was bad than when the prior leader's performance was good.

The effect that organizational features and a leader's behavior have on members' willingness to participate is a concern to organizations who are interested in maintaining commitment, involvement, motivation and morale. Each of these outcome measures has at least an intangible value to organizations. Greater levels of response to these indicators should translate into higher levels of productivity, and lowered costs related to turnover, recruitment and training (Pinder, 1984).

The present study will examine how situational conditions affect respondents' purported willingness to participate in a variety of measures of inclusion or participation with the leader/group or the organization. It is expected that participants, functioning as followers, will be more willing to exert extra effort, work overtime, work for the supervisor in the scenario, and stay, in some situations more than in others.

One instance in which differences in commitment are likely to be observed should be when the situation is less likely to support success and yet the leader's performance is good. In the situation where this occurs, it is likely that respondents will indicate higher levels of commitment as reflected in the outcome measures.

Hypothesis 5. Respondents' willingness to work overtime, exert extra effort, work for the supervisor, and stay will be highest when the prior leader had bad performance, the leader had good performance, and there is downsizing. Conversely, it will be lowest when the prior leader had good performance, the leader had bad performance, and there is no downsizing.

Method

Design

The three leadership situations were experimentally manipulated in a 2 X 2 X 3 randomized-groups design as detailed in Table 1. In the present study, descriptions of the actual leader's behavior were the same across each of the twelve written scenarios. Features of the situation were manipulated, reflecting varying levels of the three independent variables.

Participants

A sample of 211 graduate students, enrolled in a Masters in Business Administration program at Baruch College, City University of New York were surveyed. The students were administered a voluntary questionnaire while attending a class. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of the twelve conditions. Table 2 contains demographic information on the sample.

Procedures

Levels of the relational- and managerial-task-oriented behaviors were equated to insure that the "base rates" for both dimensions were not significantly different from each other. This instrumentation process was accomplished prior to use of the scenarios for data collection purposes. The process of equating the relational and managerial-task levels of leader behavior required raters to evaluate the section of the scenario

which contained only information related to the leader's behavior. Information that was descriptive of the manipulated situation was removed prior to having raters evaluate the material. The following material was presented to raters for evaluation.

Now please read the following scenario and imagine yourself as the account assistant.

You have been employed as an account assistant for the Metropolitan Advertising agency since 1988.

Your work requires the input from several departments which develop and produce advertising accounts. Your new supervisor, John, has assigned you to work on an advertising package for a new account. Your work is delayed by uncooperative departments that are involved with work on other accounts. You ask your supervisor for assistance.

John immediately brings the issue to the other department managers and schedules a meeting for all who are involved with the project. He discusses things openly about the project and brainstorms with you and the other managers for suggestions on how to best accomplish this project. John decides to use several external resources to reduce the workload. He establishes priority of the tasks and delegates the roles and responsibilities. Over the next month, John keeps involved with the progress you and the others are having.

A group of ten raters was used to evaluate and rate the text. The raters were doctoral students in Industrial/Organizational psychology. Following the text were the eight definitions and rating scales of leader characteristics that were included in the actual questionnaire. The raters then rated the scenario on each of the eight scales in terms of the actual leader behavior demonstrated in the scenario. Mean ratings (on a 7 point scale) made on items comprising the relational (6.0) and managerial-task (5.9) dimensions of leader behavior were analyzed and, as desired, found not to be significantly different.

Participants in the present study were randomly assigned to one of the twelve conditions noted in the design (see Table 1) and provided with the appropriate form of the questionnaire. Participants were told that: (1) the researcher was interested in examining leadership from the standpoint of the follower; (2) their participation was voluntary; (3) their answers and identity were anonymous and confidential; (4) their cooperation was appreciated; (5) they should pay particular attention to the instructions at the beginning of new sections in the questionnaire. Participants were then asked if they had any questions. Any questions raised were addressed by the researcher. When requested by the professor, primary findings were provided to the class later in the semester.

Instruments

Each questionnaire (see Appendix A) begins with descriptions of a set of eight important leader characteristics (including 5 managerial-task and three relational). Subjects are asked to rate each of them in terms of their importance for their ideal leader. Each of the twelve forms of the questionnaire is then followed by a written description of the same organization in which the function of the organization, the respondent's supervisor, and the task with which the scenario evolves around were described. Each of the forms also has a unique combination of the three independent variables (see Appendix A) manipulated within the respective scenario. For example, scenario 1 reflects a situation in which the organization is experiencing downsizing, the former supervisor's leadership performance evaluation is not indicated (the control for this variable), and the outcome of the situation was successful.

Also incorporated into each scenario were leader behaviors that represent the two leadership dimensions of relational- versus managerial-task- oriented behavior. The behaviors selected to represent those dimensions were derived from content categories developed from actual critical incidents of good and bad leaders (Hollander & Kelly, 1992) which were considered representative of the two leader performance dimensions. Examples from three of

the most frequently mentioned relational and three of the most frequently mentioned task-oriented leader behaviors were incorporated into each scenario. The performance levels for each of the two dimensions were designed to be approximately equal by selecting a similar number of descriptive relational and task-oriented words.

Each scenario was followed by a series of dependent measures, including 7-point Likert rating scales of the same eight critical leader characteristics noted above for both the actual leader's behavior and for how much an ideal leader behavior in the situation should show them (see Appendix A). The questionnaire also contained ratings for pertinent behavioral intentions of the respondent toward the leader in question, and demographic items.

The five relational leader behavior items included: supportiveness, trustworthiness, perceptiveness, involvement, and rewardingness. The three managerial-task leader behavior items included: compliance, directiveness, and time orientation.

Results

The results of the present study were based upon a sample of 211 graduate students enrolled in a Masters in Business Administration program in an urban university. As Table 2 indicates, the respondents were represented by an almost equal percentage of both males (49%) and females (51%). The vast majority of the group (83%) was between ages 21-35. There was an over-representation of respondents identifying most with being Asian (29%).

Respondents ranged widely in their years of work experience, with 62% having 2-9 years while 25% reported 10 or more years. There was also a considerable range in the reported income level, including 41% who reported salaries that were greater than \$40,000.

One in three of the respondents (36%) reported having been involved in an organization that downsized. Of that group, 30% were actually laid off as a result of the downsizing.

Several items in the questionnaire functioned as manipulation checks to ascertain if respondents could respond to the manipulated independent variables in the anticipated direction. As Table 3 indicates, responses to each of the three items indicated that the independent variables were responded to in the expected direction.

The five relational and three managerial-task items were examined for their psychometric properties to

determine which of the items were most useful in measuring the two constructs. Factor analyses, item-total and item-scale correlations were conducted to provide information from which to evaluate the item's relatedness to its respective dimension. Table 4 contains the factor structures of the managerial-task and relational ideal leader dimensions. Table 5 contains the complimentary managerial-task and relational ideal leader behaviors' item-total and item-scale correlations. The rewardingness and trustworthiness items were found: (a) not to load as highly on the relational factor as the other three relational items; and (b) correspondingly, not to differentiate between the relational and managerial-task dimensions and the other three relational items. Based upon their relatively diminished psychometric properties, the rewardingness and trustworthiness items were therefore eliminated from inclusion in the relational scale in subsequent analyses.

For the purpose of clarity, questionnaire ratings of the importance of the leader behaviors for the respondent's ideal leader will generally be referred to as ratings of the ideal leader, ratings of how much the successor in the scenario demonstrated those same leader behaviors will generally be referred to as the successor's or leader's behavior, and ratings of how much an ideal leader should show those behaviors will generally be referred to as

ratings of the ideal leader in the situation.

The correlation between ratings of the importance of managerial-task and relational ideal leader behaviors was found to be slight at .19, $p < .01$. This suggests that there was sufficient independence between the ratings of the two dimensions because raters discriminated between these two dimensions of leader behavior.

The first hypothesis predicted that ratings of relational ideal leader behavior would be greater than managerial-task ideal leader behaviors in both the downsizing and no downsizing situations. The results reported in Table 6 show that slightly higher ratings were made for the importance of managerial-task leader behaviors for the ideal leader in the no downsizing situation, $t(108) = 3.42$, $p < .0009$. Ratings for the managerial-task and relational ideal leader behaviors did not differ in the downsizing condition.

A further analysis of the higher ratings for the managerial-task behaviors over the relational behaviors for the ideal leader in the no downsizing situation indicated that this finding was significant only when the prior leader was considered to be a bad performer. This effect was found to occur irrespective of the leader having a good $t(18) = 2.16$, $p < .04$ or bad performance, $t(19) = 2.05$, $p < .05$. Hence, the preference for the ideal leader to show managerial-task behaviors over the relational behaviors in

the no downsizing situation occurred only in the conditions where there was bad leadership by the prior leader.

The second hypothesis predicted that there would be a correlation between ratings of the importance of the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors for notions of an ideal leader and ratings of the frequency with which those same behaviors were demonstrated (by the leader in the scenario). Tables 7 and 8 respectively display the mean ratings of the leader on the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors for each condition. The pattern of correlations shown in Table 9 provide support for the second hypothesis. The correlational analyses were conducted for the entire sample and separately for the successor's good and bad performance conditions.

Support for the second hypothesis was found, as ratings of the importance of managerial-task/relational ideal leader behaviors were significantly correlated .17 and .25, respectively, with ratings of the frequency with which the leader demonstrated those behaviors.

In general, these relationships were maintained when the sample was examined separately in the successor's good or bad performance conditions. There were some notable differences. In the good performance condition, ratings of the importance of managerial-task ideal leader behaviors were found to correlate .44 with ratings of the frequency with which the leader demonstrated those same behaviors.

This relationship did not exist when the leader's performance was bad ($r=.01$). Ratings of the importance of relational ideal leader behaviors correlated slightly to moderately with ratings of the frequency with which the leader demonstrated those same behaviors in both the good ($r=.20$) and bad ($r=.30$) performance conditions.

The third hypothesis predicted that ratings of the frequency with which relational and managerial-task leader behaviors were demonstrated would be higher in the good leader performance condition than in the bad leader performance condition. The results presented in Table 10 confirm this hypothesis. While the leader behaviors presented in the scenarios were identical, respondents rated the frequency with which the leader behaviors occurred higher when informed that the outcome of the situation was good than when bad, for both the relational $t=(103, 108) = 5.25, p < .0001$, and managerial-task leader behaviors $t=(103, 108) = 7.18, p < .0001$.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that when the leader's performance was good, it would be rated higher when the prior leader's performance was bad than when the prior leader's performance was good. Also, when the leader's performance was bad, it would be rated higher when the prior leader's performance was bad than when the prior leader's performance was good.

Stated differently, this hypothesis essentially

predicted that when the predecessor's performance was bad, the successor's performance (for both good or bad) would be rated higher than when the predecessor's performance was good. This hypothesis was confirmed as leader performance was rated significantly different depending upon the predecessor's performance. Raters provided a mean rating of 5.4 to the successor when the predecessor's performance was bad, and a mean rating of 5.0 to the successor when the predecessor's performance was good $F(1, 141) = 3.75, p < .05$).

A more detailed investigation indicated that mean ratings for the successor's performance were contingent upon the level of each of the three independent variables $F(2, 198) = 3.88, p < .02$. This significant three-way interaction is diagramed in Figure 1. When the outcome of the leader's performance was bad and there was no downsizing, a contrast effect was observed to occur, i.e., the mean rating of the leader's performance was greater when the prior leader's performance was bad (5.3) than when the prior leader's performance was good (3.9) $t(19, 18) = -3.17, p < .003$. However, when the outcome of the leader's performance was bad and there was downsizing, no significant effect was observed to occur, i.e., the mean rating of the leader's performance was not significantly different, whether the prior leader's performance was good or bad. Finally, when the outcome of the leader's

performance was good, neither downsizing nor the prior leader's performance significantly affected ratings of the leader's performance.

The fifth hypothesis predicted that respondents' willingness to work overtime, exert extra effort, work for the supervisor, and stay would be greatest when the prior leader's performance was bad, the leader's performance was good, and there was downsizing. Conversely, it would be smallest when the prior leader had good performance, the leader had bad performance, and there was no downsizing.

The analyses conducted to test the fifth hypothesis were made with a "commitment" scale composed of three items included in the questionnaire. These items asked respondents their willingness to stay working with John as their supervisor, exert extra effort, and work overtime for John. A factor analysis of the three items found them to be highly correlated, as evidenced by loadings on a single factor of .88, .89 and .91.

The first part of the fifth hypothesis was not confirmed, as the means presented in Table 11 indicate. There were several cells with equal or higher means than the cell where the prior leader's performance was bad, the leader's performance was good, and there was downsizing.

The second part of this hypothesis predicted that commitment would be smallest when the prior leader had good performance, the leader had bad performance, and there was

no downsizing. It was confirmed, as evidenced by the commitment scale mean of 4.1 which was found to be significantly smaller than 10 of the remaining 11 means ($p < .05$). Figure 2 provides a plot of these means.

An analysis of variance for the commitment scale found significant main effects for both the prior leader's $F(2, 198) = 3.19$, $p < .04$ and leader's performance $F(1, 198) = 20.39$, $p < .0001$. Also found was a significant prior leader's performance $\times$ leader's performance $\times$ downsizing three-way interaction ($F(2, 198) = 3.01$, $p < .05$). The three independent variables explained 16 percent of the variance in commitment responses. The majority of this explained variance was accounted for by the leader's performance. This is evident in the large disparity between the F values for the prior leader (3.19) and the succeeding leader (20.39). The independent effect of downsizing was nonsignificant.

Additional analyses were conducted to examine some non-hypothesized relationships regarding differences between men and women rating the importance and occurrence of leader behaviors. No significant differences were found between the men and women on the demographic variables. Table 12 displays the mean ratings by gender of the importance of ideal leader behaviors and of the frequency with which those same leader behaviors were demonstrated by the actual leader. The women rated their conception of an

ideal leader as significantly higher on the relational leader behavior of perceptiveness $t=(104, 107) = -2.40, p < .01$, and approaching significance on the relational leader behavior of involvement $t=(104, 107) = -1.85, p < .06$. The higher ratings given by women on these two behaviors contributed to the significantly higher ratings by women on the ideal relational leader behavior scale $t=(104, 107) = -2.29, p < .02$.

The sample was examined for differences among reported racial groups on ratings of the ideal, actual, and situational relational and managerial-task leader behaviors and the leader's (successor's) performance. As Table 13 indicates, there were some notable differences in the responses. Both the Asian $t=(61, 117) = 2.70, p < .007$ and Black $t=(24, 117) = 2.70, p < .03$ groups considered an ideal leader to be more relational than did the White group. The three groups did not differ on their ratings of the level of managerial-task behavior for the ideal leader. The significantly higher ratings for the managerial-task over relational ideal leader behavior found above for the full sample was maintained only within the White group. The Asian and Black groups rated the two dimensions of ideal leader behavior as equally important.

In a related vein, the actual relational leader behavior was rated as occurring more frequently by the

Asian group than the White group $t=(61, 117) = 3.19, p <.001$. There was a significant difference between the Black and White groups $t=(24, 117) = 2.17, p <.03$ on the degree to which the ideal leader should demonstrate task behavior in the situation. Blacks rated it as more important for the ideal leader in the situation. Finally, the Asian $t=(61, 117) = 3.07, p <.002$ and Black $t=(24, 117) = 3.14, p <.003$ groups provided higher ratings for the importance of relational ideal leader in the situation behaviors than the White group.

Further analyses indicated that higher ratings for the managerial-task over relational ideal leader behaviors were found for the White group $t=(117) = 2.49, p <.01$, but not for the Asian or Black groups. This same relationship was true for the ideal leader in the situation $t=(117) = 3.69, p <.0003$. Only the Asian group rated the relational leader behaviors as occurring more often than the managerial-task leader behaviors for the leader in the scenario $t=(61) = -2.67, p <.009$.

Information was collected on a number of variables that might have had an influence on respondents' ratings of the ideal and actual leader's behavior and performance. These were the personal experience or effects of downsizing, prior years of work experience, experience with evaluating a supervisor's performance, job satisfaction, job autonomy, or ratings on a most recent

performance appraisal. Table 14 provides the mean ratings for specified categories of these variables on the managerial-task and relational behaviors for the actual and ideal leader in the situation and for a rating of the actual leader's performance. A series of analyses were conducted which indicated no significant differences among the categories for the majority of the demographic variables in Table 14. Hence, the ratings provided by respondents did not appear to be significantly influenced by these variables.

The levels of both personal (respondents' evaluations of their own style of leadership) leadership styles, task-oriented and interpersonal, were found to be significantly different for several of the measures of leader behavior. Specifically, respondents rated their conception of an ideal leader and an ideal leader in the situation differently, depending upon the level with which they evaluated their own personal level of task or interpersonal leadership style. While there was a general trend for higher ratings on the personal leadership styles to be associated with higher ratings of the ideal and actual leader, not all of the differences reached an acceptable level of significance.

As Table 14 indicates, higher ratings on the task oriented personal leadership style were associated with significantly higher ratings for the closely related

managerial-task dimension of leader behavior for the ideal leader $F(5, 197) = 2.36, p < .04$ and for both the managerial-task $F(5, 197) = 2.31, p < .04$ and relational $F(5, 197) = 4.12, p < .001$ ideal leader in the situation dimensions. Higher ratings on the interpersonal personal leadership style were associated with significantly higher ratings for the closely related relational dimension of leader behavior for the ideal leader $F(5, 199) = 6.11, p < .0001$ and for the relational ideal leader in the situation dimension $F(5, 199) = 5.05, p < .0002$.

Analyses were conducted to examine the relationship of combinations of relational and managerial-task ideal leader behaviors or combinations of interpersonal or managerial-task personal leadership style to ratings of leader behavior and performance. Respondents were classified into high-high, high-low, low-high, and low-low categories for the relational and managerial-task ideal leader behavior (high=scale value of 7; low=scale values of 6 or less) and high-high, high-low, low-high, and low-low categories for their interpersonal and managerial-task personal leadership style (high=scale value of 6 or 7; low=scale values of 5 or less). Comparisons were then made among the categories on their ratings of the actual and ideal leader's behavior and performance.

Table 15 displays the mean ratings of the dimensions of leader behavior for the four categories of

relational/managerial-task ideal leader behavior. The mean ratings show some significant differences among the levels of relational/managerial-task ideal leader behaviors, which support the correlational findings associated with the second hypothesis. Highest ratings on the managerial-task (6.0) and relational (6.0) actual leader behaviors were made by those respondents who rated their ideal leaders as high on both the managerial-task and relational leader behaviors. Lowest ratings on the managerial-task (5.4) and relational (5.4) actual leader behaviors were made by the respondents whose ratings of relational ideal leader behaviors were in the lower levels. This pattern of results was also found for ratings of the ideal leader in the situation.

Ratings of the actual leader's performance were also related to ratings of the importance of the relational and managerial-task ideal leader behaviors. This relationship was found to exist only in the bad leader condition. When the leader's performance was bad, the lowest ratings were provided by respondents who rated relational ideal leader behaviors low and managerial-task ideal leader behaviors high.

Ratings of the ideal leader behaviors were found to differ by the respondent's interpersonal personal leadership style but not by their level of managerial-task personal leadership style. In other words, the

categorization of respondents according to the importance they ascribed to relational and managerial-task ideal leader behaviors was found to be unrelated to differences in their reported personal managerial-task leadership style. However, the importance of relational-managerial-task ideal leader behaviors were related to respondent's self evaluations of their personal interpersonal leadership style. Those respondents who rated the importance of relational ideal leader behaviors low also rated their personal interpersonal leadership style as low. Conversely, those respondents who rated the importance of relational ideal leader behaviors as high also rated their own personal interpersonal leadership style as high.

Table 16 displays mean ratings of the dimensions of leader behavior and performance in each of the four combinations of interpersonal/managerial-task personal leadership style, i.e., H/H, H/L, L/H, and L/L. Respondents' ratings of the actual leader's behaviors were made irrespective of the respondents' personal leadership style category. That is, ratings of the demonstrated frequency of managerial-task or relational leader behaviors were not found to differ for the four personal leadership style categories.

Ratings of the importance of relational and managerial-task behaviors for the ideal leader were found to differ among the four categories of respondents'

personal leadership style. Ratings of how the ideal leader should have behaved in the situation were also found to differ among the four categories of respondents' personal leadership style. Those respondents who rated themselves highest/lowest on both the interpersonal and managerial-task leadership styles also provided the highest/lowest ratings on the relational and managerial-task behaviors for the ideal leader and the ideal leader in the situation.

Respondents' ratings of the leader's performance were found to be significantly different by personal leadership style category when the leader's performance was good but not when the leader's performance was bad. Highest good leader performance ratings were made by those respondents whose personal leadership style was high on the managerial-task dimension, irrespective of their level on the relational personal leadership style.

To briefly summarize the results, the relative importance of the two heterogeneous constructs of relational and managerial-task leader behavior were found to be contingent upon a number of contextual factors. The importance of these behaviors to the respondent's notion of an ideal leader were significantly related to subsequent estimates of their importance for an ideal leader in the situation and for the frequency with which they occurred. The strength of these relationships was influenced by the leader's performance.

Performance estimates were affected not only by information regarding the leader's performance but also by information regarding the prior leader's performance, resulting in a predicted contrast effect.

Other results indicated that lowest levels of projected commitment could be predicted. Sub-group differences for both sex and race were found for ratings of the importance of the relational and managerial-task leader behaviors.

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that the contextual elements of downsizing and information regarding the leader's and prior leader's performance have an influence on ratings of leader behavior. Also, perceptions of the importance of particular leader behavior's were found to be related to estimates of how often a leader demonstrated those same behaviors. Confirming evidence was found for several of the hypothesized relationships. No confirmation was given to the hypothesis predicting that respondents would prefer relational over managerial-task leader behaviors for the ideal leader in the situation. In the majority of the situations, the two dimensions of leader behavior were considered equally important for the ideal leader. The managerial-task behaviors were rated more important for the ideal leader only in the no downsizing situation where there was poor leadership by the preceding leader. Relational features were equally as important as the managerial-task behaviors for several subgroups, including: blacks, Asians, and women.

Evidence was found supporting the view that estimates and subsequent evaluations of leader performance are influenced by the beliefs individuals maintain and impose on ratings. Specifically, personal beliefs about the relative importance of particular relational and managerial-task leader behaviors were found to be related

to the importance of those same behaviors for the ideal leader in the more specific situation and to the frequency with which those behaviors occurred for the actual leader.

These results support and extend earlier research by Hollander and Kelly (1992) which found a high degree of overlap between what respondents report good leaders actually do and what would be expected from an ideal leader. They also found a strong relationship between the demonstration of a variety of important leader characteristics that good leaders actually showed and independent rankings of the importance of those same characteristics for the ideal leader.

The present study had respondents provide ratings of both the ideal and actual leader's behavior. The results suggest that the actual leader in the earlier and present research was being evaluated, in part, by the perceived importance of the particular characteristic, rather than solely by the demonstrated performance level.

Pretesting was conducted with respondents similar to those used in the present study. The order of the questionnaire components which asked respondents to rate an ideal leader's and then an actual leader's performance were alternated. The results from the pretesting indicated that the order of presentation had no effect on the mean ratings of the ideal and actual leaders' behaviors. Ratings were not significantly different whether they were made with the

ideal or actual leader ratings first or second. Hence, the present study's results are unlikely due to a priming or set effect caused by the presentation of the ideal leader behavior questionnaire component before the actual leader behavior component.

Good support was found indicating that performance information can have an effect on estimates of the frequency with which the leader's behaviors are demonstrated. This occurred when respondents rated the actually demonstrated level of leader behavior (for both the relational and managerial-task behaviors) and performance higher when informed that the outcome of the situation was good than when the outcome of the situation was bad. One might argue that the outcome of the situation is a reflection of the leader's performance, and that there should be a disparity in the evaluations received by leaders in the good and bad outcome conditions. However, the outcome of the situation provides no basis for a disparity in the ratings of the frequency with which the behaviors occurred.

These results point to the importance of features of the situation in evaluating leader behavior. The present study found evidence that unique aspects of the leader's and predecessor's performance and the situational feature of downsizing, can all interact to impact upon ratings of the leader's performance. A predicted contrast effect was found to occur, implicating the effect of the prior

leader's performance on an evaluation of the succeeding leader's performance. This effect was contingent however, upon the presence or absence of downsizing. Expectations of the succeeding leader's behavior were influenced by both the prior leader's performance and the presence/absence of downsizing. Hence, the succession process and the organizational situation can both be considered important factors which can influence the occurrence of a contrast effect.

An interesting finding was the self-serving nature of the importance given to the managerial-task behaviors. When the leader's performance was good, there was a relatively strong association ($r=.44$) made between ratings of the managerial-task ideal leader behaviors and the frequency with which the leader demonstrated those behaviors. However, when the leader's performance was bad, that relationship disappeared ($r=.01$).

This finding, along with the very low correlation between ratings of importance of the managerial-task and relational ideal leader behaviors, indicate that the results found were not simply a matter of respondents providing evaluations based upon a halo effect or leniency. Rather, it appears that raters were discriminating between the dimensions of leader behavior and the situations in their ratings.

Other results indicate that features of the situation

and the leader's behavior can have an effect on respondents' reported level of commitment to the supervisor, willingness to exert effort and work overtime. The results were confirming of the hypothesis at the negative end of the spectrum. That is, the conditions in which respondents are less committed may be more predictable and a more salient condition to respondents.

Cultural differences were found to have an impact on the relative importance with which relational or managerial-task behaviors were rated. These differences were reflected in the greater estimates of the importance of the relational leader behaviors for an ideal leader by Asians and Blacks, over whites; and by women over men. In the case of the Asian/white distinction, the difference in estimates of importance translated into a greater estimate of the frequency with which the relational behaviors actually occurred. These findings suggest that not only are there individual differences in perceptions of the importance of the distinct dimensions of leader behavior, but also that there are group differences which may translate into group differences in estimates of the frequency with which behaviors occurred.

The impact of downsizing, cues of leader and predecessor performance, and our internal standards of performance/levels of behavior, on evaluations of leader behavior point out what Hollander (1978) has previously

indicated, perceptions of the leader are often a more important consideration than the actual leader him or herself.

The results of this research can help in understanding follower expectations of leader behavior in the context of organizational downsizing. This information can provide insight into the behaviors managers should emphasize in a downsizing situation. The results could have implications for the training managers receive on how to be most effective with subordinates whether or not the organization is experiencing downsizing.

The results also provide information on how raters impose their subjective evaluations of the importance of specific leader behaviors onto ratings of the perceived frequency with which actual leader behaviors were demonstrated. Information regarding the leader's and predecessor's performance can also be regarded as a factor which may introduce inaccuracy in estimates of performance. Knowledge about these biases could be used to improve rater accuracy by training raters to: be aware of the importance that they ascribe to levels of leader performance, avoid stereotyping, generalizing, or rating good and bad performers with a halo, avoid using a predecessor (or any one individual) or oneself as a marker against which to rate a performer.

The present study utilized manipulated scenarios as

the stimuli for eliciting responses to the independent variables in question. As with any mode of research, and particularly with a study that attempts to isolate specific features for focused analysis, the question of the generalizability of findings is relevant. The results of the present study cannot necessarily remain valid for other situations. Nevertheless, the present experiment helps to elucidate the potentially unfavorable effects of the imposition of implicit leadership theories, and leader performance information, on estimates of leader performance. It also sheds light on individual and group differences in preference for and importance of the broadly defined relational and managerial-task dimensions of leader behavior.

In some respects the "reality" of the present study is not that different from what occurs in actual organizations. For example, in many situations employees never actually meet the previous supervisor. They may have received short pieces of information regarding the prior leader's performance from sources within the organization. Hence the present study's short string of information regarding the prior leader's performance may not be that unlike what is often conveyed to subordinates in an actual organizational setting.

The limited information regarding the succeeding leader's performance found in the present study could also

occur with some frequency in organizations. Performance ratings are often made in organizations by a second level supervisor who has had little, if any, interaction with their subordinate. At best, these ratings may rely on the written comments of a first-line supervisor. When an evaluator has to rely upon limited observations or the summated information of the direct supervisor, the likelihood of bias operating increases, as the rater relies more on his/her own perception of what a "good" or "average" performance rating translates into.

Other research could add to the validity of the present study's findings via a field study. An organization that maintains regular performance evaluations and utilizes subordinates' evaluations of superiors would qualify as a potential source of data. The occurrence of the other two critical variables necessary for a study to be replicated in the field are less predictable. They include downsizing and incidents of succession. However, an organization that is experiencing downsizing would probably be simultaneously experiencing a greater frequency of succession events. If access were gained in an organization meeting these criteria, a field study would feature the difficulty of controlling the numerous other factors that could impinge upon the results. These would include: the exclusion of a no downsizing control group, variations in the levels of exposure to and supervision by

predecessors and successors, shifting production/market/political demands on the units in question, a potential reliance on historical data, and so on.

Some of these variables could be controlled for with proper measurement of their occurrence. One of the benefits of a field study would be in discerning what effect the length of time a subordinate has worked with a predecessor and/or successor has on ratings of leader behavior and performance. An examination could also be made of the shifts in ratings that make take place over different time periods of a succession or downsizing. Again, certain effects, notably contrast effects, may be time bound and their occurrence/absence only observable with multiple ratings over a sufficient time period.

Additional research could explore other situational variables and their effects on evaluations of the leader's performance. As well as field research, continued research of the same form used for the present study could examine the effects of variations in the quantity of information respondents are exposed to or attributional analyses to examine respondent partitioning of the causes of the leader's behavior.

Would a contrast effect be maintained if we examined those respondents who rated the predecessor's performance as relatively better or worse than the majority of

respondents? The present study was unable to address this question because of a diminished number of respondents in the conditions that produced the contrast effect, and because no performance measures were taken for estimates of the predecessor's performance. A replication study could utilize those scenarios of the present study where a contrast effect was observed, i.e., a bad outcome by the successor and no downsizing, for the good and bad predecessor conditions, to examine the "boundaries" for producing this effect. With measures taken of the predecessor's performance, the study could examine if the contrast effect found in the present study would be maintained at different intervals of ratings of the predecessor's performance.

The broad question of what are the most effective leader behaviors persists. The answer in part depends upon who you ask. In general, the present study has indicated that both the relational and managerial-task dimensions of leader behavior are desired for an ideal leader. However, as the results indicate, some individuals prefer their ideal leader to be higher on one of the two dimensions. The present study has provided some evidence that these preferences are related to ratings of the degree to which actual leaders demonstrate those same behaviors.

In sum, the present study found that the perceived importance of leader behaviors for an ideal leader, as well

as one's personal leadership style, are important factors in evaluations of leader performance. Other factors were also found to play a role in evaluations of leader behavior and effectiveness, including information about the preceding and succeeding leaders' effectiveness and the presence or absence of the organizational process of downsizing. The interrelation found among these variables points to the complexity of their study, yet suggests the necessity for their inclusion and continued investigation.

Traditionally, leadership research has focused on the influence of the leader. In the present study, followers' perceptions of ideal leader behaviors, and contextual features of the situation, were examined and found to be influential in evaluations of the leader's behavior. Thus, this research provides support for the importance of and continued research in the other critical elements of the leadership process, the follower and the situation.

Table 1
Research Design and the Number of Observations per Cell

<u>Downsizing:</u>	<u>No Downsizing</u>			<u>Downsizing</u>		
<u>Predecessor's Performance:</u>	Good	Bad	Neutral*	Good	Bad	Neutral*
<u>Successor's Performance:</u>						
Good	18	18	17	17	17	16
Bad	18	19	18	19	17	17

* The neutral level indicates that no information was provided for the predecessor's performance; N=211.

Table 2

Demographics of Sample (Numbers in parentheses are percentages)

Sample size: 211

Working: Full-time (69) Part-time (21) Not currently working (10)

Sex: Male (49) Female (51)

Age: 16-20 (0) 26-30 (44) 36-40 (11) 46 or over (2)
 21-25 (23) 31-35 (16) 41-45 (4)

Group identity:

Asian (29) Black (11) Hispanic (1) White (56) Other (3)

Highest educational level:

Four year college degree (16)
 Some graduate training (61)
 Graduate degree (23)

Job involves:

Clerical/secretarial work	(7)	Unskilled or semi-skilled work	(2)
Professional work (nurse, lawyer, etc.)	(31)	Teaching	(2)
Administrative	(24)	Sales	(8)
Skilled crafts (carpenter, machinist, etc.)	(0)	Not currently working	(12)
		Other	(14)

Number of years of work experience:

less than 2 years	(13)	10-14 years	(12)	25 years or more	(2)
2-4 years	(28)	15-19 years	(7)		
5-9 years	(34)	20-24 years	(4)		

Job officially considered to have:

No supervisory responsibility	(42)	Managerial responsibility	(29)
Supervisory responsibility	(25)	Executive responsibility	(4)

Work for:

Profit business	(70)	Charitable or similar organization	(7)
Educational institution	(11)	Government organization, department or other agency	(12)

Personal (not family) current annual income level is:

Less than \$10,000	(13)	\$20,001-\$30,000	(13)	\$40,001-\$60,000	(24)
\$10,001-\$20,000	(7)	\$30,001-\$40,000	(26)	\$60,001-\$80,000	(10)
				More than \$80,000	(7)

Please evaluate John's [The successor's] performance.

Please evaluate John as compared to the former supervisor [The predecessor].

Please evaluate the Metropolitan Advertising Agency.

	Stable	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unstable
	No Downsizing	Downsizing							
mean*	4.8	3.4							
n	108	100							

Table 4

**Factor Structures of Managerial-Task and Relational
Ideal Leader Behaviors**

Rotated Factor Patterns				
Variables	<u>8 Variables</u>		<u>6 Variables*</u>	
	Factor		Factor	
	1	2	1	2
Delegation	.05	.60	.05	.63
Decisiveness	.10	.71	.07	.71
Action/Results Oriented	.01	.70	.03	.74
Support	.74	-.20	.75	-.17
Involvement	.72	.04	.78	.12
Perceptiveness	.67	.28	.68	.32
Rewardingness	.43	.34		
Trustworthiness	.43	.42		

* Rewardingness and Trustworthiness were omitted from this factor analysis, (N=211).

Table 5

Managerial-Task and Relational Ideal Leader Behaviors'
Item-Total and Item-Scale Correlations

	Managerial- Task Scale	Relational Scale
<u>Managerial-Task Items</u>		
Delegation	.71	.19
Decisiveness	.72	.26
Action/Results Oriented	.70	.18
<u>Relational Items</u>		
Support	.00	.60
Involvement	.15	.66
Perceptiveness	.26	.71
Rewardingness*	.26	.62
Trustworthiness*	.28	.56

* These items were not retained for inclusion in the relational scale.

Table 6

Mean Ratings of Relational and Managerial-Task Actual and Ideal
Leader Behavior in No Downsizing and Downsizing Situations

Leader Behavior	No Downsizing (n=108)		Downsizing (n=103)	
	Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal
Managerial/ Task	5.6	6.3	5.6	6.2
Relational	5.7	6.0	5.6	6.1
T	-1.27	3.42	.19	1.66
p	.20	.0009	.84	.09

Note. Managerial-Task behaviors=Delegation, Decisiveness, and Action/Results Oriented; Relational behaviors=Support, Involvement, and Perceptiveness.

Table 7

Mean Ratings of the Successor's Relational Leader Behavior

<u>Downsizing:</u>		<u>No Downsizing</u>			<u>Downsizing</u>		
		5.8			5.7		
		.97			1.1		
		107			102		
<u>Predecessor's Performance:</u>		<u>Good</u>	<u>Bad</u>	<u>Neutral*</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Bad</u>	<u>Neutral*</u>
<u>Successor's Performance:</u>							
<u>Good</u>		6.1	6.1	6.2	5.9	6.2	6.0
		.77	.79	.82	.93	.78	.80
		18	18	17	17	17	16
<u>Bad</u>		5.1	5.9	5.2	5.5	5.3	5.1
		1.1	.80	.99	.96	1.1	1.4
		18	19	18	19	17	17
		5.6 ¹	5.9 ¹	5.6 ¹			5.7
		.98	.93	1.1			1.0
		71	70	68			209

* The neutral level indicates that no information was provided for the predecessor's performance; ¹ The marginal cell means for predecessor performance include subjects in both the downsizing and no downsizing conditions; For each set of three numbers, the top is the mean, the middle is the standard deviation, and the bottom is the n.

Table 8

Mean Ratings of the Successor's Managerial-Task Leader Behavior

<u>Downsizing:</u>		No Downsizing		Downsizing			
		5.6		5.7			
		1.2		1.0			
		108		103			
<u>Predecessor's</u>							
<u>Performance:</u>	Good	Bad	Neutral*	Good	Bad	Neutral*	
<u>Successor's</u>							
<u>Performance:</u>							
Good	6.4	6.1	6.1	6.1	5.9	6.3	6.1
	.77	.87	.76	.87	.99	.56	.81
	18	18	17	17	17	16	103
Bad	4.7	5.3	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.1	5.2
	1.5	.97	1.0	1.0	1.2	.82	1.1
	18	19	18	19	17	17	108
	5.6 ¹	5.7 ¹	5.6 ¹				5.6
	1.2	1.0	.96				1.1
	72	71	68				211

Table 9

Correlations between Ratings of Ideal, Actual, and Situational
Relational and Managerial-Task Leader Behaviors

Entire Sample					
	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST
IR	.19				
AT	.17	.18			
AR	.12	.25	.52		
ST	.43	.16	.24	.41	
SR	.18	.56	.36	.32	.36

Successor's Performance Good					
	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST
IR	.22				
AT	.44	.20			
AR	.11	.20	.44		
ST	.52	.15	.53	.31	
SR	.20	.48	.47	.53	.42

Successor's Performance Bad					
	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST
IR	.16				
AT	.01	.22			
AR	.14	.30	.44		
ST	.37	.17	.06	.44	
SR	.16	.62	.28	.16	.30

Note. For the entire sample (N=211), correlations of .16 and higher are significant $p < .01$. For the successor's performance good (n=103) and bad (n=108) samples, correlations of .20 and higher are significant $p < .03$. IT=Overall Ideal leader managerial/task; IR=Overall Ideal leader relational; AT=Actual leader (successor) managerial/task; AR=Actual leader (successor) relational; ST=Situational Ideal leader managerial/task; SR=Situational Ideal leader relational.

Table 10

Mean Ratings of Actual Leader Behavior for Successors
with Good Versus Bad Performance Outcomes

Successor's Performance	Ratings of the Successor		
	Relational	Managerial/ Task	Performance
Good (n=103)	6.0	6.1	5.9
Bad (n=108)	5.3	5.2	4.6
T	5.25	7.18	7.48
p	.0001	.0001	.0001

Note. Managerial-Task behaviors=Delegation, Decisiveness, and Action/Results Oriented; Relational behaviors=Support, Involvement, and Perceptiveness.

Table 11

Mean Ratings on the Level of Commitment Scale

<u>Downsizing:</u>		<u>No Downsizing</u>			<u>Downsizing</u>		
<u>Predecessor's Performance:</u>		Good	Bad	Neutral*	Good	Bad	Neutral*
<u>Successor's Performance:</u>							
Good		5.5	5.6	5.8	5.5	5.8	6.0
Bad		4.1	5.5	5.3	5.0	5.0	4.6

* The neutral level indicates that no information was provided for the predecessor's performance. The commitment scale was comprised of three items which measured respondents' willingness to stay working with John as their supervisor, exert extra effort, and work overtime for John; N=211.

Table 12

Ratings by Men and Women of the Importance of Ideal Leader Behaviors and the Frequency of Those Same Leader Behaviors for the Actual Leader

Ideal Leader										
	DELG	DECS	ACRS	SUPT	REWR	INVL	PERC	TRST	MANG	RELT
Men	5.9	6.3	6.1	6.2	5.8	5.6	5.7	6.5	6.1	5.9
Women	6.0	6.2	6.1	6.3	5.7	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.1	6.1
T						-1.85	-2.40			-2.29
p						.06	.01			.02

Actual Leader										
	DELG	DECS	ACRS	SUPT	REWR	INVL	PERC	TRST	MANG	RELT
Men	5.5	5.8	5.4	6.1	3.5	6.0	4.6	5.0	5.6	5.6
Women	5.5	5.9	5.5	6.3	3.6	6.3	4.7	5.0	5.7	5.8
T						-2.06				
p						.04				

Note. DELG=delegation, DECS=decisiveness, ACRS=action results oriented, SUPT=supportiveness, REWR=rewardingness, INVL=involvement, PERC=perceptiveness, TRST=trust, MANG=Managerial-Task behaviors (Delegation, Decisiveness, and Action/Results Oriented), RELT=Relational behaviors (Support, Involvement, and Perceptiveness); N=104 men and 107 women.

Table 13

Mean Ratings of Relational and Managerial-Task Ideal, Actual,
and Situational Leader Behaviors by Race

Race	n	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST	SR	LDRPERF
Asian	61	6.2	6.2	5.6	6.0	6.3	6.2	5.4
Black	24	6.3	6.2	5.9	5.8	6.5	6.4	5.3
White	117	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	6.2	5.9	5.1
Asian/White T		1.06	2.70	.61	3.19	.58	3.07	1.38
p		.28	.007	.53	.001	.56	.002	.16
Black/White T		1.71	2.18	1.95	1.35	2.17	3.14	.60
p		.09	.03	.06	.18	.03	.003	.55

Note. IT=Overall Ideal leader managerial/task;
 IR=Overall Ideal leader relational; AT=Actual leader (successor)
 managerial/task; AR=Actual leader (successor) relational;
 ST=Situational Ideal leader managerial/task;
 SR=Situational Ideal leader relational
 LDRPERF=Performance rating of the Actual Leader (successor).

Table 14

Mean Ratings of Relational and Managerial-Task Ideal, Actual, and Situational Leader Behaviors and Performance by Variable Categories

Variable	Category	n	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST	SR	LDRPERF
1a Involved in Downsizing?	Yes	74	6.2	6.1	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.2	5.1
	No	134	6.1	5.9	5.6	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.3
1b Number of Times	1	42	6.2	6.1	5.9	5.7	6.3	6.2	5.2
	GT 1	28	6.2	6.1	5.5	5.7	6.4	6.1	5.1
1c Were you Laid off?	Yes	20	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.5	6.5	6.2	5.2
	No	47	6.3	6.2	5.8	5.8	6.3	6.2	5.1
2 Years of work experience	LT 2	27	5.9	6.0	5.6	5.7	6.1	6.0	5.3
	2-4	59	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.0	5.2
	5-9	72	6.2	5.9	5.8	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.5
	GT 3	53	6.3	6.2	5.4	5.6	6.3	6.3	4.9
3a Prior exper. eval. supr.?	Yes	74	6.2	6.1	5.5	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.0
	No	134	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.4
3b Number of supervisors	1	30	6.1	6.0	5.5	5.6	6.3	6.1	5.0
	2	20	6.1	6.0	5.4	5.5	5.9	5.9	4.7
	GT 2	17	6.2	6.3	5.8	5.9	6.5	6.4	5.3
3c Number of times	1	23	6.0	6.0	5.3	5.6	6.2	6.1	5.0
	2	22	6.3	6.0	5.6	5.7	6.2	6.1	5.0
	GT 2	16	6.2	6.2	5.8	5.7	6.4	6.5	5.0
4 Job Satisfaction	1-3	31	6.1	5.7	5.5	5.3	6.1	5.9	4.7
	4	48	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.8	6.3	6.1	5.3
	5-7	110	6.2	6.1	5.6	5.7	6.4	6.1	5.3
5 Job Autonomy	1-3	15	5.8	5.8	5.3	5.2	5.9	6.0	4.7
	4-5	67	6.2	5.9	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.0	5.3
	6-7	106	6.1	6.1	5.6	5.7	6.4	6.2	5.2
6 Performance Appraisal	4-5	34	5.8	5.8	5.5	5.4	6.0	5.8	5.1
	6	70	6.1	6.0	5.5	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.3
	7	71	6.2	6.1	5.7	5.7	6.4	6.2	5.1

Table 14 (cont.)

Variable	Category	n	IT	IR	AT	AR	ST	SR	LDRPERF
7a Ldrshp Style	2-4	8	6.0 ¹	5.7	5.4	5.8	6.3 ²	5.8 ³	4.9
Task-	5	61	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5	6.1	6.0	5.1
Oriented	6	80	6.2	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.2	5.4
	7	45	6.3	6.2	5.7	6.0	6.5	6.4	5.4
7b Ldrshp Style	1-4	27	6.1	5.6 ⁴	5.4	5.5	6.1	5.9 ⁵	5.2
Interper-	5	43	6.0	5.8	5.5	5.7	6.2	5.9	5.4
sonal	6	84	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.3
	7	51	6.3	6.4	5.9	5.8	6.5	6.5	5.2

Note. IT=Overall Ideal leader managerial/task;
 IR=Overall Ideal leader relational; AT=Actual leader (successor) managerial/task; AR=Actual leader (successor) relational;
 ST=Situational Ideal leader managerial/task;
 SR=Situational Ideal leader relational;
 LDRPERF=Performance rating of the Actual Leader (successor).
 1a. Have you been involved in an organization that downsized?
 1b. If yes, indicate: how many times? 1c. were you laid off?
 2. How many years of work experience have you had?
 3a. Have you had prior experience(s) evaluating a supervisor's job performance? 3b. If yes, indicate: how many supervisors?
 3c. how many times? 4. In general, how much do you like your present job? 5. How much freedom or autonomy are you given in your present job? 6. What was the overall rating you received on your most recent performance appraisal? 7a./7b. How much do you consider your personal leadership style to be? 7a. Task-Oriented 7b. Interpersonal-Oriented. In variables 4-7b, higher numbers reflect greater amounts.

- ¹ F(5, 197) =2.36, p < .04;
² F(5, 197) =2.31, p < .04;
³ F(5, 197) =4.12, p < .001;
⁴ F(5, 199) =6.11, p < .0001;
⁵ F(5, 199) =5.05, p < .0002;.

Table 15

Level of Relational/Managerial-Task Ideal Leader Behavior and
Mean Ratings of Dimensions of Leader Behavior and Performance

(n)	Level of Rel/M-T Ideal Leader Behavior				F	p
	H/H (64)	H/L (27)	L/H (49)	L/L (62)		
OIT	6.6	5.6	6.5	5.6	178	.001
OIR	6.6	6.5	5.4	5.5	95	.001
AT	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.4	3.7	.01
AR	6.0	5.8	5.4	5.6	3.4	.01
SIT	6.5	6.1	6.3	6.0	8.3	.001
SIR	6.5	6.1	5.8	5.8	17	.001
LDR PERF	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.4	2.6	.05
(GOOD SUCC.)	5.9	6.0	5.8	5.9	.13	.94
(n)	(32)	(14)	(22)	(31)		
(BAD SUCC.)	4.8	4.7	4.0	5.0	3.0	.03
(n)	(32)	(13)	(27)	(31)		
MT	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.6	.57	.63
INT	6.1	6.0	5.5	5.3	6.3	.001

Note. Scale values range from 1 to 7; The F value reflects a comparison of the means among the four levels of ideal leader behavior. H=High (Scale value of 7); L=Low (Scale value of 6 or less); Rel=Relational; MT=Managerial-Task; IT=Overall Ideal leader managerial/task; IR=Overall Ideal leader relational; AT=Actual leader (successor) managerial/task; AR=Actual leader (successor) relational; ST=Situational Ideal leader managerial/task; SR=Situational Ideal leader relational LDR PERF=Performance rating of the Actual Leader (successor) with a good successor (GOOD SUCC) or a bad successor (BAD SUCC); INT Interpersonal.

Table 16

Level of Interpersonal/Managerial-Task Personal Leadership Styles
and Mean Ratings of Dimensions of Leader Behavior and Performance

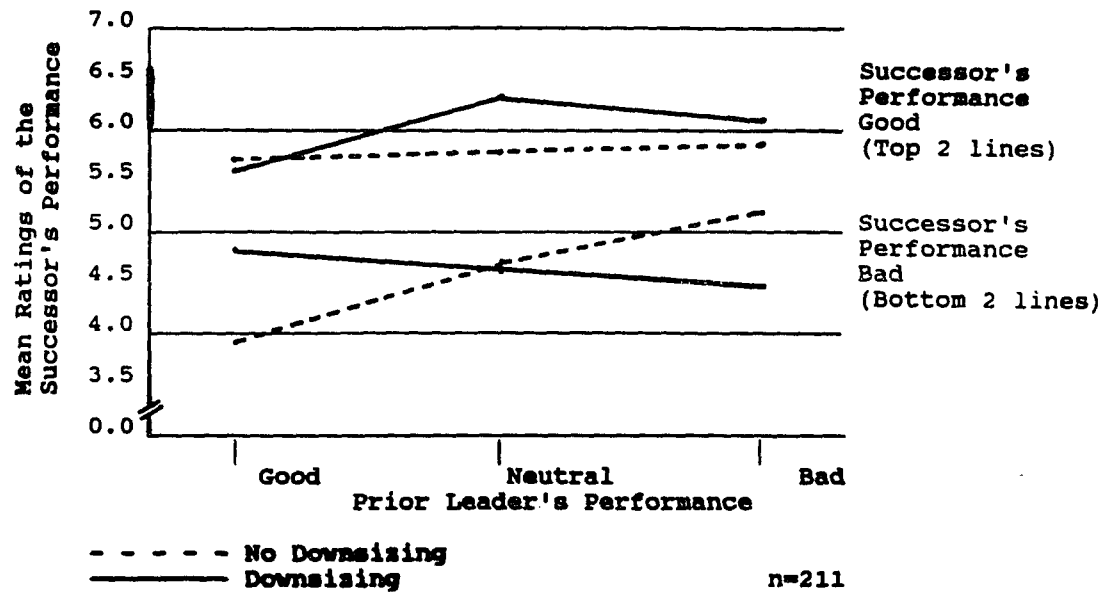
	Level of Interpersonal/ M-T Personal Ldrshp Style				F	p
	H/H (81)	H/L (54)	L/H (44)	L/L (25)		
OIT	6.2	6.0	6.1	5.8	3.4	.01
OIR	6.2	6.0	5.7	5.5	7.2	.001
AT	5.8	5.6	5.4	5.4	1.6	.18
AR	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.4	.96	.41
SIT	6.4	6.1	6.2	6.1	3.0	.03
SIR	6.3	6.0	6.0	5.6	8.1	.0001
LDR PERF	5.3	5.0	5.5	4.9	1.3	.28
(GOOD SUCC.)	6.2	5.4	6.2	5.9	4.7	.004
(n)	(38)	(32)	(18)	(11)		
(BAD SUCC.)	4.5	4.5	5.0	4.1	1.2	.32
(n)	(43)	(22)	(26)	(14)		

Note. Scale values range 1 to 7; H=High (Scale value of 6 to 7);
 L=Low (Scale value of 5 or less);
 IT=Overall Ideal leader managerial/task; IR=Overall Ideal leader
 relational; AT=Actual leader (successor) managerial/task; AR=Actual
 leader (successor) relational; ST=Situational Ideal leader managerial/
 task; SR=Situational Ideal leader relational LDRPERF=Performance rating
 of the Actual Leader (successor), with a good successor (GOOD SUCC) or a
 bad successor (BAD SUCC).

Figure 1.

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Mean Ratings of the Successor's Performance with Knowledge of the Prior Leader's and Successor's Performance and Downsizing

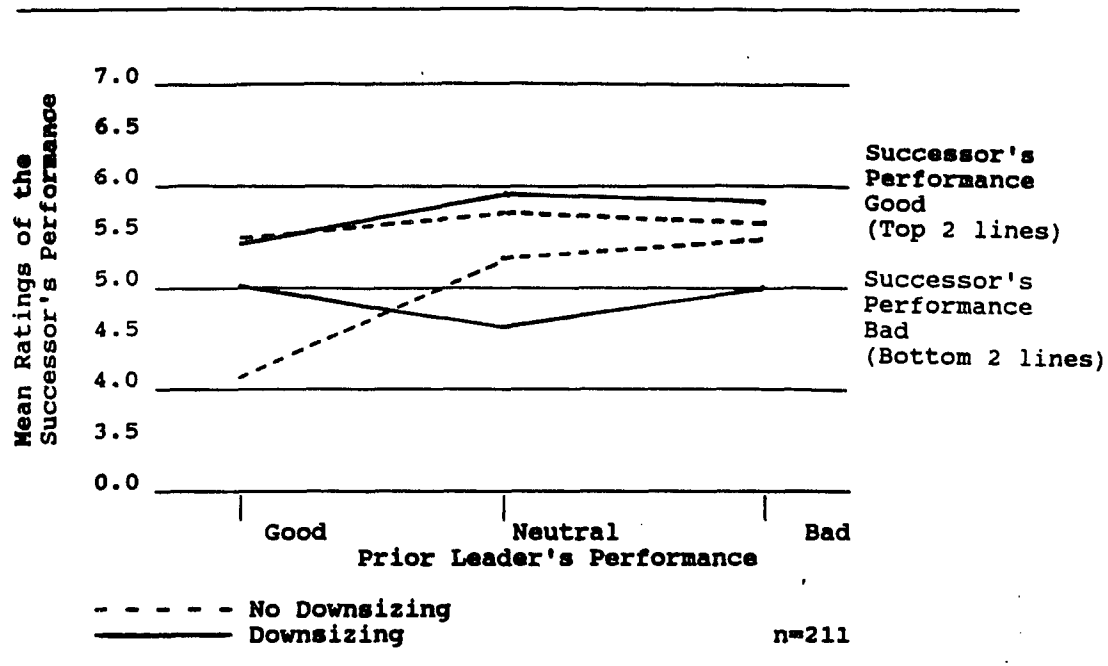


Note. Prior Leader's Performance x Successor's Performance x Downsizing interaction significant ($P > F = .02$).

Figure 2

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Mean Ratings of the Commitment Scale with Knowledge of the Prior Leader's and Successor's Performance and Downsizing



Note. Prior Leader's Performance x Successor's Performance x Downsizing interaction significant ($P > F = .05$).

Appendix A

Scenario Components and Scenarios

(No) Downsizing

No Downsizing. Over the past three years the organization has experienced stability in the total number of accounts. This has led to the company keeping the same organization, with the same number of employees, and certainty about future work.

Downsizing. Over the past three years the organization has experienced a decline in the total number of accounts. This has led to the company reorganizing, with lay offs of employees, and uncertainty about future work.

Predecessor's Performance

Good. Your former supervisor, who was supportive and an effective problem-solver, was transferred.

Bad. Your former supervisor, who was unsupportive and an ineffective problem-solver, was transferred.

Not mentioned. Your former supervisor was transferred.

Leader Performance

Good. At the end of the two months, the project is successfully completed, within budget, and there is the promise of more business.

Bad. At the end of the two months, the project is not successfully completed, over budget, and there is no promise of more business.

Basic Scenario Contained in all Questionnaire Forms

You have been employed as an account assistant for the Metropolitan Advertising agency since 1988. Over the past three years the organization has experienced a decline [stability] in the total number of accounts. This has led to the company reorganizing [keeping the same organization], with lay offs [the same number] of employees, and uncertainty [certainty] about future work.

Your former supervisor, who was (un)supportive and an (in)effective problem-solver, was transferred.

Your work requires the input from several departments which develop and produce advertising accounts. Your new supervisor, John, has assigned you to work on an advertising package for a new account. Your work is delayed by uncooperative departments that are involved with work on other accounts. You ask your supervisor for assistance.

John immediately brings the issue to the other department managers and schedules a meeting for all who are involved with the project. He discusses things openly about the project and brainstorms with you and the other managers for suggestions on how to best accomplish this project. John decides to use several external resources to reduce the workload. He establishes priorities of the tasks and delegates the roles and responsibilities. Over the next month, John keeps involved with the progress you and the others are having.

At the end of the two months, the project is [not] successfully completed, within [over] budget, and there is the [no] promise of more business.

I need your cooperation in a study that is part of my dissertation research at Baruch College and the Graduate School of the City University of New York. The study looks at leadership from the standpoint of the follower. The questionnaire is anonymous in that you will only be identified by your sex, age, years of work experience and related factors. YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE KEPT STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. They will be used for RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY. Thank you for your help.

Dennis Kelly, Baruch College, Psychology Dept.

Consider your idea of the ideal leader. Please read the following descriptions of leader characteristics and rate each of them in terms of their importance to you for your ideal leader.

Supportiveness is the degree to which a person provides understanding and encouragement, and stands behind others when they need backing.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Delegation is the degree to which someone entrusts others with responsibility.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Rewardingness is the extent to which an individual provides something of value to another person in response to their efforts.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Decisiveness is the degree to which someone uses resolve and determination in decisions.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Involvement is the degree to which a person shows interest in and responsiveness to others.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Action/Results-Oriented is the degree to which a person deals with a problem or situation in a timely manner.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Perceptiveness is the degree to which an individual shows awareness of and consideration for other people's interests, needs, and attitudes.

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Trustworthiness is characteristic of someone seen as reliable, and who "can be counted on."

Very Important 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not Important

Now please read the following scenario and imagine yourself as the account assistant.

You have been employed as an account assistant for the Metropolitan Advertising agency since 1988. Over the past three years the organization has experienced a decline in the total number of accounts. This has led to the company reorganizing, with lay offs of many employees, and uncertainty about future work.

Your former supervisor, who was unsupportive and an ineffective problem-solver, was transferred.

Your work requires the input from several departments which develop and produce advertising accounts. Your new supervisor, John, has assigned you to work on an advertising package for a new account. Your work is delayed by uncooperative departments that are involved with work on other accounts. You ask your supervisor for assistance.

John immediately brings the issue to the other department managers and schedules a meeting for all who are involved with the project. He discusses things openly about the project and brainstorms with you and the other managers for suggestions on how to best accomplish this project. John decides to use several external resources to reduce the workload. He establishes priority of the tasks and delegates the roles and responsibilities. Over the next month, John keeps involved with the progress you and the others are having.

At the end of the two months, the project is successfully completed, within budget, and there is the promise of more business.

Consider John, your supervisor at the Metropolitan Advertising agency. Please look over the eight leader characteristics carefully and rate each of them in terms of how much John showed them.

Supportiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Delegation

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Rewardingness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Decisiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Involvement

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A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Action/Results-Oriented

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Perceptiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Trustworthiness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Please evaluate John's performance.

Excellent Leader	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Poor Leader
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Please evaluate John as compared to the former supervisor.

A Better Leader	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	A Worse Leader
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Please evaluate the Metropolitan Advertising agency.

Stable	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unstable
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Consider John as your supervisor. How willing would you be to:

Stay working with John as your supervisor.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Exert extra effort.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Support John's decisions.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Trust John.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Work overtime for John.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Provide feedback to John.

Very Willing	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Very Unwilling
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Consider an ideal leader in the situation at the Metropolitan Advertising Agency. Please look over the eight leader characteristics carefully and rate each of them in terms of how much an ideal leader should show them.

Supportiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Delegation

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Rewardingness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Decisiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Involvement

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Action/Results-Oriented

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Perceptiveness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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Trustworthiness

A Great Deal	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at All
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For statistical tabulation, please answer each item by circling the number that applies. All information will be kept strictly confidential. Individual responses will not be used or reported.

A. I am working: (1) full time (2) part time

B. My sex is: (1) male (2) female

C. My age is: (1) 16-20 (3) 26-30 (5) 36-40 (7) 46 or over
(2) 21-25 (4) 31-35 (6) 41-45

D. With which one group do you identify most? (1) Asian (2) Black
(3) Hispanic (4) White (5) other: specify _____

E. Indicate your highest educational level.

(1) some high school	(4) two year college degree
(2) high school diploma	(5) four year college degree
or equivalent	(6) some graduate training
(3) some college	(7) graduate degree

F. My job now chiefly involves:

(1) clerical/secretarial work	(5) unskilled or semi-skilled work
(2) professional work (nurse, lawyer, etc.)	(6) teaching
(3) administrative	(7) sales
(4) skilled crafts (carpenter, machinist, etc.)	(8) not currently working
	(9) other: specify _____

G. How many years of work experience have you had?

(1) less than 2 years	(4) 10-14 years	(7) 25 years or more
(2) 2-4 years	(5) 15-19 years	
(3) 5-9 years	(6) 20-24 years	

H. Officially, is your job considered to have:

(1) no supervisory responsibility	(3) managerial responsibility
(2) supervisory responsibility	(4) executive responsibility

I. I work for a:

(1) for profit business	(3) charitable or similar organization
(2) educational institution	(4) government organization, department or other agency

- J. My personal (not family) current annual income level is:
 (1) less than \$10,000 (3) \$20,001-\$30,000 (5) \$40,001-\$60,000
 (2) \$10,001-\$20,000 (4) \$30,001-\$40,000 (6) \$60,001-\$80,000
 (7) more than \$80,000

- K. Have you been involved in an organization that downsized?
 (1) yes (2) No

If yes, indicate: how many times? _____ were you laid off? _____

- L. Have you had prior experience(s) evaluating a supervisor's job performance? (1) yes (2) No

If yes, indicate: how many supervisors? _____ how many times? _____

- M. In general, how much do you like your present job?

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

- N. How much freedom or autonomy are you given in your present job?

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

- O. What was the overall rating you received on your most recent performance appraisal?

Excellent 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Poor

- P. How much do you consider your personal leadership style to be?

a. Task-Oriented

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

b. Interpersonal-Oriented

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

- Q. How frequently do you interact with your current supervisor?

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

- R. How much do you depend upon your most immediate supervisor?

A Great Deal 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Not at All

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