Social Psychological Exchange of Interpersonal Power and
Obligation between U.S. Army Infantry Superordinates and
Subordinates

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derived from Sweney's Response to Power Model (RPM).

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appropriate are reported.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL EXCHANGE

OF INTERPERSONAL POWER AND OBLIGATION

BETWEEN U.S. ARMY INFANTRY

SUPERORDINATES AND SUBORDINATES

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MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

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by

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M.A., University of Missouri, 1971

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
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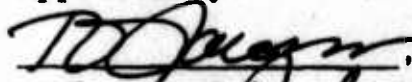
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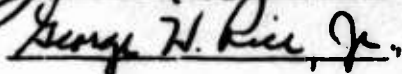
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THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

> If you take a flat map
> And move wooden blocks upon it strategically,
> The thing looks well, the blocks behave as they should.
> The science of war is moving live men like blocks.
> And getting the blocks into place at a fixed moment.
> But it takes time to mold your men into blocks,
> And flat maps turn into country where creeks and gullies
> Hamper your wooden squares.
>   They straggle after ripe blackberries,
>   And you cannot lift them up in your hand and
>   Move them.
>
>   -Stephen Vincent Benet

Introduction

The best made plan, the most sophisticated weapon, the most elaborate scenario in a wargame, the most integrated intelligence system, and the best computerized information available do not guarantee success on today's lethal battlefield. They all depend upon a small effective unit -- integrated with other units -- composed of proficient, disciplined soldiers of diverse backgrounds led by competent, fair-minded sergeants, lieutenants, and captains. This thesis is directed toward _how_ infantry noncommissioned and commissioned officers lead and follow. It is an examination of their styles of leadership and followership.

The United States Army is unique from all other organizations. It has a solemn 200 year-old mission to defend the United States of America, to be prepared to

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engage successfully in active, armed combat on today's technological battlefield. It is, and must remain, responsive to missions and directives passed from civilian authority through the chain of command to capable volunteer soldiers. But missions and directives can be passed in a manner peculiar to the style of a given commander, and, when passed, can be perceived in a manner peculiar to the style of a given follower.

Conceptual Statement of the Problem

Department of Army Pamphlet 600-3 (Officer Professional Development and Utilization, March 1974, p. 5-5) and Army Regulation 623-105 (Officer Evaluation Reporting System, May 1974, p. 1-2) indicate that a superior should evaluate the leadership style of a subordinate. Nowhere does any army pamphlet or regulation indicate what the preferred army style is, what the standards of leadership style are, against what leadership techniques a style should be compared, or whether there are situations which require different styles. In fact, the terms "leadership," "authority," "discipline," "morale," "esprit de corps," and many others - essential to an understanding of leadership and leadership style - are not even included in the Army Dictionary (AR 310-25, 1974). These terms connote different meanings to different people. And yet many professional officers regularly use these terms when establishing standards for subordinates and describing

subordinates' proficiency on evaluation reports.

In addition to the importance of leadership style, an equally important aspect of effectiveness is follower-ship style.

It is suggested that as an individual matures, he develops patterned responses of behavior. He behaves in a similar fashion under similar conditions. Some call this his personality; others, his style. In this thesis a man's leader/follow style is equated to role and perception behaviors. How does he perceive he should lead, follow?

Research to be cited in this thesis will demonstrate that a leader's style has a significant impact on whether followers achieve the goals of an organization.

The ability of the superordinate to develop his subordinates should impact on whether followers achieve the goals of an organization. Subordinates achieving the goals of the organization would depend upon where the super-ordinate is on a continuum between the extremes of authoritarian and permissive styles of leadership. The research will document that either extreme is undesirable. A flexible, objective, and equalitarian leadership style which establishes a climate within which subordinates feel free to communicate with their leaders is more desirable. Subordinates perceive authoritarians as leaders who are not receptive to recommendations for change or to upward com-munications, and are usually not accessible.

Certain followers are recalcitrant and some are "yes-men." Both are reluctant to communicate. Yet, somewhere between the above followers' styles is the competent, proficient, and objective subordinate trying to do his duty the best way he can. He is perceived by his leader as a subordinate who effectively makes recommendations and insures the boss is not surprised with something unexpected.

The styles will be described in chapter two to provide the reader with conceptual standards for leadership and followership. Associated with those styles are certain psychological instruments which identify an individual's preferred leader and follower style. The instruments will be described in chapter three. Chapter four will contain a discussion of those leader and follower styles as measured by the instruments against the background variables of age, education, source of commission, component, months of command, and months of staff.

In essence, the data will permit examination of preferred leadership and followership styles at various levels of experience and seniority within the Army. By inference, it will permit conclusions to be drawn about how infantry personnel prefer to lead and follow, as measured by the psychological instruments and categorized by discrete variables.

Shrewd critics have assigned military success to all manner of things -- tactics, shape of frontiers, speed, happily placed rivers, mountains or woods, intellectual ability, or the use of artillery. All in a measure true, but none vital. The secret lies in the inspiring spirit which lifted weary, footsore men out of themselves . . . with an army it is the result of . . . leadership.

Major George S. Patton, Jr., 1931

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

> I deplore the chain of . . . commanders
> sitting at telephones . . . talking, talking,
> talking; instead of leading, leading,
> leading.
>
> J. F. G. Fuller

Introduction

Though it may be true, as one writer has
claimed, that in 1896 the Congressional Library
had no book on leadership, it is not true that
interest in this aspect of society is a recent
phenomenon   (Gibb, 1969, p. 205).

From the philosophers of ancient Greece to the political

scientists of the Renaissance, numerous assumptions were

made about the nature of man, his strengths and weaknesses.

Historians document numerous instances of great men who

have changed the course of history. Primitive hunting

bands rallied around the most powerful men; the great

generals fielded substantial armies; and formal organiza-

tions developed. The organizations began to exhibit

structure, attempted to accomplish a mission or task, and

satisfied the basic needs of their soldiers. Leaders in-

fluenced soldiers. The art of leadership emerged.

Definition of Leadership

There is a "lack of precision in the term [leader-

ship] and possibly even in what constitutes the concept,"

(Jacobs, 1971, p. 230). To use the term meaningfully it must be defined in a context which fits its intended use.

Early research attributed leadership to a specific trait or a constellation of traits. Disproven by Gibb (1947), Stogdill (1948), and Mann (1959, p. 246), leadership was thereafter attributed to a role interaction theory wherein some kind of influence takes place. "Leadership is a function of the situation and its requirements and of the followers and their expectations as well as of qualities of the leader" (Marks, 1959, p. 23). Sherif (1961) identified a perceptual interrelationship of leader personality, follower personality, and situation. Olmstead (1968) maintains that we should not try to change personality, but rather, ought to force role compliance.

Biddle and Thomas (1966) reported on the sociological interest in social role as espoused by Durkheim, Pareto, Max Weber, Tarde, Cooley, and George Herbert Mead.

As the psychological and sociological approaches began to merge (Cartwright and Zander, 1968), the literature affirmed that leadership was a role ascribed to one who influences, and was a function of interacting roles in situations oriented toward accomplishing a goal (Gibb, 1969). Stogdill (1974, p. 15) attested that "the role conception of leadership is most firmly buttressed by research findings."

Social exchange theorists emphasized the interaction

between leader and led as an economic cost and rewards proposition (Thibaut and Kelly, 1959). Jacobs (1971) in his extensive analysis of leadership in formal organizations viewed the interaction between leader and follower as a bargaining situation -- though not necessarily consciously so -- wherein the mission was accomplished and the subordinate's needs were satisfied.

Consequently, in this study leadership will be viewed as an interaction between leader and follower roles within a situation in which interpersonal power and obligation are willingly exchanged in order to accomplish an organizational task and satisfy the needs of organizational members.

Military Leadership Background

Leadership problems were initially limited to perceptual differences between officers and enlisted men (Stouffer, 1949). The Army provided guidelines for leaders' actions and orders. These guidelines were institutionalized as the eleven principles of leadership (Carter, 1952). Further emphasis was provided in the '60's as military personnel specialists were often quoted as saying "put the person back into personnel." But deployment to Vietnam, the nuances of an unconventional war, and the development of new weapons and tactics redirected military efforts toward the battlefield and the accomplishment of the mission. With the instability of the situation,

the brief duration of command by commanders, and unfavorable public opinion, there was an increasing frequency of "fragging," drug abuse, and disobedience to orders. The growing awareness of U.S. casualties and the inactivation of units, coincident to their withdrawal from Vietnam during the early seventies, provided some soldiers with non-mission related time to spend and non-meaningful work. Commanders, who had been professionally developed and were tactically competent, began to experience a growing amount of human relations problems. Battalion commanders who did not have the prerequisite interpersonal skills (Holmes, 1974) sought simple solutions to complex problems and often attacked symptoms rather than problems.

In recognition of these problems, a number of different thrusts developed to seek solutions. The U.S. Army War College (1971) conducted a study of leadership behavior in relation to expectations of others, identifying not only behavioral shortfalls, but also perceptual shortfalls concerning the adequacy of leadership among officers and noncommissioned officers. During approximately the same period, there was a massive increase in human relations, drug abuse, and race relations programs which were designed to enhance communications and understanding between superiors and subordinates.

In February 1972, Secretary of Defense Melvin Laird announced that the decision making process in Defense had changed to emphasize participative management

(U.S., DOD, 1972). This indeed was a fundamental depar-
ture from the unquestioned loyalty so often, albeit in-
correctly, expected from subordinates within a regimented,
formal organization. Essentially, the Secretary focused
on people, the prime component of the military. His
emphasis was timely. For Toffler's (1970) alarming
analysis of society served as a warning to alert the
people in power as to the American citizens' growing in-
ability to cope with rapid technological change and
transience. It is safe to assume that the inabilities to
cope evident within the American public were also present
within the military and that to assist soldiers in coping,
certain leader behaviors were better than others.

Further evidence of the need for changes in military
leader behavior came from the 1973 Middle East War, which
shockingly alerted the U.S. military into realizing that
while the U.S. was involved in Southeast Asia, the Soviet
Union had budgeted and produced sufficient military
weaponry to not only challenge U.S. military might, but
also export an enormous amount of war materiel to Egypt
and Syria.

Quickly, the U.S. military responded with new
weapons systems, new tactics for the employment of those
systems, new technology, increased use of computers, and
a reaffirmation of the basic soldierly skills, such as
concealment and the proper use of terrain. Tactical
responsibility was divided to require generals to "see the

battle" and identify the enemy's main axis of advance, colonels to maneuver and concentrate firepower against the enemy, and captains and lieutenants to fight the battle.

However, the electronic technology which provided a general with the capability to communicate with a lieutenant on the battlefield created a requirement for more and more specialists. In some respects the general now must rely on the knowledge, expertise, and professionalism of those specialists, his subordinates, who are more knowledgeable about their specialties than he.

As further evidence, field manuals now outline tactical procedures for employing dispersed units. Company strong points, blocking positions, and lateral shifts on the battlefield argue in favor of decentralized execution. Disrupted communications due to electronic countermeasures or electromagnetic pulse impede command and control and require instant, independent judgment and initiative by junior subordinates. Corps artillery units are increasingly employed by subordinate headquarters. Nuclear weapons control will be "decentralized to brigades and battalions" once nuclear war begins (U.S.A. CGSC, 1975). The Army's command policy cautions commanders not to "rely on coercion when persuasive methods can effect the desired end" (U.S.A. AR 600-20, 1974). These and many more doctrinal shifts indicate a growing trend toward decentralization of authority and responsibility to competent subordinates within an organization which communicates effectively and

has confidence in its members.

The preceding does not suggest anything other than
all professional members of the army agree on desiring
high standards, mission accomplishment, esprit de corps,
and high morale. However, leaders do not agree on how
those goals are to be achieved. The "how to" of leader-
ship is a person's style. The brief preceding discussion
strongly suggests that expected communications, decentral-
ized execution, and the degree of technology involved are
all relevant to the style of leadership or followership
which will be effective in a given situation.

Military Leadership Terminology

There is a definite requirement to operationalize
the terms associated with leadership such as command,
authority, responsibility, accountability, discipline,
morale, esprit de corps, power, and obligation. Some of
these terms are defined in the Army Dictionary. Command
is the "authority which a commander . . . exercises over
his subordinates by virtue of his rank and assignment"
(AR 310-25, p. 127). It includes the responsibility for
morale and discipline. Responsibility is "the obligation
to carry forward an assigned task to a successful conclu-
sion" (Ibid., p. 448). Accountability is an "obligation
imposed by law or lawful order or regulation" which is
concerned with records (Ibid., p. 6). Discipline only
pertains to correctional facilities (Ibid., p. 185) and

obligation pertains to reserved dollars (Ibid., p. 360).

In its manual on military leadership the Army (FM 22-100, 1973, pp. 1-3) defines leadership as the "process of influencing men in such a manner as to accomplish the mission." Morale is an individual's state of mind. Esprit de corps is the enthusiasm shown for a unit by its members. Discipline is an "attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate action in the absence of orders" (Ibid., pp. 13-5, 6).

The term power, as it is applied to the leader-follower interaction, is found nowhere in the military literature. Since the willingness to use and seek power is a kind of glue which holds the roles of leader and follower together within a situation, it is imperative to review the literature about power.

The Intervening Variable of Power

In 1935 (Schjelderup-Ebbe), a "pecking order" among chickens was recorded as an illustration of dominance or power over others. Maslow and Flanzbaum (1936) observed a similar pattern in monkeys. Merei (1949) made the leap up the phylogenetic scale and observed power interplay in a children's nursery.

Whyte (1943) also observed power in a youth group. Likert (1967) identified a leader as a "linking pin," one who is influenced by power and who in turn influences two or three others by power. His concept also served as an

inverted funnel which processes the thoughts and recommendations of subordinates up through the hierarchy.

Parkinson's Law (Parkinson, 1957) postulated that power within a formal organization drives leaders to build empires and to increase the number of subordinates, thereby increasing power satisfaction of the leader.

Freud (1922) and the psychoanalytic school maintained that power relationships existed without the conscious awareness of those involved. They hypothesized that seeking or avoiding power were ego defense mechanisms of an individual unable to cope objectively with his surroundings. Zalesnik (1965, a), too, categorized extreme individual personality styles as somewhat defensive when a leader constantly seeks or avoids power.

Field theory proponents maintained that both leader and follower related with power (Cartwright, 1965) and with perceptions of who had the power (Festinger, 1950), the control, the influence over others. Indeed, power is a most important variable in determining an effective leadership style (Bass, 1973). French and Raven (1959) categorized power bases. They apply to the military as follows:

'Legitimate Power derives from statutory provisions of the public laws which govern the Armed Forces. If subordinates recognize the legitimate right of a leader appointed over them to direct them, then that leader has legitimate power in the eyes of the subordinates. In

addition to statutory provisions, Goldman and Fraas (1965) demonstrated how the group itself could be a "legitimizing agent."

'By virtue of his legitimacy, a leader has reward and coercive powers. These are viewed by soldiers as the leader's right to reward or punish them for conformity to or noncompliance with standards, respectively. There is "less need for [punishment] in a well-disciplined organization than in a lax one" (Pennington, 1943, p. 156).

·Expert power is equated with technical and tactical competence, proficiency in job knowledge, the leader's ability to contribute to the group's accomplishment of the mission. The leader is viewed as a valued resource to the group.

·Referent power was initially viewed as charismatic appeal. However, more appropriately it categorizes interpersonal competence, persuasive influence over others, the ability to establish a climate of motivation and to develop subordinates. It's a leader's reputation, his coolness, his consistency, and his objectivity that earn the subordinate's respect. It is essentially a subordinate's faith that the leader will not let him down. Stouffer et al (1949) observed this category in the inexperienced combat soldier who looked to his squad leader after his first battle and said "Did I do alright, Sarge?"

It should be noted that power exists in both the perceptions of leaders and followers. It is a reciprocal

interactive relationship (Festinger, 1950).

Consequently, if power is the source of influence between interacting personalities in leader and follower roles, both the leader and follower must somehow share in that power. It would be safe to assume that the more they objectively interact, the less relevant personal power will be to the outcome of that interaction. Jacobs (1971) suggests that sharing of power has two primary purposes. The first is to increase the self-esteem of the follower, and thereby his commitment to the organization since it is a source of that self-esteem. The second is to decrease the power differential between two people interacting in a hierarchy, thereby increasing the flow of information and effective communication between them. This second purpose is not just limited to the eyeball-to-eyeball relationships between leader and follower in a rifle squad (DePuy, 1958). It is also observed in the customary communications pattern between leader and follower at more senior levels of command (Olmstead, 1968).

An example of sharing power was seen after World War I. The Prussian Military hierarchy believed their Army was defeated because of a strict authoritarian retention of power by leaders (Ansbacker, 1941). As a result, officers were trained in techniques to encourage the unit to accept responsibility. Missions were given to units. Each member internalized the mission and esprit de corps

Consequently, during World War II individual

soldiers continued to defend their unit's position even

after their leaders became battlefield casualties.

Power, then, is somewhat shared by leaders and

followers. It is balanced by each. For as Voltaire has

said "I am a leader; therefore, I must follow" (Aldington,

1934).

Informal Contract

Every leader in a chain of command within a formal
organization is also a follower. Likert's (1967) linking
pin concept alludes to the man in the middle, between his
superiors and between his subordinates. Gibb (1969,
p. 237), also, maintains that intermediate level leaders
have a dual role to play.

He must accept the norms and values of
superior authority, thus serving as an
agent of the . . . organization of which
he is part. To the extent that he does
this effectively, his superiors regard him
highly. At the same time, he must win the
willing followership of the men under him,
so that he wields over them authority which
they themselves have given him. He will be
rated highly by the men to the extent that
he shows 'consideration' for them and to
the extent that he mingles freely with them
and represents them against the . . . over-
all organization.

The Army (U.S. Army War College, 1971) has

popularized the "Informal Contract" wherein the leader is

a mediator who must balance the expectations of superiors

and subordinates, mission and men. Superiors expect the

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subordinates to be proficient and disciplined. Subordinates expect superiors to provide meaningful, worthwhile work and treat them fairly.

The leader's role is that of a middleman in an organization, both a leader and a follower who has both power and obligation to others. Perhaps Voltaire's quote could be altered to say "I have power; therefore, I have obligations."

Power and Obligation Matrix

Wolman (1956) established leadership as a general function of power and acceptance of requirements. As was noted earlier, the military terms of accountability and responsibility concern obligations. So too, within any organization there is a differentiation of roles. Those roles can be formal or informal (Gibb, 1969), (Bass, 1970). The formal is traditional, observable, and related to superordinates; the informal consists of social control, peer pressure, and is related to other than superordinates. The latter involves specific social situations and personalities which cannot be anticipated. Sweney (1970) graphically portrayed a power and obligation matrix bounded by formal and informal role expectations as shown in figure one. Weigand (1974) described the cells in the matrix as they applied to a military leader, a middle manager, exhibiting both a leadership and followership role.

	POWER (as leader)	OBLIGATION (as follower)
FORMAL EXPECTATIONS (Of Organization)	AUTHORITY "Right to act as Commander/Leader." Legitimate, Reward & Coercive Power. "Headship or Command."	ACCOUNTABILITY Does what he is supposed to do. "Has to comply with regulations, SOP, suspense dates." Accountable for mission accomplishment and subordinates' performance.
INFORMAL EXPECTATIONS (Of Self)	INFLUENCE Exercises initiative. "Establishes climate of motivation, makes quality decisions, communicates and counsels effectively, develops subordinates." Referent Power. "Leadership."	RESPONSIBILITY Does what he is capable of doing. "Wants to contribute in an extraordinary way, wants to fulfill expectations of others, and anticipates problems." Takes initiative.

Figure 1

Power and Obligation Matrix

Although it is difficult to discretely describe where authority ends and influence begins, it has been confirmed that military leaders use both authority and influence. In a bureaucracy, authority is not delegated to individuals, but to positions (Rice and Bishoprick, 1971). It is certain that the mere holding of a position of authority does not insure leadership (Olmstead, 1971). And, therefore, authority is only part of the power spectrum within which leaders operate.

Authority is a right to command (Koontz, 1955) by virtue of rank, assignment, and signature under the statement: "I, the undersigned assume command." Authority provides the appointed leader with the right to use legitimate, reward, and coercive powers. Authority is the right to expect obedience, to control the outward behavior of others (Webster, 1966). So too, leaders have certain obligations.

The obligations which leaders have as followers could be grouped in the upper right quadrant. They are accountable for the equipment for which they have signed; must comply with Army regulations, unit SOP's, and their commander's policies; maintain standards; and meet suspense dates. Accountability is essentially an obligation by subordinates to properly discharge their duties (Davis, 1951).

The formal spectrum is immediate, easy to observe and inspect, and short range in nature. The informal spectrum is long range and evident only after a leader has been stabilized and knows his superiors and his subordinates. Only then does he begin to see the fruits of his time-consuming, deliberate efforts.

True leadership enters stage front in the lower left quadrant which treats the psychological, emergent, referent, and charismatic aspects of power. That power is the crux of effective leadership which needs to be developed in order for leaders to exhibit interpersonal skill and proficiency.

General Aubrey Newman, in the November 1972 issue

of ARMY Magazine, ably described the lower right portion

of the matrix as follows:

> All too often I have heard . . . officers
> complain, 'They don't give me enough to do,
> not enough responsibility.' These . . . of-
> ficers never seem to realize that in saying
> this they have confessed their failure to
> meet the one responsibility of any officer
> that cannot be delegated: the responsibility
> to be a self-starter.

Simply stated, formal power is what Gibb (1954)

has called "headship." It is attributed to a leader

formally appointed by an organization. Informal power is

more closely associated with "intended influence" (Moment

and Zaleznik, 1963, p. 414) or "leadership." Formal ob-

ligation is responsibility initiated from within in the

form of anticipating a superior's problems, making sug-

gestions for improvement, forwarding recommendations not

solicited, and identifying with and developing the high

esprit de corps of the organization.

Earlier in this chapter the army's definition of

discipline was provided. It could be equated to the ac-

countability and responsibility segments of obligation.

The reader will recall that discipline is an "attitude that

insures prompt obedience to orders [accountability] and the

initiation of appropriate action in the absence of orders"

[responsibility].

Response to Power Model (RFM)

Sweney (1971) operationalized some of the foregoing

concepts and synthesized the constructs into an interactive
leader and follower model. The model provides a means to
analyze power structures within organizations. It focuses
on roles and perceptual behaviors, assuming that personal-
ity is relatively stable. He hypothesized that problems
in power and communications are within the realm of change.
He synthesized the literature into three superordinate and
three subordinate styles.
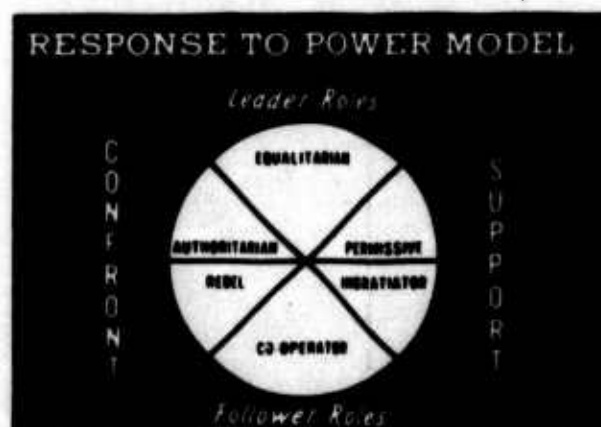
Figure 2

Response to Power Model (RPM) Developed
by A. B. Sweney

These organizational roles are discriminated from each
other in terms of implied assumptions, communication
styles, dominant personality characteristics, responses
to frustration, goals, values, exchanges sought, and
sociometric behaviors. The horizontal continuum in figure
two ranges from possession of all power on the left to

avoidance of all power on the right. The imaginary vertical continuum is pure objectivity and effective communication.

As leaders interact with followers it is impossible for the former not to become involved with the latter (Olmstead, 1968). And as they interact each individual's self-concept is influenced by the behavior of the other toward him (Manis, 1955, pp. 367-369). The interaction provides the forum for the exchange of power and obligation previously discussed. In fact, the senior-subordinate relation rests on who has the knowledge, the skill, and the information required for the successful accomplishment of the task (Rice, 1971, p. 98) and the increase in rewards available (Heinicke and Bales, 1953, pp. 30-38). Effective unit performance implies that individuals are able to establish and maintain relationships with others (Ginzberg, 1959, p. 273).

Fiedler and others would probably add diverse situations to the model. Fiedler (1969) identified three major factors which influence the situation: position power of leader, task structure, and leader-member relationships.

Position power, which has been described as formal power assigned by the Army to a specific position, is assumed to be the same in all equal positions within a hierarchy, for example: all company commanders, all battalion commanders. However, lower level managers are more

constrained by the situation than are upper level managers (Franklin, 1973, p. 112). The styles of leadership and followership at various levels thus should be different; the extent to which they are will be identified later in this study.

Leadership Styles

Figure 3

Authoritarian Leader

Sweney's description of the authoritarian leader equates closely with the description of other named styles found throughout the literature. These similarities are noted throughout the description of the Authoritarian style. The authoritarian leader is highly structured and directive (Dalton, 1970, p. 284), exploitive (System 1) and paternalistic (System 2) (Likert, 1967), coercive, autocratic, subjective, and a problem seeker. He blames

others, accepts few, and prefers theory X (McGregor, 1944)
in that he believes people are bad, lazy, stupid and need
to be forced to work. He is unable to organize function-
ally, is personally competent, and desires to be intimately
involved in all the activities of his unit. He is a 9-1
leader (Blake and Mouton, 1969), with high emphasis on
production and low concern for people. Mission occupies
most of his time; subordinates, very little (Weigand, 1975).
He works longer (Lippet and White, 1958, p. 510), is an
"order giver" (Merei, 1949, p. 157), "boss-centered"
(Tannenbaum, 1958), retains resources, provides specific
guidance, centralizes his organization, and controls the
organization by withholding information (Adams, 1965),
thereby requiring subordinates to "ask the boss." He in-
variably controls his subordinates using the military
"direction of attack," maintains close control, and is
highly restrictive.

He, like Frederick Taylor's scientific school of
management, is obsessed with increasing worker efficiency
while viewing the worker as an adjunct to the organization's
equipment (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1973, p. 3). He believes
his patterned style (A) of leadership is supreme (Argyris,
1971, p. 155) as he continually seeks power and holds
subordinates accountable for failure (Sweney, 1971).

The Authoritarian, often unnecessarily, generates
conflicts which are not really necessitated by the situation.
As Lukert (1974, p. 34) has written: "Authority is such a

common way to instill discipline that it is often used with too little thought." He usually and rightfully prides himself on his ability to grapple with a problem directly but probably, incorrectly, perceives that his antagonists are the workers rather than the procedures and systems (Weigand, 1975). Interestingly French and Snyder (1959) note that some authoritarian military officers perceive themselves as competent, maintain that their subordinates have judgment problems, and hence are cautious to share their power, their expert information. This is true especially in difficult, complex, and ambiguous task situations.

Argyris (1957) foretold future problems by warning managers about too much structure, too many administrative controls, and false human relations programs. The authoritarian leader "will not realize the full potential of his human resources" (Yonke, 1969, p. 36). He will inhibit subordinate participation (Fleishman, 1961; Lewin, 1951; and McGregor, 1944). The more he withholds power from good junior officers, the more the Army can expect to lose them to responsible jobs on the "outside" (Appling, 1975, p. 42). The "unapproachable and superior attitude of officials is fatal" (Congressional Committee on the Investigation of the Pearl Harbor Attack, 1949, p. 265). In fact, the more authoritarian a leader is, the more unable he is to deal effectively with the needs of others and the more he tends to be rejected by his followers (Hollander, 1954, p. 370).

What causes a leader to be authoritarian is

questionable. Perhaps he lacks the expert power (French and Raven, 1959) and information needed to make qualitative decisions. Perhaps he is very ego defensive as Freud (1922) and Moment and Zaleznik (1963) suggested and is defending himself from an area of behavior in which he does not feel competent. Or, perhaps he acts that way because he believes that is his expected role (Goffman, 1973, p. 251), the mask he must wear.

Regardless of the cause, the authoritarian leader is a black-and-white personality who prefers high power differentials between hierarchical positions. Unfortunately, high power differentials produce a reluctance on the part of a subordinate to approach his boss and communicate. As a result upward information flow is restricted, and without this information the organization is less effective.

> The fundamental cause of any breakdown of morale and discipline within the armed forces usually comes from a commander . . . [who] transgresses by treating [his] men as if they were children or serfs instead of showing respect for their adulthood.

> S. L. A. Marshall, 1966

3

Permissive!

Figure 4

Permissive Leader

The other extreme leadership style is the permissive. The permissive leader is unstructured, nondirective, subjective, seductive, indulgent, kind, and dependent. He accepts many, blames self and believes people are good and need love. He repays work with kindness. He is a 1-9 leader (Blake and Mouton, 1969) with low emphasis on production and high emphasis on people. He views his role as a harmonizer in the work situation but falls short of Likert's (1967) integrated approach.

A close parallel can be established between Sweney's permissive leader and Fiedler's High LPC. In highly uncertain situations faced with complex, unpleasant tasks (Fiedler, 1963) and little information, he will provide a climate within which high achievers will function effectively (Dalton, Lawrence, and Lorsch, 1970, p. 284). The same group of authors believe the permissive leader provides

an effective means of coordination which permits special-
ists with diverse knowledge and orientations to work
together (Ibid., p. 295).

Subordinate centered management styles (Tannenbaum
and Schmidt, 1958) coincide with more task effectiveness
and satisfaction with supervision "in the eyes of the sub-
ordinate" (Bass, 1975, p. 728).

He tactically controls his subordinates using the
military "zone of action."

To him, anything that anyone wants to do is fine
because they all want to do the best they can. He has the
utmost trust in everyone and rarely disciplines. He
readily delegates authority, decentralizes organization,
assigns accountability, and gives away resources to sub-
ordinates. His avoidance of power may also be defensive
as was suggested earlier.

Figure 5

Equalitarian Leader

The equalitarian is the most balanced leadership
role. The term democratic (Lewin et al, 1939) as found in
FM 22-100 (U.S. Army, 1973) has a negative connotation in
that it implies that soldiers "take a vote" in the as-
sembly area to decide whether or not they should cross the
line of departure. Consequently, the term "equalitarian"
is used to indicate that there must be an equitable balance
between mission and the welfare of subordinates, and that
the leader believes that there is equal worth among men.
The equalitarian leader is flexible, participative, ration-
al, objective, knowledgeable, and seeks solutions. He ac-
cepts and rejects others moderately and prefers theory Y
(McGregor, 1960) in that he believes people are intelligent,
motivated, and know their own job best. He is a 9-9
leader (Blake and Mouton, 1969) with high emphasis on pro-
duction and people.

Since he attempts to fulfill the expectations of
his superiors and his subordinates, he shares authority and
accountability with his subordinates. Subordinates are en-
couraged to assume responsibilities and recommend more
effective means to accomplish the task.

In an address to the American Psychological Asso-
ciation, Bennis (1964) cautioned the leaders of the future
about a rapidly changing, far more complex, turbulent
environment which would require more adaptive, innovative,
and equalitarian behavior. Argyris (1966), too, has stated
that "executive decision making has become so complex that

group participation is essential."

Likert's (1967, pp. 14-24) systems three (consulta-
tive) and four (participative) equate closely to Sweney's
equalitarian style of leadership. Likert's research indi-
cates that "system four" organizations exhibit favorable
attitudes, low cost, and long-range improvement in produc-
tivity. This interactive system breeds high trust and con-
fidence between members, allows genuine participation,
encourages the free and valid flow of communications
throughout the organization, and distributes responsibility
at all levels (Ibid., p. 46). This system is the style
which Secretary Laird set as the model for the Department
of Defense (1972).

Greater productivity by means of the equalitarian
leadership style was suggested by Lewin (1951) and vali-
dated by House (1975), Jay (1971), Jones (1975), Kolominskiy
(1971), Nelson (1962), and Ziller (1963).

Peter Drucker (1954) has encouraged the shift to
management by objectives through mutual trust with subor-
dinates. When General Motors decentralized authority, the
weak managers became readily apparent (Drucker, 1946, p. 8).

Montagu (1962) agreed with biologist W. C. Allee
who said "the principle of cooperation is the most dominant
and biologically the most important" human behavior in
nature. The equalitarian does cooperate. He also creates
situations within which learning can occur. He keeps his
subordinates constantly challenged, learning, and

experiencing (Schein, 1965 and Berlew, 1966) so that they are able to assume his leadership role in the future. He sets and enforces the standards and insures the effective involvement of his subordinates to produce quality output. He grows and develops subordinates while demanding proficiency and discipline from them. He accomplishes his mission through his subordinates.

Based on his analysis of the situation, he delegates authority, assigns accountability as appropriate, and tends to control his subordinates using the military "axis of advance."

> "Never tell people how to do things. Tell them what to do and they will surprise you with their ingenuity."

> General George S. Patton, Jr., 1941

Military research also supports the equalitarian style. The United States Army War College (1971) recommended a program to enhance communications and understanding within the army. The Combat Developments Command (U.S. Army, 1971, p. 64) stated,

> Commanders at all levels must be made aware of the fact that punishment alone does not produce a disciplined army but rather a fearful group of men . . . the unit commander must be skilled in dealing with people.

Daniel (1974, p. 37) suggested that participative management will produce discipline, willing obedience, and the acceptance of personal responsibility for organizational goals and standards.

And finally, an air defense battalion commander who

practiced equalitarian leadership, published a report of his unit which stated that participative management produced no breakdown in discipline (Fry, 1974). Similar findings were verified in the United States Air Force (Daniel, 1974).

In summary, only the leader who is able to combine mission and social maintenance orientations in a flexibile manner is able to react with undefensive, objective role behaviors (Jacobs, 1971, p. 192). A proper balance between mission and men, centralization and decentralization, and power and obligation is essential to an effective leadership style. It is suggested that the literature supports an equalitarian style of leadership, a style which emphasizes the accomplishment of the mission through subordinates.

Competent leadership must establish a climate wherein most interactions within the organization will be viewed by the follower, in light of his background and expectations, as meaningful work, supportive, and "one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance" (Likert, 1961, p. 103).

> "The leader must himself believe that willing obedience always beats forced obedience."
>
> Xenophon, 430-350 B.C., Cyropaedia

Followership Styles

A review of the literature revealed that not very much research about followers has been conducted.

Sanford (1950) suggested that more could be learned about the leader by studying the follower. In their classic study on leadership climate Lippitt and White (1958) identified certain follower phenomena. The amount of work output in an autocratic (authoritarian) group atmosphere dropped drastically within a few minutes after the leader left the room. The work output in a democratic (equalitarian) group remained unchanged when the leader left. In another study, certain employees appeared to alienate themselves from their jobs (Seeman, 1959) and experienced normlessness and indifference. Goldthorpe (1968) reported employees were unable to seek self-esteem and self-actualization in their work environment. Tannenbaum (1968) observed that some employees wanted more control over their work. Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) found that some employees did the job for the job's sake.

These findings suggest that in the interactions, subordinates also are acting in accordance with certain expectations. In fact they exhibit styles of their own. Cattell (1953) stated that a large part of group behavior variance was due to the personalities of followers. Sweney (1971) postulated three subordinate styles which allow conceptualizing. They are as follows:

Figure 6

Rebel Follower

The first follower style is the rebel. The rebel
is competent and knowledgeable but also a troublemaker,
complainer, protester, and mutineer. He seeks authority,
but refuses to accept accountability. He blames others
(Rosenzweig, 1951) rejects many, is sadistic, and believes
his superiors are greedy, unintelligent, wrong, and cause
problems. He believes there is no situation so minute
that a crisis can't be developed.

Figure 7

Ingratiator Follower

The other extreme followership style is the ingratiator. The ingratiator is the true "organization man," submissive, masochistic, and blames himself (Rosenzweig, 1951). He believes superiors are threatening and must be humored, that they have a right to avoid personal blame, and that might makes right.

When the boss tells him to do something, whether appropriate or inappropriate, ethical or unethical, he replies: "Yes, sir, yes sir, three bags full."

He never does more than the boss requires and doesn't qualitatively or selectively analyze hierarchical requirements. When confronted, he reverts to a strictly literal interpretation of the manual or regulation. He is the true bureaucrat. If followers are people frightened of authority and of accepting accountability, they will probably substitute conformity for thinking (Leavitt, 1958, p. 231).

> "The enemy is the 'yes man'."
>
> old Russian Proverb

Figure 8

Cooperator Follower

The third and most interactive follower role is the cooperator, who is honestly critical, an idea man, not pre-programed, creative (Rogers, 1961), imaginative, and seeks solutions (Rosenzweig, 1951). He assumes his superiors are reasonable, want the truth, and will reward their subordinates according to their real contributions.

He tolerates the authoritarian, works with the equalitarian, and pities the permissive boss. He wants to contribute as much as possible to the mission. He recognizes the resources his commander has and those he needs to accomplish the mission (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958).

Interaction oriented subordinates saw less conflict when led by permissive leaders (Bass, 1965).

Subordinates will work hard under difficult

conditions if they think the objective is worth it (Mayo, 1933). Larson (1953) observed those who were attracted to a group accepted more responsibilities. Horwitz (1953) observed they also persisted longer in working toward difficult objectives.

The Command and General Staff College (U.S. Army, 1975) declared the college wanted to develop each officer's sense of responsibility and to increase his willingness to accept responsibility. The army (AR 350-1, 1975, p. 2) maintains that individuals share the responsibility for their training with their superiors. But a subordinate's responsibilities are not limited to training. HumRRO (1970) concluded "the American rifleman . . . on a night ambush is a leader insofar as his duties and responsibilities encompass human maintenance." These examples appear to suggest that the cooperator subordinate is the style which the army prefers. The Peter Principle (Peter, 1969) popularized the belief that all leaders eventually were promoted out of their level of competency and were hence eventually incompetent. Perhaps a corollary exists among subordinates: that competent subordinates are so numerous that they are relegated to positions beneath their level of competence. If the latter is so, it would be difficult to provide meaningful work for overcompetent subordinates. Leaders must be able to effectively interact and communicate with these subordinates so as not to waste valuable human resources.

Role Relationships Between Styles

The personality orientations (Sweney, 1970) as they are related to the six roles are explained as follows:

The authoritarian and rebel combination is confrontive in nature because while the authoritarian wants to retain authority (power) the rebel seeks authority. Each has his own way of doing the same thing and hard-headedly remains fixed in his closed-mindedness. This relationship is confrontive.

The more they are at odds with each other, the more detrimental and debilitating they are to the organization. Although both are creative and capable, little is accomplished. Hence, the rebel is transferred, fired, or placed in a job created for just him as a special projects officer. On the other hand the authoritarian leader can try to develop his rebel subordinates. One technique the leader can use . . . which allows the subordinate to get a piece of the power pie . . . is to assign the rebel a task consistent with his potential and the mission, allocate sufficient resources, give general guidance, and establish a reasonable suspense.

The equalitarian and cooperator complement each other with a relationship which is very objective. The relationship is based on the assumption that self-discipline is better than imposed discipline.

The permissive and ingratiator types spend all their time avoiding power but active in establishing rapport.

Each believes each other is a great fellow and constantly pats the other on the back - to the detriment of the organization. Very little is actually accomplished. This relationship is overly supportive, people-oriented, and power-avoidant.

Sweney also sees symbiotic relationships within preferred organizational climates. The best relationship that can occur within an organization between leader and led is equalitarian and cooperator, because both of these individuals share the power and the obligation, are turned on by the mission, and mutually contribute toward high quantity and quality output. Stabilized relationships in the chain of command are essential for this relationship to flower.

The relationship between the authoritarian and ingratiator produces quick fix, low quality solutions, because only the authoritarian is creatively contributing to the accomplishment of the mission. The ingratiator follows orders--nothing more. There is much short-term success and little long range accomplishment. It is a controlled climate, overly centralized to the detriment of subordinates. Ten years ago in ARMY Magazine, General Melvin Zais (January 1966) said:

> "Centralization is an insidious, debilitating, erosive disease that eats away the bone, muscle, and fiber of our officer corps."

In the permissive and rebel relationship, results

are similar in that only one, the rebel, contributes. The rebel seeks authority, but doesn't accept accountability or responsibility for his actions. Since only the rebel contributes, organizational output may not reflect policy guidance from higher organizational levels. This is an open, liberal environment.

Summary

The secret of organizational success is the creative power of teamwork (Servan-Schreiber, 1968). For it is only by working together, by facing and surmounting challenges that have some meaning in the realm of military competence, that units can develop esprit de corps (Seigle, 1973). Organizational development and organizational effectiveness training appear to be building effective relationships through encouraging leaders and followers to communicate effectively and share their power and obligations.

Leadership is not a simple process. It is an influence process resulting from an interaction between leader and follower roles within a situation in which interpersonal power and obligation are willingly exchanged in order to accomplish organizational tasks and satisfy the needs of organizational members. The remainder of this thesis will be directed toward discovering more about the leadership and followership styles of army infantry officers, officer candidates, and noncommissioned officers.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

"There is nothing so practical as a good theory."

Kurt Lewin

Subjects (Ss)

One thousand one hundred and seven experimentally naive male subjects enrolled in Army professional development courses participated in this study. Of the total Ss, 289 were noncommissioned officers, 232 were officer candidates, and 586 were commissioned officers. The noncommissioned officers were enrolled in either the Basic Non-Commissioned Officer Course (BNCOC) -- sergeants preparing to be fire team leaders -- or the Advanced Non-Commissioned Officer Course (ANCOC) -- staff sergeants and sergeants first class preparing to be platoon sergeants. The officer candidates were enrolled in either the Branch Immaterial Officer Candidate Course (BIOCC) or the Officer Candidate Reserve Components Course (OC/RC) and were preparing to become rifle platoon leaders. The commissioned officers were enrolled in either the Infantry Officer Advanced Course (IOAC) -- captains preparing to become rifle company commanders -- or the Command and General Staff College (CGSC) -- majors and lieutenant colonels preparing to become infantry battalion commanders. Active

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reservists and national guard officers attending IOAC and CGSC were not tested. Mean ages of $\underline{Ss}$ were as follows: BNCOC, 20.11 years of age; BIOCC, 21.91; OC/RC, 22.05; IOAC, 29.29; ANCOC, 30.59; and CGSC, 35.10. Only infantry NCO's and officers participated.

Procedure for Administering Psychological Instruments

The Supervise Ability Scale (SAS) and Responsibility Index (RI) were administered to all $\underline{Ss}$ during the first month of their professional development course. All but the CGSC sample were obtained at Fort Benning, Georgia. The CGSC sample was obtained at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Although tests were given from June through October 1975, all $\underline{Ss}$ within a given professional development course completed the test at the same point in the course and in the same classroom location.

Verbal instructions preceded each administration. $\underline{Ss}$ were assured that no specific score would be provided to the school authorities or to the Department of Army Military Personnel Center. They were encouraged not to try and out guess the answer. They were assured there were no right or wrong answers, that the tests were descriptive of their past experience and not evaluative, and that the tests provided them with a unique means of self-assessment, introspection, and insight into their leadership and followership styles. Subjects were asked to record their age, years of education, component (Regular

Army, United States Army Reserve, National Guard), source
of commission (Officer Candidate School, Reserve Officers
Training Corps, United States Military Academy), months of
command, and months of staff as appropriate.

Both instruments analyze role styles which are per-
ceived by the Ss to be most appropriate for effective
leadership or followership. The SAS identified the Ss pre-
ferred leadership style. It consists of 30 forced choice
items each of which involves three possible responses. The
subjects were asked to rank the three responses in terms
of their perceived preference in each of the 30 specific
situations. In so doing, each subject preferred an author-
itarian, equalitarian, or permissive response.

For each situation the subject was asked to identify
his most preferred (1) and least preferred (3) response.
For example: I like ___ a. Easy jobs; _1_ b. Tough jobs;
_3_ c. To get out of work.

The subject entered his most preferred (1) and
least preferred (3) response to all forced choice situa-
tions. For ease of addition, he then entered a "2" in each
blank for each question. Carbon inserts recorded the
numbers 1, 2, or 3 as appropriate within the booklet in
geometric figures which represented each of the three
leadership styles. The subject added all of the numbers
within each geometric figure to arrive at a total raw
score for each particular style. He recorded the raw
scores in his test booklet and totalled the raw score.

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The raw score total was verified against the figure 180
(30 questions x a score of 6 for each question). If his
raw score was different than 180, he added again. View
graph transparencies containing raw score conversion
tables (military sample, Sweney, 1972) were displayed to
allow private scoring on a scale of one through ten
(stanine) with ten being the highest preference and one
being the lowest preference scores on each leadership style.
Four through six were considered median range and indicated
the ability to use that style as the situation dictated.
A converted score of seven or above indicated a definite
preference with that style.

The RI, using a format identical to the SAS,
identified the preferred follower style. It consists of
34 forced choice situations. In each situation the sub-
ordinate ranked his rebel, cooperator, and ingratiator
responses. Scoring was identical to that described above
for the SAS. However, 240 (34 questions x a score of 6
for each question) was used to verify total raw score
additions.

Ss were provided as much time as they needed to
complete each instrument. Nevertheless, most Ss completed
each form within 15 minutes. The author was present to
check the completeness and accuracy of the responses. He
provided general interpretation of scores to all Ss and
was available for private, immediate feedback to each Ss.
When feedback was provided, subjects were asked whether

they viewed their preferred style of leadership or follow-
ership as that which was expected by the army. Diverse
answers were given by all tested groups except the senior
NCO group. This will be discussed in the next chapter.

Reliability and Validity of SAS and RI

Reliability and validity were evaluated in accord-
ance with Cronback and Gleser (1959). Results of the
evaluation as reported in Elsass and Sweney (1972) are
shown in table one.

Table 1

Reliability and validity tests for various middle managers on the

Supervise Ability Scale and the Responsibility Index

Test	Supervise Ability Scale				Responsibility Index			
	N	Author-itarian	Equali-tarian	Permis-sive	N	Rebel	Cooper-ator	Ingratiator
1. Reliability								
Internal Consistency	136	.73	.80	.76	136	.87	.92	.81
Stability Coefficient	85	.84	.81	.77	63	.75	.72	.68
Equivalency	74	.81	.83	.83	162	.90	.89	.92
2. Validity								
Concurrent	30	.71	.47	.43	120	.43	.56	.54
Construct	204	.93	.78	.52	204	.90	.63	.75
Predictive	30	.70	.43	.31	207	.53	.41	.51

Equivalency testing compared forms A and B for the SAS and forms B and C for the RI.

Concurrent validity was established by comparing the SAS and RI against the Response to Power Measure, a leadership/followership preference test designed by Sweney and used since 1970. Construct validity was established through factor analysis of superordinate and subordinate role behaviors. Predictive validity was established by subordinates' ratings of superiors for the SAS and superiors' ratings of subordinates for the RI. For example, a subordinate would take the RI. His superior would then rate him in accordance with role behaviors descriptive of follower styles. Agreement ranged from .41 to .53.

Variables

The authoritarian, equalitarian, and permissive leadership styles and the rebel, cooperator, and ingratiator followership styles were utilized in all samples. Additionally, the IOAC and CGSC samples included the background variables of age, years of education, source of commission, component, months of command, and moths of staff. The NCO sample included age and years of education.

Statistics

All data files were identified by number and entered on punched cards. Each punched card contained an identifying number, the group (IOAC, CGSC, etc.), subgroups by source

of commission (OCS, ROTC, USMA) and component (RA, USAR, NG), years of age and education, and months of command and staff, and a score for each leader and follower style as appropriate to the subject.

Computer tabulation using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) provided means, standard deviations, and Pearson Product Moment correlations of all variables. A calculator was used for Student's t and Analysis of Variance.

Parametric statistics suited for interval scale data were used. BNCOC, ANCOC, BIOCC, OC/RC, and IOAC classes were randomly selected. All infantry students therein completed the instruments. The CGSC sample was from the only class in process during the June-October, 1975 time frame.

Variance was assumed to be similar in groups. An alpha level of less than .05 was identified for significance.

Hypotheses

Franklin (1973, p. 112) demonstrated that "lower level managers are more constrained by social psychological aspects of the situation than are upper level managers." Further, in the same work, he stated that "organizational climate becomes a more potent determiner of . . . leadership behaviors with movement down the hierarchy."

Franklin's contention, then, is that there is a difference between lower and higher level leaders in a

hierarchy. If so, is there a level where situational constraints and an organizational climate are conducive to more equalitarian and cooperation styles?

The range of levels within the infantry hierarchy from low to high arrays the tested sample as follows: BNCOC, ANCOC, OC/RC and BIOCC, IOAC, and CGSC. To verify Franklin's finding the samples were arranged by NCO, officer candidates, and commissioned officer categories. An independent hypothesis was written for each category.

1. There are differences in the means of leadership styles of BNCOC and ANCOC noncommissioned officers.

2. There are no differences in the means of BIOCC and OC/RC leadership styles. The candidates are selected from low level ranks to attend a course which prepares them for work at the same level (platoon leaders) within the hierarchy.

3. There are differences in the means of leadership styles of IOAC and CGSC commissioned officers.

Since OC/RC is a course for reserve components, a further analysis was deemed appropriate to test only active army and all officer personnel.

4. There are differences in the means of BIOCC, IOAC, and CGSC leadership styles. Theoretically BIOCC should be more authoritarian and CGSC more equalitarian with the former being more constrained by the situation and the latter less constrained.

Testing these hypotheses also permits verification

of Ghiselli's (1968, p. 22) findings. He maintained that
as one progresses up the hierarchy the less authoritarian
one would be. Ghiselli further contended that one would
desire less power. The review of literature documented
two power seeking styles (authoritarian leader, rebel
follower) and two power avoidant styles (permissive leader,
ingratiator follower). Since the leader styles already
have hypotheses, follower styles will be examined by the
following hypotheses.

5. There are differences in the means of follower-
ship styles of BNCOC and ANCOC noncommissioned officers.

6. There are no differences in the means of BIOCC
and OC/RC followership styles because the candidates are
selected from low levels of the hierarchy.

7. There are differences in the means of follower-
ship styles of IOAC and CGSC commissioned officers.

Analysis of the ingratiator followership means
could also corroborate Milgram (1965, p. 75). "People do
what they are told to do . . . so long as they perceive
that the command comes from a legitimate authority." If
his quote is valid within the infantry, ingratiator mean
scores will be quite high throughout all levels.

Precommission training might also impact on an
officer's leadership/followership style. Differences be-
tween OCS, ROTC, and USMA probably would only exist until
IOAC level. Organizational conditioning and similar
experiences should balance any leader/follower style

difference by the time one reaches CGSC. Therefore:

8. Leadership and followership styles will vary with source of commission between IOAC and CGSC students.

Argyris (1972, p. 51) contended that leaders would "move toward the maturity end of the continuum with age." This could be equated to the objectivity relationship of equalitarian and cooperator in the Response to Power Model.

9. Leadership and followership styles will vary with age.

The question was then posed whether additional education would affect one's leader/follower style. The army has begun the Non Commissioned Officer Education System (NCOES). Officers are attending "bootstrap" and advanced civil schooling programs in an attempt to raise the officer education level. An appropriate hypothesis then is:

10. Leadership and followership styles will vary with years of education.

The last dimension to be analyzed will be months of command and staff. Traditionally, infantry officers have desired command assignments. The Army (March, 1974) recently proclaimed that there are insufficient command positions for all infantry officers. Officers, therefore, were encouraged to develop an alternate specialty - a staff orientation. Two hypotheses were believed necessary.

11. Leadership and followership styles will vary with months of command.

12. Leadership and followership styles will vary with months of staff.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Academic, business, and military research supports the equalitarian style of leadership and the cooperator style of followership. The equalitarian - cooperator interaction appears to be the most effective organizational relationship.

As defined in chapter two, the equalitarian-cooperator relationship is a mature, objective, and professional relationship wherein interpersonal communication is highly effective, a positive climate of motivation is operant, and authority and responsibility are shared. Some may argue that this relationship is an ideal, never to be achieved but always to be pursued. The literature, however, posits that this relationship is a professional fulcrum upon which the two basic responsibilities of an effective unit (mission and men) are balanced, a "via media" between two subjective extremes of leadership and followership styles.

The effective organization then is based on mutual trust and confidence wherein leaders are proficient in diagnosing the situation and providing guidance, and followers are proficient in performing their duty and providing information to their leaders. Both leaders and

followers internalize the mission and apply their resources
to the accomplishment of that mission.

Accordingly, leaders and followers must be techni-
cally proficient to relate in the equalitarian-cooperator
mode. If the follower is not proficient, for example in
basic combat training, a leader would probably prefer an
authoritarian approach. But as followers become more pro-
ficient, leaders should begin to provide more general
guidance and direction, and begin to coach the subordinate
into accepting more and more responsibility. So, too, the
organization itself somehow acclimates the member to what
is expected of him - the standards of conduct, training,
and proficiency. If so, then the higher one goes in the
hierarchy, the more of an equalitarian and cooperator he
would become.

With this in mind a descriptive snapshot was taken
by means of leadership and followership instruments to pro-
vide a picture of prospective infantry squad leaders,
platoon sergeants, platoon leaders, company commanders, and
battalion commanders.

Relative scores of these prospective leaders were
recorded for each of the three leadership and followership
styles.

Leadership Styles

Table two provides the means and standard deviations
of the leadership styles for each of the sample groups.

Table 2

Mean scores[a] and standard deviations for samples tested by the Supervise Ability Scale, Form A, for leadership style.

Sample[b]	N	Authoritarian Mean	SD	Equalitarian Mean	SD	Permissive Mean	SD
1. Basic Non-Commissioned Officer Course (BNCOC) (Squad Leaders)	163	6.66	2.24	4.37	1.87	5.95	2.23
2. Advanced Non-Commissioned Officer Course (ANCOC) (Platoon Sergeants)	126	6.94	2.00	4.38	1.60	5.76	2.03
3. Branch Immaterial Officer Candidate Course (BIOCC) (Platoon Leaders)	155	7.23	1.98	4.39	1.54	5.52	2.09
4. Officer Candidate/Reserve Component Course (OC/RC) (Platoon Leaders)	77	7.35	1.98	3.96	1.52	5.81	2.28
5. Infantry Officer Advanced Course (IOAC) (Company Commanders)	471	7.25	1.96	4.83	1.55	4.86	2.07
6. Command and General Staff College (CGSC) (Battalion Commanders)	115	6.19	1.99	5.89	1.50	4.56	2.14

[a] Maximum mean score = 10; Normative mean = 5.

[b] Each subject had a score for each of three leadership styles.

A visual comparison of the means reveals that non-commissioned officers (BNCOC, ANCOC) and officer candidates (BIOCC, OC/RC) had authoritarian and permissive mean scores which were higher than their respective equalitarian mean score. Visual analysis of table two also reveals that the CGSC officer has the lowest authoritarian, highest equalitarian, and lowest permissive leadership mean score. The OC/RC sample had the highest authoritarian and lowest equalitarian mean score. The BNCOC sample had the highest permissive mean score.

In the first statistical analysis BNCOC and ANCOC means were compared using Student's t. The same statistic was also used to compare BIOCC and OC/RC means and those of IOAC and CGSC samples.

Table 3

Student's t for differences in leadership styles of noncommissioned officers, officer candidates, and commissioned officers

	Sample	df	Authoritarian	Equalitarian	Permissive
1.	BNCOC compared to ANCOC	287	1.10	.05	.74
2.	BIOCC compared to OC/RC	231	.43	3.08*	3.42*
3.	IOAC compared to CGSC	584	5.18*	6.61*	1.38

*=p < .002

As shown in table three, no significant differences were found between the BNCOC and ANCOC samples. The first hypothesis, therefore, must be rejected.

An analysis of leadership mean scores between BIOCC and OC/RC indicates a significant difference between groups. As noted in table two the BIOCC student exhibited a higher equalitarian and a lower permissive score than the OC/RC student. The differences in these two styles between the two groups were significant enough ($p < .002$) to reject that null hypothesis.

Continuing with Student's t, IOAC mean scores were compared to CGSC mean scores. Differences for authoritarian and equalitarian styles were quite significant ($p < .002$). As was noted in table two the IOAC sample had a higher authoritarian mean, and the CGSC sample a higher equalitarian mean. Therefore, the third hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Since significant differences were found between officer candidates and officer samples, analyses of variance (Appendix B) were conducted to determine if there were leadership style differences between BIOCC, IOAC, and CGSC samples. Conceivably, this would demonstrate whether leadership style is different between active army prospective platoon leaders, company commanders, and battalion commanders.

The analyses of variance (Appendix B, Tables 17, 18, 19) extend the t test findings and confirm the fourth

hypothesis. They show that the differences observed in table two are significant. With one exception, there are clear monotonic trends across the three levels tested (BIOCC, IOAC, CGSC) in the three leadership style means. For the authoritarian scale, BIOCC and IOAC subjects had essentially the same mean score. Both were more authoritarian than the CGSC sample. On the other hand, there was a clear progression for equalitarian and permissive scales. As the level increased from BIOCC to IOAC to CGSC, equalitarian scores were progressively higher and permissive scores were progressively lower. In all three comparisons, the differences were quite significant $(p < .01)$.

These findings, therefore, bear out the contentions of Franklin (1973, p. 112) and Ghiselli (1968, p. 22) as stated in chapter three. Leadership styles in fact differ between lower and higher levels within the hierarchy. However, certain interpretations about the three subgroup levels may be inferred.

The similarities in means of infantry NCO's and officer candidates might suggest that they share similar experiences and are somewhat situationally conditioned to fulfill the roles expected of them within rifle platoons. However, the institutionally expected equalitarian style of leadership is lower than the mean scores of the non-preferred authoritarian and permissive styles of leadership. Therefore, a perceptual disparity exists.

It could well be that these noncommissioned of-
ficers and officer candidates are not being developed
effectively, that individuals who want to work in rifle
platoons are authoritarian or permissive, or that they have
not had the prior education and/or other experiences nec-
essary to elicit equalitarian behaviors.

High mean scores on the extreme leader styles may
also imply inconsistent behavior - authoritarian in one
situation, permissive in another. Evidence from the lit-
erature suggests, that when such a relationship with sub-
ordinates exists, subordinates are likely to develop apathy
or ingratiator response patterns because they, the sub-
ordinates, are not sure what to expect from situation to
situation. As a result, the subordinates will wait to be
told what to do and then do precisely what they are told.

Post test interviews, as described in chapter two,
indicated these NCO's and officer candidates really pre-
ferred the authoritarian style, but they perceived that
the system and senior officers expected them to be permis-
sive leaders. The latter was explained by repeated
emphasis on "people programs," equal opportunity, mandatory
racial awareness programs, rehabilitation of drug abusers,
extensive counseling, etc. These were also viewed by the
subjects as deleterious to good order, discipline, and
proficiency in units, and provides further evidence for
their "real" preference for authoritarian styles.

Thus, it appears that for these subjects there is a

tendency toward the malappropriate and inconsistent leadership styles discussed above. This probably will have negative effects on subordinate follower styles and initiative as suggested by the literature.

As was noted earlier, the CGSC sample scores were more qualitarian and less authoritarian and permissive than the IOAC sample scores. This could indicate that the experiences between IOAC and CGSC produce a more equalitarian leader. Then too, it may suggest that the army somehow selects for CGSC those officers who have been more equalitarian up to the point of selection to CGSC. If that is so then the army must be using some sort of selection criteria. As was mentioned in chapter one, standards for evaluation of leadership style do not exist.

Since all of the subjects were infantry and have had platoon or company command time, it is safe to assume that their success is measured by the extent to which they have led effectively. These differences in leader effectiveness probably exist at the IOAC level but may not be visible because of the fact that IOAC attendance is not selective. However, visible differences do appear at CGSC, probably as a consequence of selection for attendance.

The rationale for this reference is straightforward. Since the review of literature suggests that leadership style makes a difference and because the army offers no explicit standards for leadership style, then the various

measures of unit effectiveness, used by the commander who
assesses his subordinate leaders, should be an outcome of
leadership style. If more effective leadership styles
produce more effective units, then the superordinate does
in fact assess leadership style. And, finally, the of-
ficer efficiency report contained in a man's personnel
file is used for selection to CGSC. More effective leader-
ship styles produce more effective units. Consequently,
the commanders of more effective units are rated more
highly and eventually are selected for CGSC where there
more adaptive leadership styles have been measured in con-
trast to the unselected attendees at IOAC.

Followership Styles

Table four provides the means and standard devia-
tions of the followership styles for each of the sample
groups.

Table 4

Mean[a] scores and standard deviations for
samples tested by the Responsibility Index,
Form E, for followership style.

Sample[b]	N	Rebel		Cooperator		Ingratiator	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. BNCOC	163	5.53	1.97	5.56	2.37	5.84	2.07
2. ANCOC	126	5.52	2.12	5.47	2.42	5.85	2.04
3. BIOCC	155	5.66	1.97	6.68	1.90	5.57	2.07
4. OC/RC	77	6.14	7.27	6.27	2.09	6.03	1.94
5. IOAC	471	5.50	1.67	6.37	2.01	5.61	1.84
6. CGSC	115	5.78	1.74	6.27	1.67	5.20	1.80

[a]Maximum mean score = 10; Normative mean = 5.

[b]Each subject had a score for each of the three followership styles.

A visual comparison of the means reveals striking similarities among all sample means for each of the three follower styles.

Nevertheless, statistical analysis, using Student's t, compared BNCOC to ANCOC, BIOCC to OC/RC, and IOAC to CGSC sample groups. The results are shown in table five.

Table 5

Student's t for differences in followership
styles of noncommissioned officers, officer
candidates, and commissioned officers.

	Sample	df	Rebel	Cooperator	Ingratiator
1.	BNCOC compared to ANCOC	287	.04	.32	.04
2.	BIOCC compared to OC/RC	231	.91	1.74	.21
3.	IOAC compared to CGSC	584	1.60	.49	2.15*

*=p < .05

No significant differences were noted between the
BNCOC and ANCOC followership mean scores and, therefore,
the fifth hypothesis must be rejected.

Similarly, there are no differences between the
followership mean scores of the BIOCC and OC/RC samples
and, consequently, the sixth hypothesis cannot be rejected.

However, a significant difference (p < .05) does
exist between the IOAC and CGSC groups. The CGSC student
is identified as less of an ingratiator, "yes-man."

The seventh hypothesis must be confirmed in part.
Given that this was the only difference found to be
significant in the comparison of followership styles,

it is possible that this one difference occurred by chance.

Although not part of the original test design, visual analysis of table 4 indicates a large difference between the cooperator mean scores of ANCOC and BIOCC. Consequently, statistical testing verified that the difference was quite significant (t=4.68, p<.02). A definite distinction, therefore, exists between the cooperator styles of the NCO and officer candidate samples. This implies that the NCO, rather than the officer candidate or officer, is less likely to effectively communicate up the chain of command. Since officer candidates and officers have more formal education - military and civilian - than the NCO's, more education for the former might be a reason for the difference in cooperator follower style between NCO and officer subgroups.

Apparently, it may be suggested that infantry followers, ranging from E-5 (sergeant) to O-5 (lieutenant colonel) are somewhat institutionally conditioned or trained to follow in a similar manner. What is most interesting is that the capability to follow exists similarly across styles in NCO, officer candidate, and officer groups. That is to say, the follower is most flexible - able to be a rebel, cooperator, or ingratiator subordinate, appropriately - as he relates to any leader within any given situation.

Background Variables

Preceding findings suggest strongly that quite significant differences between preferences in leadership

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style and slight difference between preferences in follower-
ship style exist across the levels of infantry personnel
sampled. In an effort to identify possible background
variables influencing these differences, data were col-
lected on a number of such variables. Their analysis is
reported in the following paragraphs.

Source of Commission

An officer's source of commission (Officer Candidate
School, Reserve Officer Training Corps, or United States
Military Academy) was the first background variable to be
analyzed. Discrete subfiles were established for each
source of commission to allow for statistical comparison
of means and standard deviations among officer samples.
Table six presents those results for leadership styles.

Table 6

Mean scores[a] and standard deviations for OCS,
ROTC, and USMA sources of commission as tested
by the SAS, Form A, for leadership styles.

Sample	N[b]	Authoritarian		Equalitarian		Permissive	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Officer Candidate							
CGSC	30	6.50	2.24	5.90	1.73	4.10	1.85
IOAC	299	6.74	1.88	5.35	1.36	4.59	1.99
Reserve Officer Training Corps							
CGSC	61	5.57	1.76	5.89	1.48	5.39	2.20
IOAC	122	6.69	1.81	5.47	1.25	4.53	1.76
United States Military Academy							
CGSC	23	7.26	1.54	5.96	1.26	3.00	1.05
IOAC	46	7.39	1.71	4.91	1.26	4.46	1.92

[a]Maximum mean score = 10.

[b]Total CGSC N=114; Total IOAC N=467.

A visual comparison of the means reveals that the
West Point graduate has higher authoritarian and lower per-
missive scores than the ROTC or OCS graduate. Much of the
differences in means occurs among the CGSC sample.

Analysis of variance confirm the eighth hypothesis
in part. Although leadership styles did not vary by source
of commission for IOAC students, significant differences
were recorded for CGSC students.

The analysis of variance recorded in table 20
(Appendix B) indicates a significant ($p<.01$) difference in

source of commission. The USMA graduate was identified as more authoritarian and the ROTC graduate as less authoritarian with the OCS commissioned officer falling between.

A similar analysis of variance recorded in table 21 (Appendix B) revealed that the differences across permissive means is also quite significant ($p < .01$). Herein the USMA graduate was the least permissive and the ROTC graduate the most permissive.

Differences in the equalitarian scale were not significant as was expected from visual examination of table six which shows these three means to be quite similar.

Since leadership styles do not vary with source of commission for the IOAC sample, but do vary for the CGSC sample, it is again suggested that some experience, or the selection tha occurs, between IOAC and CGSC affects leadership style.

Table seven presents means and standard deviations for the followership styles of each officer sample by source of commission.

Table 7

Mean scores and standard deviations for OCS,
ROTC, and USMA sources of commission as tested
by the RI, Form B, for followership style.

Sample	N^a	Rebel		Cooperator		Ingratiator	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
OCS							
CGSC	30	5.70	1.29	6.30	1.82	5.20	1.42
IOAC	299	5.06	1.40	6.28	1.83	6.14	1.72
ROTC							
CGSC	61	5.98	1.93	6.02	1.71	5.18	1.89
IOAC	122	5.18	1.36	6.48	1.62	5.87	1.67
USMA							
CGSC	23	5.39	1.73	6.91	1.20	5.17	2.04
IOAC	46	5.87	1.76	6.26	1.95	5.35	2.04

[a]Total CGSC N=114; Total IOAC N=467.

A visual comparison of the means reveals a wider
range of means among the IOAC source of commission groups
for rebel and ingratiator scores. In comparison, striking
similarities exist among the CGSC sample.

Analyses of variance (Appendix B) were again con-
ducted and showed that the differences observed in table
seven were significant and confirm the eighth hypothesis in
part.

Previously (Table 5), it was noted that the only sig-
nificant difference ($p < .05$) between the IOAC and CGSC
samples was in the ingratiator style. Analysis of variance
recorded in table 22 (Appendix B) confirms a further

ingratiator distinction (p<.025) among IOAC captains by source of commission. Table seven shows the OCS graduate is more of an ingratiator and the USMA graduate is less so.

Analysis of variance recorded in table 23 (Appendix B) identifies that preference for the rebel followership style varies by source of commission among the IOAC sample. Herein the OCS graduate is less of a rebel and the USMA graduate is more so (p<.01).

Only one significant difference was found among the CGSC sample when followership styles were compared by source of commission. A fair difference appeared (Table 24, Appendix B) in the cooperator style and was significant (p<.02). The ROTC graduate was less of a cooperator and the USMA graduate more of a cooperator follower with the OCS graduate's mean score falling in between.

One might conjecture that after one has been in the army for over ten years, his experiences would be similar to another's. And, therefore, there should be no disparity between members commissioned from different sources. This contention is upheld by the findings which indicate that there is minimal difference among followership styles when compared to source of commission at the CGSC level. We could infer that, although follower differences are present at IOAC, they may dissipate by the time one reaches CGSC. Only further longitudinal analysis would resolve this contention.

However, the findings on leadership styles confuse this issue. Conclusively, no difference was found at IOAC. Only CGSC leadership styles varied by source of commission. Therefore, between IOAC and CGSC other variables, or again the selection factor, must be operative in influencing one's leadership style.

Component of Service

Mean scores and standard deviations for National Guard, Army Reserve, and Regular Army components by leadership style are shown in table eight.

Table 8

Mean scores and standard deviations for NG,
USAR, and RA components as tested by the SAS,
Form A, for leadership styles.

Sample	N^a	Authoritarian		Equalitarian		Permissive	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
National Guard							
CGSC	0^b	-	-	-	-	-	-
IOAC	44	6.82	2.14	5.05	1.43	4.61	2.17
United States Army Reserve							
CGSC	9^c	4.67	.50	5.67	1.32	5.67	1.80
IOAC	285	6.67	1.84	5.40	1.29	4.63	1.93
Regular Army							
CGSC	105	6.29	1.99	5.92	1.52	4.48	2.15
IOAC	138	7.05	1.77	5.29	1.37	4.39	1.83

[a]Total CGSC N=114; Total IOAC N=467.

[b]No National Guard infantry officers were tested at CGSC.

[c]Small N of USAR subjects precluded comparitive analysis.

No significant differences were found between NG, USAR, and RA components on leadership style for either the CGSC or IOAC sample.

Table nine presents mean scores and standard deviations for NG, USAR, and RA components by followership style.

Table 9

Mean scores and standard deviations for NG, USAR, and RA components as tested by the RI, Form B, for followership styles.

Sample	N^a	Rebel		Cooperator		Ingratiator	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
NG							
CGSC	0	-	-	-	-	-	-
IOAC	44	5.00	1.35	6.71	1.72	5.96	1.58
USAR							
CGSC	9	4.67	1.32	6.67	.50	6.67	1.00
IOAC	285	5.10	1.39	6.23	1.79	6.20	1.68
RA							
CGSC	105	5.89	1.75	6.24	1.74	5.06	1.80
IOAC	138	5.38	1.57	6.44	1.79	5.57	1.88

[a]Total CGSC N=114; Total IOAC N=467.

While means and standard deviations were computed for the CGSC USAR sample, the number of cases was insufficient for reliable analysis. Among the means for the IOAC sample, however, differences were noted on ingratiator followership style, and these differences were found significant ($p < .01$) as is shown in Table 25 (Appendix B).

The USAR captain was most ingratiating and the RA officer was the least. All other analyses of component with follower styles yielded insignificant results.

Age

Table 10 presents Pearson product moment correlation coefficients between age and leadership and followership styles, both for total sample and for subsamples according to source of commission.

Table 10

Age by total sample and source of commission
correlated with leadership and followership
styles of 471 IOAC and 115 CGSC infantry
officers.

Style by Sample	Total Sample	Age		
		Source of Commission		
		OCS[a]	ROTC[b]	USMA[c]
Authoritarian				
CGSC	-.09	.18	-.25[d]	-.02
IOAC	-.02	.05	-.21[d]	-.10
Equalitarian				
CGSC	.06	.19	-.06	.17
IOAC	-.01	-.04	.06	.13
Permissive				
CGSC	.01	-.48[e]	.23	-.23
IOAC	.01	-.02	.17	.07
Rebel				
CGSC	-.09	.37[d]	-.28[d]	.06
IOAC	-.09[d]	-.06	.00	-.07
Cooperator				
CGSC	.08	.02	.17	-.23
IOAC	-.03	-.04	.00	.07
Ingratiator				
CGSC	-.05	-.39[d]	.03	12
IOAC	.08	-.05	.04	.01

[a]OCS N for CGSC = 30; for IOAC = 299.

[b]ROTC N for CGSC = 61; for IOAC = 122.

[c]USMA N for CGSC = 23; for IOAC = 46.

[d]Correlation significant at the .05 level.

[e]Correlation significant at the .01 level.

For the total IOAC sample, age correlated signif-
icantly ($r = -.09$, $p < .05$) with rebel followership style.
The older the IOAC student, the less likely he would be a
rebel follower. However this is not a strong correlation.
It barely achieves significance at the .05 level of con-
fidence and accounts for less than one percent of the
variance. It consequently is of little practical
significance.

Equalitarian leadership and cooperator followership,
preferred in the literature, resemble Argyris' "move to
maturity." To the extent this is so, one would have ex-
pected the older subjects to show more "mature" preferences.
And, in general, such "more mature" preferences were found
in the tests between levels reported earlier. It seems
likely that the failure to find significant relationships
within levels is the result of severely restricted range
on age within levels.

Age by source of commission was then correlated to
leadership and followership styles. In general, the rela-
tionships noted in table ten are weak with few exceptions.

The older the OCS graduate at CGSC, the more
likely he is to be a rebel follower and the less likely he
is an ingratiator follower or a permissive leader. The
older ROTC graduate is less likely to be authoritarian.
At CGSC, the older ROTC graduate is also less likely to be
a rebel subordinate. Age appears to be unrelated to the
leadership or followership styles of USMA graduates, at

least within the sample levels shown.

With the exception of the correlation noted for the rebel followership style among OCS graduates at CGSC, all of the relationships between age and style are in the correct direction. That one lone discrepant relationship may be the result of education or some other variable. Alternatively, it could be a chance result.

Age was then correlated with the leadership and followership styles of 172 ANCOC subjects as shown in table 11.

Table 11

Age and years of education correlated with leadership and followership styles of 172 ANCOC subjects.

Style	Age	Years of Education
Authoritarian	.03	-.01
Equalitarian	-.09	.16[b]
Permissive	.18[a]	-.16[b]
Rebel	-.01	.05
Cooperator	.10	.12
Ingratiator	.07	-.09

[a]Correlation significant at the .01 level.
[b]Correlation significant at the .05 level.

Contrary to the biased cartoons and diatribes about the "old sarge," it appears that as he grows older, he becomes more permissive ($r=.18$, $p < .01$). Alternately, ANCOC subjects may all have had similar duty positions during a specified age range.

Nevertheless, the ninth hypothesis must be confirmed in part because age is marginally related to certain leader and follower styles.

Years of Education

Years of education was then correlated with the leadership and followership styles of the same ANCOC sample shown in table 11. These relationships were weak also. Taken together with the correlations involving age, they were also to some extent inconsistent. While two of the values of years of education reached significance, they were only marginally so and account for very little of the total variance. Thus, years of education for the ANCOC sample is only marginally related to leadership and followership styles.

Table 12

Years of education by total sample and source
of commission correlated with leadership and
followership styles of 471 IOAC and 115 CGSC
infantry officers.

Style by Sample	Total Sample	Years of Education		
		Source of Commission		
		OCS[a]	ROTC[b]	USMA[c]
Authoritarian				
CGSC	-.14	-.15	-.09	-.36
IOAC	.01	-.02	-.04	-.20
Equalitarian				
CGSC	.26[d]	.61[d]	.14	.61[d]
IOAC	.04	.06	.04	.23
Permissive				
CGSC	-.08	-.66[d]	-.01	-.28
IOAC	-.04	-.04	-.01	.03
Rebel				
CGSC	.37[d]	.34	.39[d]	.36
IOAC	.08	.04	.10	-.02
Cooperator				
CGSC	-.15	.06	-.23	.07
IOAC	.05	.08	-.14	-.05
Ingratiator				
CGSC	-.33[d]	-.41[e]	-.29[e]	-.51[d]
IOAC	-.19[d]	-.21[d]	.01	.02

[a]OCS N for CGSC = 30; for IOAC = 299.

[b]ROTC N for CGSC = 61; for IOAC = 122.

[c]USMA N for CGSC = 23; for IOAC = 46.

[d]Correlation significant at the .01 level.

[e]Correlation significant at the .05 level.

However, the picture shown in table 12, dealing with commissioned subjects (IOAC, CGSC) is somewhat different. Significant correlations of substantial magnitude do appear for the CGSC sample.

Examination of the correlationships based on the IOAC sample shows only small and generally insignificant relationships between years of education and either leadership or followership style. As a minor exception, two significant negative relationships appeared between education and a tendency toward ingratiator followership style. Although these are fairly low relationships (r=-.19,-.33), the tendency for the same directional relationship at CGSC suggests reliability. An officer in either sample is less likely to prefer an ingratiator followership style if he has relatively more education.

When the total sample is broken down by source of commission, some relatively strong relationships emerged within the CGSC sample, though not within the IOAC sample. There is a strong and consistent tendency for years of education to correlate positively with preference for equalitarian style as leader, and negatively with preference for ingratiator style as follower. A trend can also be seen toward a correlation between years of education and preference for rebel followership style in the CGSC sample. When correlations are examined over the total table for the source of commission breakout, it seems possible to conclude further that the strongest relationships between style

variables and education occur for OCS and USMA subsamples. It is unclear why this should be so, except for the possibility that the decision to pursue additional education may act as a stronger self-selection variable for these two subgroups than for the ROTC subgroup.

Therefore, the tenth hypothesis must be confirmed because education is significantly related to selected officer and NCO leader and follower styles.

However the key variable might not be the added education but, rather, the decision by the individual to pursue higher education and his effort to achieve it, which in turn reflects the individual's value structure.

Months of Command

Months of command was then correlated with the leadership and followership styles of officers, as shown in table 13.

Table 13

Months of command by total sample and source
of commission, correlated with leadership and
followership styles of 471 IOAC and 115 CGSC
infantry officers.

| | | Months of Command | | |
| | | Source of Commission | | |
Style by Sample	Total Sample	OCS[a]	ROTC[b]	USMA[c]
Authoritarian				
CGSC	.05	-.12	.18	.15
IOAC	.03	.07	-.07	-.03
Equalitarian				
CGSC	.12	.19	.27[d]	-.15
IOAC	.02	-.04	.18[d]	-.06
Permissive				
CGSC	.16	-.27	.27[d]	-.13
IOAC	-.07	-.08	-.09	-.06
Rebel				
CGSC	.05	.25	.05	-.17
IOAC	.02	.05	.03	-.07
Cooperator				
CGSC	-.10	-.25	.02	-.30
IOAC	-.08	-.07	-.11	-.10
Ingratiator				
CGSC	.14	-.04	.14	.30
IOAC	.02	-.09	.09	.12

[a]OCS N for CGSC = 30; for IOAC = 299.

[b]ROTC N for CGSC = 61; for IOAC = 122.

[c]USMA N for CGSC = 23; for IOAC = 46.

[d]Correlation significant at the .05 level.

In general, the relationships that emerged were weak. While three of the values in the table reached significance, they were only marginally so and accounted for very little of the total variance. It is interesting to note that the more months of command the ROTC graduates have, the more they prefer equalitarian or permissive leadership styles.

The eleventh hypothesis was rejected as only one of numerous analyses - ROTC graduates and leadership styles - confirmed that leader and follower styles varied with months of command.

Months of Staff

Months of staff was then correlated with the leadership and followership styles of officers, as shown in table 14.

Table 14

Months of staff by total sample and source of
commission correlated with leadership and
followership styles of 471 IOAC and 115 CGSC
infantry officers.

Style by Sample	Months of Staff			
		Source of Commission		
	Total Sample	OCS[a]	ROTC[b]	USMA[c]
Authoritarian				
CGSC	.21[e]	.44[d]	-.15	.72[d]
IOAC	.01	.07	-.14	.05
Equalitarian				
CGSC	-.10	-.31	.22	-.53[d]
IOAC	.05	.05	.05	-.09
Permissive				
CGSC	-.08	-.18	.03	-.08
IOAC	-.03	-.11	.15	.08
Rebel				
CGSC	.02	-.17	.21	.27
IOAC	.00	.07	-.12	-.14
Cooperator				
CGSC	.12	.19	.19	-.26
IOAC	.02	-.03	.12	.19
Ingratiator				
CGSC	.05	.04	-.08	.37
IOAC	-.05	-.09	.02	-.02

[a]OCS N for CGSC = 30; for IOAC = 299.

[b]ROTC N for CGSC = 61; for IOAC = 122.

[c]USMA N for CGSC = 23; for IOAC = 46.

[d]Correlation significant at the .01 level.

[e]Correlation significant at the .05 level.

For the total sample only one value was significant
($r=.21$, $p<.05$). It indicated that the more months of
staff a CGSC graduate had the more he would prefer auth-
oritarian leadership. Although this relationship was
weak, stronger relationships were evident when the same
correlation was computed for source of commission subfiles.

Positive correlations between months of staff and
authoritarian leadership are seen in table 14 for OCS and
USMA graduates.

Surprisingly, months of staff, for the USMA
graduates attending CGSC, negatively correlated with the
equalitarian leadership style.

It is unknown whether months of staff produces
authoritarian USMA leaders or whether authoritarian USMA
graduates are assigned into staff positions. The same
comment would pertain to the OCS graduate.

Nevertheless, months of staff is related to leader-
ship style preference and, therefore, the twelfth
hypothesis must be confirmed.

Command and Staff

Since months of command was a significant variable
primarily for ROTC graduates and months of staff primarily
for OCS and USMA graduates, it was decided to analyze
months of command and staff together.

Table 15 provides the means and standard deviations
of the leadership and followership styles for 112 CGSC

infantry officers.

Table 15

Mean scores and standard deviations of leader-
ship and followership scores for subgroups
defined by months of command and staff of 112
CGSC infantry officers.

| | Months of Command[a] | | | |
| | Low | | High | |
Sample	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
High Months of Staff[b]				
Authoritarian	6.56	2.15	6.28	2.07
Equalitarian	6.07	1.75	5.66	1.52
Permissive	4.00	1.86	4.79	2.65
Rebel	6.11	1.55	5.79	1.78
Cooperator	6.19	1.59	6.31	1.47
Ingratiator	4.78	1.50	5.69	1.40
Low Months of Staff				
Authoritarian	5.69	1.23	6.14	2.25
Equalitarian	6.21	1.37	5.70	1.34
Permissive	4.21	1.68	5.24	2.12
Rebel	5.79	2.01	5.48	1.62
Cooperator	6.52	1.88	6.07	1.77
Ingratiator	4.72	2.17	5.52	1.88

[a]Median months of command = 26.

[b]Median months of staff = 48.

N in each cell = 28.

A high and low subfile was created through splitting
the total sample at the median for each of the two variables,
yielding four subfiles. Visual inspection of Table 15

reveals substantial differences between cells for the two power-avoidant styles, permissive and ingratiator. Analysis of variance (Tables 26 and 27, Appendix B) indicate that the noted differences on these two styles were statistically significant. Significant differences were not found for the other styles. For the permissive style, greater preference for the style was associated with more months of command. Further, there was a significant interaction between months of command and months of staff. With increasing command time, preference for the permissive style was disproportionately higher for officers in the lower months of staff groups. A similar finding was obtained for the ingratiator style.

No significance was found in any other styles. Similarly, a command and staff comparison was made for the IOAC sample.

Table 16

Mean scores and standard deviations of leader-
ship and followership scores for subgroups
defined by months of command and staff
for 440 IOAC infantry officers.

| | Months of Command[a] | | | |
| | Low | | High | |
Sample	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
High Months of Staff[b]				
Authoritarian	6.66	2.00	6.85	1.68
Equalitarian	5.38	1.39	5.38	1.35
Permissive	4.66	1.81	4.43	1.87
Rebel	5.13	1.52	5.25	1.34
Cooperator	6.36	1.87	6.24	1.87
Ingratiator	5.82	1.83	5.94	1.77
Low Months of Staff				
Authoritarian	6.85	2.00	6.84	1.87
Equalitarian	5.36	1.30	5.30	1.27
Permissive	4.50	2.12	4.49	1.94
Rebel	5.26	1.62	5.06	1.36
Cooperator	6.62	1.60	6.12	1.77
Ingratiator	6.02	1.79	6.16	1.64

[a]Median months of command = 12.

[b]Median months of staff = 15.

N in each cell = 110.

Table 16 provides the means and standard deviations
of the leadership and followership styles for 440 infantry
officers.

A visual comparison of the means shows similarities

in all leader and follower styles across months of command and staff. In fact, analysis of variance generally produced insignificant results (Table 28, Appendix B).

A significant difference was found only for the cooperator style of followership ($p < .05$).

Chapter 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

While we are never sure
that change makes things better,
we do know that if things are going to get better,
they will have to change.

Soren Kierkegaard

Rapidly growing technology, change, and the increasing educational level of the volunteer soldier place unique demands upon today's leaders. They, who have sworn to uphold the solemn 200 year old mission to defend the United States of America, lead and follow the best way they know how. All agree on desiring mission accomplishment, high standards, esprit de corps, and high morale. However, leaders do not agree on how those goals are to be achieved. The "how to" of leadership is a person's style.

Department of the Army Pamphlet 600-3 (1974, pp. 5-5) and Army Regulation 623-105 (1974, p. 1-5) indicate that a superior should evaluate the leadership style of a subordinate on the officer evaluation report. Yet, nowhere does any pamphlet or regulation indicate what the preferred style is or what the standards of leadership style are.

An extensive review of literature encompassing over 200 references provides ample guidance for the student of leadership. It also establishes that leadership and

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followership styles do make a difference in the effective-
ness with which organizations operate. Some leaders are
better than others.

This thesis describes research which measured
preferred leadership and followership styles of army in-
fantry noncommissioned officers, officer candidates, and
commissioned officers. It permitted conclusions to be
drawn about how infantry personnel prefer to lead and fol-
low, as measured by psychological instruments associated
with the Response to Power Model (RPM). The RPM stresses
the utility of objective, interactive, and balanced relation-
ships between "equalitarian" leaders and "cooperator"
followers who are able to communicate easier and accomplish
the mission better than those who prefer other leadership
and followership styles.

The mean scores of each leadership and follower-
ship style for infantry NCO's, officer candidates, and
officer samples were measured by the Supervise Ability
Scale and the Responsibility Index respectively.

Leadership Styles

a
7.8
7.6
7.4
7.2
7.0
6.8
6.6
6.4
6.2
6.0
5.8
5.6
5.4
5.2
5.0
4.8
4.6
4.4
4.2
4.0
3.8

Authoritarian

Permissive

Equalitarian

A
E

P

| Basic NCO Course N=163 | Advanced NCO Course N=126 | Officer Candidate Reserve Component Course N=77 | Branch Immaterial Officer Candidate Course N=155 | Infantry Officer Advanced Course N=471 | Command and General Staff College N=115 |

Followership Styles

7.0
6.8
6.6
6.4
6.2
6.0
5.8
5.6
5.4
5.2
5.0

Ingratiator

Cooperator

Rebel

C

R

I

| BNCOC | ANCOC | OC/RC | BIOCC | IOAC | CGSC |

^{a}Maximum mean score = 10; Normative mean = 5.

Figure 9

Leadership and Followership Means for Sample Groups

Presented as a synopsis, figure nine depicts differences in leadership and followership styles among levels of tested subjects.

Visual inspection of the profiles of preference for leadership in figure nine shows that NCO's prefer two extreme leadership styles which theoretically tend to compound perception and communication problems with subordinates. However, the figure also shows that a clear (and statistically significant), progression in preference for equalitarian leadership style occurs across the levels of subjects tested. This is associated with significant decrease in preference for the less adaptive leadership styles.

As the sample progresses from officer candidate through IOAC to CGSC, permissive leadership style preference decreases. Authoritarian preference particularly decreases between IOAC and CGSC, and may reflect institutional conditioning or selection of CGSC students by the army.

Followership styles with one exception reflect scores almost identical throughout the tested samples. However, the ingratiator is the most preferred style for NCO's and the cooperator is the most preferred style for officer candidates and commissioned officers.

Leadership and followership styles were also analyzed with respect to source of commission (Officer Candidate School, Reserve Officer Training Corps, United

States Military Academy), component (Army Reserve, National Guard, Regular Army), age, years of education, months of command, and months of staff variables as appropriate to the tested group. The background variables were investigated to provide a more definitive basis for interpreting the main results.

CGSC leadership styles varied with source of commission. The USMA graduate tended to prefer authoritarian leadership more than the OCS and the ROTC graduate respectively. No significant difference was noted at the IOAC level. CGSC followership styles were only moderately related to source of commission.

No significant difference was noted when leadership and followership styles were compared to component.

Leadership and followership styles also varied with age. All correlations were in the preferred direction, with older subjects generally preferring "more mature" and adaptive styles.

Years of education only marginally related to the styles of the ANCOC and IOAC samples, but did so quite significantly for the CGSC sample. A positive correlation of substantial magnitude was observed between years of education and CGSC preference to equalitarian leader style. A high negative correlation was found with the ingratiator follower style.

Months of command was associated with a high equalitarian leadership score among ROTC graduates attending

CGSC.

Months of staff was associated with high authoritarian leadership style preference among OCS and USMA graduates.

When months of command and staff were analyzed together, months of command was significantly important and months of staff was a moderator in producing preferred leader and follower styles.

In summary, the leader and follower somehow define and create the situation within which a climate of motivation, effective communication, objectivity, esprit de corps, and proficiency are established. Proficient leaders correctly diagnose the situation and provide general guidance and coaching to their subordinates, thereby contributing toward the creation of that climate. In theory, the leader's proficiency is at least in part based on his preference for the adaptive leadership styles identified by Sweney.

Company strong points, extended frontages, decentralized execution, a lethal battlefield, and the review of literature all militate toward equalitarian leader and cooperator follower styles as described in the RPM.

Officer leadership style preference improved as higher levels were analyzed. This major positive finding indicates that the officer corps, to the extent that the infantry officers tested in this study are representative,

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may indeed be able to lead and develop subordinates in an environment of increasing technology, change, and volunteer soldiers. It also confirms whatever procedures are used to select personnel for CGSC, because the CGSC group is by far the most adaptive.

The major negative finding is that a similar developmental trend is not happening at the NCO level.

Perhaps equalitarian leadership is not the optimum style at the NCO level. But, if the soldier today is more qualified than before, as has been cited, the only reason remaining, for the NCO's authoritarian and permissive leadership style preference, is current systemic constraints and the NCO's misperceptions of organizational expectations related thereto.

An ancillary finding indicates the NCO groups' preference to the ingratiator followership style - doing only what they are told - as opposed to officer candidates' and commissioned officers' preference to the cooperator followership style - using their initiative and seeking responsibility.

It may very well be that NCO's do not exercise their initiative in order to insure predictability in the organization. That is to say that the use of initiative may produce surprises. And, some bosses do not like to be surprised.

Another means of rationale for the above findings

may be years of education. Officers with more education
tended to prefer the most adaptive leadership (equalitarian)
and followership (cooperator) styles. Mean scores of NCO's
and officer candidates were lower on the equalitarian style.
Neither group had as much education as the officer sample.
However, the Non Commissioned Officer Education System
(NCOES) designed to assist the NCO's and the bootstrap
program designed to allow for college completion may improve
their leadership and followership preferences.

The challenge remains with the officer corps to
assist service schools in professionally developing junior
leaders. Only then will the effective leader be able to
decentralize authority and responsibility to competent
subordinates within a unit which communicates effectively
and has confidence in its members.

> Leadership is an interaction between leader
> and follower roles within a situation in which
> interpersonal power and obligation are willingly
> exchanged in order to accomplish an organiza-
> tional task and satisfy the needs of
> organizational members.

APPENDIX A

REFERENCE OR OFFICE SYMBOL	SUBJECT
	Administration of Psychological Evaluations to Infantry Officers at CGSC

TO THRU COL Glover

FROM MMAS Project Officer   DATE 24 Oct 75   CMT 1
MAJ Weigand/dns/4560

TO   Infantry Officers
        attending CGSC

1. References available in CGSC Library:

    a. Infantry Magazine, July-August 1975, p 36-40.

    b. MAJ Weigand's MMAS Proposal, Group 5, 1975-1976.

2. In accordance with requirements to fulfill my MMAS proposal, I am administering a psychological evaluation of infantry officers to determine their preferred leadership and followership styles. Authorized tests, which have been administered at the USA Infantry School for the past three years, will be used to identify conflicts within infantry chains of command among CGSC, IOAC, and IOBC graduates.

3. Each of two multiple choice instruments will require 15 minutes of your time. They will be self-scored and will not be identified by name to insure anonymity. I'll use sanitized results. You may keep the instruments. Subsequent to scoring, I will provide immediate feedback to all individuals desiring interpretation of results. There are no right or wrong answers. Rather the instruments are designed to identify your preferred leadership (authoritarian, equalitarian, permissive) and followership (rebel, cooperator, ingratiator) styles.

4. Administration will occur in Classroom 18 on 29 October 1975 at 1500 hours. If other arrangements are necessary, contact the undersigned in Section 19 or call 4560 after duty hours.

5. Thank you for your assistance. I hope I may assist you in knowing yourself a little bit better.

GERALD L. WEIGAND
MAJ, IN
Section 19, Work Group D

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APPENDIX B

Table 17

Analysis of variance of authoritarian leadership
styles of active Army personnel attending BIOCC,
IOAC, and CGSC

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	108.19	54.10	13.90
Error	738	2872.47	3.89	($p < .01$) --
TOTAL	740	2980.66	--	--

Table 18

Analysis of variance of equalitarian leadership
styles of active Army personnel attending BIOCC,
IOAC, and CGSC

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	155.33	77.67	32.61 ($p < .01$)
Error	738	1757.93	2.38	--
TOTAL	740	1913.26	--	--

Table 19

Analysis of variance of permissive leadership
styles of active Army personnel attending BIOCC,
IOAC, and CGSC

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	71.66	35.83	8.21 (p<.01)
Error	738	3221.90	4.37	--
TOTAL	740	3293.56	--	--

Table 20

Analysis of variance of authoritarian leadership
styles of officers attending CGSC who were com-
missioned from OCS, ROTC, or USMA

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	52.53	26.27	7.40
Error	111	394.03	3.55	(p<.01) --
TOTAL	113	446.56	--	--

Table 21

Analysis of variance of permissive leadership
styles of officers attending CGSC who were
commissioned from OCS, ROTC, or USMA

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	104.34	52.17	13.68 (p<.01)
Error	111	423.27	3.81	--
TOTAL	113	527.61	--	--

Table 22

Analysis of variance of ingratiator followership
styles of captains attending IOAC who were com-
missioned from OCS, ROTC, or USMA

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	27.33	13.66	4.48
				$(p<.025)$
Error	464	1416.24	3.05	--
TOTAL	466	1443.57	--	--

Table 23

Analysis of variance of rebel followership
styles of captains attending IOAC who were
commissioned from OCS, ROTC, or USMA

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	26.17	13.09	6.36 (p<.01)
Error	464	954.15	2.06	--
TOTAL	466	980.35	--	--

Table 24

Analysis of variance of cooperator follower-
ship styles of officers attending CGSC who
were commissioned from OCS, ROTC, or USMA.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	47.22	23.61	9.15 $(p<.02)$
Error	339	875.12	2.58	--
TOTAL	441	922.34	--	--

Table 25

Analysis of variance of ingratiator follower-
ship styles of captains attending IOAC from
RA, USAR, and NG components

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatment	2	36.95	18.48	6.12 (p<.01)
Error	464	1401.97	3.02	--
TOTAL	466	1438.92	--	--

Table 26

Analysis of variance of permissive leadership
style with subgroups defined by months of
staff and command for 112 CGSC infantry officers

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Months of Staff	1	3.05	3.05	.70
Months of Command	1	23.19	23.19	5.30 ($p < .025$)
Interaction	1	26.64	26.64	6.09 ($p < .025$)
Error	108	472.13	4.37	--
TOTAL	111	525.01	--	--

Table 27

Analysis of variance of ingratiator followership
style score with subgroups defined by months of
staff and command for 112 CGSC infantry officers

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Months of Staff	1	.37	.37	.12
Months of Command	1	21.08	21.08	6.95 ($p < .01$)
Interaction	1	21.55	21.55	7.11 ($p < .01$)
Error	108	339.47	3.03	--
TOTAL	111	543.38	--	--

Table 28

Analysis of variance of cooperator followership
style score with subgroups defined by months of
staff and command for 440 IOAC infantry officers

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Months of Staff	1	.51	.51	.16
Months of Command	1	10.85	10.86	3.42 (p<.05)
Interaction	1	15.16	15.16	4.78 (p<.05)
Error	436	1382.47	3.17	--
TOTAL	439	1408.99	--	--

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