**Leadership Behavior in Task-Oriented Work Groups--Some Problems and Potentials**

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**Introductory**

 People may work independently to solve social problems. People may work in groups. People who work in groups are not necessarily any more successful in accomplishing their aims than those who work independently. Indeed, there are obviously times when people who have attempted to work together in groups have not accomplished as much as they might have had they pursued similar objectives independently of one another. It is reasonable to assume, however, that when several people or a small group combine their energies and resources, their potential for accomplishment is greater than it would have been had they pursued their goals independently of one another. It is also reasonable to assume that the success of those who combine their efforts will depend upon how well they work together.

 A question naturally follows from these observations: How can people who by choice or circumstance attempt to work together--make the most of their efforts? The discussion that follows addresses this question. The discussion will be confined to the workings of small groups. (For the purposes of this paper a small group could consist of as few as three or as many as 10 persons.) An ideal model for the small work group will be suggested.

**Work groups**

 A work group is composed of persons who may join forces for a variety of reasons. Such persons may come together of their own accord to address a widespread social problem. They may be convened within a large bureaucratic framework to work out a policy dispute, or to develop and implement a program of action. The work group may choose as a focus finding a solution to a problem, changing a situation, or clarifying a policy, among other possibilities.

 Since groups are composed of individuals and since the initiation of action depends in the first place upon individuals, this paper focuses upon that individual behavior which seems to play a most crucial role in determining the success of group action and interaction. Because of its initiatory and promotional character, such behavior will be viewed as being "leadership" behavior.

**I. THE IDEAL WORK GROUP**

 Before examining some of the kinds of individual behavior which seem most to enhance the effectiveness of a work group, it would be helpful to describe in general terms some of the primary characteristics of an ideal work group. These primary characteristics would include:

* A task orientation
* Advocacy planning and implementation which are necessarily value based(1)
* A "proactive" (Allport, 1968), innovative approach to planning, problem solving, and action rather than a reactive, remedial approach
* An approach to problem-solving characterized by a long-range view
* An interdisciplinary approach to problem-solving emphasizing synthetic rather than analytic abilities (2)

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1: The notion that planning action must be value-based is developed in work done by Paul Davidoff (1965). He writes, “Appropriate planning action cannot be prescribed from a position of value neutrality for prescriptions are based on desired objectives” (p. 331).

2: Gross (1968, pp. 548-549) has propounded two types of rationality: narrow rationality in which analytic abilities are emphasized and broad rationality in which synthetic abilities are emphasized. The broad rationality model may be seen as having general application to the ideal work group.

* An open system, and organic model of organization (3) conducive to optimal collaboration and to a psychologically mature approach to problem-solving
* Generation and proliferation of power through mutual support, encouragement, coalescence of influence
* A service orientation in which action is other centered rather than more passively self-centered (4)
* Implicit concern for the personal growth and fulfillment--self-actualization--of one another (5)

 The primary characteristics which most closely describe the action of the ideal work group have been discussed in the work of Bennis and Slater (1968). In describing the task force type of organization, they recognize the importance of a task orientation. The task orientation emphasizes the application of individual efforts to the solution of a problem. Such a focus in itself promotes collaboration by turning the attention of individual members to a problem. Individuals are more apt to deal with problems with a sense of detachment when they are more concerned with the problem than with engaging in win/lose strategies with one another, thereby effectively creating a competitive atmosphere which would be more conducive to divisiveness than to collaboration.

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3: The ideal work group would be characterized by "an organically evolving pattern of membership, working roles, personal relationships, structure, and tasks" (Grinnell, 1969, p. 78).

4: Passiveness, self-centeredness and self-indulgence are discussed by Maslow (1965, pp. 256 ff.) as being primary factors which inhibit individual resourcefulness and impede social progress and reform.

5: Such a concern for personal growth, for self-development, would be motivated by "interests broader than one's self" (Gross, 1969, p. 179).

 By attempting to deal with problems in an innovative way, the ideal work group would be adopting a prosponsive (Allport, 1968) rather than a responsive stance toward problems. That is to say, the ideal work group would necessarily anticipate the consequences of its planned action and would prepare to meet whatever contingencies might arise. The ideal work group would then have to maintain a high level of flexibility. Individual members would have to be able to restructure their relationships as changing circumstances required. In this way, the task force and the ideal work group can be viewed as "adaptive, rapidly changing temporary system(s)" (Bennis and Slater, 1968, p. 98).

 The open system character of the ideal task-oriented work group would provide an atmosphere most conducive to personal and interpersonal resilience. By providing for an organic rather than a mechanical organizational model, individuals who are group members are freed from responding to problems with "preset, programmed expectations" (Bennis and Slater, 1968, p. 98), whatever their personal background may be and their other organizational ties.

 The atmosphere which would ideally prevail in the ideal work group would be characterized as being conducive to expansiveness. In order for expansiveness and openness to exist, a high level of psychological maturity would necessarily have to be possessed by individual work group members.

 Work groups may be composed of those who have long been close friends or they may just as well be composed of relative strangers who have diverse professional interests, backgrounds, and skills as Bennis and Slater (1968) have suggested (p. 98). Importantly, previous organizational or social status or position, competency or skills would not limit or dictate the role that a member could or would play in the ideal group.

 The kinds of personal assessment and evaluation (6) which presently play such a major role in traditional hierarchically oriented organizations would not assume such a role in the ideal work group. Energies would be focused instead upon working together to solve the problems at hand. The common concern of members would be in doing a job and doing it well. Group members would mutually assume that each person would devote whatever energy he could to this end. There would be no point or purpose in evaluating a member's efforts utilizing the traditional approach. One reason for this would be that by focusing in a self-conscious way on actions which ideally should be spontaneous and derive from natural devotion and willingness, a most vital propelling force would been danger of being effectively deadened.

**II. THE IDEAL WORK GROUP COMPARED**

**TO MORE TRADITIONALLY STRUCTURED GROUPS**

 The key characteristic which differentiates the model workgroup from more traditionally structured groups is that the ideal work group model is essentially a collaboration/consensus system. (Shepard, 1965, pp. 1115-1143). Ideally, the work group is composed of persons each

of whom has a potential for contributing to the work of the group. This is an essential ingredient

6: A popularized summary of the more traditional approach to the appraisal and evaluation of subordinates by superiors in organizations is found in Blansfield (1961).

in such a system. In contrast to the collaboration/consensus system is the more traditional and familiar coercion/compromise system (Shepard, ibid.).

**Three major leadership or managerial models**

 Three leadership or managerial models which have perhaps impacted most on organizational behavior in the United States are the traditional model, the human relations model, and more recently, the human resources model. Each of these models is based upon certain assumptions as to the nature of man, his potentials, his needs, his motives. In one analysis based on the work of Rensis Likert, assumptions for these various models are described in the following manner (7):

**TRADITIONAL MODEL**

**Assumptions**

1. People dislike work

2. Work only for money

3. Few are capable of self-control or self-direction.

7: This analysis was presented by Professor Raymond E. Miles, U.C. School of Business Administration in a lecture on "Management Theories and Applications for Today," June 20, 1969 at the Federal Executive Seminar Center, Berkeley, California.

**HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**

**Assumptions**

1. People want to feel important

2. Want to be recognized

3. Want to be consulted

**HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL**

**Assumptions**

1. People want to contribute

2. Can exercise broad self-direction, self-control

3. Represent "untapped resources"

 The assumptions underlying the human resources model as described above come closest of the three models to describing the assumptions which underlie the ideal work group. A more fitting list of assumptions for the ideal work group, however, would be the following:

METAMOTIVATIONAL MODEL

Assumptions

1. Some people are metamotivated (8). They tend to consider the interests and welfare of others before their own. In this sense they are other-oriented rather than self-oriented (9).
2. Their accomplishments can be increased by creating a collaborative atmosphere conducive to the following: a) focusing constructively on problems, objectives, etc., b) nurturing mutual trust and openness, and c) promoting healthy personal growth.

8: "Metamotivation" has been defined by Maslow in the following way: "For the meta-motivated person, the self has enlarged to include aspects of the world and therefore the distinction between self and not-self (outside, other) has been transcended. There is now less differentiation between the world and the person because he has incorporated into himself part of the world and defines himself thereby" (Maslow, 1967).

9: Maslow's discussion of high and low synergy societies is especially pertinent here. Maslow, citing Ruth Benedict, speaks of high synergy societies as being those which are organized on the principle that “what was good for one was good for all." By contrast, in low synergy societies, "what profited one, meant less for the others" (1964, p. 164). Elsewhere Maslow defines synergy as "the resolution of the dichotomy between selfishness and unselfishness, or between selfishness and altruism" (1965, p. 20).

3. Authentic interpersonal relationships are essential

to personal growth (10)

4. Providing a collaborative atmosphere

is in the best interest of individual work group members

as well as being in the best interests of society.

Policies and expectations of each of the three more traditional models are also described by Likert (11) in the following way:

**TRADITIONAL MODEL**

**Policies**

1. Assign simple, repetitive tasks

2. Supervise closely‚ maintain tight control

3. Set rules and routines‚ Enforce firm but fair

**HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**

**Policies**

1. Manager should discuss plans‚ listen to objections

2. Allow self-control on routine tasks

10: Shepard (1965) promotes the view that social organization in general should promote and be conducive to personal well-being and "self-actualization through authentic, non-exploitative interpersonal relationships" (p. 1127).

11: The following as well as the subsequent diagrammatic sketches are also based on the presentation by Professor Raymond E. Miles which focused on work done by Rensis Likert.

**HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL**

**Policies**

1. Create climate where all can contribute fully

2. Develop full participation on important problems

3. Continually broaden area of self-direction and control

**TRADITIONAL MODEL**

**Expectations**

1. If closely controlled, people will meet standards

2. If firm but fair, people will respect supervisor

**HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**

**Expectations**

1. Participation increases satisfaction and morale

2. Subordinates will willingly cooperate

**HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL**

**Expectations**

1. Direct improvements in decision-making and control

2. Satisfaction increases as "by product"

 Here again in the metamotivational model the emphasis would be shifted from the self-orientation or individual orientation of the human resources model to an “other-orientation”. Policies and expectations would be more aptly described in the following terms:

**METAMOTIVATIONAL MODEL**

**Policies**

1. Create a climate wherein the best interests of the target group can be served (an organization, a portion of society afflicted with a problem, society as a whole, the world population, humankind…)

2. Develop an atmosphere which is conducive to producing the highest possible quality decisions and wisest and most responsible actions.

3. Continually broaden self-knowledge while strengthening interpersonal ties through the sharing of insight, knowledge, experience, mutual concern, respect, and friendship (12).

**METAMOTIVATIONAL MODEL**

**Expectations**

1. High quality of decisions and actions

2. High satisfaction in having done the best possible job (13)

3. Significant contribution to maintaining or improving the human condition,

to enhancing the quality of life.

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12: A point Rappaport makes has applicability here: "To the seeker of self-knowledge, rewards accrue even if he never reaches the goal" (1968, p. 30).

13: Interestingly enough, one study of group behavior has shown that the more the group process was characterized by self-oriented behavior, the less was the satisfaction of the individual members (Marquis, Guetzkow, and Heyns, 1951, p. 61).

 In the following diagrammatic sketches, key attributes and objectives of the human relations and the human resources models are sketched out (also based on the work of Rensis Likert):

**HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**

**Participation**

Contributes to

**Improved Morale**

 Contributes to

**Willing Cooperation**

**HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL**

**Participation**

Contributes to

**Improved Performance**

Contributes to

**Improved Satisfaction**

 In the metamotivational model, the emphasis on participation would be supplanted by an emphasis on meaningful collaboration. The resulting diagrammatic sketch would be as follows:

**METAMOTIVATIONAL MODEL**

**Meaningful collaboration**

Is linked to

**Worthwhile accomplishment**

and to

**A High level of fulfillment**

 In the preceding discussion and attempt has been made to more fully describe the characteristics that distinguish the ideal work group from more traditionally structured organizations. It is necessary before continuing with an examination of leadership behavior of work group members, to differentiate between the formal and the informal work group.

**The formal and the informal work group**

 The work of Chris Argyris (1964) provides a meaningful point of departure for discussing the formal and informal work groups. In elaborating on an idealized organizational model, the "mix model," Argyris introduces five dimensions of model, two of which are especially pertinent to the present discussion. One of them concerns the maintenance of a flexible internal system. (Argyris, 1964, pp. 179 ff.). Another concerns the importance of goal-oriented behavior and the bearing that such behavior has on the internal make-up of the organization (Argyris, 1964, pp. 175 ff.).

 A thorough going examination of various kinds of work groups will lead one to the conclusion that the internal system and the goal orientation of work group behavior can vary markedly from one work group to another. Key differentiating characteristics are more readily isolated when work groups are divided on the basis of the formalness and informalness of their organizational structures.

**The informal work group**

 In the informal work group, members may operate on the assumption that individual members are free to take action and such action need not await the collective approval or sanction of the group as a whole. In HATS, an "informal action group" for example, members were "completely free to change and develop their plans as they (saw) fit without concern for negative reaction from other members" (Grinnell, 1969, p. 84). The responsibility for actions then is individual in the case of HATS (14).

**The more formal work group**

 In a work group which is more formally constituted than the HATS group, responsibility for action is more likely to be collectively assumed. Consequently, the more formally constituted the group, the more compelling a need there is for close coordination with the larger organization of which the group was a part.

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14: Grinnell (1969) writes of HATS, "(a)ction is by, for, and through individuals; not through the group" (p. 77).

 The task forces established by the California Inter-Agency Council on Drug Abuse provide fitting examples of formal work groups. The Interagency Council is a jointly sponsored effort of the State of California and the California Medical Association. Since 1968, the Council has set up five task forces to address various aspects of the problem of drug abuse in California. These include task forces on research, education, treatment, legislation, and the administration of justice. Each task force in turn has drawn its members from various statewide agencies from state government as well as from the private sector, including representation from nongovernmental organizations, such as the California Bar Association, the California Teachers Association, and the California Council of Parents and Teachers Association.

 The organizational structure of the Council and its task forces most closely approximates the linking pin organizational model. The two task forces with which I am most familiar, the Education and the Administration of Justice Task Forces, vary in their degree of formality. The leadership, size, and purpose of each seems to be related to the uniqueness of the makeup of each. Both task forces, however, are operating on the same assumptions that resolutions or actions proposed or taken by them have to be sanctioned not only by a majority of their memberships, but by the Interagency Council as well. (The Interagency Council is made up of the Chairman and two other members from each of the five task forces and the Council Chairman.)

 The work group model which has been described in general terms in the preceding pages does not provide the most apt description of these more formally constituted work groups. The work group model more closely describes the HATS example of the informal work group. However, the assumptions which ideally inform the behavior of the membership of the informal work group also have applicability to more formally constituted work groups. There are certain difficulties in applying these assumptions because of the tendency of the more traditional organizational structure to restrain and channel energies and restrict activities in a way which can defeat the aims of the work group. The ideal work group model in such cases represents an ideal which traditionally structured work groups can emulate, as well as study and learn from, thereby gaining a deeper appreciation of the requirements for optimally successful and satisfying group efforts.

**III. LEADERSHIP IN THE IDEAL WORK GROUP**

 The preceding discussion provides background which is essential to an examination of leadership behavior in the ideal work group. A most fruitful way to begin this examination might be to find out how members of a successful work group which approximates the ideal model describes the leadership function and process within their group. Grinnell's research on the HATS group provides such information.

 At a mature stage in the development of HATS, the group members described the leadership of the group in the following terms:

“1. Everybody shares leadership, but some function more than others.

It shifts from meeting to meeting and from time to time in a meeting.

2. Well shared‚ but Henry Thorpe's intensity is very important.

And I feel Dan Jones' creativity and vitality are also critical.

3. Leadership rotates. Great support for temporary leader.

Weaknesses accepted and dealt with. Little competition for

 leadership (but some). Usually protection for agenda items

and persons talking. Excellent listening. Very active participation”

 (Grinnell, 1969, p. 100).

 These general impressions provide an ideal springboard for further discussion. In the preceding list several key attributes can be noted which distinguish the nature of leadership behavior in the ideal work group model from that of groups which have a more traditionally hierarchical structure. There attributes can be summarized in the following way:

1. Any member of the work group may act to guide,

direct or facilitate or instigate planning and action.

2. Any member may act to optimize group interaction.

 The ideal work group model can only work when some of its members are inclined to behave in these ways at least some of the time. The success of the HATS group would seem to turn on the ability and readiness of the group members to assume such leadership behavior and to do so in a harmonious fashion while maintaining an expansive atmosphere conducive to openness and disciplined responsiveness.

 In the ideal work group model, any of the members may from time to time exhibit leadership behavior. In a way then the ideal work group may be seen as being a collective effort of members each of whom has natural leadership capabilities. Participation in a work group affords members the opportunity of accomplishing more than they might have working independently of one another.

 Follett (1940) has written concerning leadership and group efforts, "(T)he leader releases energies, unites energies, and all with the object not only of carrying out a purpose, but of creating further and larger purposes" (p. 286).

 It is interesting to discuss in somewhat greater depth the notion of energy as well as the notion of power. In a way these notions can be seen as being most crucial to the understanding of leadership. A concept developed by Leavitt (1965, pp. 1144-1170) provides a basis for such a discussion. In developing an organizational model which best fits the human resources model, Levitt has written of "power equalization". In developing the metamotivational model, the concept of "power generation" or "power proliferation" seems more appropriate.

 Follett's writing casts further light on these matters: "It is by organizing experience that we transform experience into power, and that is what experience is for, to be made into power" (1940, p. 250). According to Follett, power is a "self-developing capacity" (p. 110). She states, "More power, not division of power, should always be our aim; more power for the best possible furtherance of whatever it may be, to which we are giving our life" (p. 101). Energy and power are not and should not be finitely limited. They can and should be generated and proliferated by individuals and groups in order to further aims.

 Maslow similarly has pointed out significant differences between the "eupsychian" (1965) or metamotivational orientation to power and the more traditional orientations. He casts aside the view of power as being "power over" others. He writes,

“Partly, the whole eupsychian development of management policy and leadership policy depends on bosses being able to give up power over other people, permitting them to be free, and actually enjoying the freedom of other people and the self-actualization of other people. This is exactly a characteristic of self-actualizing people and of growing psychological health. Healthy people have no need for power over other people; they don't enjoy it, they don't want it, and they will use it only when there is some factual need in the situation for it. It is as if the growing out of pathology into health took away all the necessities for power over other people, and then simply changed automatically the whole philosophy of management and leadership of these people from a Theory X to a Theory Y kind of thing (McGregor), even without any conscious effort to do so” (p. 151).

 The more traditional emphasis on power as "power over" others harkens back to the traditional, more authoritarian model of management or leadership in which the relationship between the leader and the led can be likened to the relationship that exists between the military commander and the soldier and that which exists between many parents and their children. In fact, even the human resources model is not free of the paternalistic and manipulative assumptions of the more authoritarian models. By contrast the metamotivational model is concerned with individuals who are mature, psychologically healthy adults, individuals who have no inclination to patronize or manipulate others.

 Within the metamotivational model, power would be viewed as something which is not only shared and proliferated, but something which is used maturely and responsibly as well. Power would be viewed as being integrally wedded to responsibility. The more power a person or group has, the more others look to that person or group for direction; the more influence individual or group actions have, the more influence individual or group actions have, the greater the individual's or group's responsibility in using that influence and power.

 In the ideal work group, the growth of the individual members and the maturation of the group as a whole, depend upon the ability of the individual members to assume an increasingly responsible role while learning from their own experience and learning from one another.

 Follett has written that the leader should lead "by force of example" (15) (1940, p. 291). In the ideal work group, no one member has a corner on exemplary behavior. In the ideal work group, leadership behavior is designed to help align the group with the problem, to help lead group members into a working relationship with a problem situation in a way that will provide the best outlet for their capacities, energies, and attention. Leadership behavior is ideally designed to promote optimum conditions for teamwork, and to provide an atmosphere where decision making can be carried on and where innovation will thrive.

 Important aspects of leadership behavior in the ideal work group effectively enhance the self-assurance of members, by helping them to develop even greater independence and confidence, by encouraging individual members to take the initiative while simultaneously encouraging them to take full advantage of the support, knowledge, and experience and skill of the other members.

 Importantly, failure to succeed must be taken in stride. Given the level of maturity of group members, such failures will ideally be accepted dispassionately and philosophically. Failure is not to be taken personally in such a way that it psychologically handicaps or immobilizes the person or persons who are most responsible for such failure.

15: Pusic (1969) similarly emphasizes the importance of example. He speaks of the importance of "initiating the transmission of new patterns of behavior by lived example, not by preaching” (p. 21).

 An assumption which underlies the ideal work group model is that in order to provide an arena for the most constructive thinking and action possible, threats, fears, reprisals, and punishment must be supplanted by acceptance of human frailties and imperfection, and a resolve simply to do one's best and not be decimated by defeat or failure, but to learn from it and to proceed the wiser.

 Leadership behavior at its best is rooted in a comprehensive understanding of a situation or problem. leadership behavior at its best can be characterized as being forward looking, anticipatory of future events and changes. Most importantly, those who act to lead need to have a clear idea of what it is they are trying to do and why. This knowledge and this vision are integral aspects of leadership behavior.

 By way of summary, it is possible to say that leadership behavior within the context of the ideal work group can be simultaneously supportive and catalytic, and innovative and evolutionary, in that it promotes individual growth while fostering social development.

**IV. ESSENTIAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR**

**IN MODEL WORK GROUPS AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR**

**IN MORE TRADITIONALLY HIERARCHICAL ORGANIZATIONAL MODELS.**

 There are some key differences in the leadership behavior of those who would be guiding innovative participants in an ideal work group and those who typically participate as leaders in more traditionally hierarchical organizational models. In the latter models a need for supportive behavior and understanding generally derives from the personal ego needs of the participants. In the model work group, the need for support and understanding is of a qualitatively different character and would exist for substantially different reasons. Support and understanding would be required to add necessary impetus where self-confidence and gumption, self-reliance, might be faltering. Such support and understanding would be needed to help individuals go ahead and become more fully metamotivated and self-actualized persons. In this way, the emphasis would be on satisfying self-actualization needs, needs that in the context of Maslow's theoretical construct transcend personal ego needs.

 Other key difference in leadership behavior would include the following:

* Leadership behavior in the ideal work group would be characterized by a capacity to create new strategies and ideologies without being bound to traditional norms and strategies (Leeds, 1964, p. 121).
* Those most instrumental in problem solving and decision making would be inclined to take a longer view in the work group model. (See Argyris on increase in time perspective‚1961, p. 346).
* Work group members would rely more heavily upon synthetic rather than analytic abilities in decision making and problem solving (Gross, 1963, pp. 548-549).
* Those participating in leadership behavior in the model work group would operate on a generally more intuitive, less explicit level. This difference in leadership behavior would derive in part from the fact that members of the model work group would be more likely to perceive things in a similar way or at least not in a conflictual way which would act to thwart the expansive atmosphere essential to the more intuitive approach. Since differences in perspectives could be expected to result in less divisiveness, a more harmonious process of reaching consensus could generally be assumed.
* As contrast with the later managerial models--the human relations model and the human resources model--good social relationships would not need to be consciously or artificially worked at in the ideal work group model. They would naturally evolve owing to a similarity of concern and motivation.
* In the ideal work group, emphasis would not be upon job "delegation" but on assuming responsibility for jobs on the basis of natural strengths and inclinations.
* There would be no need for anyone to "ride herd" on others in an ideal work group as the dedication of the members of the group to a common cause would ensure the cohesiveness and sense of community necessary for success.
* In the ideal work group, there would not be an emphasis on treating others as equals. In the ideal work group participant members would treat each other naturally. Ideally this would happen because individual participants intuitively perceived the importance and intrinsic value of authentic personal relationships. Ideally "sympathetic resonance" would obtain in such a model group (Sayles, 1964, p. 251).
* In an ideal work group process and discipline would not be ends in themselves, but naturally assumed means to other ends. Merton, as cited in Argyris, 1964, relevantly observes, "...when the organization makes discipline an end rather than a means, individuals learn to play it safe, to be careful to do little" (16) (p. 179).

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16: These insights can also be seen to apply to the American democratic system in general. The tendency to concentrate on matters of process (e.g. voting rights, free speech) and on discipline (regimentation of education, authoritarian structure of the work situation) can be seen in part as being ways of effectively sidestepping more crucial questions relating to purpose and value.

* Leadership behavior on the part of various participants in the ideal work group is designed to crystallize objectives through a process based on "integration" (Follett, 1940). One of the most salutary ways of dealing with conflict, according to Follett, is by "integrat(ing) two desires, finding a solution in which both desires find a place." (pp. 39-40)
* In the ideal work group, leadership behavior would serve to raise the level of argument which would in turn assure that problems and issues being discussed and focused on would be dealt with in a mature way and with a healthy degree of detachment.
* In the ideal work group, there is a greater tendency to explore interdisciplinary approaches to the solution of problems. This coincides with the tendency of work group participants to seek solutions which are not temporary and remedial but comprehensive in character; solutions which deal with underlying causes, not the management of symptoms alone.
* The basic attitudes with which participants in an ideal work group approach problems is to ask themselves, "What can we or I do about it?" (Grinnell, 1969, p. 82). Problems are never discussed unless there is an intention on the part of group members to actually apply themselves to doing something to change or ameliorate the situation. In this way "wheel spinning" and discussions which have no definite point or purpose are avoided (Grinnell, 1969, p. 89).
* In an ideal work group, the emphasis is never on participation or process for its own sake. Participation ideally occurs because individual members are individually motivated and naturally inclined to take part.
* The membership in the ideal work group is keenly aware of "complex outer forces" external to the group as well as "complex inner forces". Follett (1940) writes, "The great leader is he who (controls through unity) all the complex outer forces and all the complex inner forces that they work together effectively" (p. 265).
* In more traditionally oriented models less attention would normally be given to the workable integration of these internal and external forces.
* Ideally, the work group would be self-selected or selected by persons who appreciated the requirement that such groups "be organized according to the potential contribution that each individual can make to the problem" (Argyris, 1964, p. 172). Those persons who initiate the formation of such a work group can through exercising intuition and discrimination in selecting members, play a crucial role in determining the ultimate character of the work group. In the more formally constituted work groups, there may be little if any latitude given to those assuming the responsibility of convening a work group. In the case where an ideal membership cannot be obtained. several alternatives are open. One would be to attempt to guide the work group in the direction of the ideal model by providing for a nuclear group of members who might be capable of influencing the other members along the lines of the metamotivational model. When this is not possible an alternative would be to establish an informal work group which could act to complement the work of the formal work group (17). Such a work group would be composed of metamotivated persons who were available and willing to take part. These persons would work to maximize their efforts and by presenting a more united front than was possible before‚ work to facilitate the policy making process and to promote the action programs needed (18).
* A crucial attribute of leadership behavior in the ideal work group is the ability to awaken intuition and self-direction in others. In more traditional organizational models, the emphasis has been upon what has been termed "tuition". Meher Baba (1957) explains the difference between intuition and "tuition" in the following way:

Tuition is impressed from without, while intuition dawns from within. Tuition thwarts intuition. Therefore, the tutoring of the mind by external events has to be countered by inner awakening. Then and only then can intuition, in its transcendent understanding, truly judge without yielding to the stupor of indiscriminate impressibility (pp. 37-38).

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17: When such a move seemed expeditious, an examination of the informal leadership structure of the organization might be used as an indicator in choosing a strong nuclear group.

18: This would also constitute a partial solution to the problem of collective responsibility for action raised in more formally organized work groups discussed earlier. (See pages 13-15).

 In summarizing the essential differences in leadership behavior in model work groups and in more traditional managerial and leadership models, it can be said that the metamotivational model emphasizes intuition (19), personal growth and maturity, while also acting to promote socially meaningful and responsible action. The human resources model which is most closely related to the metamotivational model relies on "tuition" and manipulation as well as relying somewhat on intuition. The human resources model would seemingly promote personal growth because doing so would serve to enhance the productivity of the organization (20). In this sense personal growth would be seen as being subsidiary to organizational aims in the human resources model (21).

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19: Gross (1968) writes of the use of "liberal doses of intuition" by "experience administrators" (p. 5). Dror (1962) also has emphasized the role of intuition in policy planning and implementation in **Public Policymaking Re-examined.**

20: The following serves to illustrate some key assumptions which inform the human relations model as well as the human resources model: "The best solution, presumably, was one in which the leader first explained what he wished to have done, then delegated specific tasks to each assistant, keeping his eye on both of them, directing them, and keeping them working. At the same time, he had to maintain good social relations, treating his helpers like equals, answering their suggestions, justifying his decision to them, and taking their criticisms lightheartedly" (Hare, 1962, p. 307). Bales (1950) has provided an in-depth analysis of group interaction which can be seen as having particular applicability to the human relations and human resources models.

21 The 9,9-model developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) would optimize both personal growth and organizational aims. The 9,9 model does not, however, properly fit the metamotivational model as the metamotivational model has far less universal applicability at this point in time. The metamotivational model assumes that a substantial portion of work group members will have transcended the fourth need level (ego needs) described by Maslow and have become other-oriented, motivated by self-actualization needs, metamotivated.

By describing some of the kinds of leadership behavior that differentiate the metamotivational model from the other managerial or leadership models, the way has been prepared for a discussion of some of the problems that can be expected as organizations move in the direction of the metamotivational model, particularly the formal work group (22).

**V. SOME PROBLEMS CURRENTLY ASSOCIATED WITH OPTIMIZING**

**THE METAMOTIVATIONAL MODEL.**

 As organizations move in the direction of a more metamotivated organizational management or leadership model, certain problems and issues are bound to be accentuated. Real problems are especially posed for those who currently hold managerial or leadership positions in those organizations which have a traditional hierarchical organizational structure. They can expect to be challenged to move in the direction of the metamotivational model. The problem they face is how to do so. Some of the major conceptual and practical "hang-ups" which are likely to impede a smooth transition to the metamotivational assumptions include the following:

* The hierarchical model has deeply embedded roots which are not likely to be removed easily.

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22: The likelihood of such a movement is greatly increased because of apparent mounting dissatisfaction with present managerial and leadership models. The tendency of these models to place a higher value on productivity and efficiency than on socially constructive accomplishment and human satisfaction and fulfillment has disaffected an increasing number of persons. The repercussions resulting from such a value orientation are currently being felt most strongly in student rebellion (Hoving, 1968) and in the increasing psychological frustration and dissatisfaction felt by many who have been active participants in such models or who may reject such models in principle (Clerk, 1969).

* The traditional notion of power as being "power-over" is not apt to be readily supplanted by a new ideology which speaks in terms of generating or proliferating "power-with" (Follett, 1940, p. 101).
* There has been a tendency for goals and objectives to lose all or practically all relevance to what the organization actually does and accomplishes.
* There seems to be a tendency in human nature for people to want to preserve that which affords them stability. This can happen to such an extent that they will concretize perspectives which may have little relevance, if any, to contemporary social and cultural realities (23). This tendency has also stifled innovation rather than nurtured it.
* Various views are held as to the nature of man. The hierarchically oriented models have tended to perpetuate certain limiting assumptions regarding man's ability to understand, to grow, and to change. These models have tended to minimize and severely curtail individual opportunities for assuming responsibility and for acting with decision and wisdom.
* The more traditional models have assumed that people can be and will allow themselves to be manipulated. The manipulative approach has overlooked the obvious -- that the manipulated can also manipulate (Follett, 1940, p. 253). In such a situation wherein two or more parties are attempting to manipulate each other, distrust, mutual disdain and disrespect, individual frustration, pettiness, and psychological immaturity tend to be perpetuated.

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23: Gardner comments similarly on the tendency of habit patterns of thought and action to solidify. "Most organizations have a structure that was designed to solve problems that no longer exist" (October 1965).

 It would seem to be fairly obvious that the hierarchically oriented models have not provided for the fullest possible development of decision making and problem-solving skills. They have not promoted self-reliance which is such an important attribute of a mature and psychologically healthy adult; in fact, they have effectively thwarted self-reliance. They have not promoted or generally permitted the individual assumption of responsibility which is so essential to decision making, problem solving and acting. These attributes would have to be nurtured both through education and through re-education if metamotivationally-oriented organizational models are to become an enduring and meaningful part of organizational behavior and action (24).

 Because of the many problems alluded to above, a transition from hierarchically oriented organizational models to more metamotivationally oriented organizational models would ideally need to be undertaken with great care and thoughtfulness. One way of facilitating smooth transition to more metamotivationally oriented organizational models would be to make such transitions in stages. The human resources model would seem to serve rather well for this purpose. The emphasis on personal growth which is an integral part of the human resources model would help lay the groundwork for introducing a more metamotivationally oriented model.

 Another way that the metamotivational model can become incorporated in existing organizational structure is through the establishment of the functional matrix organizational

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24: Argyris (1967) writes, "(I)f the re-educational process is to be effective; it is necessary to create a culture in which the new values can be learned, practiced, and protected until the executives feel confident in using them. Such a culture would be one which is composed of people striving to develop authentic relationships and psychological success" (p. 144).

structure. In such a structure, part of an organization continues to operate hierarchically oriented organization while another segment of the organization is created which bases its operation on a more metamotivationally oriented model. This part of the organization would likely focus on such areas as policy formulation, research and development, innovative action programs, etc.

 A regearing for or growth toward the assumptions which inform the metamotivational model requires astute guidance and vision on the part of at least a few individuals (25). This observation is based on ordinary common sense. In order for a person to find his way to a place he has never been before, it is necessary for him to have a guide or a map or at least some idea of where it is that he is going and some notion of how it is that he is going to get there (26). It is no less important in undertaking the transformation of an organization (and to some extent the transformation of the lives of all who influence it and are influenced by it)‚ to have some idea what such a transformation entails, what the result will look like. Gardner (1965) tells an anecdote which helps to illustrate the importance of vision as it relates to the leader, the innovator, the transformer:

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25: As in any situation involving organizational change, it is important that the agents of change consider the underlying psychodynamics of the situation and approach the change-over process with an interdisciplinary approach which comprehends the unique characteristics of the organization, external as well as internal forces and potentials. Friedman (1968) writes of the need for innovative social planners "to arrive at a deep and comprehensive understanding of the structure and internal dynamics of a given social system, (while) also defin(ing) the end of system transformation" (p. 239).

26: The importance of establishing objectives and acting with these objectives in mind is pointed out by Feinberg (1968). Also, apropos this point Gardner (October 1965) writes, "(A)lmost every well-established organization is a coral reef of procedures that were laid down to achieve some long-forgotten objective".

(T)he leader must in some measure emulate the little girl who told the teacher she was going to draw a picture of God. The teacher said, “But, Mary, no one knows what God looks like”. And Mary said, ‘They will when I get through" (p. 6).

**VI. THE POTENTIAL OF THE TASK-ORIENTED WORK GROUP**

 The task-oriented work group can perform a most important function at this time in history. More than ever before, organizational structures and models are needed which are capable of adapting to a rapidly changing environment. The task-oriented work group can provide the kind of "adaptive, rapidly changing temporary system" (Bennis and Slater, 1968, p. 98) which seems to be most ideally suited to meeting the needs of the times.

 Task-oriented work groups have the distinct advantage of being able to spring up freely and informally when and where they are needed. They may also be formally constituted. They may be set up within the context of highly structured governmental organizations as well. Their memberships may also be drawn from both the private and the public sectors, combining persons from various levels of government with those who may represent private organizations. A task-oriented work group can just as well be composed of individuals whose common bond is their desire to do something to enhance a situation, to do something to improve the quality of life, etc. with little or no emphasis being given to their other organizational ties and commitments. In this way, the task-oriented work group can be seen as having a potential role to play at every conceivable governmental and societal level.

 Gardner (1965) acknowledges the need on the part of society "to create better channels of communication among significant leadership groups, especially in connection with the great issues that transcend any particular group" (pp. 5-6). Hopefully, leaders from various sectors of society can be brought together in an effort to better focus on problems which confront all of society. Such concerted efforts would help focus attention and energies on actually doing something to solve human problems.

 It is especially crucial to the future of mankind that such an orientation to human problems be encouraged and that human energies and resources begin to be directed in a more salutary way toward the end of solving human problems and substantially rectifying the conditions which threaten to lead to social chaos. Piecemeal attempts to manage symptoms cannot hope to have a significant and long-lasting effect. The concerted efforts of the most insightful and resourceful individuals are what the situation presently calls for.

 Those who would participate in such efforts, those who would guide or spur others on to these ends, must personally rise to the challenge of complexity. Persons with courage, perseverance, "a disciplined openness of mind" (Acheson, 1958), and insight‚ who are also competent and skilled in other ways‚ need to be encouraged to join with others in concerted efforts to apply their insight and knowledge, their talents and skills, to the solving of social problems.

 There are numerous forces and trends operating in society which would work against such efforts. A most important one has been the failure on the part of society to train self-reliant and responsible persons capable of handling complex problems from beginning to end. Too few have been adequately prepared to develop and implement workable plans and policies. Few have been trained or are motivated to actually do something about themes pressing social problems. There has been wide-spread failure to assume responsibility for actions, to act in socially responsible ways. The result has been a garbling and diffusion of goals, values and objectives, which has left society with a serious vacuum in leadership.

 In order to help alleviate the shortage of leaders, the academic world needs to turn its attention to the development of leaders. Gardner (1965) makes some particularly pertinent observations along these lines, " (T)he academic world appears to be approaching a point at which everyone will want to educate the leader himself " (pp. 8-9).

 One way of facilitating a much-needed change in emphasis would be to bring experienced leaders into the classroom, particularly at the university level -- to share their experience and hopefully to inspire others to develop whatever potential they may have to assume roles requiring leadership behavior. Another way would be to provide for internships in leadership roles or for apprenticeships in which firsthand knowledge of leadership behavior could be obtained.

 There also exists a great need for students to be inspired to rise to the challenge of astounding roles of leadership in society, to have their talents nurtured through encouragement and able guidance. The great sense of pessimism and cynicism about accomplishing anything of lasting social value, must be supplanted with a sense of hopefulness, rooted in the belief that man can rise to these challenges if he will only will to do so (27).

 Certainly, it is essential that students be given a sound theoretical basis for understanding organization and administration strategies for organizational change and for social development,

as well as for understanding the dynamically changing character of social and cultural life. This

27: Along these lines Gardner (1965) has humorously observed that "(a)nyone who accomplishes anything of significance today has more confidence than the facts would justify" (p. 6).

would seem to be essential if they are to grasp the importance of service, the importance of applying their energies to enhancing the quality of human life for the benefit of all. It is essential that students also be trained in conceiving and articulating goals, as well as in implementing them.

 Such training and preparation can also take the form of retraining and development among those who are already actively engaged in government or among those engaged in a myriad of other social roles requiring and calling for leadership behavior (28).

**CONCLUSION**

 The task-oriented work group can play an instrumental role in channeling human energies and resources in such a way that the best interests of society will be served by providing an expedient, as well as a human means, of coalescing individual and organizational energies and resources. Such work groups can provide a means of facilitating growth, as well as enhancing the quality of human life, while creating a more viable society. Task-oriented work groups can serve as "islands of stability and flexibility" in the turbulent environment in which we live today. In light of the historical development of organizational behavior in the United States and in light of present social and cultural realities, the task-oriented work group would seem to be a most ideal vehicle for planning and implementing social change while providing an ideal means of realizing human potential.

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28: The Federal Executive Seminar Center programs are an example of what is being done at a Federal level of government to better equip those who presently hold middle management positions for their probable rise to higher management levels. Retraining and redevelopment programs such as these are being contemplated which will cover individuals at other levels of government as well.

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