

**"MANAGERS' COGNITIVE MAPS FOR UPWARD
AND DOWNWARD RELATIONSHIPS"**

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ABSTRACT

The study reported in this article attempts to expand our understanding of the dual role of managers as superiors and as subordinates and to shed some new light on the unexplored territory of managerial subordinacy.

Two independent and matched samples of managers were surveyed respectively as "superiors" and as "subordinates" and asked to report the most important things they take into account when relating respectively downwards and upwards.

Responses from the two samples were analyzed and compared for their formal and content characteristics. The results indicate that managers use substantially different cognitive maps for relating upwards and downwards. Upward relationships tap a broader, more differentiated and more complex cognitive field than downward relationships do. Differences in cognitive coverage are spelled out and interpreted from a power dynamics point of view.

Arguments are made for inviting more explicit research attention on upward relationships in organizations.

MANAGERS' COGNITIVE MAPS FOR UPWARD AND DOWNWARD

RELATIONSHIPS

As it has been noted repeatedly (Frew 1977; Laurent 1978; Lippit 1982; Wortman 1982) the management literature has devoted very little attention to managerial subordinacy. With a few exceptions (Zaleznik 1965; Crowe et al. 1972; Stinson and Robertson 1973; Neilsen and Gypen 1979; Gabarro and Kotter 1980; Pearce 1982; Heller and Van Til 1982) the main focus has been given to the leadership aspects of the managerial role. Although leadership loses its essence in the absence of followership, the latter has been mostly overlooked or taken for granted.

The dual role of managers as superiors and as subordinates in organizational hierarchies has received even less explicit research attention, although the "person in the middle" syndrome has been identified as an important source of role conflict and ambiguity (Roethlisberger 1945; Kahn et al. 1964; Uytterhoven 1972).

As long as organizations are structured according to the vertical principle of a formal hierarchy of authority, the reality of most managers' jobs will require them to

act in both capacities as superiors and as subordinates. Yet the management literature does not say much about this important aspect of organizational life.

It is the purpose of the research reported in this article to contribute to a better understanding of the dual role of managers as superiors and as subordinates. More specifically, this study investigates and compares the cognitive principles that seem to govern the upward and downward relationships of managers in organizations.

Research Design and Methodology

Implicitly or explicitly, managers have to make certain choices on how to relate to their hierarchical superiors and subordinates. If we want to understand the dynamics of these choices, it becomes important to explore first the various dimensions that managers take into account in relating to their hierarchical partners. What is it that they pay attention to in managing hierarchical relationships upward and downward? What are the elements that constitute their field of consciousness? What are the similarities and differences in the cognitive maps that superiors and subordinates use when relating to each other? What are their respective concerns in the relationship?

Such questions are complex and probably require multiple methods of inquiry. On the other hand, one can argue that some of the complexity may lie in the eyes of the beholder. Individual managers have accumulated a wealth of experience on how they relate to their bosses and subordinates. For the purpose of mapping the variables at play, we felt that such experiences could be tapped rather directly by simply asking managers what they take into account in those relationships. While one individual would only describe elements of his/her own idiosyncratic cognitive map, the analysis of a large enough number of individual maps might elicit patterns that would lead to the construction of a meaningful aggregate map.

Our research concern at this stage is not to describe or compare how managers actually relate to their bosses and subordinates, it is rather to ascertain the cognitive frame of reference that they use in approaching such relationships.

Given the personalized and emotional context of hierarchical relationships, we also felt that an open-ended and anonymous type of inquiry would produce a more exhaustive inventory of variables than alternative methods of data collection.

For these and other practical reasons, a short written questionnaire was designed in such a way as to only include open-ended questions that would be as unobstrusive as possible.

In view of the interdependent dynamics of upward and downward relationships, it was felt that asking the same individuals about both might introduce unnecessary contamination and uncontrollable biases in the data at this exploratory stage. Thus two parallel questionnaires were designed and administered to two independent and matched groups of respondents. One group of managers was approached as "Superiors" and asked about their relationship with their subordinates, while the other group was approached as "Subordinates" and asked about their relationship with their superiors. The two questionnaire versions were strictly identical except for the alternate use of the words "boss" and "subordinates" in the questions.

The questionnaire was made of ten open-ended questions intended to explore various facets of hierarchical relationships. The present article reports findings obtained from the first question that read as follows:

"When you have to choose how to relate to your

boss/subordinates (depending upon the version used), what are the most important things that you take into account?"

The respondents were an overall group of 116 male upper-middle managers participating in a four-week Advanced Management Program at INSEAD, the European Institute of Business Administration. They represented a wide variety of countries, companies and professional responsibilities.

The cultural, organizational and professional heterogeneity of the sample was seen as an asset given the exploratory nature of the study.

For teaching purpose, the overall group of 116 managers was divided into two parallel and carefully matched sections of respectively 60 and 56 individuals. While the group of 60 was approached as "superiors" and given the "superior" questionnaire focusing on downward relationships, the group of 56 was approached as "subordinates" and received the "subordinate" questionnaire inquiring into upward relationships.

The study was designed in order to compare the experience of managers as superiors and as subordinates and to

analyze comparatively their cognitive maps in downward and upward relationships.

Data Analysis

Responses to the above-mentioned question were analyzed for both their formal characteristics (number of discrete items reported, number of words used, number of content categories covered) and their content characteristics.

Content analysis yielded four main categories of information which were labelled as follows:

- A Concern for the other person
- B Concern for self
- C Concern for the interaction itself
- D Concern for the task

Finer analysis of items belonging to these broad categories led to the following content sub-categories:

- A Concern for the other person was divided into:
 - 1. "Affective" characteristics of the other person at work that included: the other person's stylistic preferences (how he/she

likes to work), personal circumstances and emotional states, potential reactions and expectations.

2. "Resource" characteristics of the other person at work that included: personality, skills and strengths, objectives and motives, work performance and work motivation.

B Concern for self could also be analyzed according to the above sub-categories.

C Concern for the interaction was subdivided into three sub-categories:

1. concern for the desired or ideal relationship.

2. concern for the existing relationship.

3. degree of match between the parties.

D Concern for the task was differentiated into:

1. concern for the nature of the task.

2. concern for the context or circumstances of the task.

Two main quantitative parameters were later used to account for the data:

- the percent number of individuals reporting items from each category.
- the percent number of reported items belonging to each category.

Thus both the individual respondents and the discrete reported items were used as units of analysis.

The next section of this article describes the main findings derived from a systematic comparison of responses obtained from the "superiors" and "subordinates" samples. Throughout the text, managers who were given the "subordinate" questionnaire will be referred to as "subordinates". Managers who received the "superior" questionnaire will be called "superiors".

Findings and Discussion

1. Upward relationships tap a broader, richer and more differentiated cognitive field than downward relationships. Managerial subordinates use more complex cognitive maps to relate to their superiors than superiors do to relate to their subordinates. Subordinates adopt a more contingent approach to the relationship.

As indicated in Table 1, managers report taking more variables into account when making choices on how to relate to their bosses than they do when choosing how to relate to their subordinates. On average, "subordinates" reported 6.1 discrete items of information in response to the question as opposed to 4.6 items for the "superiors" (one-third more). The range of reported items was also broader: 2-16 for subordinates as opposed to 1-10 for superiors (one-half broader).

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Not only do subordinates pay attention to more

parameters, but they also use more words to describe their experience than superiors do. While superiors used 19.6 words on average to respond to the question, subordinates used 32.5 (an excess of two thirds). The higher loquacity of the subordinates was also reflected by a larger number of words used per reported item (5.3 versus 4.3 for superiors).

Subordinates do not only say more and talk more than superiors about their hierarchical relationship, they also cover a larger field of content in what they say. While superiors' responses only covered on average 1.7 broad content categories and 2.8 subcategories, subordinates' responses respectively covered 2.3 and 4.1.

Thus, analysis of the formal characteristics of responses seems to indicate that managers pay more careful attention and devote a higher cognitive investment to their upward relationships in organizations than to their downward relationships. Upward relationships seem to involve a higher degree of cognitive complexity and to require a more contingent assessment of the variables at play.

A potential interpretation of this finding could be that it only reflects the structural reality of hierarchical

organizations whereby managers have usually less superiors than subordinates to relate with. Thus, they can afford to spend more time figuring out how to relate to their specific boss while they could not possibly afford to spend as much time on each of their subordinates. From that point of view, upward relationships would be less susceptible to the law of averages and, therefore, potentially richer, more personalized and cognitively more differentiated than downward relationships.

However, the same type of argument could lead to the opposite conclusion. As managers usually have to relate directly with more individuals downward than upward, the leadership task is likely to be more complex and to require more attention. Managers may also feel more responsible for their downward relationships by virtue of their formal authority. Thus, relationships with subordinates would require a higher cognitive investment.

This second interpretation is not supported by the data. It may be that formal authority and responsibility have some anesthetic effect on the cognitive assessment of relationships in organizations, whereas the experience of dependency triggers a higher degree of cognitive activity as a protective device.

In any case, it is interesting to observe that in spite of the proliferation of contingency approaches to leadership and of the paucity of normative prescriptions about subordinacy, managers actually exhibit a much more contingent approach to their roles as subordinates.

2. Characteristics of the other person represent an important concern in both upward and downward relationships. However, the concern is more acute in upward relationships.

As one could expect, as superiors and as subordinates, managers pay a high degree of attention to the other party in the hierarchical relationship. Items mentioning some characteristics of the other person accounted for 40 percent of the total number of items reported by superiors and for 44 percent of those reported by subordinates (Table 2). In both cases, who the other person is matters significantly for decisions on how to relate to that other person.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

This concern for the other person was found to be even

more acute in the case of subordinates. Eighty-two percent of them reported one or more items showing such concern, while only 63 percent of the superiors did. To a certain extent, upward relationships are more personalized than downward relationships. They seem to be more frequently governed by a careful assessment of the target person.

Again, it may be postulated that the singularity of upward relationships facilitates more concentration on the target person whereas the multiplicity of downward relationships may diffuse such attention. It may also be that by virtue of the dependent role, the subordinate makes a more careful assessment of his superior, as suggested earlier, while by virtue of his formal authority the superior may bother less about such assessment of subordinates.

3. Concern for the other person is of a different nature in upward and downward relationships. While subordinates are primarily concerned with what superiors like or dislike, superiors are more concerned with their subordinates' overall capabilities to contribute.

A finer analysis of those items classified as "characteristics of the other person" shows that managers

pay attention to very different things in the other person when assuming their role as superiors or as subordinates.

As presented in Table 3, the main emphasis of subordinates is to assess their superiors' stylistic preferences (how they like to work), personal circumstances and emotional state, potential reactions and expectations. These subtle "affective" characteristics of the other person at work account for 67 percent of the subordinates' attention to their superiors (as opposed to only 28 percent of the superiors' attention to their subordinates). Superiors, on the other hand, focus their attention on their subordinates' personality, skills and strengths, objectives and motives, work performance and motivation. These more straightforward "resource" characteristics of the other person at work account for 72 percent of the superiors' attention to their subordinates (as opposed to only 33 percent of the subordinates' attention to their superiors).

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Subordinates are concerned with facets of their superiors that are likely to directly affect the harmony of the relationship: what do superiors like, prefer, feel, expect? They focus their attention on somewhat softer parameters. They engage in a subtle assessment of subjective probabilities.

Superiors seem to attempt a more objective assessment of parameters that are more independent from the interaction and more directly related to the subordinate's capabilities to contribute.

Although both parties pay careful attention to each other, each party looks for different things in the other.

The different nature of the concern for the other person in upward and downward relationships probably reflects the power differential between the two partners. While superiors seem to assess subordinates as resources to be used in the organizational process, subordinates try to figure out how to avoid upsetting their superiors' preferences and expectations.

4. In downward relationships, managers do not explicitly take into account their own personal characteristics.

They do it to a much larger extent in upward relationships.

As indicated in Table 4, superiors demonstrated very little concern for taking into account their own personal characteristics when deciding how to relate to their subordinates. Their own personality, objectives and motives, skills, preferences, etc., do not seem to matter here according to their responses. Only 4 percent of their reported items fell into that category and only 13 percent of the superiors expressed any personal concern of that type.

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

Subordinates present quite a contrasting picture in this respect. Sixty-one percent of them reported paying explicit attention to their own needs, motives, preferences, emotional characteristics, etc., in relating to their superiors. Such items represented 19 percent of all their reported items.

In spite of the common understanding that leadership has to do with some expression of one's own personality and

style and some fulfillment of one's own psychological needs, this does not seem to reach a state of explicit awareness in the cognitive map of managers as leaders. Superiors take themselves for granted. They do not report their own characteristics (needs, expectations, styles, etc.) as important things taken into account in relating with their subordinates.

Subordinates apparently cannot afford to take their own characteristics for granted in relating to their bosses. They make a more systematic assessment of all variables involved, including themselves.

This perceptual contrast can probably be interpreted again as a result of the experienced differential in position power within the hierarchical ladder. Comforted by the power attached to their position, superiors neglect to perceive and report their own impact on the relationship. They feel entitled to objectively assess the relationship while forgetting and overlooking the fact that they are themselves part of the picture. In some way the experience of power may make managers blind to the most obvious.

The subordinate's position seems to provide managers with a more comprehensive and realistic evaluation of

variables at play in the relationship. Subordinates may have to struggle in order to make sure that some of their needs are taken into account, whereas superiors can probably afford to act their needs out and get them fulfilled by others quite unconsciously.

5. Characteristics of the interaction between the parties appear as an important concern in both upward and downward relationships. However, this concern is more acute in the minds of the superiors.

As expected from the very nature of the question raised, both superiors and subordinates report paying substantial attention to the interaction that develops between them. Table 5 shows that 63 percent of the superiors and 54 percent of the subordinates do report taking explicitly into account the quality of their relationship.

INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE

This concern, however, occupies a larger space in the cognitive map of superiors. Items directly related to the nature of the interaction account for 43 percent of all reported items by superiors and for only 28 percent

of those reported by subordinates.

It is probable that managers feel more formally responsible for the quality of their downward relationships than they do for the quality of their upward relationships. The task of management is often described as one of achieving things through other people. The superiors' responses seem to reflect this state of affairs.

6. Concern for the interaction is of a different nature in upward and downward relationships. While superiors focus their attention almost exclusively on broad characteristics of the desired or ideal relationship, subordinates extend their worries to the quality of the existing relationship and they are particularly sensitive to the degree of match between themselves and their superiors.

As apparent from Table 6, superiors and subordinates demonstrate a fairly different structure of concern for the nature of their interaction. Superiors exhibit a more normative stand. They are almost exclusively interested in what the relationship should be and they describe that ideal in general terms (openness, trust, loyalty, transparency...etc.) Ninety-two percent of what

superiors say about the interaction has to do with desired characteristics of the relationship, while the corresponding figure for subordinates is only 41 percent.

INSERT TABLE 6 ABOUT HERE

While subordinates do express some concern for the ideal relationship, they demonstrate again a far more differentiated view of the interaction. They appear to be less caught into principles than the superiors and they engage into a more empirical and comprehensive assessment of the interpersonal situation.

Subordinates report taking into account to a much higher degree than superiors do the quality of the existing relationship (25 percent of their focus on interaction is invested in this as opposed to 5 percent for superiors).

Another feature that clearly differentiates the subordinates' perception is their acute concern for the degree of match between themselves and their superiors. Thirty-four percent of their reported items on interaction reflect this concern as opposed to only 3 percent for the superiors. Complementarity of skills,

objectives and motives, matching styles and personalities appear as important ingredients of effective interaction from the point of view of the subordinates. Superiors do not explicitly care for that. Subordinates compare themselves with superiors and assess the degree of harmony. This is highly consistent with the former finding that indicated their high degree of sensitivity to their superiors' stylistic preferences, emotional states, personal circumstances, expectations and potential reactions. The good "interpersonal chemistry" of the relationship is experienced by subordinates as a particularly critical prerequisite for an effective interaction.

The dynamics of subordinacy appears to be governed by complex patterns of defensive adjustment grounded in the empirical assessment of compatibility with the leadership features of the authority figure. In comparison, the dynamics of leadership appears much simpler and looks almost like a vacation time for managers to recover from their exhausting cognitive and affective experience as subordinates. As superiors, managers seem to be able to borrow neat principles from the abundant leadership literature and their discourse has tones of "motherhood and apple-pie". As subordinates, on the other hand, they have to laboriously invent their own theories out of a

careful field investigation that does not lend itself so easily to generalization.

7. Concern for the task appears as a parameter of equal and moderate importance in both upward and downward relationships.

When deciding how to relate to each other, superiors and subordinates pay some attention to the task at hand. However, the degree of attention is rather limited. As indicated in Table 7, only a good third of superiors (35 percent) and of subordinates (36 percent) report paying attention to such a parameter and it occupies only respectively 13 percent and 9 percent of their overall concern for what governs the relationship.

INSERT TABLE 7 ABOUT HERE

This low concern for the task may seem surprising given the fact that hierarchical relationships tend to develop around sets of tasks to be achieved. It may be that the cognitive and affective complexity of human relationships takes over the more mundane and down-to-earth task considerations which could otherwise be expected to have

centrality in work organizations. It may also be that the phrasing of the question was naturally calling for comments on personal and interpersonal components of the choice process.

In any case, it becomes quite apparent from these findings that rational treatments of organizations can only account for a very small portion of the variance in behavior.

The classical differentiation between task and relationship orientation in popular leadership models (Blake and Mouton 1964) may be misleading in implicitly suggesting a theoretically equal potential contribution of each orientation.

8. The nature of the task concerns is different in upward and downward relationships. While superiors tend to pay more attention to how the nature of the task may affect the relationship, subordinates tend to pay more attention to the impact of the context of the task on the relationship.

While only 14 percent of the subordinates mention the nature of the task as an important parameter, 33 percent of the superiors do. Conversely, 27 percent of the

subordinates report some concern for the context of the task as against 15 percent only of the superiors.

Table 8 illustrates the same finding from the point of view of the distribution of reported items across the two sub-categories. Nature of the task accounts for respectively 64 percent and 41 percent of the superiors and subordinates' task concerns. The corresponding figures for the context of the task are 36 percent and 59 percent.

INSERT TABLE 8 ABOUT HERE

Superiors exhibit a more matter-of-fact attitude when assessing the impact of the task on their downward relationships: what needs to be done is what matters for them. This does not come as a surprise given their accountability for results. Subordinates show more sensitivity to the context or circumstances surrounding the task.

This may suggest that when superiors think in terms of task strategy, their subordinates reason in terms of task tactics.

The recurring pattern seems to be that managers use different cognitive frameworks to assess organizational reality depending upon whether they wear the master or the servant hat.

9. Upward and downward relationships seem to be governed by substantially different cognitive maps. Managers seem to live in different universes when they move from the superior to the subordinate role. The common cognitive ground is rather limited between superiors and subordinates. Upward relationships exhibit far more complexity than downward relationships through a wider cognitive coverage.

Figure 1 provides a summary overview of the most important things that managers report taking into account when they have to choose how to relate to their superiors and to their subordinates.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

The major concerns for superiors and for subordinates included in Figure 1 regroup almost two-thirds of all reported items by each party, as indicated by the

cumulative percentages of reported items (63 percent for superiors, 65 percent for subordinates). More than 95 percent of the respondents from each side reported one or more of the items included in the list, which makes it quite representative of the overall reported content.

A quick survey of Figure 1 highlights the evidence that subordinates are cognitively busy with twice as many concerns about the hierarchical relationship as superiors are. While the major concerns of superiors can be conceptualized into four of the content sub-categories, those of subordinates require eight such categories.

Subordinates' major concerns appear to be not only more numerous and diversified but also substantially different from those of superiors. Only the desired state of the relationship and the other person's personality represent common concerns for both parties. Aside from this commonality, it can be said that when superiors take into account their two remaining major concerns, namely, nature of the task and subordinates' skills and strengths, subordinates are busy taking into account their superiors' stylistic preferences, the degree of match between the parties, their superiors' personal circumstances and emotional states, the state of their existing relationship, the context of the task and their

own objectives and motives.

Once again, the task of subordinacy appears far more complex than the task of leadership from the point of view of the number of parameters that managers report taking into account.

This complexity of cognitive experience may be another reason for the lack of any systematic treatment of managerial subordinacy in the literature.

Conclusion

A comparative inquiry into managerial upward and downward relationships reveals a substantially different structure of concerns in the cognitive maps that guide such relationships. This article has attempted to describe those differences and, in so doing, to shed some new light on managerial subordinacy.

The dual role of managers as superiors and as subordinates seems to tap different cognitive fields as the actors shift from one role to the other.

The two faces of the "Janus head" (Koestler 1967) do not merely look into two different directions. They also

look differently and for different things in the two directions.

Although overlooked, under-researched and ill-understood, such differences are not surprising. They can be interpreted to a large extent as a reflection of the power differential between the parties involved within the hierarchy. The power structure that differentiates the roles of managers as superiors and as subordinates seems to be shaping their cognitive mapping of variables at play in the relationship.

What stands out even more vividly from this study is a confirmation of the extent of our ignorance about managerial subordinacy and upward relationships, in spite of their obvious salience in organizations. A simple and straightforward question asking managers just what they take into account in relating to their bosses (and subordinates) yields precious information that could not have been so easily guessed or formally hypothesized on the basis of existing knowledge. The prevalent one-sided top-down view of organizations seems to have prevented researchers from doing some of the most basic inquiries into organizational relationships.

While upward influence may be recognized as an important

source of power in organizations (Pelz 1952), its effective use is likely to be hindered by our deep ignorance of what upward relationships really entail. The knowledge base is not there.

Conversely, we could expect that the more traditional interest in leadership and downward influence would be enlightened by a better understanding of the subordinates' state of mind in looking upward.

The pervasive and often related behavioral and emotional difficulties surrounding hierarchical relationships (Hall 1974) are probably not independent from the state of ignorance that plagues the upward element of such relationships.

Finally, many of the problems that managers and organizations encounter when attempting to slightly move away from the traditional hierarchical models of organizations may also be related to our deep lack of understanding of the very ways in which organizational hierarchies function in the first place. Ignorance may feed mythical thinking and it may be that hierarchical forms of organizations are maintained and perpetuated more by magics than by any form of human choice and purposeful design. Heterarchical organizations (Hedlund

1986) may not be for tomorrow yet.

The findings of this study highlight once more the need for investing more research effort into the overlooked phenomenon of managerial subordinacy as an eye-opening venture in the dynamics of organizations.

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	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES (N = 60)	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES (N = 56)	% DEVIATION OF SUBORDINATES' SCORES OVER SUPERIORS' SCORES
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
AVERAGE NUMBER OF REPORTED ITEMS PER INDIVIDUAL	4.6	6.1	+ 33%
RANGE OF REPORTED ITEMS ACROSS INDIVIDUALS	1 - 10	2 - 16	+ 50%
AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORDS USED PER INDIVIDUAL	19.6	32.5	+ 66%
AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORDS USED PER REPORTED ITEM	4.3	5.3	+ 26%
AVERAGE NUMBER OF BROAD CONTENT CATEGORIES COVERED PER INDIVIDUAL	1.7	2.3	+ 35%
AVERAGE NUMBER OF CONTENT SUBCATEGORIES COVERED PER INDIVIDUAL	2.8	4.1	+ 46%

TABLE 1 - FORMAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONSES

	SUPERIORS ' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES ' RESPONSES
	<hr/>	<hr/>
% NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR THE OTHER PERSON	40	44
% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING ONE OR MORE ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR THE OTHER PERSON	63	82

TABLE 2 - EXTENT OF CONCERN FOR THE OTHER PERSON

% NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR:	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES
	<hr/>	<hr/>
"AFFECTIVE" CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OTHER PERSON		
(i.e., stylistic preferences, personal circumstances and emotional state, potential reactions and expectations)	28	67
"RESOURCE" CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OTHER PERSON		
(i.e., personality, skills and strengths, objectives and motives, work performance, work motivation)	72	33

TABLE 3 - NATURE OF THE CONCERN FOR THE OTHER PERSON

	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES
	<hr/>	<hr/>
% NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR SELF	4	19
% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING ONE OR MORE ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR SELF	13	61

TABLE 4 - EXTENT OF CONCERN FOR SELF

	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES
	-----	-----
% NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING EXPLICIT CONCERN FOR THE INTERACTION	43	28
% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING ONE OR MORE ITEMS SHOWING EXPLICIT CONCERN FOR THE INTERACTION	63	54

TABLE 5 - EXTENT OF CONCERN FOR THE INTERACTION

	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES
	<hr/>	<hr/>
‡ NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR:		
THE DESIRED RELATIONSHIP	92	41
THE EXISTING RELATIONSHIP	5	25
THE DEGREE OF MATCH BETWEEN THE PARTIES	3	34

TABLE 6 - NATURE OF THE CONCERN FOR THE INTERACTION

	SUPERIORS' RESPONSES	SUBORDINATES' RESPONSES
	<hr/>	<hr/>
% NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR THE TASK	13	9
% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING ONE OR MORE ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR THE TASK	35	36

TABLE 7 - EXTENT OF CONCERN FOR THE TASK

SUPERIORS'
RESPONSES

SUBORDINATES'
RESPONSES

2 NUMBER OF ITEMS SHOWING CONCERN FOR:

THE NATURE OF THE TASK

64

41

THE CONTEXT OF THE TASK

36

59

TABLE 8 - NATURE OF THE CONCERN FOR THE TASK

*
MAJOR CONCERNS EXPRESSED BY :

<u>CONCERNS</u>	<u>SUPERIORS</u>			<u>SUBORDINATES</u>			
	% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING SUCH CONCERN	% NUMBER OF ITEMS EXPRESSING SUCH CONCERN	CUMULATIVE % NUMBER OF ITEMS	<u>CONCERNS</u>	% NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REPORTING SUCH CONCERN	% NUMBER OF ITEMS EXPRESSING SUCH CONCERN	CUMULATIVE % NUMBER OF ITEMS
DESIRED RELATIONSHIP	58	39	39	STYLISTIC PREFERENCES OF SUPERIOR	39	13	13
				DESIRED RELATIONSHIP	29	11	24
				DEGREE OF MATCH	32	9	33
				SUPERIOR'S PERSONAL CIRCUMSTANCES & EMOTIONAL STATE	29	9	42
NATURE OF THE TASK	33	8	47	EXISTING RELATIONSHIP	27	7	49
SUBORDINATES' PERSONALITY	30	8	55	CONTEXT OF TASK	27	6	55
SUBORDINATES' SKILLS AND STRENGTHS	23	8	63	SUPERIOR'S PERSONALITY	25	5	60
				OWN OBJECTIVES & MOTIVES	25	5	65

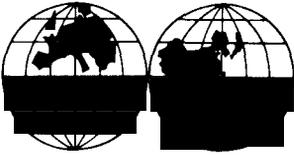
FIGURE 1 - SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR CONCERNS EXPRESSED BY SUPERIORS AND SUBORDINATES WHEN CHOOSING HOW TO RELATE TO EACH OTHER

* The physical space allotted to each concern in this figure is meant to reflect the cognitive space occupied by each concern (as measured by the percent number of reported items expressing every concern).

1984			85/04	Philippe A. NAERT and Marcel WEVERBERGH	"Market share specification, estimation and validation: towards reconciling seemingly divergent views" .
84/01	Arnoud DE MEYER	"A technological life-cycle to the organisational factors determining gatekeeper activities" , November 1983.	85/05	Ahmet AYKAC, Marcel CORSTJENS, David GAUTSCHI and Ira HOROWITZ	"Estimation uncertainty and optimal advertising decisions", Second draft, April 1985.
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84/08	Gabriel A. HAWAWINI, Pierre MICHEL and Claude J. VIALLET	"Risk, Return and equilibrium of the NYSE: update, robustness of results and extensions" December 1983.	85/12	Arnoud DE MEYER	"Defining a manufacturing strategy - a survey of European manufacturers".
84/09	Gabriel A. HAWAWINI, Claude J. VIALLET and Ashok VORA	"Industry influence on firm's investment in working capital: theory and evidence", January 1984.	85/13	Arnoud DE MEYER	"Large European manufacturers and the management of R & D".
84/10	Gabriel A. HAWAWINI and Pierre A. MICHEL	"Impact of the Belgian Financial Reporting Act of 1976 on the systematic risk of common stocks", January 1984.	85/14	Ahmet AYKAC, Marcel CORSTJENS, David GAUTSCHI and Douglas L. MacLACHLAN	"The advertising-sales relationship in the U.S. cigarette industry: a comparison of correlational and causality testing approaches".
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84/13	Arnoud DE MEYER and Kasra FERDOWS	"Integration of information systems in manufacturing", December 1984.	85/17	Manfred F.R. KETS DE VRIES and Danny MILLER	"Personality, culture and organization".
1985			85/18	Manfred F.R. KETS DE VRIES	"The darker side of entrepreneurship".
85/01	Jean DERMINE	"The measurement of interest rate risk by financial intermediaries", December 1983, Revised December 1984.	85/19	Manfred F.R. KETS DE VRIES and Dany MILLER	"Narcissism and leadership: an object relations perspective".
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