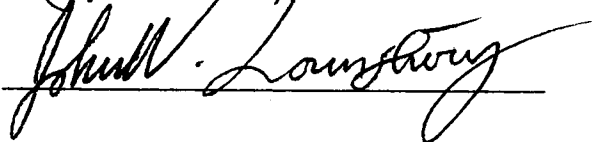


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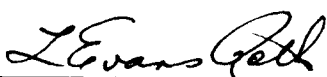
I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Dorothy Ann Cosby entitled "Effects of Language Style and Functional Behavior on Perceived Leader Effectiveness." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.


Eric D. Sundstrom
Major Professor

We have read this thesis and
recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:


Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

EFFECTS OF LANGUAGE STYLE AND FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR
ON PERCEIVED LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
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Dorothy Ann Cosby

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DEDICATION

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to my mother, Louise Brunson Cosby, who always believes in me, and to Teresa C. Williams, who encourages me to believe in myself.

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ABSTRACT

The effects of functional versus nonfunctional behavior and the use of powerful versus nonpowerful language style on the perceived effectiveness of leaders were investigated in a sample of 97 undergraduate students consisting of sixteen five- to seven-person groups. It was predicted that a powerful language style would result in the leader being rated as effective by members, especially when the leader's task behaviors were functional. Results suggested that functional task behaviors led to ratings of greater effectiveness than nonfunctional behavior, but language style had no effects.

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INTRODUCTION

The importance of communication cannot be overstated. Attributes about a person are made from just hearing the person speak. Personality characteristics such as leadership have been judged with at least modest success from voices alone (Fay and Middleton, 1943). The message is not the only information gleaned from hearing a person speak. Vividness, originality of expression, and facility of conversation are associated with successful social relationships (Hovland, Janis and Kelley, 1953; Stogdill, 1974).

Many groups operate in terms of verbal communication. Stogdill (1974) states that it has long been recognized that effective leadership can not be maintained in an organization without an adequate system of intercommunication. Considering this, it is not unexpected that many studies point up verbal effectiveness as an attribute of those who are leaders (Hollander, 1964). Too, some of the most searching studies of leadership have revealed the capacity for ready communication as one of the skills associated with leadership status. In a review of leadership literature published prior to 1970 Stogdill (1974) reported several studies correlating verbal ability with the capacity to influence others. He found fifteen studies with positive findings in this area. There were no reports published with negative results.

This study proceeds from the premise that three aspects of the leader's communications should be considered: (1) the amount of verbal communication; (2) the topic of the communication; and (3) the style of verbal presentation. This study's major purpose is to explore the effect of language style on the group members' perceptions of the leader's effectiveness.

CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW

Jones and Gerard (1967) reported that rate of participation regardless of its quality or the way it was presented was the best index of leadership for group members. Other researchers (Bass, 1949; Kirscht, Lodahl & Haire, 1959; Stein & Heller, 1979; Stogdill, 1974) also supported the conclusion that the member who participates most actively in group activities is most likely to emerge as leader. Stein and Heller uncovered 77 correlations between verbal participation rates and leadership status. Of these only four had negative correlations. It is unlikely that a low initial participator will ever become the task leader simply because the eventual leader must participate enough to have his abilities validated and his suggestions accepted (Jones & Gerard, 1967).

Morris and Hackman (1969) took the acceptability of statements into consideration when they stated that leaders and nonleaders should be distinguishable on the basis of what they say in addition to how much they say. Bass (1949), too, thought leadership and participation to be functions of the performance of group functions. As Morris and Hackman found, task leaders tend to emphasize facilitative activities and deemphasize detrimental activities and

that high participation is not a sufficient condition for leadership. Functional or facilitative behaviors have been defined by Cartwright and Zander (1968) as those behaviors instrumental to goal attainment or that serve to maintain a group.

Lord, Binning, Rush and Thomas (1978) manipulated leader behavior by having subjects view a videotape of a problem-solving group in which the leader exhibited either many or few initiating structure behaviors. The subjects then completed a leadership questionnaire with an initiating structure scale. This manipulation was significant at $p < .001$ and explained 53% of the variance in initiating structure ratings. In an earlier study Lord (1977) found that about one-third of the variance in leadership perceptions could be predicted from functional behavior. His findings suggested that the subjects in his study were basing their perceptions on the simple evaluation criteria of total functional behavior. He measured task related functional behavior as developing plans, proposing solutions, initiating behavior, coordinating or directing behavior, providing resources, facilitating evaluation and analysis, facilitating information exchange, and defining the problem. It has been clearly indicated in studies of the performance of specific behaviors that leaders do perform more task-related behaviors than do nonleaders.

Speech style is seen as a factor affecting the impressions formed of speakers (Giles & Powesland, 1975; Lind, Erickson, Conley & O'Barr, 1976). Early studies have shown that the accent, dialect, or language that the speaker uses affects the impressions formed by the listeners (Lind et al., 1978). Lakoff (1975) stated that the more strongly and forcefully someone expresses opinions the more attentive listeners will be. Lakoff concluded that a speaker unable, for whatever reason, to be forceful in stating his or her views is much less likely to be taken seriously.

Communicators are rated differently as a consequence of linguistic features in their messages (Berryman, 1978; Erickson, Lind, Johnson & O'Barr, 1978; Kramer, 1974; Lakoff, 1975; Lind et al., 1978). Judgments are formed about people on the basis of superficial linguistic behavior that may have nothing to do with inner character (Lakoff, 1974).

Argyle, Salter, Nicholson, William & Burgess (1970) conjectured that much of communication involved in speech goes on at a nonverbal level, that is, how it is said rather than what is said. It appears there are two channels of communication, verbal and nonverbal (Argyle et al., 1970), which can function simultaneously. Argyle maintained that conscious attention is focused on the verbal while the nonverbal channel handles interpersonal matters, including

feedback on what is said. Nonverbal cues have more impact than the verbal (Argyle, 1969; Argyle et al., 1970), creating an immediate emotive response. Nonverbal aspects of speech include the timing of speech (Argyle, 1969; Cook, 1969; Rosnow & Robinson, 1967), the emotional tone of speech which can include speech, pitch, loudness, frequency distribution, and voice quality (Argyle, 1969; Argyle et al., 1970; Berryman, 1978; Crosby & Nyquist, 1977; Key, 1975; Kramer, 1974; Lakoff, 1975; Rosnow et al., 1967; Stogdill, 1974), speech errors (Argyle, 1969; Cook, 1969; Kasl & Mahl, 1965; Mehrabian & Williams, 1969), accents which may reflect national, regional, social class, education or occupational background (Argyle, 1969; Lind et al., 1978), and such things as head-nods, facial expressions, gestures, posture, and eye-movements (Argyle et al., 1970; Mehrabian et al., 1969; Rosa & Mazur, 1979). Dominance, submission (Argyle, 1969), uncertainty (Berryman, 1978; Kramer, 1974; Lakoff, 1975) and confidence (Stogdill, 1974) are clearly conveyed by tone of voice. Dominance is conveyed by a loud confident style and submission by a softer, nervous tone of voice (Argyle, 1969). Tones of voice communicate more clearly than bodily movements, but may be more controlled (Argyle, 1969).

Studies by Gitter, Black and Fishman (1975), Gitter, Black and Goldman (1975) and Gitter, Black and Walkley

(1976) investigated the role of nonverbal communication on the perception of leadership. In all three studies results were positive, showing an effect for nonverbal behavior. These researchers showed subjects tapes and asked them to rate the actor who was acting leader-like or nonleader-like. It was found that verbal communications too were related to person perception (Gitter, Black & Fishman, 1975).

Since 1974 there has been much published concerning what has become known as women's or females' language (Berryman, 1978; Crosby et al., 1977; Key, 1975; Kramer, 1974; Lakoff, 1975; Lind et al., 1978). These dealt mainly with sex role stereotypes and their effect on the language of females. Since women are supposed to be more person-oriented, interested in their own and each other's mental states and respective status their language needs and style would be different from those of men who are object-oriented and interested in things in the outside world (Lakoff, 1975). Some of the differences between female and male language which Lakoff noted included the use of hedges, tag questions, and certain intonational patterns. The use of hedges refers to words that convey the sense that the speaker is uncertain about what he is saying. Examples of hedges are "well," "y'know" and "kinda." Hedges are a way of avoiding stating an opinion directly and they give an out (Kramer, 1974). A tag question formation is midway between a yes-no question

and an outright statement. It is more confident than the former and less assertive than the latter. A tag question is used when the speaker is stating a claim, but lacks full confidence in the truth of that claim. For example, "John is here, isn't he?" The tag provides a means whereby the speaker can avoid committing himself and thereby avoid coming into conflict with the addressee. Lakoff suggested that the speaker may give the impression of not really being sure of himself, of looking to the addressee for confirmation, or of having no views of his own. The intonational pattern Lakoff described is one which has the form of a declarative answer to a question, and is used as such, but has the rising inflection typical of a yes-no question, as well as being especially hesitant. The effect, according to Lakoff, is as though the speaker were seeking confirmation though at the same time the speaker may be the only one who has the requisite information. An example, "What time will you be ready?" "Oh . . . about six o'clock?" At the extreme this could be taken as an unwillingness to assert an opinion (Lakoff, 1975).

Erickson et al. (1978) also found that speech styles could be identified which covaried with speaker social status and power. Frequent use of such linguistic features as intensifiers, hedges, hesitation forms, and questioning intonations were labeled "powerless" style whereas a

"powerful" style was characterized by less frequent use of these features. Erickson et al. extended what was called women's language. Results of an investigation on court trials showed the more powerful style resulted in greater attraction to the witness regardless of sex of subject or witness. The witness' credibility was also perceived as greater by the subject when a powerful style was used. Listeners may believe that a powerful style indicates that the speaker is confident about the positions stated in the communication which may in turn increase perceptions of the speaker's credibility. Erickson et al. stated that sociolinguistic examination revealed that the powerless style was closely linked to social power and status rather than to sex.

The present study simultaneously manipulated both the task-related functional behaviors and the language style of the appointed leader to examine their effects on the members' ratings of the leader's effectiveness. This was accomplished by training confederates to use a powerful and powerless language style and to use functional or nonfunctional behaviors during the group task. The definition of what constitutes functional behaviors is based upon Lord's (1977) interpretation of such behaviors (see Appendix A). The term powerless language style connotes the incorporation of speech disturbance patterns denoted by Cook (1969) and

Kasl and Mahl (1965) to be speech errors described as nonverbal and that designated to be woman's language by Lakoff (1975) and as powerless by Erickson et al. (1978) (see Appendix B). A powerful language style would be one that avoids the above listed aspects.

The prediction was that powerful language would be rated as more effective in leadership perceptions whether coupled with nontask or task facilitating conversation or not, and that the task facilitating style would be rated as more effective than the nontask style only when both were coupled with a powerless speech style. It was hypothesized that:

1. An appointed group leader using a powerful language style and task facilitating communications would be perceived by group members as being the most effective as compared to the other experimental conditions in which nonfunctional communications and/or powerless language style was substituted.

2. A powerful language style coupled with nontask conversation would be shown to be second in rated leader effectiveness.

3. A powerless language and task conversation would be more highly rated than powerless language and nontask conversation.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Design

Two experimental variables were arranged in a 2x2 factorial design. The first variable, task-related behaviors, consisted of (1) emitting behavior and conversation related to completing the task and (2) avoiding behavior and conversation that would be interpreted as task related. The second variable, language style, consisted of (1) using a powerful language style and (2) using a powerless language style. The dependent variable was the group members' perceptions of the effectiveness of their group leader as measured by a questionnaire.

Participants

Participants were 48 male and 49 female undergraduate students at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Participants received bonus credits in their psychology courses for participating in experiments. Subjects signed up for experiment times that were convenient for them. The mean age of the participants was 20 years.

Procedure

Participants signed a numbered attendance sheet and were introduced to each other as they arrived. When

everyone was present, the researcher explained that the task was organizational in nature and a leader would be chosen. The confederate of the experimenter was picked by using a random number table and bogus random assignment.

The participants seated themselves around the table in a small room with videotaping equipment set up. The instructions for the task were read to them and then left on the table. The task was taken from Experiences in Management and Organizational Behavior (Hall, Bowen, Lewicki & Hall, 1975) (see Appendix C). The task required approximately 35 minutes. The schedule for the task allowed four minutes for organizing a strategy followed by a twelve minute production run. Four minutes for reorganization and a second twelve minute production run finished the task.

There were sixteen groups lead by four group leaders, who were confederates of the researcher. Each group leader was trained in the four conditions and took part in four different group conditions. The four group settings were replicated four times with four different leaders, two male and two female. The four experimental conditions for this study were:

- Powerful language-style, task-related functional behavior.
- Powerless language-style, task-related functional behaviors.

- Powerful language-style, nontask behaviors.
- Powerless language-style, nontask behaviors.

At the end of the second production run the researcher returned with the questionnaires. Before she distributed these to the group she explained that others would review the tapes to observe what kind of behaviors occurred in the group. She told the group her interest was in comparing the group's perceptions with the observers' perceptions. The group was told that their careful consideration of responses was critical.

When the questionnaires were completed, members of the group were told their task scores. The confederate's identity was not revealed at this time. Subjects were debriefed later by mail or in their psychology class.

Dependent Variable

The questionnaire used in this study contained questions about different aspects of the group. Questionnaire items 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, and 16 were used as the scale of the group members' perceived effectiveness of the leader. The questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix D. A leader was rated as ineffective if the average of the members' ratings on the effectiveness scale was below 3.5 on a scale of 1 to 5.

After all sixteen conditions were completed, two observers reviewed the tapes to insure that the leaders used the correct language styles and conversation topics.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Reliability of Dependent Measure

An internal consistency analysis on the items of perceived effectiveness of the leader was performed using the Reliability procedure (SPSS Manual, Update 7-9, 1981). Cronbach's alpha was .89.

Ratings of Leader Effectiveness

The 95% confidence intervals for the means of the four conditions and for the total of the ratings was computed. The total confidence interval was 2.25 to 3.04. A condition mean above this was considered an effective rating and one below, an ineffective rating. Table 1 presents the confidence intervals for the means, the cell means, and the cell frequencies. Both functional conditions were rated as effective and both nonfunctional as ineffective.

The perceived effectiveness of the leader was analyzed using a 2x2x4 analysis of variance which assessed the effects of speech style, functional behavior, and the four leaders. The leader factor was included to check for experimenter effects. Whereas the language style and leader produced no significant differences, a significant main effect was obtained for functional behavior ($F = 27.30$,

Table 1
Confidence Intervals for the Means of the
Four Experimental Conditions

Condition	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval
Task--Powerful	23	3.78	1.88	0.39	2.97 to 4.59
Task--Powerless	25	3.40	2.00	0.40	2.57 to 4.22
Nontask--Powerful	23	2.04	1.79	0.37	1.26 to 2.82
Nontask--Powerless	26	1.46	1.30	0.25	0.93 to 1.99

df = 1/96, $p < .001$). There were no interactions. Table 2 is a summary of the 2x2x4 analysis of variance of the data.

Manipulation Check

To determine whether the confederates had correctly implemented the manipulations of the conditions, an analysis of the tapes of the sixteen groups was done by two reviewers. Their blind judgments of the manipulations used in each tape were compared. The coefficient kappa was used as an indicator of the proportion of agreement between the two raters after chance agreement had been removed from consideration (Tinsley & Weiss, 1974). Cohen's kappa can be calculated as $\text{kappa} = P_o - P_c / 1 - P_c$, where P_o is the proportion of ratings in which the two agree, and P_c is the proportion of ratings for which agreement is expected by chance. For the data in Table 3, which shows the data for two raters who each categorized 16 group conditions, the total proportion of agreement is .88 and the expected chance agreement is .26. A positive kappa value indicates a greater than chance agreement between the raters. The inter-rater agreement, using Cohen's kappa, was .84.

Table 2

Summary of Analysis of Variance of the Leaders'
Perceived Effectiveness Ratings

Source of Variance	df	M.S.	F
Task-Related Behaviors (Task)	1	81.7	27.30***
Language Style (Lang)	1	5.2	1.73
Leader (Ldr)	3	1.5	0.50
Task x Lang	1	.2	0.06
Task x Ldr	3	7.9	2.65
Lang x Ldr	3	2.3	0.78
Tast x Lang x Ldr	3	3.4	1.13
Error	81	2.9	

*** $\underline{p} < .001$

Table 3

Two Raters' Categorizations of Sixteen Experimental Manipulations

Rater B	Rater A				Total
	Task Behavior Powerful Style	Task Behavior Powerless Style	Nontask Behavior Powerful Style	Nontask Behavior Powerless Style	
Task Behavior Powerful Style	2*	0	1	0	3
Task Behavior Powerless Style	0	4*	0	0	4
Nontask Behavior Powerful Style	1	0	4*	0	5
Nontask Behavior Powerless Style	0	0	0	4*	4
Total	3	4	5	4	16

*Intended condition.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The most significant finding of this experiment was the differences in perceived effectiveness produced by the task-related functional or nonfunctional behaviors of the appointed leader. The topic of conversation produced highly significant differences in terms of the perception of effectiveness. In fact, the functional/nonfunctional manipulation accounted for 21% of the variance when the effectiveness scores were used as dependent variable data ($\omega^2 = .21$, Hays, 1973). The first hypothesis that the functional-powerful condition would have the highest mean rating was not confirmed since the 95% confidence interval for both functional conditions overlapped. The powerful/powerless language style manipulation resulted in a nonsignificant effect on effectiveness ratings, contrary to the second hypothesis, that the language style would be more of a determinant of the effectiveness rating than would the nonfunctional behavior of the leader. The third hypothesis that a powerless language style and task conversation would be more highly rated than a powerless style and nontask conversation could not be confirmed because the 95% confidence interval of the mean ratings of two nonfunctional conditions overlapped. In short, the failure to find

significant interactive effects precluded acceptance of any experimental hypothesis.

The implication is that the language style is not as critical a variable as earlier literature reported. Apparently group members attend more to what the leader actually contributes rather than to his or her speech style. Schneier and Bartol (1980) found no significant differences in the proportion of males and females to emerge as leaders in task groups through sociometric choice. This was contrary to earlier studies indicating that females are not widely viewed as having managerial ability (e.g., Baird & Bradley, 1979; Schein, 1973). Thornton and Freedman (1979) explained that changing sex role attitudes of women are making a difference in studies using college women. They speculated that higher education may in some way train women not to use powerless language which would hinder them. The present study offers an alternative explanation. In a managerial role, ability and functional behaviors may be more noted or have more valence for the raters than a poor speech style.

Erickson et al. found that the speech style manipulation affected the speaker's credibility and attractiveness and also the observers' acceptance of the information contained in the speaker's testimony. Erickson et al. included in the credibility scale: believe in the witness, how convincing

the witness was, how trustworthy the witness was, and how competent the witness was. Judgments of the witness as strong, active, likeable, intelligent, and powerful were used in the attractiveness scale. The credibility scale of Erickson et al.'s study and the effectiveness scale of the present study had only the perceived competence of the person being rated in common. Their very positive findings about the speech style are also at odds with the present study's findings. Two explanations for this discrepancy are offered. First, the Erikson et al. study used a script for the speakers. The present study allowed the leaders to use spontaneous conversation employing the powerless patterns. The script may have allowed for a stronger manipulation of the styles. Too, the conversation-style of this study may have allowed comparisons of other members' styles with the leader's causing the leader's not to be so obvious. A third idea is that less attention was paid to the leader's wording because members were formulating verbal responses in their minds. The second explanation lies in the difference in the constructs being measured. Erickson et al. was concerned with credibility while the present study measured perceived effectiveness. These perceptions of these constructs may be judged in entirely different ways by subjects. Also, the subjects in Erickson et al.'s study may not have had enough information to actually distinguish between the witnesses on

the attributes listed on the questionnaire. Interaction with the witnesses might have resulted in different ratings.

The present data do lend strong support to earlier findings of the importance of the leader's task-related behaviors. Group members seem to attend to what the leader is doing during the task and rate him or her appropriately.

Another leadership area that may be affected by speech style is emergent leadership. However, the issue of emergent leadership produces questions this study can not address. An appointed leader immediately triggers members' expectations. In a leaderless group situation many more aspects of the emerging leaders' behaviors and communications may be scrutinized. The concepts of powerful and powerless speech styles should not be readily dismissed. They are possibly powerful determinants of perceptions when a leader doesn't have legitimate power (i.e., having been appointed). A different approach than that used in this study may be more fruitful in finding an effect. The conversation style of manipulating the variable of speech style is subject to the individual differences of the leaders.

Though this study concerned a contrived task the subjects seemed highly motivated to do well in comparison with the other groups. In an even more ego-involving task situation (e.g., on the job) behaviors on the part of the

leader may become important to the members. As with any laboratory experiment using an undergraduate population the findings may lack generalizability. The present study does offer findings and suggestions that may be the basis for more research. It would not seem unreasonable to expect more work to be done in the area of the effect of speech style on person perception.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TASK-RELATED FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR

1. Developing orientation and defining problem.

Diagnosing or interpreting situations or problems; describing a task or problem; identifying sub-problems or specific needs; introducing new ideas.

2. Facilitating information exchange.

Asking for factual information, clarification, or repetition; clarifying others' comments; directing communications.

3. Facilitating evaluation and analysis.

Asking for or providing evaluations or analysis concerning paths to goals or goal attainment; abstractly exploring means to goals; analyzing interrelations among variables.

4. Developing plans.

Proposing plans concerning the task or interpersonal environment--procedural as well as task plans; suggesting general strategies for coping with a task, problem, or subproblem.

5. Proposing solutions.

Proposing complete or partial solutions.

6. Initiating behavior.

Requests for nonspecific action; behaviors with an activational rather than motivational connotation.

7. Coordinating or directing behavior.

Requesting specific actions; indicating where or when specific behaviors are to be performed; indicating roles to be played by particular group members; assigning members to subtasks.

8. Removing barriers or providing resources.

Explaining or showing others how to do a job or approach a problem; providing information relevant to carrying out actions; providing material resources; eliminating task or interpersonal obstacles.

APPENDIX B

POWERLESS LANGUAGE STYLE

1. Using 'er,' 'uh' and 'ah'
Example: "Well...ah...when I first came here."
2. Sentence change. An interruption in the flow of the sentence.
Example: "That was...it will be six months ago in May."
3. Repetition. The superfluous repetition of one or more words.
Example: "They were...they were fighting."
4. Stutter.
Example: "Sometimes he acts s...s...silly."
5. Omission. Parts of words or entire words may be omitted.
Example: "Her birth...fifteenth birthday is in June."
6. Sentence incompleteness. A sentence is interrupted and continues without correction.
Example: "I couldn't get the paper to...I had car trouble."
7. Tongue slips. Includes the substitution of an "unintended" word for an intended word and the transposition of entire words from their correct serial positions.
Example: "My died...cat died last week."

8. Intruding incoherent sound.
Example: "If I ever see a ghost...dh...I'll run."
9. Intensifiers such as 'so,' 'very,' and 'surely.'
Example: "I get so very nervous during tests."
10. Hedges such as 'kinda' and 'I think.'
Example: "I guess Mr. Smith is qualified."
11. Hesitation forms.
Example: "Well...I'll go if...you know...he goes."
12. Questioning forms. The use of rising question intonation on declarative contexts.
Example: "Will you please close the door?" for "Close the door."
13. Tag questions. Shortened questions added to the end of a declarative statement.
Example: "I said no, didn't I?"

APPENDIX C

GROUP TASK

Words-in-Sentences Company (WIS)

In this exercise you will form a mini-organization with several other people. The success of your company will depend on: (1) your objectives, (2) planning, (3) organization structure, and (4) quality control. It is important, therefore, that you spend some time thinking about the best design for your organization.

Directions

You are a small company that manufactures words and then packages them in meaningful (English language) sentences. Market research has established that sentences of at least three words but not more than six words each are in demand. Therefore, packaging, distribution, and sales should be set up for three- to six-word sentences.

The words-in-sentences industry is highly competitive; several new firms have recently entered what appears to be an expanding market. Since raw materials, technology, and pricing are all standard for the industry, your ability to compete depends on two factors: (1) volume, and (2) quality.

Task

Your group must design and participate in running a WIS company. You should design your organization to be as

efficient as possible during each 12-minute production run. After the first production run, you will have the opportunity to reorganize your company if you want to.

For each production run you will be given a 'raw material word or phrase.' The letters found in the word or phrase serve as the raw materials available to produce new words in sentences. For example, if the raw material word is 'organization,' you could produce the words and sentence: "Nat ran to a zoo."

Production Standards

1. The same letter may appear only as often in a manufactured word as it appears in the raw material word or phrase. For example, 'organization' has two O's, thus, 'zoo' is legitimate but 'zoonosis' is not. It has too many O's and S's.
2. Raw material letters can be used again in different manufactured words.
3. A manufactured word may be used only once in a sentence and in only one sentence during a production run; if a word--for example, 'a'--is used in a sentence, it is out of stock.
4. A new word may not be made by adding 's' to form the plural of an already used manufactured word.
5. A word is defined by its spelling, not its meaning.
6. Nonsense words or nonsense sentences are unacceptable.

7. All words must be in the English language.
8. Names and places are acceptable.
9. Slang is not acceptable.

Measured Performance

The output of your WIS company is measured by the total number of acceptable words that are packaged in sentences. The sentences must be legible.

Quality Control

If any word in a sentence does not meet the standards set forth above, all the words in the sentence will be rejected.

Schedule

- | | |
|-------------|------------------------------------|
| 4 minutes: | Organize the company |
| 12 minutes: | Production Run #1 |
| 4 minutes: | Evaluate or reorganize the company |
| 12 minute: | Production Run #2 |

Adapted from Experiences in Management and Organizational Behavior.

APPENDIX D

GROUP PROCESSES QUESTIONNAIRE

Age _____

Male _____ Female _____

For each statement, mark the answer which best describes your perceptions of the group, using the following response code:

SA -- Strongly Agree

A -- Agree

U -- Undecided

D -- Disagree

SD -- Strongly Disagree

1. I enjoyed this task.

SA A U D SD

2. The group atmosphere was cooperative.

SA A U D SD

3. Time was efficiently used in the task.

SA A U D SD

4. Mainly the group leader defined the problem.

SA A U D SD

5. Other members helped define the problem.

SA A U D SD

6. The group leader proposed good solutions.

SA A U D SD

7. Members proposed good solutions.
SA A U D SD
8. The leader tried to keep members working.
SA A U D SD
9. Members tried to keep members working.
SA A U D SD
10. The leader generally decided what should be done and how it should be done.
SA A U D SD
11. Members developed task plans.
SA A U D SD
12. The group leader maintained definite standards of performance.
SA A U D SD
13. Other members made a difference in getting the task done.
SA A U D SD
14. At times I felt impatient with the leader.
SA A U D SD
15. There was conflict in the group.
SA A U D SD
16. The leader allowed much time to be wasted in the group.
SA A U D SD
17. How many members actually made meaningful contributions to the task?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

18. If the researcher continues this study would you be willing to remain with this group?

Yes No

19. Would you desire a new group leader?

Yes No

20. Additional comments --

Scoring of Questionnaire:

For Questions 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12:

SA = 5

A = 4

U = 3

D = 2

SD = 1

Questions 14 and 16 are reversed scored.

To obtain the member's perception of the leader's effectiveness rating, average the responses for these questions.

An effective perception is an average above 3.5 and an ineffective rating is judged to be a number below 3.5.

VITA

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